Making Integration Work

REFUGEES AND OTHERS IN NEED OF PROTECTION

OECD

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OECD
BETTER POLICIES FOR BETTER LIVES

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Foreword

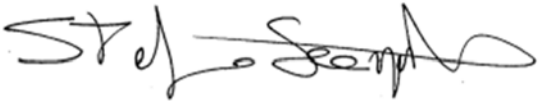
This booklet is the first of a new series of OECD publications entitled "Making Integration Work". The series summarises the main lessons from the OECD's work on integration policies, particularly the *Jobs for Immigrants* country reviews series. The objective is to summarise in a non-technical way the main challenges and good policy practices to support the lasting integration of immigrants and their children in the host countries.

This first booklet takes stock of the experiences of OECD countries in the integration of refugees and other groups in need of protection. It summarises this along ten main policy lessons with supporting examples of good practice. It also provides a comprehensive comparison of the policy frameworks that govern policy strategies for the integration of refugees and others in need of protection in OECD countries. Information about the different policy frameworks was gathered through a questionnaire sent to all the countries.

Further booklets will cover the assessment and recognition of foreign qualifications, the integration of young people with a migrant background, language training for adult migrants, and the integration of family migrants. The OECD developed these booklets with support from Germany (the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth), Norway (the Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion), Sweden (the Ministry of Employment) and the King Baudouin Foundation in Belgium.

Stefano Scarpetta
Director for Employment,
Labour and Social Affairs, OECD

Jean-Christophe Dumont
Head of International Migration Division,
Directorate for Employment, Labour
and Social Affairs, OECD



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Introduction

Why is the integration of refugees and other persons in need of international protection an important issue?

OECD countries are experiencing humanitarian migration on an unprecedented scale. In many of them, the number of refugees and other persons in need of international protection – including resettled refugees – is on the increase, although not to the same extent everywhere.[1] As a neighbouring country of Syria, Turkey has been most affected by the recent inflow of humanitarian migrants in the OECD.

Past experience and grim conditions in the main countries of origin make it likely that many migrants will settle, and integration systems and host communities have to contend with considerable challenges over and above the provision of adequate housing. Countries have to help refugees and their children find their place in the labour market, education system and society at large, though not at the expense of support for other disadvantaged groups, who include resident migrants and their children. Achieving that balancing act requires scaling up the provision of services such as accommodation, psychological support, language training and skills assessment, as well as access to education and health care. At the same time, countries often have to make trade-offs between what is desirable and what is feasible.

From the outset it is important to acknowledge that not everybody who applies for humanitarian migrant status obtains it. Essentially, therefore, the issue of integration concerns only those applicants who are granted humanitarian migrant status (Box 1). Some humanitarian migrants also arrive from third countries through resettlement programmes rather than the asylum channel. Resettlement is the main route into the OECD countries that were themselves settled by migration – e.g. Australia, Canada and the United States (Box 1 and Figure 1).

Box 1. Not everyone is a refugee

In public debate, the terms "asylum seeker", "refugee" and "migrant" are often used synonymously. However, it is important to distinguish between them.

The term "migrant" is a generic term for anyone moving to another country with the intention of staying for a certain period of time – not, in other words, tourists or business visitors. It includes both permanent and temporary migrants with a valid residence permit or visa, asylum seekers, and undocumented migrants who do not belong to any of the three groups.

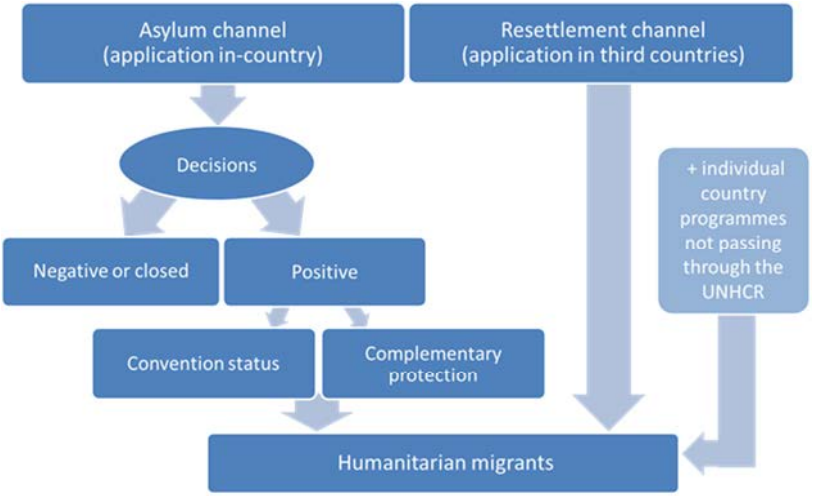
The UN defines a long-term migrant as a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months), so much so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence (United Nations, 1998). The OECD defines permanent migrants as people whose status enables them to stay in the host country under the circumstances that prevailed at the time they arrived (Lemaître et al., 2007). In this group, four broad categories may be distinguished: long-term migrants within a free-mobility zone, labour migrants, family migrants and humanitarian migrants.

The term "humanitarian migrant" refers to people who have successfully applied for asylum and have been granted some sort of protection – refugee or other status. It also includes migrants resettled through humanitarian programmes with the assistance of the UNHCR or through private sponsorship – often the case in Australia, Canada and the United States. For the sake of simplicity this booklet considers all recipients of protection – be it refugee status, subsidiary or temporary protection – to be humanitarian migrants. The terms "refugee", "people in need of protection" and "humanitarian migrant" are used interchangeably in this booklet.

"Asylum seekers" are people who have formally applied for asylum, but whose claim is pending. In practice, only a minority of asylum seekers are granted refugee or some other form of humanitarian migrant status, while the rest have to leave the country. If people remain after being denied humanitarian migrant status they become undocumented migrants.

There are also many people who do not file asylum claims, either because they do not wish to apply in the country through which they are transiting, because there is a long waiting list for applying for asylum (due to large inflows or understaffed asylum systems), or because they know their prospects of obtaining humanitarian migrant status are slim. These people are also considered undocumented migrants.

Figure 1. Humanitarian migrant flows



Source: OECD Secretariat, 2015.

For those who enter through the asylum channel there is a decision to be made on the duration and type of permit which humanitarian migrants obtain. There has been debate in a number of countries about the merits of temporary protection, which involves reassessing the situation in the country of origin after an initial period of time. Underlying the preference for temporary protection over permanent protection is the hope that it might facilitate returns and reduce inflows.

Migrants who are granted temporary protection, however, may feel that it conveys the message that they are not expected to stay. That sentiment may, in turn, lessen their motivation to fit into the host society and deter employers from hiring and training them. It is important to be aware of such trade-offs. Some countries have reacted by allowing some people to switch to work permits or by making employment one of the grounds for extending permits or converting them into permanent right of residence.

The type of permit granted to humanitarian migrants also has implications for family reunification, often restricting the rights of migrants with a temporary residence status to be joined by their families. Again, limitations on family reunification are widely designed to facilitate returns to countries of origin if the situation there improves. Alternatively, some countries may allow family migration only once the principal asylum applicant has settled into the labour market and

become self-sufficient. And when inflows are high, measures that postpone or restrict family reunification are also seen as a means of easing the pressure on host countries' integration systems. Equally, however, they may produce adverse effects on the integration prospects of family members, particularly where young children are involved (Lesson 1). Here, too, possible costs must be weighed against potential benefits.[2]

Humanitarian migrants face particular difficulties in joining the labour market

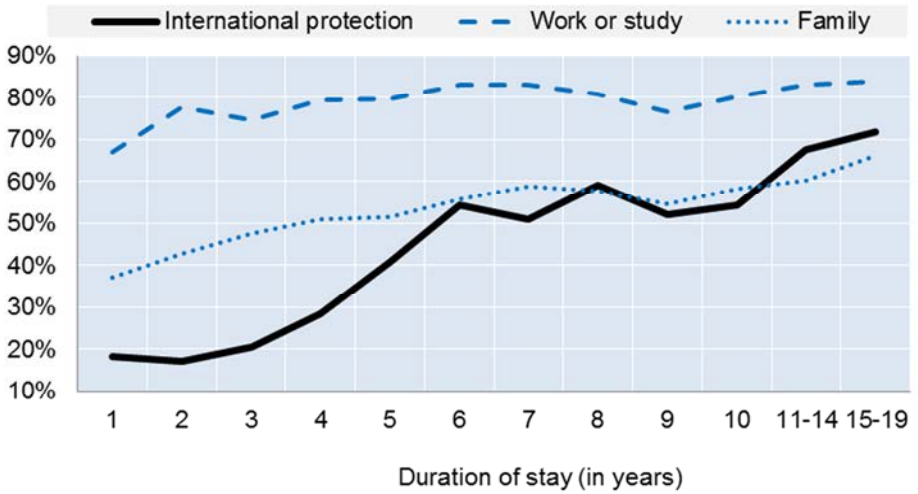
Humanitarian migrants are a particularly vulnerable group of immigrants who require clearly targeted, co-ordinated and comprehensive policy responses. Due to the forced nature of their migration and the traumatic experiences frequently associated with it, they often suffer from psychological distress and disabilities (Steel et al., 2009). They also face barriers over and above those encountered by other migrants in making the successful transition into employment. They generally arrive with weak, if any, attachment or link to the host country and have gained qualifications and work experience in very different labour market conditions. Moreover, many are not able to provide proper documentation that would certify their level of education or skills.

Not surprisingly, then, refugees find it particularly difficult to enter the local labour market and their outcomes generally lag well behind those of other migrant groups. Not only do they suffer from multiple disadvantages compared to other migrants groups (they have typically lower education levels and greater language difficulties), they also tend to perform less well in the labour market than other migrant groups who have otherwise similar characteristics (Damos de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

There is little information on the labour market outcomes of refugees. Evidence from a special module in the 2008 European Union Labour Force Survey and other sources suggests, nevertheless, that it takes most humanitarian migrants between five and six years, on average, to integrate into the workplace and catch up with family migrants (Figure 2).

There is, however, significant variation between countries and cohorts, and it is not uncommon that the labour market outcomes of specific groups of humanitarian migrants (e.g. the very low-skilled, older refugees, those traumatised by war) lag behind other immigrants for much longer. At the same time, evidence from OECD countries such as Norway (OECD, 2012a) suggests that most refugees take significantly less time to enter into employment when labour market conditions are good and strong support polices focused on labour market integration are in place.

Figure 2. Employment rate by immigrant category and duration of stay in European OECD countries, 2008



Source: European Union Labour Force Survey Ad Hoc Module on the Labour Market Situation of Migrants and their Immediate Descendants, 2008.

To respond to the growing diversity of humanitarian migrants integration offers need to be increasingly customised

Recent refugee cohorts have been increasingly diverse – in their countries of origin, educational attainment, resources, and family situation. Although many humanitarian migrants bring with them skills that can be used in the local labour market, their educational backgrounds vary widely, regardless of the countries from which they originate or in which they settle. A non-negligible share lacks the basic skills required to function in the host society. In Sweden, for example, more than 40% of the Syrian nationals who arrived in 2014 were educated to at least upper-secondary level. The proportion was only 20% among Afghans and 10% among Eritreans. Such disparities are an additional challenge to integration systems.

Similar disparities are to be found among resettled refugees. Those who arrive through UNHCR programmes have usually fled humanitarian emergencies and require specific support. Those who come through family and community sponsorship programmes also need support. However, they can usually rely on integration assistance from their sponsors and tend to be more socio-economically privileged.

Whether or not humanitarian migrants are able to contribute fully to the economies and societies of receiving countries depends to a great extent on how well integration policy measures are designed and implemented, and whether they factor in refugees' countries of origin, educational background and family situation. The scale and scope of measures vary according to the host country and, sometimes, the humanitarian migrant group, too (Box 2).

Box 2. The reception and settlement of humanitarian migrants

To which integration measures humanitarian migrants are eligible depends on a variety of factors, including the channel through which they arrive. For migrants coming through the asylum pathway, a key factor is the duration of the asylum application procedure itself, which can last up to several years in extreme cases. Accordingly, some countries already offer services, albeit generally limited, to people with claims pending (see Lesson 1). During that time, asylum seekers tend to be placed in reception centres although some may find housing themselves. In Germany, due to the large inflow of asylum seekers, in late 2015, there can also be a time lag between entry, initial registration, and formal registration as asylum seeker.

The granting of humanitarian status and thus a residence permit generally brings with it more stable accommodation for migrants and a change in the tier of government responsible for them, with local authorities (though not always) taking over and integration measures kicking in or intensifying. The scale and scope of measures range from a few hours of language training – as in most countries with small humanitarian inflows – to fully fledged multi-year integration programmes. Examples of such programmes are those in the Scandinavian countries which provide mostly state-run, tailor-made schemes that typically last for two to three years. When humanitarian migrants complete such schemes, the mainstream service providers take over as they are now deemed adequate to needs. OECD countries with no special programmes actually use mainstream instruments from the outset. Although they do not specifically target migrants, mainstream instruments – like courses for people with poor command of the host country's language – are often indirectly intended to meet migrants' needs.

When it comes to migrants who arrive through resettlement schemes, there is no initial registration or asylum processing phase. As a consequence, integration support generally starts immediately upon arrival. In some cases, resettled migrants already receive preparation prior to arrival.

The purpose of this booklet

This booklet takes stock of OECD countries' experiences in the integration of humanitarian migrants. It looks at ten lessons and examples of good practice to highlight ways in which policy makers can remove the chief barriers to and provide support for, the lasting integration of, humanitarian migrants. The booklet also compares access to, and the provision of, key integration instruments in OECD countries.

While integration systems have substantially improved in many countries in recent decades, much remains to be done to make sure that refugees become fully integrated members of society. Some countries have long-standing experience and advanced policies. Cases in point are the Scandinavian countries, where humanitarian migrants have made up much of the migration inflows for many years. Similarly, countries with large resettlement schemes, such as Canada and Australia, have built up extensive experience in the integration of resettled migrants. As for European countries with long histories of hosting humanitarian migrants, they struggle with the sheer scale and scope of recent migration, while for some Central and Eastern European countries the integration of humanitarian migrants is an entirely new experience. Regardless of where countries stand, though, the following ten lessons afford important insights into the design of policies to integrate humanitarian migrants.

Lesson 1

Provide activation and integration services as soon as possible for humanitarian migrants and asylum seekers with high prospects of being allowed to stay

WHAT and WHY? One of the most important lessons to be learned from OECD countries' experience in the integration of humanitarian migrants is that early intervention is crucial (OECD, 2014). Services that meet asylum seekers' urgent needs – such as accommodation, health and subsistence support – are widely available. Further measures beneficial to long-term integration may, however, be accessed only after long waiting times or by those who enjoy humanitarian migrant status. While resettled refugees generally have immediate access to all support measures, asylum seekers frequently have to wait months, if not years, before they receive language training and other integration support. And when they are eventually granted humanitarian status, their ability to integrate may have suffered long-term damage.

To ensure that activation and integration services can start as early as possible, it is crucial, first of all, to shorten the time needed to process applications for international protection. Where that is not feasible, countries may consider providing early assistance such as language and job-related training, civic integration courses and skills assessments in reception facilities. The beneficiaries would be humanitarian migrants awaiting stable accommodation and asylum seekers who have good prospects of being granted protection and allowed to stay.

WHO? The decision whether or not to extend integration services to specific groups of asylum claimants – and if so, to which groups – depends both on the host country's infrastructure and financial capacity to deliver upfront integration support and on the kind of asylum seekers it takes in. One option is to fast-track asylum seekers whose profile and country of origin make them either very unlikely or very likely to secure humanitarian status. Such an approach, however, tends to come at the expense of longer asylum procedures for other groups. If those other groups are of manageable size and the host country has the resources, it might consider providing early access to key integration measures like language courses.

Early intervention is particularly important where young children are involved. Their chances of doing well in school hinge on their ability to speak the host-country's language.[3] Every year lost before they enter school jeopardises their education outcomes. Research from a number of countries suggests that the same is true of pre-school education, with the age of three a critical threshold (OECD, 2006 and OECD, 2013).[4]

HOW? Upfront integration support frequently involves reaching out to people who reside in reception facilities. Facilities therefore need to work with integration service providers. However, they are often scattered across the country and services may not be locally available. Close co-ordination with mainstream services and NGOs is therefore particularly important.

Co-operation is also a requirement for ensuring continuity in integration. Where asylum seekers or humanitarian migrants have started language training or other preparatory integration measures in reception facilities, it is important to track and communicate activities undertaken and progress achieved. They will thus be able to resume where they left off once they are housed instead of having to start over. The same is true of skills assessments, which can be initiated and even completed in reception centres (see Lesson 4).

When it comes to information sharing between stakeholders, the Scandinavian countries are highly advanced with registration systems that ensure effective, generally automated documentation and communication. New arrivals, like any resident, receive a personal identification number which links the different administrative registers and gives them access to information on, for example, humanitarian migrants' residence status, education, employment and participation in programmes.

Germany has recently decided to introduce an ID card specifically for asylum seekers and humanitarian migrants. After registering for the first time in a government office, the card becomes the central and obligatory means of identification for them. The card is to be linked to a central database that contains information – such as a person's health, educational background and professional experience – to which all authorities and service providers have access.

Across the OECD, there are currently wide disparities in the time it takes to process applications for protection on humanitarian grounds. Some countries take no more than two to three months, while in others applicants may have to wait for almost a year for a decision in the first instance (Table 1). Because of the sheer length of waiting times, some countries make certain integration services available to asylum seekers, although they tend to be restricted to basic language training (Table 1). Norway, for example, offers up to 250 hours of language training to asylum seekers residing in reception centres. In 2014, 40% of the eligible asylum seekers took up the provision. Other integration measures start with recognition of status.

Since November 2015, Germany has opened its induction courses (600 hours of language training and 60 of civic education) to asylum seekers from countries with high recognition rates. Switzerland runs basic language training courses for asylum

seekers in asylum centres, though availability varies. Other countries providing upfront language training for asylum seekers include Denmark, Poland, Slovenia, Sweden and the United States.

Occasionally, language training for asylum seekers is backed up by adult education and civic integration courses, job-related training and, though more rarely, by skills assessments. Spain, for example, offers all five services to asylum seekers. As for Belgium, in addition to language training, it offers asylum seekers in reception facilities basic skills assessments and a range of other classes, including information technology training. They may also take part in literacy, language and adult education classes outside reception facilities. If they are in a reception centre in Wallonia, they can join the civic integration programme for humanitarian migrants on filing their asylum claim. In Flanders, they may do so four months thereafter.

As for Italy, asylum seekers are entitled to personalised integration support that comprises language training, ten hours of adult education per week, and civic integration classes. About one in four asylum seekers took up integration support in 2014. It is provided by local providers in co-operation with civil society organisations. Asylum seekers may sign up to courses after the initial reception phase in regional hubs where they are registered and undergo a health assessment.

In a number of other countries – such as Estonia, Germany, Greece, Luxembourg and Turkey – asylum seekers are also eligible for integration support that goes further than mere language training, although courses may not always be available.

Table 1. Integration support for asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2015 or latest available year

	Language training	Adult education combined with long-term language training	Skills assessment	Civic education	Job-related training	Average duration of asylum procedure (to decision in first instance)
Australia	No (except for Illegal Maritime Arrival adults in Community Detention or holding a Bridging Visa type E)	No	No	No	No	n.a.
Austria	No	No	No	Yes (in Vienna)	No	6 months
Belgium	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	2.5 months (based on 2014 and beginning of 2015)
Canada	No	No	No	No	No	4 months for new cases (filed after Dec 2012)
Chile	No	No	No	No	No	9 months
Czech Republic	No	No	No	No	No	4 months
Denmark	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	2.5 months
Estonia	Yes	No	No	No	Yes (after 6 months access to regular labour market services)	3.5 months
Finland	Yes	No	No (but planned)	Yes	No	5.2 months
France	No	No	No	No	No	7 months
Germany	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	5.3 months
Greece	Yes (but not systematic)	Yes	No	No	Yes (but not systematic)	2.9 months
Hungary	No	No	No	No (but some NGOs provide it)	No	3.5 months
Italy	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	3.5 months
Japan	No	No	No	No	No	7 months
Luxembourg	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	10.5 months
Mexico	No	n.a.	No	n.a.	n.a.	2.5 months

Table 1. Integration support for asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2015 or latest available year *(cont.)*

	Language training	Adult education combined with long-term language training	Skills assessment	Civic education	Job-related training	Average duration of asylum procedure (to decision in first instance)
Netherlands	No (only provided by volunteers)	No	No	No	No	Approx. 6 months in the majority of cases (5-6 months waiting period + 14 days processing)
New Zealand	No	Yes (but only for asylum seekers with student visas)	No	No	No (but some NGOs provide it)	4.4 months
Norway	Yes	No	No	No	No	2.7 months (median)
Poland	Yes	No	No	No	No	6 months
Portugal	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	6 months
Slovenia	Yes	No	No	No	No	2.9 months
Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	n.a.
Sweden	Yes	No	No	No	No	7.5 months
Switzerland	Yes	No	No (but planned)	No (except in some regions / reception centres)	No	9.9 months
Turkey	Yes (conditional on holding an Intern. Protection Applicant Identity Document with identification number)	No	No (except for specific professions)	No	Yes (in textile, computer and internet use, handcrafts, hairdressing, agriculture, animal breeding)	n.a. but applications shall be finalised within 6 months by law
United Kingdom	No	n.a.	No	No	No	n.a. (approx. 85% of cases are treated within 6 months)
United States	Yes (not systematic)	No	No	No	No	n.a.

Note: n.a. = information not available.

Source: OECD questionnaire on the integration of humanitarian migrants 2015; OECD questionnaire on language training for adult migrants 2015.

Lesson 2

Facilitate labour market access for asylum seekers with high prospects of being allowed to stay

WHAT and WHY? The earlier migrants enter the labour market, the better their integration prospects in the long run. Where legal barriers are in their way, though, they risk resorting to informal work. As a result, their skills and experiences may depreciate and the resulting gaps in their employment history in the host country can produce later severe scarring effects. And having humanitarian migrants on the dole is also costly to the public purse.

Many OECD countries grant most humanitarian migrants stable residence status which immediately gives them full labour market access. For asylum seekers, there is a trade-off, however. Granting migrants the unconditional right to work may leave the asylum channel prone to abuse by those seeking a job rather than international protection. In response, most countries have moved to restrict access to the labour market either to asylum seekers from groups with a high chance of recognition, for example, or only after an initial waiting period (Table 2). Overall, though, countries have significantly eased labour market access for humanitarian migrants and asylum seekers in recent years.

WHO? Full labour market access should be granted to all humanitarian migrants and their families, as all refugees do under the Geneva Convention. It should also be (and usually is) granted to people who benefit from subsidiary (temporary) protection. The real issue, however, is whether or not asylum seekers should be allowed to work. Here, the answer is conditioned by a number of provisos.

First, the issue is pertinent only where asylum claim procedures are long. Otherwise, inactivity has little impact on integration prospects and asylum seekers can use the short time between application and recognition to take up initial measures designed to help them integrate. Second, countries should grant labour market access only to asylum seekers with good prospects of being allowed to stay – particularly those who originate from countries with very high recognition rates (where at least three out of four applicants obtain humanitarian migrant status, for example). Third, where asylum seekers do have the right to work, they may do so only on certain conditions (e.g. when an initial waiting period has elapsed) or after meeting certain conditions (e.g. undergoing a labour market test).

HOW? In most OECD countries, humanitarian migrants are bound by the same labour market rights and obligations as nationals. In some, albeit only a few, restrictions are still in place for temporarily admitted humanitarian migrants. They

range from a comprehensive work ban in Japan to one on self-employment in Sweden and labour market tests for humanitarian migrants with certain types of temporary protection in Austria. Making labour market access conditional on tests requires employers to prove that no domestic worker could have filled the position in question. Although tests can be a tool for managing the admission of labour migrants, they are an obstacle to humanitarian migrants entering the workplace and can adversely affect subsequent integration outcomes.

As far as asylum seekers are concerned, almost all countries have decided to grant access to the labour market to some groups of applicants on certain conditions (Table 2). Most countries impose a prior waiting period, which ranges from up to one month in Portugal to 12 months in the United Kingdom (Table 2). Exceptions are Australia, Canada, Chile, Greece, Mexico, Norway and Sweden, where some asylum seekers can work as soon as they have filed their asylum claims although other obstacles may apply, such as a labour market test, for example in Greece.

With the exception of Chile, Italy, Mexico and Portugal, all the countries that grant permission to work at a relatively early stage in the asylum claim procedure have introduced conditions. The Scandinavian countries, for example, use labour market access as an incentive for asylum seekers to co-operate in the application procedure. Finland shortens the waiting period for those with valid IDs, while Norway[5] and Sweden predicate labour market access on valid documents or asylum seekers actively assisting in obtaining them.

A number of other countries – like Austria, Germany, Hungary, Luxembourg and Switzerland – use labour market tests and waiting periods. The practice is intended to provide a safeguard against abuse of the asylum channel for economic motives and to limit any negative impact on employment among the domestic workforce. That being said, tests may also deter employers reluctant to do the necessary paperwork and add to administrative overheads. Germany's response has been to waive labour market tests after 15 months of residence – except for asylum seekers from safe countries of origin who are not allowed to work (Table 2).

A few countries restrict labour market access to sectors, like agriculture, where no negative impact on the domestic workforce is likely (Table 2). Where access is confined to employment in low-skilled, low-paid sectors, asylum seekers may find it difficult to leave and move on to better jobs. As a result, those with good skills might suffer from lasting over-qualification. It is important to ensure that low-skilled employment does not prevent humanitarian migrants from making the best use of their skills.

Table 2. Labour market access for asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2015

	Labour market access	Labour market access is subject to …		
		Waiting period from filing asylum claim	Labour market test	Restriction to sectors
Australia	Yes (bridging visa type E)	No	No	No
Austria	Yes	Yes (3 months)	Yes	Yes (tourism and agriculture and apprenticeships in shortage occupations)
Belgium	Yes	Yes (4 months)	No	No
Canada	Yes	No (except for certain origin countries)	No	No
Chile	Yes	No	No	No
Czech Republic	Yes	Yes (6 months)	No	No
Denmark	Yes	Yes (6 months)	No	No
Estonia	Yes	Yes (6 months)	No	No
Finland	Yes	Yes (3 months with a valid ID, 6 otherwise)	No	No
France	Yes	Yes (9 months)	No	No (except public sector and some legal professions)
Germany	Yes (except for certain origin countries)	Yes (3 months)	Yes (waived after 15 months and for highly skilled jobs and shortage occupations)	No
Greece	Yes	No (conditional on delivery of temporary work permit)	Yes	No
Hungary	Yes	Yes (9 months)	Yes	No
Italy	Yes	Yes (2 months)	No	No
Japan	Yes	Yes	No	No
Luxembourg	Yes	Yes (9 months)	Yes	No
Mexico	Yes	No	No	n.a.
Netherlands	Yes (24 out of 52 weeks)	Yes (6 months)	No	No
New Zealand	Yes (but subject to a work visa)	No	No	No
Norway	Yes (but several formal requirements)	No (but asylum interview is a prerequisite)	No	No
Poland	Yes	Yes (6 months)	No	No
Portugal	Yes	Yes (1 month)	No	No
Slovenia	Yes	Yes (9 months)	No	No
Spain	Yes	Yes (6 months)	No	No
Sweden	Yes (only for asylum seekers with valid IDs)	No	No	No

Table 2. Labour market access for asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2015 *(cont.)*

	Labour market access	Labour market access is subject to …		
		Waiting period from filing asylum claim	Labour market test	Restriction to sectors
Switzerland	Yes (regional discretion)	Yes (3 months)	Yes	No
Turkey	Yes	Yes (6 months)	Yes	Yes (certain professions are accessible only to Turkish nationals)
United Kingdom	Yes	Yes (12 months)	Yes	Yes (only permitted for occupations in the shortage occupations list)
United States	Yes	Yes (5.9 months)	No	No

Note: n.a. = information not available.

Source: OECD questionnaire on the integration of humanitarian migrants 2015.

Lesson 3
Factor employment prospects into dispersal policies

WHAT and WHY? Local labour market conditions on arrival are a crucial determinant of lasting integration (Åslund and Rooth, 2007). In areas where jobs are readily available, labour market integration is faster and easier. It is thus important to avoid situations in which new arrivals are placed in areas where cheap housing is available but labour market conditions are poor.

Many governments seek to distribute – or disperse – asylum seekers and humanitarian migrants in locations evenly across the country. The aim is to reduce the risk of segregation and facilitate access to appropriate housing, while sharing costs more fairly nationwide. While the dispersed accommodation of asylum seekers is less of an issue for their future, where humanitarian migrants are housed often determines their integration prospects. This is the case when humanitarian migrants stay in the dispersal areas to which they were originally sent – either because they choose to do so or because moving penalises them when social benefit entitlements are conditional on residence in the dispersal community.

To settle recent entrants and their children in municipalities where labour market conditions are favourable, some OECD countries have developed specific employment-related dispersal policies for migrants with humanitarian status. Ideally, policies should take into consideration migrants' individual profiles and their integration prospects in local communities (Table 3b). However, with the recent surge in the numbers of humanitarian migrants arriving in many European OECD countries, the shortage of adequate housing has become a real challenge. As a result, the supply of housing often outweighs other concerns in practice.

WHO? Dispersal can mean different things: the initial assignment of asylum seekers to a reception centre or the transfer of recognised humanitarian migrants from reception centres to municipalities for settlement and integration. In countries with large resettlement programmes, such as Canada and Australia, the term may also refer to the regional settlement of government-assisted quota refugees.[6] While several OECD countries have some sort of mechanism in place for regionally apportioning asylum seekers (Table 3a), the dispersed settlement of recognised humanitarian migrants is somewhat less common (Table 3b). In practice, however, migrants may stay in the areas to which they were initially assigned as asylum seekers.

Policies that factor in humanitarian migrants' prospects of integration in the local labour market are particularly important in countries with wide regional disparities

in labour market conditions and skills needs. Moreover, it is particularly important to avoid concentrations of poorly educated migrants, particularly families with school-age children, in certain areas. Concentrations of pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds can considerably impair school performance (OECD, 2012b; OECD/European Union, 2015).

HOW? Of those countries that operate dispersed housing schemes for humanitarian migrants, most have focused on criteria other than labour market integration – chiefly the prevention of further concentration in already immigrant-dense urban areas. Other widely used criteria include the supply of housing and the presence of friends or relatives.[7]

In contrast, targeted dispersal strategies based on humanitarian migrants' skills and their prospects of entering the local labour market are relatively rare. Estonia, Denmark, Finland, New Zealand, Portugal and Sweden are among the few OECD countries that have incorporated employment-related elements into their dispersal schemes for humanitarian migrants. In Sweden, for example, where dispersal is regulated through agreements between municipalities and central government, new arrivals are systematically informed of job opportunities in meetings with the public employment service upon reception of their residence permit. Public employment offices consider migrants' education levels and work experience, local employment rates, the locality's size, its concentrations of foreign-born people and the availability of housing. They then place migrants in localities that match their profile. Obviously, such practice is not always feasible in situations of very high inflows.

In New Zealand, where the bulk of refugees arrive through resettlement programmes and many are low skilled, getting them into employment is a key plank of the country's new settlement strategy. Dispersal is determined primarily by the presence of family or ethnic communities. However, employment and educational opportunities – based on a prior skills assessment – are considered when there is a choice between two or more possible resettlement areas, or when a migrant has secured employment before leaving the reception centre. Norway, for its part, is currently developing a fast-track skills assessment procedure that helps disperse humanitarian migrants from reception facilities to towns that match their professional profile. The plan is to implement the procedure nation-wide in 2016.[8]

A related question is that of intra-regional dispersal. Even where humanitarian migrants are distributed country-wide on the basis of local labour market conditions (among other criteria), there may be significant differences in

employment prospects within regions. As a result, some communities in the same region may end up hosting more refugees than others and – a practical obstacle – there may not be enough housing. Moreover, the issue of compensation may arise, although one way of addressing it could be through financial incentives to encourage municipalities to host refugees and integrate them well (Lesson 9).

There is obviously a delicate balance to be struck between the goal of settling humanitarian migrants evenly across the country and within regions and that of lasting labour market integration. That being said, labour market integration should be an element in the decision, as the costs of neglecting it can be significant. Evidence from Sweden and Denmark suggests that when the design of humanitarian migrant dispersal policies overlooks employment-related factors, migrants' employment prospects may be badly affected and they may have to put up with lower employment rates and wages for many years after initial settlement (Damm and Rosholm, 2005; Edin et al., 2004).

Findings from Sweden reveal that, eight years after settlement, refugees who had been dispersed to areas on the grounds of available housing earned 25% less on average, showed employment levels that were 6 to 8 percentage points lower, and were 40% more welfare dependent than refugees who were not settled through a dispersal policy (Edin et al., 2004). Moreover, where dispersal policies do not take labour market conditions into account, migrants who leave the area to which they were originally assigned boast, on average, better labour market outcomes than those who stay. The inference is that much can be gained from not penalising the so-called "secondary migration" of refugees wherever it is job-related (Anderson and Solid, 2003; Stewart, 2011).[9]

Altogether, when countries settle humanitarian migrants through dispersal policies, they would do well to bear in mind employment-related factors – which include migrants' individual profiles, local labour market conditions and, ideally, specific local shortage occupations (Lesson 9). Nevertheless, employment-related dispersal may well entail considerable upfront costs related to the provision of new housing in certain designated areas. Plainly, other criteria, particularly the housing supply and provision of integration services, should remain important elements in countries' dispersal decisions. Moreover, in the event of large inflows, employment-based dispersal tends to become increasingly difficult to implement and finance. However, wherever countries do have a choice, they should pay close attention to the employment issue.

Table 3a. Dispersal of asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2015

	Deliberate dispersal policy for asylum seekers	Dispersal criteria	Can asylum seekers stay in individually arranged housing?
Australia	No	/	Yes (in some circumstances)
Austria	Yes	· Size of municipality	Yes
Belgium	Yes	· Family and health situation of asylum seeker · Knowledge of national languages · Number of inhabitants and share of immigrants in municipality	Yes (but they are no longer entitled to financial assistance)
Canada	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Chile	No	/	n.a.
Czech Republic	No	/	Yes
Denmark	No	/	Yes (after 6 months)
Estonia	No	/	Yes (if they have sufficient financial means)
Finland	Yes	· Willingness of community to receive asylum seekers · Availability of places in the reception centres	Yes
France	Yes	n.a.	No
Germany	Yes	· Fixed quota according to tax revenue and size of population ("Königstein Key")	Yes (only under certain conditions)
Greece	No	/	No
Hungary	Yes	· Family situation of asylum seeker	Yes (if they can be accommodated by family or friends or have the necessary resources)
Ireland	Yes	· Asylum seeker population in centres as a percentage of the Health Service Executive (HSE) area	Yes (but they are no longer entitled to [financial] assistance)
Italy	Yes (only for asylum seekers without financial resources, who formally request accommodation in reception facilities)	· Even dispersal · Availability of places · Asylum seeker profile · Integration prospects · Voluntary participation of municipalities in the call of tender (SPRAR network)	Yes
Japan	No	/	Yes
Luxembourg	No (but attempts to avoid concentrations of asylum seekers from the same country or region of origin)	/	Yes (but only under exceptional circumstances and with the asylum seeker contributes financially)
Netherlands	No	/	No

Table 3a. Dispersal of asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2015 *(cont.)*

	Deliberate dispersal policy for asylum seekers	Dispersal criteria	Can asylum seekers stay in individually arranged housing?
New Zealand	No	/	Yes
Norway	Yes	· Available offers of suitable asylum centres through public tender	Yes (but they are no longer entitled to cash benefits)
Poland	Yes	· Cost of housing (45%) · Additional local conditions (20%) · Number of inhabitants and unemployment rate in municipality (15%) · Housing supply (15%) · Distance from the Office for Foreigners (5%)	No
Portugal	Yes	· Housing supply in dispersal area · Willingness of community to host migrants · Size of municipality · Cost of living in dispersal area · Concentration of foreign-born/humanitarian migrants in dispersal area ·Employment prospects for individual in dispersal area · Availability of language courses	Yes
Slovak Republic	No (not systematic)	/	Yes (but they are no longer entitled to [financial] assistance)
Slovenia	Yes (not systematic)	/	Yes
Spain	No	/	Yes (and in exceptional cases the costs of rented accommodation may be covered)
Sweden	Yes (if asylum seekers cannot find accommodation on their own)	· Negotiation between regional governments and municipalities based on a four-year prognosis drawn from national statistics and assumed recognition / refusal ratio	Yes

Table 3a. Dispersal of asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2015 *(cont.)*

	Deliberate dispersal policy for asylum seekers	Dispersal criteria	Can asylum seekers stay in individually arranged housing?
Switzerland	Yes	· Population in the region (even distribution between regions) · Availability of reception facilities in the region · Presence of family members · Presence of ethnic communities (to avoid concentrations of nationalities) · Individual reception needs	Yes
Turkey	Yes	· Family and health situation of asylum seeker · Number of inhabitants and share of immigrants in municipality	Yes
United Kingdom	Yes	· Supply of housing (generally outside London) · Cultural fit of asylum seekers · Capacity of support services · Local housing strategies · Risk of increasing social tension	Yes (but individually arranged accommodation is not paid for)
United States	No	/	Yes

Note: n.a. = information not available; / = not applicable.

Source: European Migration Network (2013), Ad-Hoc Query on allocation of refugees to municipalities for integration purposes and OECD questionnaire on the integration of humanitarian migrants 2015.

Table 3b. Dispersal of humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015

	Are humanitarian migrants assigned to a municipality or region after recognition of their status?	Dispersal criteria considered
Australia	Yes	· Presence of relatives / community networks · Availability of key social services
Austria	No (unless still in "basic welfare" housing)	· Size of municipality
Belgium	No	/
Canada	Yes (only for government-assisted refugees)	· Presence of family members
Chile	No	/
Czech Republic	No	/
Denmark	Yes	· Municipality's proportion of immigrants · Individual employment prospects
Estonia	Yes	· Migrant's state of health · Place of residence of relatives (blood or marriage) · Housing conditions · Employment opportunities · Concentration of humanitarian migrants · Other significant circumstances

Table 3b. Dispersal of humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015 *(cont.)*

	Are humanitarian migrants assigned to a municipality or region after recognition of their status?	Dispersal criteria considered
Finland	Yes	· Willingness of municipality to receive humanitarian migrants · Availability of housing · Availability of integration services (language courses) · Employment prospects · Ethnic groups present in municipality (for resettled migrants)
France	No	/
Germany	No (except for resettled migrants for whom the place of residence is generally fixed for as long as they depend on social welfare)	For resettled migrants: Quota based on tax revenue and population ("Königstein Key"); family ties are also taken into account as far as possible
Greece	No	/
Hungary	No	/
Italy	No	/
Japan	No	/
Luxembourg	Yes	· Supply of housing in dispersal area · Willingness of community to host migrants · Size of municipality
Netherlands	Yes	· Number of expected admittances · Population of the municipality
New Zealand	Yes (only for quota refugees)	· Presence of family members or ethnic communities · Regional settlement support capacity (Red Cross) · Employment opportunities · Supply of housing · Availability of special services · Availability of health care services · Long term community development · Future refugee quota intake compositions
Norway	Yes	· Willingness of municipalities to host migrants
Poland	No	/
Portugal	Yes	· Housing supply in dispersal area · Willingness of community to host migrants · Size of municipality · Cost of living in dispersal area · Concentration of foreign-born/humanitarian migrants in dispersal area · Employment prospects for individual in dispersal area · Availability of language courses
Slovak Republic	Yes	· Availability of language courses
Slovenia	Yes (for those who chose to stay in publicly arranged "integration houses" rather than private housing)	· Availability of housing
Spain	No	/

Table 3b. Dispersal of humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015 *(cont.)*

	Are humanitarian migrants assigned to a municipality or region after recognition of their status?	Dispersal criteria considered
Sweden	Yes	· Availability of housing · Size of municipality · Concentration of foreign-born and/or humanitarian migrants in dispersal area · Employment rate · Individual employment prospects
Switzerland	No (migrants remain in the dispersal area to which they were assigned as asylum seekers but can request to change this area)	/
Turkey	No	/
United Kingdom	·No for those who went through the asylum procedure (access to social housing is restricted to the dispersal area that they were allocated to as asylum seekers but in practice migrants can move to another area and still access services) ·Yes for resettled refugees	For resettled refugees: ·Willingness of local authority to be part of resettlement scheme · Refugees' individual needs and availability of relevant services (e.g. specialist medical care)
United States	Yes (only for the initial location of resettled migrants)	· Community consultations · Local cultural and linguistic capacities to provide services · Approval of an annual resettlement plan by the Department of State's Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration

Note: n.a. = information not available; / = not applicable.

Source: OECD questionnaire on the integration of humanitarian migrants 2015.

Lesson 4

Record and assess humanitarian migrants' foreign qualifications, work experience and skills

WHAT and WHY? Humanitarian migrants are not a random selection of the population in their countries of origin. Their journeys are often costly, so incomers who arrive through the asylum channel are seldom among the poorest. They also tend to be more highly skilled than the general population back home. However, across the OECD, local employers broadly discount qualifications from non-OECD countries and dismiss work experience almost completely (Damos de Matos and Liebig, 2014).

Humanitarian migrants may be worse affected than other migrants, as they generally come from countries with education, training systems and labour markets that are substantially different from those in the host country. To complicate matters still further, many humanitarian migrants have no proof of their qualifications or had their studies cut short by persecution or war. As a consequence, refugees with foreign credentials find themselves unemployed or overqualified more often than other groups of migrants (ibid.).

To make better use of the human capital of humanitarian migrants and to ensure that integration pathways meet their individual needs closely enough (Lesson 5), it is essential to take stock of the skills that they bring with them. To that end, it is important that their foreign qualifications and skills are assessed and recognised swiftly and effectively and – if need be – alternative assessment methods should be used when there is no documentary proof of qualifications.

WHO? Having their foreign qualifications and skills recorded and assessed is vital for all adult humanitarian migrants, including those asylum seekers who are allowed to work. Depending on the level and type of qualifications that they bring with them, two broad kinds of assessment procedures can be distinguished.

1. For humanitarian migrants with professional skills acquired chiefly through work experience or informal learning, recognition of prior learning (RPL) techniques are used. They comprehensively map skills that may then be showcased to potential employers to allay any misgivings they have as to humanitarian migrants' abilities.
2. Formal recognition can be useful for humanitarian migrants with foreign post-secondary education and vocational or tertiary degrees. Highly educated migrants run a high risk of over-qualification unless formal recognition compares their credentials with and "translates" them into their domestic equivalents. Formal recognition may sometimes be partial or find that foreign degrees are equivalent to a lower level domestic degree. Nevertheless it makes skills more transparent to employers.

HOW? To unlock refugees' full skills potential and identify appropriate integration support, countries should systematically document, assess and – where possible and appropriate – recognise newcomers' educational qualifications, skills and work experience at the outset of the integration process. When it comes to asylum seekers, documentation and assessment should ideally happen during the asylum claim procedure – at least for those who can access the labour market. It is no easy task, however. Practitioners report that asylum seekers do not always describe their skills accurately, particularly when they feel that what they say may affect their chances of obtaining asylum.

Many countries have incorporated elements of skills assessment into their integration programmes for humanitarian migrants, but few have done so systematically. Even less provide such services – whether RPL or formal recognition of credentials – for asylum seekers still going through the claim procedure (Table 4).

Although most OECD countries offer an RPL provision, immigrants – including refugees – are often underrepresented among those assessed. This is unfortunate, as RPL is frequently the only way to ascertain the professional competencies of refuges with little or no formal schooling. However, it is also valuable for degree-holding humanitarian migrants who have no copy of their qualifications and are unable to supply alternative forms of documentary proof.

Public employment services typically carry out RPL assessments in collaboration with competent professional organisations and employers (Lesson 8). Methods of assessing prior learning vary from country to country and across professions. Generally, though, they are combinations of structured interviews, aptitude tests, exams, workplace observation, practical demonstration of skills in simulation scenarios, and reviews of work samples. Examples of countries with special RPL procedures for refugees with no documentary proof of their qualifications include Australia, Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom. However, few of those countries offer such skills assessments on a large scale and they can be time-consuming (Box 3).

RPL is a relatively quick, cost-effective means of identifying individual needs for further training. It is also a way of preventing training courses from duplicating the skills or knowledge of humanitarian migrants whose foreign qualifications are not found to be equivalent to domestic ones. In such cases, RPL can be incorporated into bridging programmes to allow migrants to fill the skills gaps that prevent them from obtaining a domestic degree or licence needed to exercise a particular occupation in the host country. In Sweden, for example, the social partners and the public employment service have put in place a streamlined integration package to

fast-track humanitarian migrants into a number of shortage occupations. The scheme combines elements of RPL (early mapping, the translation of credentials, on-the job skills assessment and knowledge tests) with customised bridging programmes that include vocational language training. On completing the scheme, participants are awarded an occupational certificate or credential.

As with RPL, the provision of formal credential recognition procedures often encounters low take-up and is inaccessible to people with no proof of their degrees. To overcome barriers related to the absence of official documents, formal qualification assessment providers offer a range of alternative methods. Where official transcripts cannot be obtained due to school closures, war, or natural disaster, they may rely on alternative forms of documentary proof that include:

- affidavits in which applicants describe their situation and knowledge
- endorsements from professional associations
- testimonies from instructors
- other evidence of enrolment in an education establishment – e.g. published lists of registered students, student IDs, text books and other study material, notifications of attendance for state examinations, proof of tuition fee payment, and proof of professional status.

Some countries of origin, including Nigeria and Pakistan, have put in place online verification services which can be used to check whether their nationals hold degrees (WES, 2012). Where no such alternative forms of proof are available, RPL – possibly combined with bridging – remains the most effective solution.

There often seems to be a trade-off between rapid, systematic skills assessments and formal, in-depth recognition procedures. However, the two can be reconciled. For asylum seekers with good prospects of being allowed to stay, a swift mandatory mapping of their skills and experience can be carried out early in the asylum claim procedure. It makes it easier for those eligible to work to find a job, helps to identify appropriate integration programmes (e.g. vocation-specific language courses and targeted job-related training) and informs dispersed residence decisions (Lesson 3).

In-depth assessments that build on those undertaken at the start of the asylum claim procedure may be carried out once asylum seekers have been granted protection. Those assessed are chiefly humanitarian migrants who require formal recognition of their foreign qualifications or prior learning in order to enter further education, practice in regulated professions, or simply to enrich job applications. Finland has recently introduced such a step-wise approach to skills assessments (see Box 3).

Box 3. Skills assessment of humanitarian migrants and asylum seekers in selected OECD countries

In **Austria**, the Vienna public employment service recently launched a pilot scheme to assess the professional skills of refugees. So-called "competency checks" of approximately 1 000 participants are currently being carried in Farsi, Arabic, Russian and French over a period of five weeks. In addition to the assessments, the scheme provides information on the recognition of qualifications, the Austrian education system and labour market. As part of the programme, the public employment office organises training days in companies. At the end of the programme, each participant receives a report showcasing existing competences. It is planned to expand the pilot to other regions, to reach a total of 8 000 participants in 2016.

Finland has recently adopted an action plan for assessing the professional skills of asylum seekers at reception centres while they are awaiting their asylum decisions. The outcomes of assessments will be taken into consideration when choosing a settlement area that offers education and business opportunities that match their skills. After asylum seekers have been granted residence, their skills will be more comprehensively assessed. Should it take time to move former asylum seekers from reception facilities to settlement locations, part of the comprehensive skills assessment can be carried out at the reception centre.

Germany systematically assesses the professional skills of asylum seekers with bright prospects of obtaining permanent residence through a programme called "early intervention". The programme was recently anchored in law and is to be rolled out nationwide. Case workers go out into reception facilities where they assess competencies through a small "work package" that they build from asylum seekers' self-declarations about their professions, qualifications and work history. The asylum seekers then attend a federal employment office where individual employment strategies are developed to match their skills with the needs of employers in the area. Humanitarian migrants and asylum seekers with little or no documentary proof of their foreign qualifications are also given the opportunity to have their professional competencies appraised under the terms of the Professional Qualifications Assessment Act through a so-called "qualification analysis" which assesses skills, knowledge and capabilities on the basis of samples of their work. To increase the number of quality-assured qualification analyses carried out across Germany, the Federal Employment Agency has designed a pilot project with funding from the Federal Ministry of Education and Research. The pilot supports qualification analysis practitioners through decentralised training sessions, individual consultations, work tools, knowledge management and a special fund that offers financial support to applicants for qualification analysis.

In the **Netherlands**, the Central Agency for the Reception of Asylum Seekers (COA) assists refugees who have been granted residence in compiling portfolios of their prior learning, education and work experience. The aim is to help refugees find their place in the Dutch labour market. However, they still need to supply formal proof of their qualifications. To plug that gap, the Dutch Centre of Expertise for International Credential Evaluation has worked with several refugee organisations and the business community to develop a credential evaluation instrument from the information provided by refugees.

In 2013, **Norway** rolled out a national recognition scheme for humanitarian migrants with little or no documentary proof of their higher-education credentials. It is known as the Recognition Procedure for Persons without Verifiable Documentation (the UVD procedure) and is carried out by expert committees commissioned and appointed by the Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in education (NOKUT). The procedure involves a combination of academic assessments, home assignments, and a mapping of work history. It results in a formal decision on whether to recognise foreign qualifications as equivalent to a Norwegian higher education degree. A survey of applicants suggests that more than half of the refugees who had their skills recognised in 2013 either found a related job or entered further education (http://www.nokut.no/en/Foreign-education/Other-recognition-systems/Recognition-Procedure-for-Persons-without-Verifiable-Documentation/).

Table 4. Systematic skills assessments for asylum seekers and humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015

	Asylum seekers	Humanitarian migrants
Australia	No	No
Austria	No	No (but a pilot is underway)
Belgium	Yes	Yes
Canada	No	Yes
Chile	No	No
Czech Republic	No	No
Denmark	No	Yes
Estonia	No	No
Finland	No (but planned)	Yes
France	No	Yes
Germany	Yes	Yes
Greece	No	No
Hungary	No	No (but may be provided by NGOs)
Italy	No	Yes (only for resettled immigrants)
Japan	No	No
Luxembourg	No	No
Mexico	No	n.a.
Netherlands	No	Yes
New Zealand	No	Yes (as part of benefit and employment support)
Norway	No	Yes (not yet systematic, but skills are mapped when refugees are settled in municipalities and before resettlement)
Poland	No	No
Portugal	Yes	Yes
Slovenia	No	No
Spain	Yes	Yes
Sweden	No	Yes
Switzerland	No (but planned)	Yes (but some regional variation)
Turkey	No (except for specific professions)	No (except for specific professions)
United Kingdom	No	Yes (access to mainstream services)
United States	No	No

Note: n.a. = information not available; / = not applicable.

Source: OECD questionnaire on the integration of humanitarian migrants 2015; OECD questionnaire on the recognition of foreign qualifications 2015.

Lesson 5

Take into account the growing diversity of humanitarian migrants and develop tailor-made approaches

WHAT and WHY? Refugee flows into a number of OECD countries have become more diverse in recent decades. There is a growing variety not only of countries of origin, but of education levels, family situations and resources. Such diversity in individual profiles makes integration challenging, as there is obviously no "one-size-fits-all" integration trajectory. While many humanitarian migrants are tertiary educated, a significant proportion lacks basic qualifications – which complicates integration needs considerably. For example, the same type, level and duration of language support may be neither necessary nor feasible for refugees who come from different educational backgrounds, speak different languages, and have different career prospects. As a consequence, customised integration measures are increasingly required to afford humanitarian migrants the support they need to fit into the local labour market and become active, self-sufficient members of their host societies.

WHO? It is particularly important that there are integration pathways specific to migrants from both extremes of the qualification spectrum with their very different needs. Illiterate and very poorly educated refugees need significant upskilling in order to be employable in the long run, and it is not uncommon for it to take five years to ready them for the labour market. Many also drop out from qualification schemes to take up low-skilled, unstable employment. Accordingly, conveying to them the consequences and benefits of education and training is an essential component of the integration process. Integration support for the very poorly educated must be seen as a long-term investment. It cannot be expected to pay off immediately (Lesson 10) but, when it does, its benefits may also extend to the migrants' children.

At the other end of the skills spectrum, highly educated migrants require faster-paced, more challenging integration programmes which equip them rapidly with the advanced language and vocational skills required for higher-skilled employment.

There are also integration challenges specific to certain groups. They include the rising number of unaccompanied minors (Lesson 7) and those who have been seriously traumatised by conflict or flight (Lesson 6).

HOW? Needs differ according to ability. The successful integration of humanitarian migrants requires well-tailored measures that factor in refugees' skills, their

educational background and family situation. Accordingly, integration should cover a range of measures that differ in nature, type and length. Most OECD countries have developed integration instruments specific to humanitarian migrants, though their scale and scope varies widely. Likewise, there are wide variations in the degree to which they are adapted to different refugee groups and profiles. Likewise, there are wide variations in the degree to which they are adapted to different refugee groups and profiles.

Skills levels, for example, can determine the nature of integration support. Indeed, Norway requires refugees who lack basic skills to take part in induction programmes, but not their more highly skilled peers. Although it might seem obvious that it is in a refugee's own interest to take part in induction programmes, it could be argued that those lacking basic skills may be less aware of the benefits such programmes yield. And, in any case, they will need to acquire basic skills if they are to be functional in the labour market

In Europe, the Scandinavian countries have the most advanced integration instruments for humanitarian migrants. [10] They typically consist of structured multi-year programmes that combine language training, civic integration courses and labour market training and support. Programmes generally last between two and three years, although their duration may frequently be adjusted to the education levels of individual refugees. In Denmark, for example, illiterate refugees who lack basic skills may receive additional language training, which goes beyond the scope of the official three-year induction programme and lasts for up to five years in total. There are similar arrangements in Norway and Sweden, where training may be extended according to the needs of individual refugees and the capacity of the local authority concerned. Conversely, highly skilled refugees often learn more quickly and require less training before they enter the labour market.

The integration support that different refugee groups may need varies not only in duration, but in type, too. Ideally, case workers design integration programmes in co-operation with individual refugees. Typically, a needs-based assessment – i.e. an interview upon recognition of the refugee's status – seeks to identify their individual needs on the basis of education, work experience and career prospects. Integration measures are then chosen accordingly. Sometimes – although seldom systematically – the kind of support chosen is based on a comprehensive assessment of skills and qualifications (Lesson 4 and Box 4).

Introduction schemes typically include employment-related services, such as vocational training, counselling and job-search support, civic orientation and general adult education. Language training is generally the most important

component. Courses must be well designed to increase incentives to take up the programme and complete it. Most OECD countries run purpose-built language courses for different types of learners, chiefly illiterate and poorly educated refugees. Courses specific to linguistic backgrounds or designed for the highly skilled are less common (Table 5a). An example of courses for low-educated refugees is Australia's Special Preparatory Programme (SPP), which offers up to 400 additional hours of preparatory language training to refugees who have limited prior schooling or have undergone difficult pre-migration experiences, such as trauma and torture.

Another – particularly efficient – way to make sure that language courses take into account the different needs of individual refugees is to make them modular. Approximately half of all OECD countries take such an approach (Table 5a), with learning organised in consecutive modules with increasingly advanced goals. Besides efforts to diversify the content of courses, flexible modes of delivery play an essential role in breaking down barriers and enabling different refugee groups – including those who work or have family obligations – to attend language courses. Canada's Refugee and Humanitarian Resettlement Program, for example, offers both classroom-based and online training to humanitarian migrants on a full- or part-time basis, during the day, in the evenings and on weekends, and systematically provides child care services. Similar provisions exist in other OECD countries.

The most tailor-made measure, however, is on-the-job training, which adjusts the content and delivery of language learning to the skills and training needs of individual refugees. Although costly, the benefits of such an approach are considerable. By linking language learning to vocational training and labour market experience, on-the-job training has been found to greatly facilitate entry into employment. Furthermore, it spurs refugees to learn the language and eases employers' reluctance to give them a chance.

On-the-job language training is also an important component of bridging programmes. It enables refugees whose foreign credentials are not equivalent to domestic qualifications to acquire the missing skills that will help them achieve full equivalence and eventually practice their occupation in the host country (Lesson 4). Examples of OECD countries that have put in place on-the-job training include Australia, Switzerland and the Scandinavian countries (Table 5b). Although highly effective, on-the-job training is costly and requires co-operation from employers. Moreover, it is often confined to occupations which are much in demand and courses are seldom offered nationwide (Lesson 9).[11]

While on-the-job training is suitable for skilled refugees with previous training or work experience, humanitarian migrants who were unable to complete their higher education before fleeing their country of origin stand to gain more from an opportunity to continue their education in the host country. Few countries systematically offer refugee-specific programmes, although some have developed smaller-scale initiatives. One example comes from the Dutch Foundation for Refugee Students (UAF). It supports and counsels highly educated refugees during their studies and assists them in finding suitable employment upon graduation. In Greece, universities located close to the ports where refugees arrive have dropped the usual admission test for refugee students. Germany has an online university for refugees called "Kiron", which provides free tuition and awards internationally accredited degrees in co-operation with a number of partner universities. As for the European Commission, its Sciences4Refugees initiative matches asylum seekers and refugees who have scientific backgrounds with positions in European universities and research institutions that include internships and part- and full-time jobs.

Box 4. Streamed language training for humanitarian migrants in Norway

Norwegian language training is provided as part of the country's introduction programme for humanitarian migrants. Courses are provided by municipal authorities and streamed into three tracks with different paces of progression, work methods and group sizes.

Track 1 is suitable for migrants with little or no prior schooling, who include illiterate migrants and those who have little experience in using written language. Track 2 is intended for those who have some prior schooling and have acquired writing skills in their mother tongue or another language. They can use written language as a tool for learning. Some, however, may have little or no experience of the Latin alphabet and others knowledge of one or more foreign languages. Track 3 is suitable for humanitarian migrants who have a good general education, including those educated to tertiary level. Participants in Track 3 are used to reading and writing as tools for acquiring knowledge and often have learned one or more foreign languages at school. Indeed, many have developed high linguistic awareness. They progress fast.

To ensure that humanitarian migrants are assigned to the track that matches their profile and needs, municipalities identify and assess participants' educational background, profession, work experience, proficiency in foreign languages, and future plans. The exercise may consist of a conversation with the migrant, possibly through an interpreter, complemented by language tests in Norwegian and other languages. Municipalities have two months in which to determine which tracks participant will follow.

Source: Regulation to the Norwegian Introduction Act, retrieved from https://lovdata.no/dokument/SF/forskrift/2012-04-19-358.

Table 5a. Targeted language training for humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015

	Publicly (co-) financed language programmes	Special language training for the poorly educated	Special language training for the highly educated	Modular language training
Australia	Yes (if clients meet eligibility requirements)	Yes (if clients meet eligibility requirements)	Yes (if clients meet eligibility requirements)	Yes (if clients meet eligibility requirements)
Austria	Yes	Yes	Yes (not systematic)	Yes
Belgium	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Canada	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Chile	No	No	No	No
Czech Republic	Yes	No	No	Yes
Denmark	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Estonia	Yes	No	No	No
Finland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
France	Yes	No	No	Yes
Germany	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Greece	Yes (not systematic)	No	No	No
Hungary	Yes (only for beneficiaries of temporary protection)	No (but may be provided by NGOs)	No (but may be provided by NGOs)	No (but may be provided by NGOs)
Italy	Yes	No	No	Yes
Japan	Yes (but not for all humanitarian migrant groups)	No	No	No
Luxembourg	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Mexico	Yes	No	n.a.	Yes
Netherlands	Yes (loan-based)	Yes	Yes	Yes
New Zealand	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (from pre- to low literacy)
Norway	Yes	Yes	Yes	No (level-based)
Poland	Yes	No	No	No
Portugal	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slovenia	Yes	No (still in the process of accreditation)	n.a. (usually provided by private language schools)	Yes
Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Sweden	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Switzerland	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Turkey	Yes (provided in 16 temporary protection centres and 10 city centres; outside these centres services may be provided by NGOs)	Yes	Yes, advanced Turkish programmes are organised in temporary protection centres and city centres	No
United Kingdom	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
United States	Yes (but not systematically for all humanitarian migrants)	Yes (but not systematically available)	No	No

Note: n.a. = information not available

Source: OECD questionnaire on the integration of humanitarian migrants 2015; OECD questionnaire on language training for adult migrants 2015.

Table 5b. Employment-related integration support for humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015

	Job-related training	Vocational language training	On-the-job language training
Australia	Yes (if clients meet eligibility requirements)	Yes (if clients meet eligibility requirements)	Yes (as part of SLPET* programme)
Austria	Yes (mainstream measures available, targeted measures planned)	Yes	No
Belgium	Yes (but not specifically for humanitarian migrants)	Yes	No
Canada	Yes	Yes	Yes
Chile	No	No	No
Czech Republic	Yes (mainstream ALMP for clients of the labour office)	Yes (through job-related language training)	No
Denmark	Yes	No	Yes
Estonia	Yes (as part of regular labour market services)	Yes	No
Finland	Yes	Yes	Yes
France	No	No	No
Germany	Yes	Yes	Yes
Greece	Yes (but not systematic)	No	No
Hungary	No (but may be provided by NGOs)	No (but may be provided by NGOs)	No
Italy	No	Yes	No
Japan	Yes (but not for all humanitarian migrants)	No	Yes (but not for all humanitarian migrants)
Luxembourg	Yes (access to mainstream services)	No	No
Netherlands	Yes	Depends on the situation	Provided by some employers
New Zealand	Yes	No (not systematic)	Yes
Norway	Yes	Yes (but limited, not systematic)	Yes (mainstream workplace training for basic skills)
Poland	No	No	No
Portugal	Yes	Yes	n.a.
Slovenia	No	No	No
Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes
Sweden	Yes	Yes	Yes
Switzerland	Yes	Yes	Yes (e.g. in construction, restaurant, cleaning and agriculture)
Turkey	Yes (provided in temporary reception centres; outside these centres services may be provided by NGOs and local administrations)	No	Yes (for the employed with work permits only)
United Kingdom	Yes (through DWP provision for job seekers)	No (ESOL for work courses exist but are not state funded)	No
United States	Yes (but not for all humanitarian migrants)	Yes (but not systematically available)	Yes (but not systematically available)

Note: n.a. = information not available. * SLPET = Settlement Language Pathways to Employment and Training.
Source: OECD questionnaire on the integration of humanitarian migrants 2015; OECD questionnaire on language training for adult migrants 2015.

Lesson 6

Identify mental and physical health issues early and provide adequate support

WHAT and WHY? A considerable percentage of refugees suffer from psychological complaints like anxiety and depression as a consequence of the traumatic, and often violent, experiences they have endured back home and during flight (for overviews see Steel et al., 2009; and Kane et al., 2014). At the same time, poor physical health as a result of persecution, torture, abuse and injuries are also common (Pfortmüller et al., 2012; McLoed and Reeve, 2005). Health issues can be a fundamental obstacle to integration, as they impinge on virtually all areas of life and shape the ability to enter employment, learn the host country's languages, interact with public institutions, and do well in school (Cebulla, Daniel and Zurawan, 2010; Khoo, 2007).

If refugees are to build a future in their new country of residence, it must speedily diagnose and address their health concerns in ways that take into consideration their particular needs.

WHO? Humanitarian migrants are frequently more prone to poor health than the general population and other immigrant groups (Murray, Davidson, and Schweitzer, 2010). Mental ill health tends to be particularly pronounced among scattered families, minors and orphans, for whom the effects of war and flight can be particularly disturbing and adversely affect their development and integration.

HOW? Host countries' first step in addressing health-related obstacles to integration should be to systematically assess the newcomers' state of health. Most countries commonly carry out physical examinations – including screenings for infectious diseases like tuberculosis – as part of routine health checks at the start of asylum claims procedures or prior to arrival when it comes to resettled migrants. Few countries screen for mental health problems, however. One of the few that do is Sweden, where asylum seekers' routine medical check-ups include assessments of their mental health (Box 5). More countries should pay attention to mental health given the high incidence of mental health complaints among refugee populations.

The host country's second step should be to grant humanitarian migrants legal access to general health care services. While most OECD countries do, some restrict asylum seekers' access. They usually apply the restrictions for the first couple of months before relaxing them and granting regular access thereafter. Restrictions tend to be steered by cost concerns and fears that swift routine access to health care might be a motive for seeking asylum. Countries that maintain restrictions

over long periods, however, risk ultimately having to foot the bill for the long-term costs associated with late intervention.[12]

Once humanitarian migrants are admitted and gain legal access to regular health care in the host country, they come up against further problems. These problems may be related to the use of health care services or the availability of specific provisions like mental health care.

Barriers stemming from the use of health care systems are manifold. They include lack of awareness and unfamiliarity with local health care services, fear and distrust of an unknown system, and issues related to stigma. To help refugees familiarise themselves with its health system, the host country should systematically inform them how it works, refer them to the services they need, and supply important information in the languages of the chief countries of origin. Involving community leaders, migrant groups and trained counsellors from origin countries, as Sweden does (Lesson 3), can help build trust, ease stigma and increase levels of health care utilisation among refugee populations (Murray, Davidson and Schweitzer, 2010). The location and institutional setting in which interventions are performed is another important factor – it can encourage or impede access to health care services.

Ensuring sufficiently available psychological support and other special health care provisions is a considerable challenge in countries with large inflows of humanitarian migrants. Moreover, psychological care can be ineffective if delivered in a language that patients do not – or not fully – understand. Language obstacles can lead to wrong diagnoses with negative consequences for treatment and healing prospects. To improve communication, several countries use interpreters where needed. Australia runs a specific telephone-based translating and interpreting service (TIS). It operates round-the-clock and 7 days a week in more than 100 languages through a network of contractors and covers all aspects of everyday life. Although it is generally fee-based, medical practitioners can use it free of charge. They benefit from a priority line with an interpreter available within three minutes for the most common foreign languages. As for special-needs care and support, several countries provide services for victims of torture and rape, albeit on a generally ad hoc basis (Box 5).

Box 5. Specific health care services for refugees

In **Austria**, Hemayat, a Vienna-based centre for mental health care support, provides refugees with services like psychotherapy, counselling, and clinical care. All services are mediated by interpreters. The Zebra project in Graz provides intercultural psychotherapy for traumatised refugees – multilingual, free of cost, anonymous and confidential (www.zebra.or.at).

In **Canada**, the Ottawa Community Immigrant Services Organisation (OCISO) runs a clinical counselling programme for refugees. OCISO specialises in assisting survivors of war torture, trauma, political persecution and imprisonment. It employs a wide variety of intervention techniques which yield culturally sensitive, responsive therapeutic approaches. Services are offered in English, French, Spanish, Arabic, Farsi, Dari, Nepali, Hindi, and other languages as needed. The programme also trains interpreters how to work with counsellors (http://ocisocareermentorship.org/about/).

Cross-Cultural Psychological Consultancy (TPR) is a non-governmental organisation in **Denmark** that provides psychological counselling, treatment and social support to refugees from qualified professionals from various ethnic backgrounds and in different languages. TRP works closely with and is funded by the Danish Government. It is also actively engaged in the prevention of suicide and runs cross-cultural training courses for the National Health Service staff and other groups working with refugees. In addition, TPR acts as a bridge to mainstream health providers by explaining the Danish health system to refugees and referring them to general practitioners and specialists (http://www.tpr.dk/english/). Denmark also has a national centre for the treatment of severely traumatised refugees which offers individual, group and family therapy to adult and child refugees with a focus on the well-being of the entire family. The centre treats patients in multidisciplinary teams of four to six professionals. Treatment covers all aspects of a refugee's life and is based on an interdisciplinary bio-psycho-social rehabilitation approach. That approach acknowledges that the various psychological, somatic and socio-economic issues faced by refugees are equally important and mutually reinforcing and cannot, therefore, be subsumed under a single diagnosis or domain of suffering (http://umb4.dignityinstitute.dk/rehabilitation.aspx).

The Centre for Torture Survivors in **Finland** (CTSF) offers psychiatric care to refugees who have been victims of torture. Multidisciplinary teams, who include professional interpreters, provide various forms of treatment to alleviate and remedy the impact of torture. The content and duration of treatment vary according to individual requirements. It is free of charge for refugees and paid for either by the local authority of the refugee's place of residence or the reception facility which referred them to the centre. The centre also offers nationwide consultation services and trains health care and social service professionals who work with refugees and asylum seekers who have been tortured (https://www.hdl.fi/en/services/torture-and-trauma).

Box 5. Specific health care services for refugees *(cont.)*

Sweden systematically screens asylum seekers for physical and mental health problems in routine check-ups performed in primary care units. Counsellors assess mental health in conversations with asylum seekers and seek to discern whether or not, and in what context, they may have undergone traumatic experiences, how they are coping with the memories of traumatic experiences and how such memories affect their current psycho-social situation. Based on the assessment and subject to regional availability, an asylum seeker in need of further treatment may be referred for psychological counselling or psychiatric treatment with an interpreter present if need be. Centres offering health care support specifically for refugees who have been injured during war or undergone torture are to be found in 13 municipalities. Half of them are managed by the Swedish Red Cross, while the rest are run by county and regional councils. Some of the centres use "health communicators" who meet with newly arrived asylum seekers at reception facilities and in schools where language training is provided. The health communicators describe the Swedish health care system, symptoms of post-traumatic stress syndrome and other health-related issues. Health communicators undergo six months of health care training and generally speak the same language and originate from the same countries as the asylum seekers they inform.

Lesson 7

Develop support programmes specific to unaccompanied minors who arrive past the age of compulsory schooling

WHAT and WHY? Recent years have seen an unprecedented rise in the number of unaccompanied minors arriving in many OECD countries, including Austria, Germany, Italy Sweden and the United States. Unaccompanied minors are generally defined as people under the age of 18 who arrive without parents, other adult relatives or guardians (UNHCR, 1997). As such, they are a particularly vulnerable group and require special protection. Responsibility for them is generally incumbent on the central government or local authorities. Looking after them thus entails higher costs than for other refugee groups. Indeed, data from Austria and Norway suggest that expenditure on unaccompanied minors is three to five times higher than for adult asylum seekers, particularly in the period prior to settlement.

A number of unaccompanied minors do not go through the asylum claim system, with some countries affording them protection even if they do not directly apply for asylum.[13] However, practices vary from country to country.

Unaccompanied minors face particular integration challenges. Most arrive just before or after the age at which schooling is no longer compulsory – between 14 and 17 years old – but have little or no formal education.[14] Many do not wish to pursue further education but to take up employment, generally of the low-skilled kind. Their lack of basic qualifications and the frequently unstable, low-skilled jobs which they do puts them at a particular risk of eventually finding themselves not in employment, education or training (NEET). Their keenness to work as soon as possible is often reinforced by the fact that holders of unstable residence permits can stay on in the host country as long as they have work. To complicate matters further, unaccompanied minors in some countries are no longer entitled to certain kinds of integration support upon reaching majority and leaving state guardianship.

Unaccompanied minors need tailored education and training programmes to help them overcome the multifaceted obstacles that they face. To this end, substantial, long-term commitment is required from local hosting and integration systems.

WHO? All foreign-born students who arrive in their late adolescence experience difficulties in the transition from education to employment. They are particularly pronounced among young people from countries where the capacities and standards of education systems are much lower than the host country's – generally the case in the countries from which humanitarian migrants originate. Indeed, there might be no formal schooling provision at all. In essence, unaccompanied

minors can be hard hit by a "late arrival penalty". The catch-up challenge to which they must rise is aggravated by the absence of parental support and the difficulties associated with overcoming the traumatic experiences of armed conflict and flight. However, evidence from Sweden suggests that, with strong integration support, their employment prospects improve more rapidly over time than those of their peers who arrive with their parents or relatives (Çelikaksoy and Wadensjö, 2015a).

HOW? A host country should afford unaccompanied minors the opportunity to rapidly learn its language, build the skills required for durable integration and overcome the effects of the traumatic events they have often experienced during flight. To that end, they should be placed in safe, stable surroundings where a solid support structure compensates for the lack of parental support and enables them to focus on education. Many OECD countries have accommodation structures in place intended specifically for unaccompanied minors. Typically, they are separate reception facilities for children or designated areas in mainstream reception facilities for asylum seekers. A further possibility is that unaccompanied minors live with foster families. This is a solution currently used (on certain conditions) in countries like Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States (EMN, 2015).

Although accommodation for unaccompanied minors is widely available in OECD host countries, the stability and support it affords is frequently jeopardised when they come of age while still awaiting an asylum decision. In that event, they are moved from special care units for minors to adult reception facilities and may lose their place in the education-oriented integration programmes normally reserved for unaccompanied minors.[15] Their psychological recovery and educational achievement may suffer as a result.

In response, some European OECD countries defer transfers to adult reception centres. They continue to provide care beyond the age of legal majority to former unaccompanied minors who are now in school, university or employment, or whom they consider particularly vulnerable. However, such extensions typically last only up to the age of 21. Host country authorities should ensure that access to education does not effectively end at that age, as the three to four years that have elapsed since the unaccompanied minor's arrival with little or no schooling from a country with low education standards may not be enough for them to acquire at least the basic skills needed for lasting integration in the labour market (Lesson 8).

Mainstream schooling may not, in any case, be an immediate option for unaccompanied minors with very limited previous schooling. By contrast, targeted

education programmes, combined with flexible language support and civic orientation, can help them adapt to their new school environment and its requirements. Ideally, such schemes also bring individual case workers into the picture. They accompany minors throughout education, training and internships to facilitate their transition into employment.

One of the most longstanding integration schemes for unaccompanied minors is to be found in the United States, where the federally funded, state-administered Unaccompanied Refugee Minors (URM) programme helps the minors develop the skills they need to become a socially and economically empowered adult. The URM scheme provides intensive case management by social workers, educational support, English language training, career and educational counselling, mental health care, and social integration support.

In European OECD countries, too, a range of promising projects have been developed to address the particular integration challenges with which unaccompanied minors must contend. Italy, for example, piloted a special country-wide support scheme for unaccompanied minors in 2012. Under the scheme, which was funded by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies, plans were drawn up for customised interventions of between 6 and 12 months long for 1 140 unaccompanied minors who had reached the age of majority in the two-year period between 2011 and 2012. The plans comprised services that range from skills development, language training, and career advice to support with finding accommodation and job placements, mostly in the form of subsidised apprenticeships. Each participant benefitted from an endowment fund for skills development of up to EUR 3 000, while job placements were subsided with funding of up to EUR 5 000.

Most projects for unaccompanied minors are, however, on a small scale and countries often fail to identify or scale up successful ones. One example of an intervention that delivers is “SchlaU-Schule” in Munich. Privately and publicly funded, it enables unaccompanied minor and young adult refugees to secure secondary school leaving certificates through specially adapted individually based teaching and support in a close-knit school setting. The scheme also provides post-school follow-up into mainstream education (Box 6).

Successful approaches do not necessarily have to exclusively target unaccompanied minors. In Canada, for example, the Calgary Board of Education has developed a website dedicated to improving teachers’ ability to teach refugee students with limited formal schooling. The website provides educational material, publications, and role models from the field that enable teachers to design targeted intervention programmes.

Along similar lines, the Dutch Centre of Expertise on Health Disparities (PHAROS) has designed a classroom teaching manual for newly arrived refugee students called *Welcome to School*. It enables secondary school teachers to address the problems (psycho-social and health-related, for example) which may affect newcomers in support classes. In Sweden, considerable proportions of refugees from Syria are teaching professionals. They teach reception classes of newly arrived refugee students in Arabic. A fast-track assessment programme has, in fact, been developed specifically for humanitarian migrants who are teachers. Their skills are evaluated and their qualifications recognised directly on the job. Under the programme they also attend six-month preparatory teacher-training courses, which take place in Arabic in Swedish universities. In Turkey, 30 schools have been created for Syrian children. Moreover, voluntary Syrian teachers can use certain schools to teach Syrian children after normal school hours.

Box 6. Secondary education that targets unaccompanied minor and young adult refugees in Munich

In Munich, the "SchlaU-Schule" project gives unaccompanied minors and other young refugees aged 16 to 25 the opportunity to secure secondary school leaving certificates and their first work experience through internships. Schooling takes place over a two- to three-year period.

Founded in 2000, the SchlaU-Schule teaches about 225 students per year who leave the school with a secondary degree. It is officially recognised as an institution of secondary education for refugees and run by a registered association on an annual budget of around EUR 3.7 million that is publicly and privately funded. Classes follow the mainstream lower- or middle-level secondary school curriculum. Teaching methods, though, are adapted to the special needs of recently arrived unaccompanied refugee minors. The staff comprises specially trained teachers and social workers who work in a close-knit school environment and attend to the pupils on an individual basis throughout their education.

The project also includes a one-to-two year pre-school programme to prepare newly arrived young refugees for secondary school through literacy classes and targeted German language training. Furthermore, students who have completed the core programme and have obtained their secondary school leaving certificate continue to receive support from the teachers and social workers as they make the transition from school to work.

Every year, about 60 students obtain their secondary school leaving diploma and start regular vocational training or enroll in further mainstream education at upper secondary level.

Source: Trägerkreis Junge Flüchtlinge e.V. 2015, http://www.schlau-schule.de/.

Lesson 8

Build on civil society to integrate humanitarian migrants

WHAT and WHY? Integration is a two-way process that requires efforts from both refugees and host society. Governments can draw up the necessary policy frameworks, but civil society has a crucial role in creating the conditions conducive to the social and labour market integration of humanitarian migrants. Civil society also plays an important part in the implementation of humanitarian integration policies. Its involvement helps build ties between refugees and host-country communities and contributes to social cohesion. Indeed, without civil society organisations, a welcoming business environment, and the support of local communities, integration policies are likely to be ineffective. Civil society often steps in where public policy does not tread or cannot be upscaled sufficiently or quickly, particularly in response to fast-growing inflows of humanitarian migrants. In many OECD countries, civil society actors are an integral part of the integration system. When it comes to humanitarian migrants arriving through community-sponsorship programmes, the sponsoring individuals or organisations can even take charge of the entire integration process.[16]

WHO? Civil society comprises a multitude of groups and actors with a wide range of interests and functions. Among the most important stakeholders in refugee integration are charities, immigrant associations, community-based organisations and the social partners (who represent business and labour). Private individuals, who include former refugees, can also be important drivers of refugee integration.

HOW? Civil society actors can influence the integration of humanitarian migrants through a variety of channels depending on their expertise and institutional set-up. Their most important areas of involvement are typically in the field of i) policy implementation through service provision, ii) mentorship programmes, iii) training and skills assessments, and iv) local community initiatives.

Non-governmental and community-based organisations can play a key role in implementing government policies. In the United States, for example, reception and placement services for refugees are provided by organisations working with volunteers under the terms of co-operative agreements with the Department of State. Volunteers are also actively engaged in the Office of Refugee Resettlement's Unaccompanied Refugee Minors Program (URM) and the Matching Grant Program to help newly arrived humanitarian migrants become self-sufficient within 120-180 days. Instead of allowing them to rely on public assistance, it aims to steer them to economic self-sufficiency through case management, language training, job placement support, and other services.[17]

Another particularly effective form of non-governmental stakeholder involvement is mentorship programmes. If properly designed and monitored, they are a cost-effective way of promoting integration, while increasing interaction between immigrants and the host society (OECD, 2007, 2008). Mentorship programmes match a migrant with a host country resident (on the basis of sex, age and occupation, for example) who acts as a mentor. Mentors give migrants a general grounding in the host society, its labour market, its institutions and practical issues, too. Mentors can also share their own personal networks and act as intermediaries with potential employers.

Much of the effectiveness of mentorship schemes rests on whether or not they set clear objectives that are aligned with labour market integration, and whether mentors are adequately trained and regularly monitored during the intervention. Joint social activities that bring together all the mentors and mentees in a programme also act as incentives that encourage both to stay the course. Successful schemes are currently in place in a range of OECD countries, including Canada, Denmark, New Zealand and Norway.

In Denmark and Norway, for example, the Red Cross and the Danish Refugee Council run large-scale mentorship programmes, pairing humanitarian migrants with local families or individuals who help in the effort to integrate. The Danish Centre for Gender, Equality and Ethnicity (KVINFO),[18] which draws on a network of 2 500 mentors, focuses on women from refugee and other migrant groups. In Canada, where a number of associations have long-standing experience in the volunteer-based career mentoring of educated labour migrants, some have opened schemes to humanitarian migrants. One example is the Ottawa Community Immigrant Services Organization (OCISO),[19] which supports educated Convention refugees in their search for work in their field (Box 5). Mentees meet once a week with volunteer mentors who work in the same or a related field to discuss career objectives, build professional networks, improve job search strategies and techniques and gain insights into Canadian workplace culture and language.

Mentors can also be humanitarian migrants themselves. One example is the Community Guides Program from Adult Multicultural Education Services (AMES)[20] in Australia. It trains and guides former refugees as community guides who provide settlement support to newly arrived resettled migrants in their mother tongue. Employing former refugees as mentors has the twin objective of assisting migrants in a culturally and linguistically appropriate way and opening up employment pathways for the refugee mentors themselves. In Australia, most community guides move on to jobs outside AMES Australia following their mentoring experience.

The social partners are particularly important stakeholders when it comes to the integration of humanitarian migrants. Employers' willingness to hire and train refugees is a determinant of their capacity to become fully autonomous members of their host societies. For that reason, it is important to align employers' incentives with the objective of harnessing the skills potential of humanitarian migrants and involving them in the integration process. Employers and trade unions are often in a better position than the government and local authorities to appraise how useful refugees' foreign qualifications and work experience are in the host country. They are also well placed to judge what content should go into bridging programmes and to support vocational and language training – as the most effective kind of training is provided directly on the job (Lesson 5). And, as they regularly interact with immigrant workers and might themselves be immigrants, employers and fellow workers are also in a unique position to promote the integration of migrants into life beyond the labour market.

Across the OECD, there have been many examples of social partner initiatives. In a number of Austrian regions, for example, the Chamber of Commerce has put in place language training, skills assessments, mentorship programmes and apprenticeship placements for humanitarian migrants. In Sweden, sector-based talks between employers and unions have led to schemes to fast-track refugees into a number of shortage occupations. The fast-track schemes include skills assessment in the workplace and publicly funded upskilling (Lesson 4). Canada rewards companies which successfully assist refugees in obtaining a first job and finding their place in society with a national Refugee Employment Award.

Finally, local communities play a vital role in welcoming refugees and accelerating their integration. One example is the AmeriCorps Program in the United States, which places volunteers in non-profit, faith-based or other community organisations and public agencies.[21] The aims are to foster community support, increase services, build capacity and strengthen local networks of service providers. AmeriCorps Vista volunteers serve, for example, as refugee job developers, working with local employers willing to hire newly arrived refugees with limited English skills. They may also assist in the assessment of foreign credentials and job-related support classes.

Recently, the Office for Refugee Resettlement and the Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS) rolled out the Refugee AmeriCorps Program to assist local communities in integrating refugees. The programme recruits established refugees as volunteers in resettlement agencies across the country, where they work directly with new arrivals. The objective is to improve the economic self-sufficiency of the newly resettled migrants and help them access education and health care services. Volunteers receive a monthly stipend, post-service education awards, health insurance and other benefits.

Lesson 9

Promote equal access to integration services to humanitarian migrants across the country

WHAT and WHY? There are significant differences ***between*** countries in the type and quality of integration services they offer refugees. The OECD EU members have nevertheless achieved some degree of harmonisation through the European Qualification Directive. It sets minimum standards in language training and integration programmes for refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection. However, there are also sharp differences ***within*** countries, with special integration services available in some regions and not in others. So where refugees are eventually settled – something over which they seldom have any control – affects their integration prospects.

WHO? Providing comprehensive integration services is frequently a challenge for small communities with limited capacities. Although they may host few humanitarian migrants, they find it difficult all the same to deliver the full range of specialised services available in large, immigrant-dense urban areas. Differences in the quality and availability of integration measures are often particularly pronounced in decentralised countries, where regional or local tiers of government control the type of integration services available. The advantage is that devolved services reflect local needs. By the same token, though, there may also be wide disparities between sub-central jurisdictions (even down to the municipal level).

HOW? Although countries might struggle to limit disparities between access to and the quality of integration across their regions, there are measures that can help them offset differences:

- build the necessary expertise in local authorities
- ensure adequate financial support and the right incentives
- pool resources between local authorities
- allow local authorities some degree of specialisation where possible
- set common standards and monitor how local authorities live up to them.

The integration of refugees is a cross-cutting issue which involves many stakeholders at the regional and local level. Some regions have less experience in providing integration services than others and may benefit from sharing the experiences of those that have more longstanding policies. Countries need to introduce mechanisms that identify effective integration tools and make sure that local authorities share and, where appropriate, mainstream them. An important

avenue of action is to encourage and support the evaluation of local pilot schemes to determine whether they are effective. Countries seldom do so, however, as proper evaluations are often costly and require other local authorities to act as a control group and not implement the pilot. An alternative approach is a benchmarking system to monitor and gauge the success of local councils in integrating refugees. This approach was pioneered by Denmark, which tracked the effectiveness of integration tools in individual municipalities by measuring the time it took for new arrivals to become self-sufficient and enter employment or education. However, data limitations preclude many countries from instituting such a system.

Another important element to consider is financing. Putting in place comprehensive, targeted refugee integration programmes can be expensive, and it is important to ensure that the local councils who do so are adequately compensated. Currently, most governments across the OECD do – to some degree – provide compensation, which generally takes the form of a lump sum payment per refugee. Where municipalities take an active role in the integration process, compensation can be designed as an incentive for them to meet the objective of fast, durable labour market integration. Outcome-based compensation schemes could serve that purpose, with the timing of payments tied to the degree of progress achieved by individual refugees in, for example, employability and command of the host country's language. For example, making part of the reimbursement of language training costs conditional upon refugees' successful completion of a course increases the incentive for municipalities to provide good-quality, outcome-focused language teaching in accordance with refugees' abilities and needs. Where appropriate, governments can also introduce incentives for integrating refugees durably into the labour market – incentives could take the form of financial rewards when refugees find stable jobs. In Denmark, for example municipalities receive a basic monthly subsidy for each refugee enrolled in an integration programme. This basic transfer is complemented by a reward, which is received when a refugee finds a job, enrols in education or passes a final Danish language test.

Even where financial incentives are in place, small local councils may not host enough refugees to offer courses tailored to their different needs. In that case, they may choose to pool resources with other local authorities to jointly provide a more comprehensive programme. This has been the case in Norway in the past. Alternatively, they may outsource services at regional level, as is the practice in Sweden, where small town councils in the same region can hire each other to provide language training or civic orientation as part of introduction programmes.

Regions within host countries may themselves benefit from skills training for refugees to meet their own skills shortages. An example is Upper Austria where, in 2008, the public employment service launched a "skilled metal worker training campaign" to address structural skills shortages in the steel industry in close co-operation with the social partners. Although not explicitly targeted at immigrants, they were overrepresented among the participants. The scheme included several stages of language and vocational training and enabled some 600 participants per year to gain hands-on experience in machine parks or successfully complete apprenticeships.

Finally, it is important that countries set minimum standards and monitor how local councils live up to them. An example of a decentralised country which has recently implemented minimum standards is Switzerland, where the federal government has reached a binding agreement with the regions on the strategic objectives to be achieved in eight areas of integration policy.

Lesson 10
Acknowledge that the integration of very poorly educated humanitarian migrants requires long-term training and support

WHAT and WHY? A considerable number of humanitarian migrants arrive in OECD countries with little or no previous education. They struggle to integrate in any durable way if they do not enjoy significant, long-term support. Such support is indisputably costly, but what matters is that migrants should acquire, at the very least, the knowledge and skills which are generally considered to be the barest necessities for any prospect of long-term employability in the host country. Obviously, though, not all humanitarian migrants are able to achieve the employability objective. And those who do may take several years to build the requisite competencies.

Investment in education does not yield immediate returns, however. It often does pay off in the long run, though, as it does for pupils in school. It extends across generations and benefits humanitarian migrants' children. They would otherwise struggle with integration issues, which tend to be more pronounced among the offspring of poorly educated migrants than among those of better educated ones.[22]

WHO? Host countries frequently have to provide long-term integration support for refugees from countries where formal schooling differs significantly in duration, quality or both. Support may be even longer for those from countries affected by long-term conflicts, where even basic schooling is often not provided.

HOW? Depending on individual needs, integration support should include literacy and language training (Table 7), adult education (Table 6) and vocational training (Lesson 5), and attending courses should be compatible with work and child care. Several OECD countries provide adult education combined with long-term language training but are seldom flexible over times. Evening classes, for example, are rare. Child care provision is even rarer and few countries contribute to the refugee participants' transport costs (Table 6).

Norway focuses heavily on low-skilled humanitarian migrants in its integration efforts, endeavouring to provide them with the basic skills they need to be functional. Accordingly, it requires poorly skilled humanitarian migrants to attend classes. Courses include Norwegian language training and grounding in the country's society and culture. The aim is to prepare refugees and their family members for employment or further education. Indeed, all humanitarian migrants above compulsory schooling age who require primary or lower-secondary education are entitled to dedicated, long-term adult education in the subjects in the primary and lower-secondary curriculum for adults.[23]

For refugees who manage to acquire the necessary skills to work, support needs to extend beyond training to coaching them in how to approach employers and enter the labour market. In most OECD countries, humanitarian migrants with permanent residence status have full access to employment services, including active job-seeking support (Table 5b). And some adapt support services to refugees' specific needs.

In Australia, for example, where the bulk of humanitarian migrants entering through resettlement schemes are poorly skilled, the "Given the Chance" programme supplies especially tailored employment support. It assists refugees in finding and keeping a job by building partnerships with employers and providing training and long-term support. In the United States, the Office for Refugee Resettlement funds a state-administered targeted assistance programme (TAG) for refugees. Services are available for up to five years and include assistance with job seeking, placements, and retention in addition to employment services, job training and preparation. The scheme also provides job-related day care and transportation, translation and interpreter services, and case management.

Where humanitarian migrants struggle to secure employment after training, gradual guided entry into the labour market is often the best approach. Denmark's "Stepmodel" policy is a fine example. An integral part of Danish labour market policy, it gradually leads new arrivals and longer-term immigrants into regular employment via intensive language training, an introduction to the workplace, and subsidised initial employment of up to one year, which can be combined with further on-the-job language training and upskilling.

Similar schemes exist in Sweden. The Step-in Job programme subsidises up to 80% of the wage costs of new arrivals for as long as two years on the condition that participants attend a language training course in parallel to their job. Further initiatives include the New Start jobs programme:

- It provides tax relief to employers who hire the long-term unemployed.
- It compensation to employers who offer apprenticeships to new arrivals.
- It finances on-the-job training for poorly educated new arrivals through an "applied basic year" scheme.

In the Norwegian municipality of Levanger, the local authority, employers and public employment service (NAV) worked with the adult teaching centre to develop and run a pilot scheme. It uses an intensive six-step model to ease poorly educated refugees and migrant mothers into the labour market. To help them into lower-skilled occupations in health, cleaning and kindergartens, a curriculum was

developed jointly with professionals from those sectors. Participants are divided in small groups who attend training courses before moving into work placements. At first they are closely supervised. Then, accompanied by a mentor, they are given greater autonomy which gradually evolves into greater employment. Also part of the scheme is a specially developed e-learning platform that the participants use even as they train.

Table 6. Integration support for low-educated humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015

	Adult education combined with long-term language training				
	Yes/no	**Obligatory**	**Childcare**	**Evening courses**	**Transport reimbursement**
Australia	No	/	/	/	/
Austria	Yes (both available but not combined)	No	No	No	No
Belgium	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes (but not everywhere)
Canada	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes (funds transportation services)
Czech Republic	No	/	/	/	/
Denmark	Yes	No (except for recipients of cash allowances)	No	Yes	Yes
Estonia	No	/	/	/	/
Finland	Yes	No but if agreed in the integration plan the immigrant must attend a language course	Not within the language training system	Yes for independent studies; No for labour market programmes	Yes
France	No	/	/	/	/
Germany	Yes	No (but can be obligatory in some cases)	Yes	Depends on community	Yes
Greece	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Hungary	No (but may be provided by NGOs)	/	/	/	/
Italy	Yes	No	No	No	No
Japan	No	/	/	/	/
Luxembourg	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Netherlands	Yes	Yes (for newcomers)	Yes	Yes	No

Table 6. Integration support for low-educated humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015 *(cont.)*

	Adult education combined with long-term language training				
	Yes/no	**Obligatory**	**Childcare**	**Evening courses**	**Transport reimbursement**
New Zealand	Yes	No (but encouraged)	No (but subsidised childcare and some on-site childcare depending on provider)	Depends on provider	No (but some providers offer assistance)
Norway	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
Poland	No	/	/	/	/
Portugal	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slovenia	Yes (both available but not combined)	No	n.a.	Yes	Partially subsidised
Spain	Yes	No but non-participation may lead to exclusion from integration program and loss of benefits)	n.a.	n.a.	Yes
Sweden	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Switzerland	Yes	No (except if individually agreed in integration contract)	Depends on region and individual needs	Depends on region and individual needs	Depends on region and individual needs
Turkey	No	/	/	/	/
United Kingdom	Yes (but eligibility differs across regions)	No	Depends on region	Depends on region	n.a.
United States	Yes (but not systematically for all humanitarian migrants)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Note: n.a. = information not available; / = not applicable (because adult education combined with long-term language training is not provided)

Source: OECD questionnaire on the integration of humanitarian migrants 2015; OECD questionnaire on language training for adult migrants 2015.

Table 7. Maximum duration of language training for humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015

Country	Maximum duration of publicly financed language training	
	Maximum period of entitlement	Maximum number of hours
Australia	5 years (must enrol in AMEP within 12 months of arrival in Australia)	• SPP: up to 400 hours • AMEP: up to 510 hours • SLPET: up to 200 hours SPP and SLPET are sub-programmes of AMEP
Austria	No maximum period of entitlement (exc. courses provided by the Austrian Integration Fund: 3 years after protection is granted)	n.a.
Belgium	No maximum period of entitlement	600 hours
Canada	No maximum period of entitlement	No limit on number of hours
Czech Republic	12 months	400 hours
Denmark	5 years (can be prolonged, e.g. in the event of illness)	No limit on number of hours
Estonia	2 years	n.a.
Finland	Maximum of 5 years (training must be started within 3 years of receiving protection)	Approx.2100 hours incl. independent study work (these hours include language training (57%), civic education (36%), and guidance and counselling (7%))
France	1 year (after signing the reception and integration contract)	400 hours
Germany	No maximum period of entitlement	900 hours
Greece	For as long as protection lasts	1 390 hours
Hungary	2 years (for persons with temporary protection status)	520 hours (for persons with temporary protection status)
Italy	No maximum period of entitlement	n.a.
Japan	6 months	429 hours
Luxembourg	2 years (from signing the integration contract)	3 courses (total of numbers can vary depending on course as there is no official ceiling)
Netherlands	5 years	No limit on number of hours
New Zealand	No maximum period (except some specialist ESOL programmes: 5 years for intensive literacy and numeracy ESOL and three years for fee-free programmes for refugees studying at Level 3+ ESOL)	No limit on number of hours
Norway	5 years	3 000 hours
Poland	12 months	No limit on number of hours
Portugal	No maximum period of entitlement	No limit on number of hours
Slovenia	3 years	400 hours

Table 7. Maximum duration of language training for humanitarian migrants in OECD countries, 2015 *(cont.)*

Country	Maximum duration of publicly financed language training	
	Maximum period of entitlement	Maximum number of hours
Spain	No maximum period of entitlement	
Sweden	No maximum period of entitlement	No limit on number of hours
Switzerland	No maximum period of entitlement	Depends on region
Turkey	6 months	n.a.
United Kingdom	For as long as protection lasts	n.a.
United States	No maximum period of entitlement	n.a.

Note: n.a. = information not available; / = not applicable (because language training is not provided in the country).

AMEP = Adult Migrant English Program; SLPET = Settlement Language Pathways to Employment and Training; SPP = Special Preparatory Program.

Source: OECD questionnaire on language training for adult migrants 2015.

Notes

1. The terms "humanitarian migrant", "refugee" and "persons in need of protection" are used interchangeably in this booklet (see Box 1).
2. In the United Kingdom, for example, the refugee family reunion policy allows immediate family members of a person in the UK with refugee leave or humanitarian protection to reunite with them in the UK. Those granted under family reunion provisions are granted the same length of leave as their sponsor and are entitled to the same benefits as refugees, for example access to public funds and unrestricted access to the labour market.
3. This is also important in helping young refugee children overcome the trauma experienced during conflict and flight. A recent study of Syrian asylum-seeking children in Germany concluded that the vast majority suffered from a physical health complaint and more than 22% from mental disorders (Soykök, forthcoming).
4. The issue has implications for family reunification, too, and suggests that there is an integration cost to delaying family reunification where young children are present.
5. Exemptions are made for applicants from countries that do not issue travel documents or national identity cards.
6. For privately sponsored refugees there is usually no dispersal policy as these are located with their sponsors.
7. The latter criterion has been particularly influential in countries with large resettlement schemes, where settlement strategies have been driven mainly by protection concerns. Some countries, such as Australia, Canada and the United States also consider the potential of humanitarian migrants for helping to revitalise regional and rural areas (AMES and Deloitte Access Economics, 2015).
8. The fast-track skills assessment procedure is developed by the Norwegian government based on proposals from the Norwegian Directorate of Integration

and Diversity (IMDi), the Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in education (NOKUT) and the Norwegian Agency for Lifelong Learning (Vox).

9. This would entail granting social benefits to unemployed refugees who left the area they were assigned to – on the condition that the move was initially to take up employment.

10. Although principally targeted at humanitarian migrants, family migrants and other groups may also be eligible to these programmes (OECD, 2014).

11. The uneven availability of tailor-made integration services is a problem widely encountered by smaller municipalities in particular. Solutions are discussed in Lesson 9.

12. A recent study suggests that this has been the case in Germany, where access to health care is restricted to emergency care for a period of 15 months for most asylum seekers and temporarily admitted humanitarian migrants. (This period was longer in the past: 36 months between 1997 and 2006 and 48 months between 2007 and 2014). According to the study, long-term annual per capita medical expenditure on asylum seekers and refugees with restricted access to health care was higher than those of asylum seekers and refugees with regular access to services under the statutory health insurance system. The results are adjusted for needs-related differences in expenditure (Bozorgmehr and Razum, 2015).

13. Trafficking is also common and, in countries like Italy or the United States, unaccompanied children frequently come as undocumented migrant workers (Edmonds and Shrestha, 2013)

14. There is also a strong concentration among countries of origin. In 2015, about half of all unaccompanied minors registered in Europe were from a single country – Afghanistan.

15. Reaching adulthood is particularly concerning for those who have not filed a claim for asylum or have had their claims for asylum rejected. In such cases, unaccompanied minors frequently become irregular migrants and may be deported, although removal is generally hard to apply given the risk of absconding. As a consequence, former unaccompanied minors live in a grey area, where they risk being marginalised from both the education system and the labour market.

16. An example is the Australian community support programme— known as the Community Proposal Pilot — which is currently trialed by the Australian government as part of its annual humanitarian intake. The programme adopts a new settlement framework whereby Australian communities and community groups, rather than the Government, take the lead in proposing people overseas for humanitarian resettlement and overseeing their settlement upon arrival in Australia.
17. For further information on the programmes of the Office of Refugee Resettlement please see www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/orr.
18. For further information please see http://kvinfo.org/mentor.
19. For further information please see http://ocisocareermentorship.org/about/.
20. For further information please see https://www.ames.net.au/settling-in-australia/community-guides-program.html.
21. For further information please see www.nationalservice.gov/programs/americorps.
22. Indeed, there are important benefits to integration – both in terms of social cohesion and fiscally. For example, past OECD analysis has shown that raising immigrants' employment rates to the level of the native-born population would result in important fiscal benefits of one-half of a percentage point of GDP or more annually in countries, such as Belgium, France, and Sweden (Liebig and Mo, 2013).
23. Those with primary or lower secondary education have the right to free special-needs upper-secondary education and training, including an assessment and certificates of their levels of formal, informal and non-formal competencies.

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Making Integration Work

REFUGEES AND OTHERS IN NEED OF PROTECTION

The OECD series *Making Integration Work* draws on key lessons from the OECD's work on integration, particularly the *Jobs for Immigrants* country reviews series. The objective is to summarise in a non-technical way the main challenges and good policy practices to support the lasting integration of immigrants and their children for selected key groups and domains of integration. Each volume presents ten lessons and examples of good practice. These are complemented by synthetic comparisons of the integration policy frameworks in OECD countries. This first volume deals with refugees and others in need of protection, referred to as humanitarian migrants.

Contents

Lesson 1. Provide activation and integration services as soon as possible for humanitarian migrants and asylum seekers with high prospects of being allowed to stay

Lesson 2. Facilitate labour market access for asylum seekers with high prospects of being allowed to stay

Lesson 3. Factor employment prospects into dispersal policies

Lesson 4. Record and assess humanitarian migrants' foreign qualifications, work experience and skills

Lesson 5. Take into account the growing diversity of humanitarian migrants and develop tailor-made approaches

Lesson 6. Identify mental and physical health issues early and provide adequate support

Lesson 7. Develop support programmes specific to unaccompanied minors who arrive past the age of compulsory schooling

Lesson 8. Build on civil society to integrate humanitarian migrants

Lesson 9. Promote equal access to integration services to humanitarian migrants across the country

Lesson 10. Acknowledge that the integration of very poorly educated humanitarian migrants requires long-term training and support

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