



FIRST PROJECT RESULT (PR1)

**COMPARATIVE REPORT:
THE SOCIAL AND LABOR INCLUSION OF MIGRANTS AND
REFUGEES FROM LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN
(LAC) IN SPAIN, ITALY, BELGIUM AND AUSTRIA
2023**



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I. INTRODUCTION

The research project **Integration, counselling and Upskilling of migrants and Refugees from Latin America and the Caribbean in the labour market (IntelAC Market)**, with reference 2021-1-ES01-KA220-ADU-000026509, is co-funded by the European Union under the ERASMUS+ KA2: *Cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices* program and will run from 2022 to 2024. The consortium is formed by different European organizations and universities, such as the Universitat Rovira i Virgili (Tarragona), the University of Padua (Padua), the Austrian Association of Inclusive Society (AIS, Vienna), Connex-EU (Brussels), the Institute for Personal Development, Entrepreneurship, Coaching and Emotional Intelligence (INDEPCIE, Cordoba) and Acci3n Laboral (Spain).

The overall objective of the project is to **address the challenge of integrating migrants and refugees from Latin America and the Caribbean into the European labour market** by bringing together experienced partners and academics and promoting a cooperative network of countries that are among the most affected: **Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria**. To achieve this, the project specifically aims to develop and test research-based educational training, guidance and counselling for migrants and refugees from LAC countries to foster their socio-labour market inclusion.

Within the framework of the IntelAC Market project, the first result (PRI) is the development of this **comparative report** aimed at **diagnosing the situation regarding the socio-labor insertion of migrants and refugees from Latin American and Caribbean (LAC) countries in Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria**.



This report "Comparative Study: The socio-labour inclusion of migrants and refugees from Latin America and the Caribbean in Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria" is based on the collection and analysis of data through mixed methodologies to ensure that the planning of the following interventions of the IntelLAC Market project is relevant to the social reality of LAC migrants and refugees that each analyzed country experiences. This study consists of two main parts: first, based on the analysis of quantitative data, it will identify the representation of non-European migrants in the countries under study, and then it will focus on the specific situation of Latin American migrants and refugees, analyzing their demographic profile and relevant characteristics, as well as data regarding their inclusion in the labour market and in the educational system. The analysis of quantitative data is based mainly on the review of reports on migration and refugees, as well as statistical data sources such as Eurostat and the National Statistical Institutes of each country such as INE (Spain), ISTAT (Italy), ISTATBEL (Belgium), and Statistik Austria (Austria), among others.

Secondly, **qualitative data analysis** is carried out, the purpose of which is to obtain a better understanding of the demographic profile and the main **barriers** that migrants and refugees from LAC countries experience in **accessing employment**. The qualitative analysis focuses especially on the Spanish territory since statistically it is the country with the highest rates of migrant population from LAC countries. In this regard, **semi-structured interviews** were conducted with **academics, public employment services managers and socio-labour guidance technicians** from third-sector entities to learn their perspective on the problems of the target population regarding employment and the efficiency and effectiveness of the implementation of existing employment policies for this group. Two **focus groups** were also conducted **with the target population** in two autonomous communities in Spain: Andalusia and Asturias to learn about their personal experience and the main obstacles or opportunities in the context of the migration process and the country's employment policies. The coding table of the interviewees is attached in the annexes to this report. Likewise, the qualitative analysis has been based on an **in-depth analysis of relevant bibliography** on the subject in the different countries, especially relating to the construction of the state of the question of this report.

This report is structured as follows: First, a comparative analysis of quantitative data on the situation and, especially, the situation regarding the employment of migrants and refugees of non-European origin in Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria is carried out. This is followed by an analysis of the legislative context in which permits for access to residence and employment of migrants and refugees in Europe are granted. Next, the main employment policies developed in Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria with the aim of integrating migrants into the labour market are analyzed. It also includes a section on good practices for the socio-labour inclusion of the target group in the different countries. Once all the information gathered in the different countries mentioned above has been presented, a section is included with quantitative data on the socio-labour situation of migrants from LAC countries. This is followed by an analysis of the qualitative information collected through interviews with different experts and focus groups of migrants. Finally, the report ends with a section of conclusions that includes the main findings obtained from the development of the report.

Before concluding this section, it is crucial to underscore significant limitations identified in the European Union and its Member States' data collection efforts concerning the socio-labor circumstances of migrants and refugees. Moreover, the data and information gathered by various countries often fall short of facilitating thorough comparative studies. Despite the

limitations encountered during the development of this report, its objective is to enhance understanding within the context of the issue described and to encourage further research in the field of labor integration for migrants and refugees.



II. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF MIGRATIONS FROM NON-EUROPEAN COUNTRIES AND THEIR SOCIO-LABOR SITUATION: SPAIN, ITALY, BELGIUM AND AUSTRIA

The social and labour integration of immigrants continues to be one of the greatest challenges European societies and governments face. Migration is a changing and complex phenomenon. In light of the rapidly changing environment, with improvements in means of transportation, globalization and the rise of information and communication technologies (ICTs), the phenomenon of migration has been transforming the population structures of societies, especially in Spain. Not only that, but phenomena such as the "Great Economic Recession" in 2008 have given rise to massive migratory movements motivated by the search for employment, thus constituting a turning point in migratory movements.

As has been pointed out by various international organizations (IMF, WMO, WTO and UN), new migration trends are emerging on a planetary scale, such as the feminization of migration flows (women represent 51% of migrants), the importance of child immigration and migrants resulting from the consequences of climate change.

All these trends are especially important for Spain since as noted by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), Spain has become one of the top 20 destination countries for International migrations (IOM, 2018).

Figure 1: Distribution of countries with the highest number of immigrants in the EU in 2019.

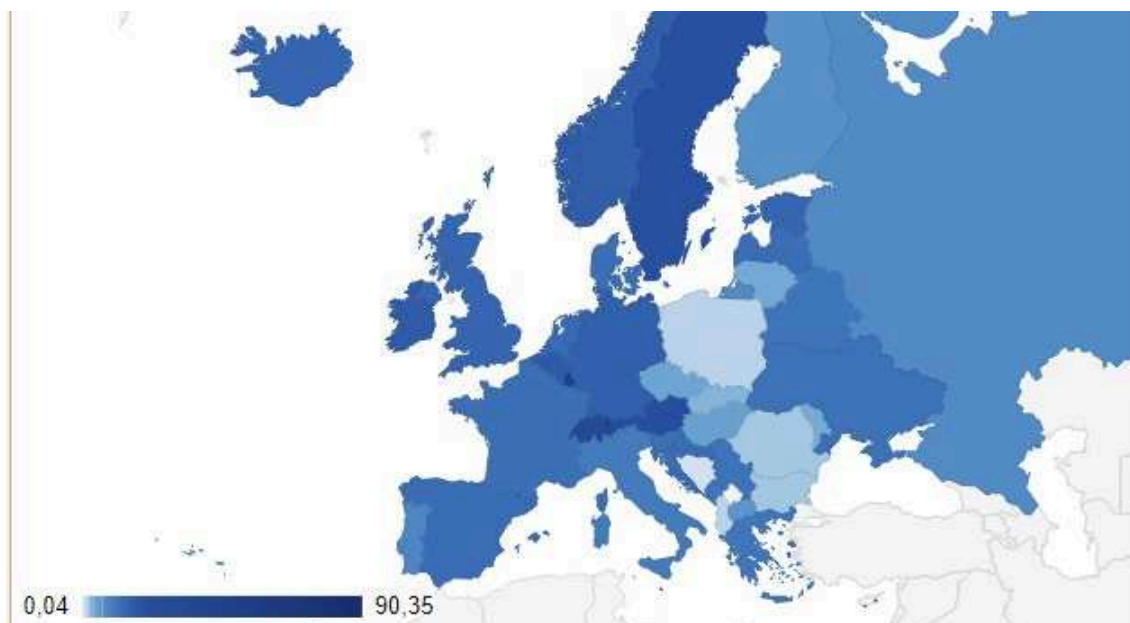


Chart prepared by EUROSTAT, 2019

According to Eurostat data, Spain is the country with the highest number of migrant population among the countries of the European Union. In the year

2022, Spain registered (467,918) migrants, followed by Italy (247,526) which ranks third among the EU countries right after France. Belgium (118,683) and Austria (101,565) registered a smaller migrant influx in their countries (Eurostat, 2023).

In recent decades, Spain has become one of the most important countries for migration, however, the economic crisis of 2008 marked a turning point in terms of migratory flows, configuring a new migratory structure from this moment onwards. Not only that but within this time period under analysis, the Covid-19 crisis marked another important turning point.

Figure 2: Evolution of the total number of migrants reported by country analyzed in the period (2009-2020).

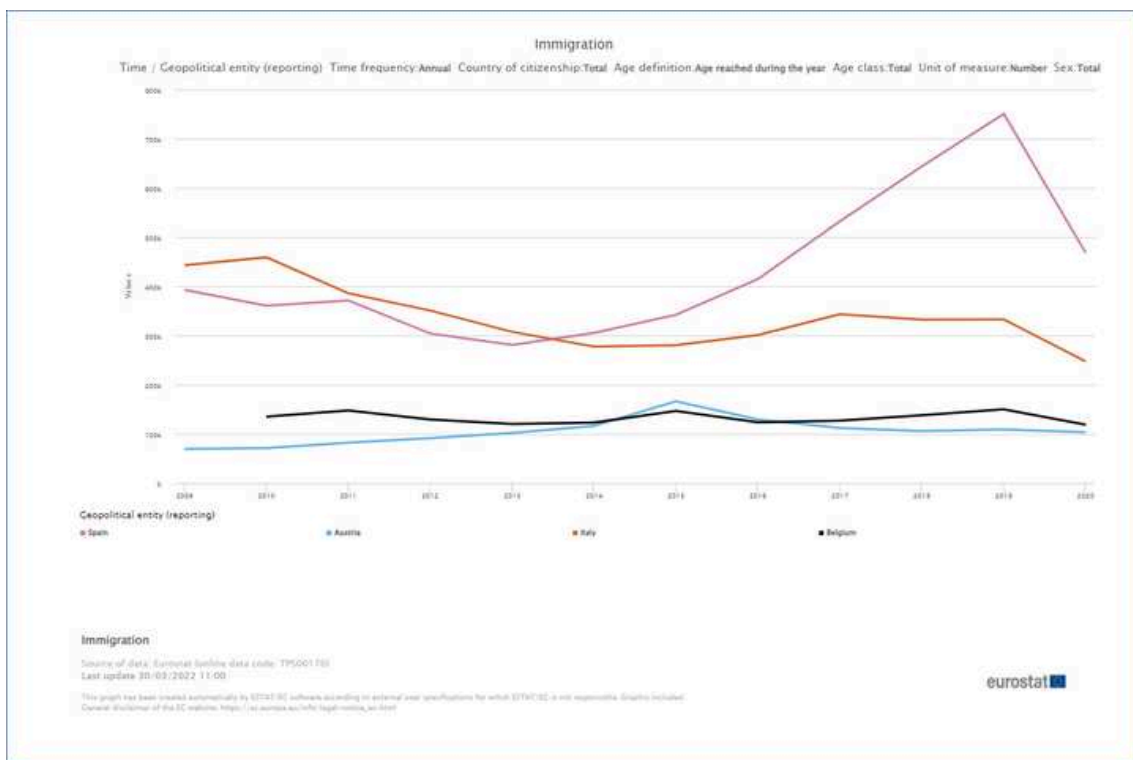


Chart prepared by EUROSTAT 2023



Table 1: Flow of total migrant population by country in Belgium, Spain, Italy and Austria, 2009-2020

Country	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Belgium	:	135.281	147.377	129.477	120.078	123.158
Spain	392.962	360.705	371.331	304.053	280.772	305.454
Italy	442.940	458.856	385.793	350.772	307.454	277.631
Austria	69.295	70.978	82.230	91.557	101.866	116.262

Country	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Belgium	146.626	123.702	126.703	137.860	150.006	118.683
Spain	342.114	414.746	532.132	643.684	750.480	467.918
Italy	280.078	300.823	343.440	332.324	332.778	247.526
Austria	166.323	129.509	111.801	105.633	109.167	103.565

Table prepared by the authors based on EUROSTAT 2023 data.

The number of persons residing in a member state with citizenship of a non-member in 2019 was 21.8 million, representing 4.9% of the residents in the EU-27. In absolute terms, the largest number of non-nationals living in EU member states in 2019 were Germany (10.1 million people), Italy (5.3 million), France (4.9 million) and Spain (4.8 million). These four member states together accounted for 71.3% of the total number of non-nationals living in the EU-27.

Figure 3: Population according to citizenship as a % of total population, 2019

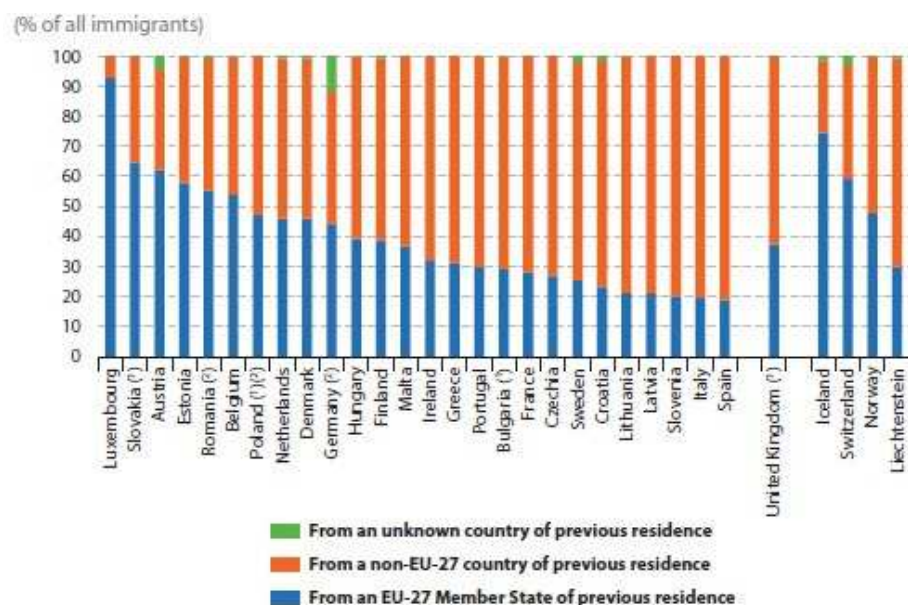


Source: graphs prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II.1 The non-European migrant population in Europe

The European population is 446.8 million people. In 2019 21.8 million people (4.9%) were migrants from non-European countries. In 2018, 2.4 million migrant inflows from non-European countries were recorded. Germany reported the largest bulk of migrants (893,900) followed by Spain (643,700), France (386,900) and Italy (332,300).

Figure 4: Distribution of migrants by country of residence in 2018 (%).



Source: graph prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

As shown above, in Spain and Italy the majority of migrants are people who come from outside the EU, while in Belgium and Austria, the majority of migrants are from member countries. In this sense, only 18.8% of migrants in Spain come from other EU countries and 19.8% in Italy respectively. In the case of Austria, 62.1% of immigration is from other EU countries.

II.2 Data on the employment situation of non-European migrants in Europe

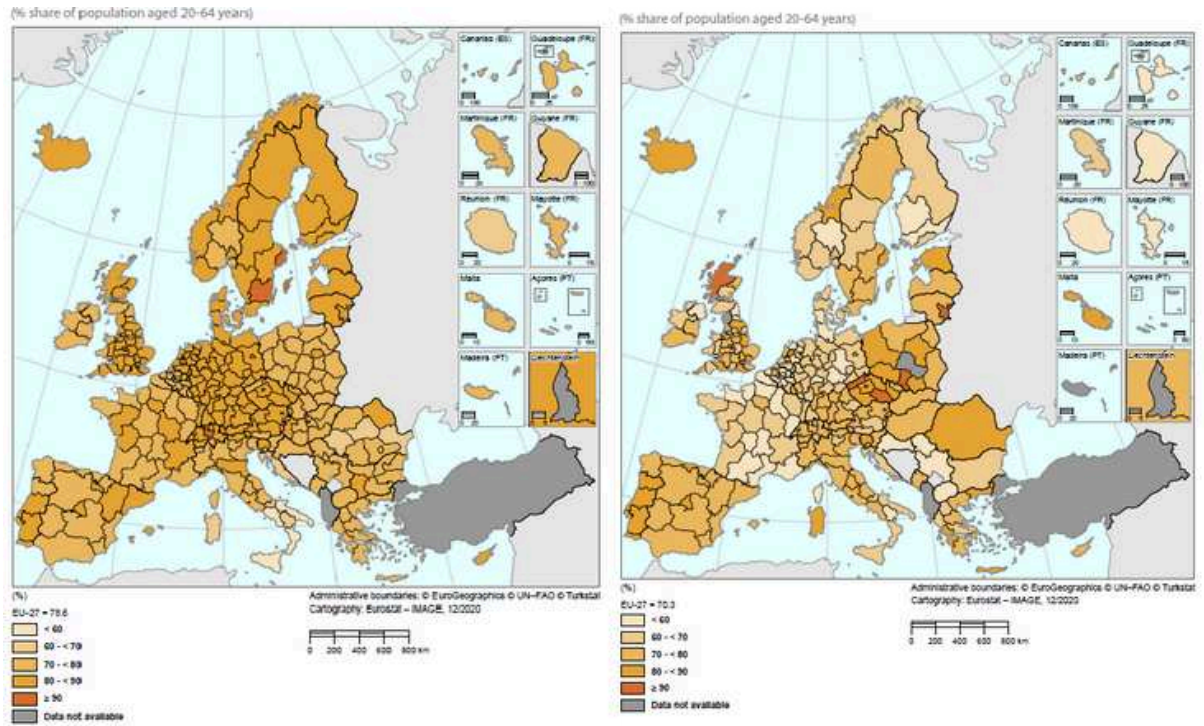
Activity rate

In 2019 the activity rate of the European working population stood at 78.6% for European citizens while this fell to 70.3% for migrants of non-European origin. Italy and Spain have lower activity rates than Belgium and Austria, however, the gap in the activity rate between European citizens and non-European migrants is significantly high in Belgium.

The following maps show the differences between the activity rates of European citizens and migrants of non-European origin. The map on the left represents the activity rates of European citizens while the graph on the

right represents the activity rates of migrants of non-European origin in different countries.

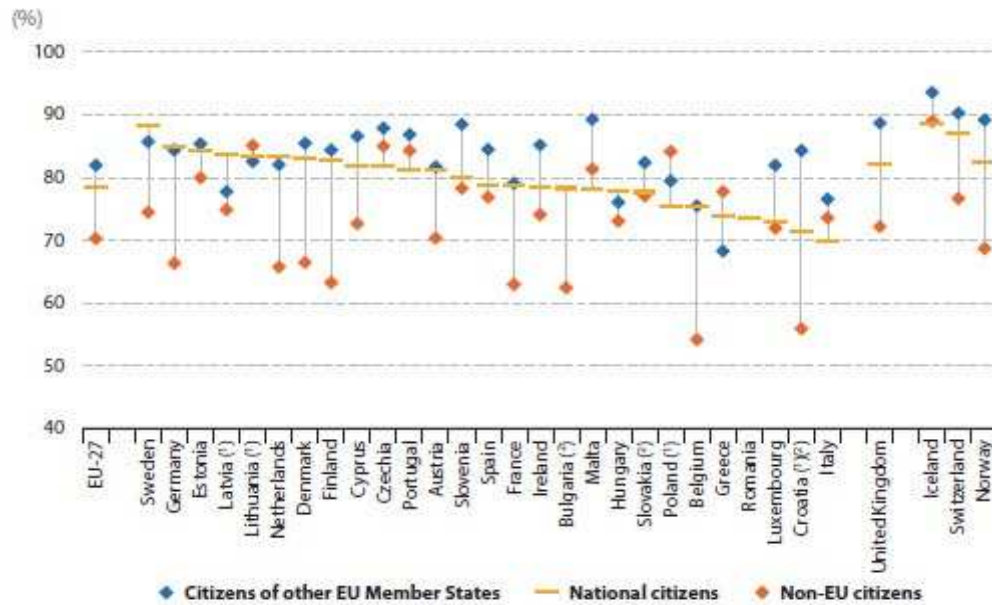
Figure 5: European maps of the activity status of European citizens and non-European migrants in Europe (2019).



Source: maps prepared by Eurostat, 2020.



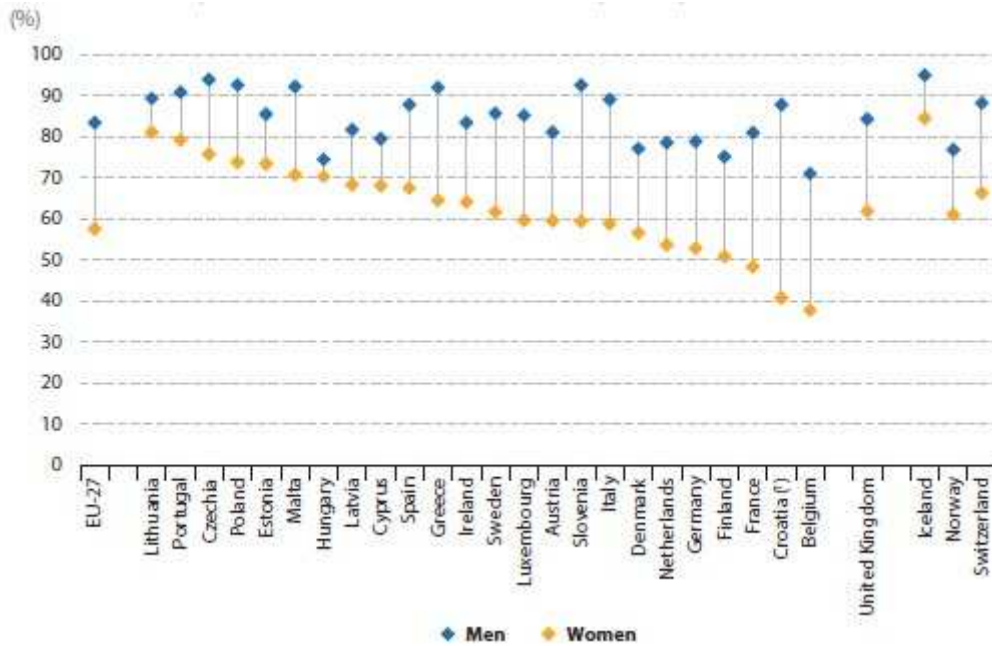
Figure 6: Activity rate of the population aged 20-64 by citizenship in 2019.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

Likewise, a gender gap is observed with regard to the activity rates of the non-European migrant population, the activity rate of migrant women was 57.5%, which is 25.8 percentage points lower than that of men (83.3%). The largest gender gap among the countries analyzed is in Belgium, where the activity rate of non-European migrant women in Belgium is below 50.0%.

Figure 7: Activity rate of migrants of non-European origin by sex in 2019.



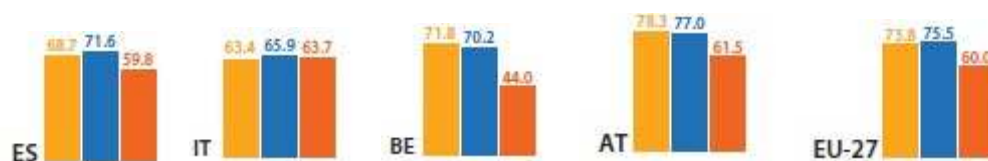
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.



II.3 The employment rate of migrants of non-European origin in Europe

In 2019 the employment rate for EU citizens was 73.8% while for migrants of non-European origin, it was below 60% (13.8 percentage points below the average for nationals). In the case of the countries analyzed, Belgium is again identified as the country with the lowest employment rate for migrants of non-European origin (44.0%).

Figure 8: Employment rate by origin (% of population aged 20 to 64) in 2019.



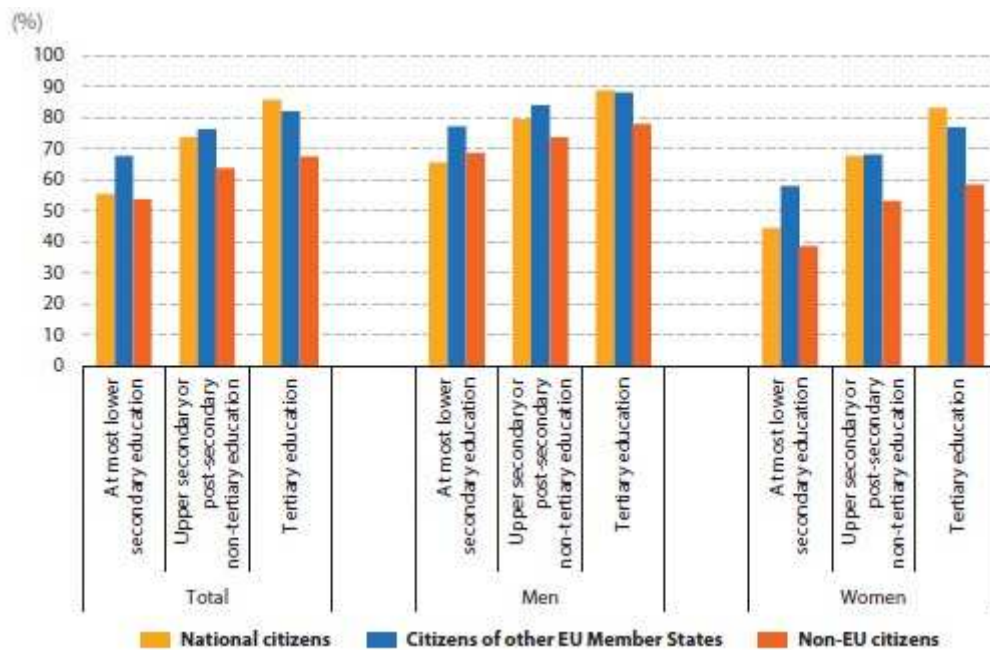
Source: graphs prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II. 4 Employment rate by educational level by sex

In 2019, the highest employment rate was higher for people with tertiary or higher education and lower for those with secondary education. This pattern shows differences in the case of migrants of non-European origin who despite having the same level of studies experienced lower employment rates, these being slightly higher in the case of people of migrant origin of non-European origin with tertiary studies. In the case of women, they experienced lower employment rates than male migrants, regardless of their level of education.



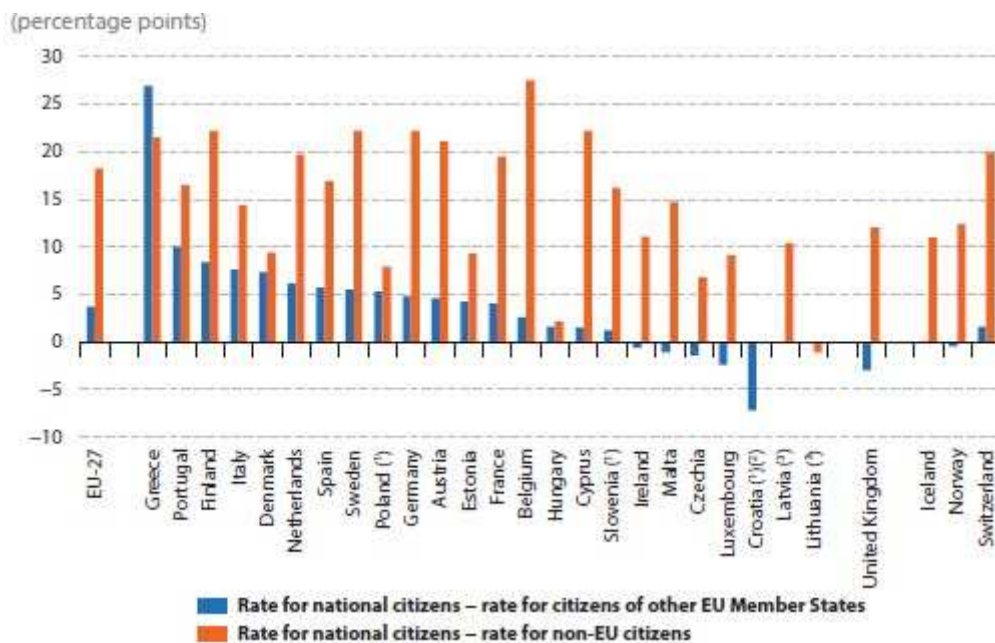
Figure 9: Employment rate by citizenship in ages 20-64, by gender and educational level in 2019.



Source: Chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020

The graph below shows the difference between the employment rates of nationals with tertiary education and the migrant population of European and non-European origin. It is worth noting that the largest difference is observed in Belgium (27.5 percentage points difference).

Figure 10: Difference in employment rates of the population aged 20-64 years who have completed tertiary education by citizenship in 2019.



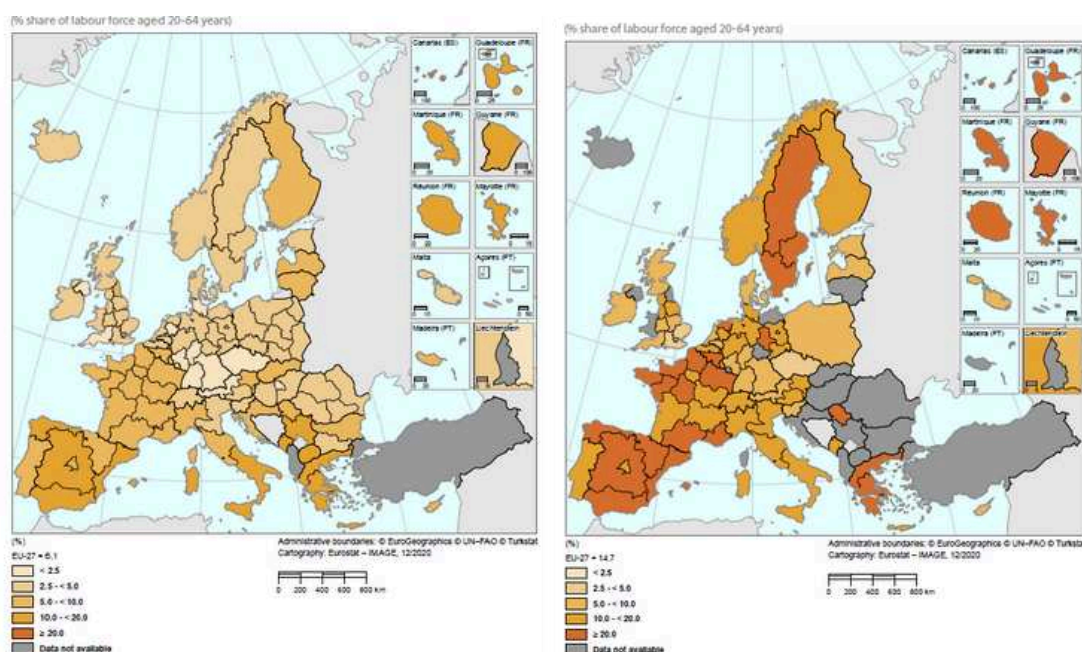
Source: Chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020

II. 5 Unemployment in the migrant population of non-European origin in Europe

The unemployment rate for the European population in 2019 in the population aged 20-64 was 6.1% while for the migrant population of non-European origin, the unemployment rate was 14.7% being more than double compared to European citizens.

Below are two maps showing the unemployment rates of European citizens on the left and the unemployment rates of the non-European migrant population on the right.

Figure 11: European maps of the unemployment situation of European citizens and non-European migrants in Europe (2019)

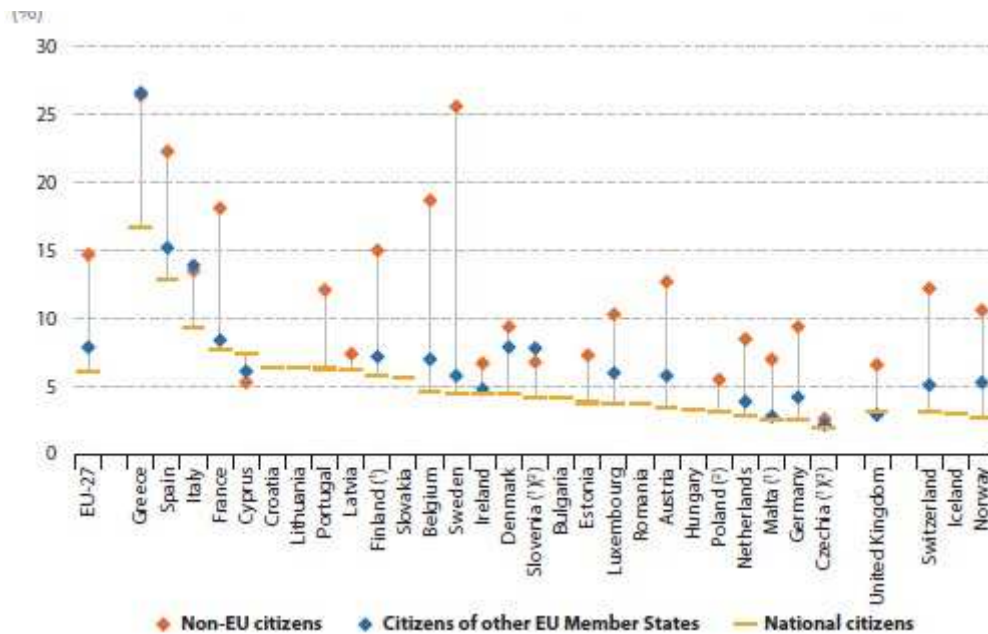


Of the countries analyzed, the country that reported the highest unemployment rates for migrants of non-European origin above 20% was Spain (22.3%), followed by Belgium, Italy and Austria, in these three countries migrants of non-European origin reported unemployment rates below 15%. However, it is also worth noting that Belgium is the country with the largest gap between the unemployment rates of nationals and migrants of non-European origin, at 14.1 percentage points.

II. 6 The unemployment situation of young migrants of non-European origin in Europe

A significant variation is observed between the employment rates of young Europeans and non-European migrants. The unemployment rate for young Europeans was 14.4% in 2019 while for young people of non-European origin it was 23.4%. In this respect, Spain and Italy are the countries with the highest unemployment rates for young nationals and migrants of non-European origin. However, again it is Belgium and Austria that show the largest gap in youth unemployment rates between young nationals and migrants of non-European origin.

Figure 12: Unemployment rate of the population aged 20-64 by citizenship in Europe in 2019.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

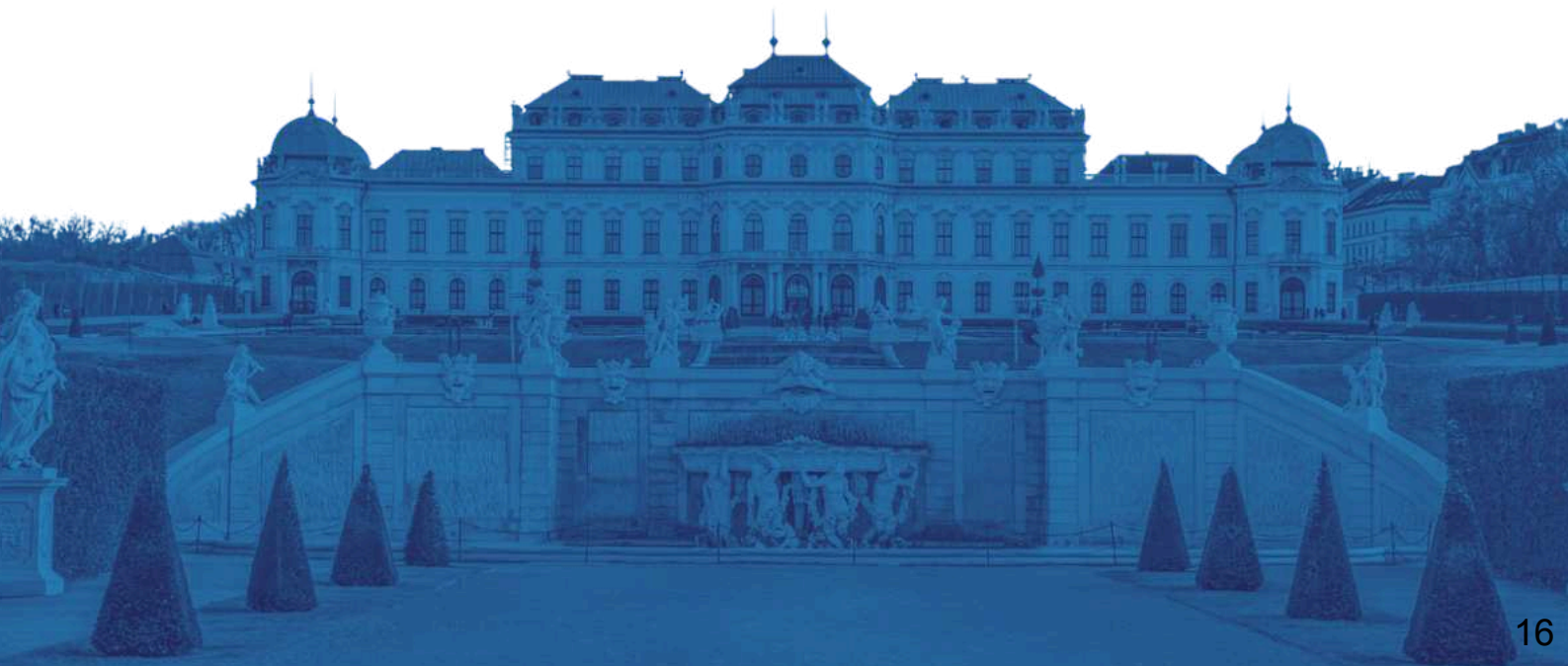
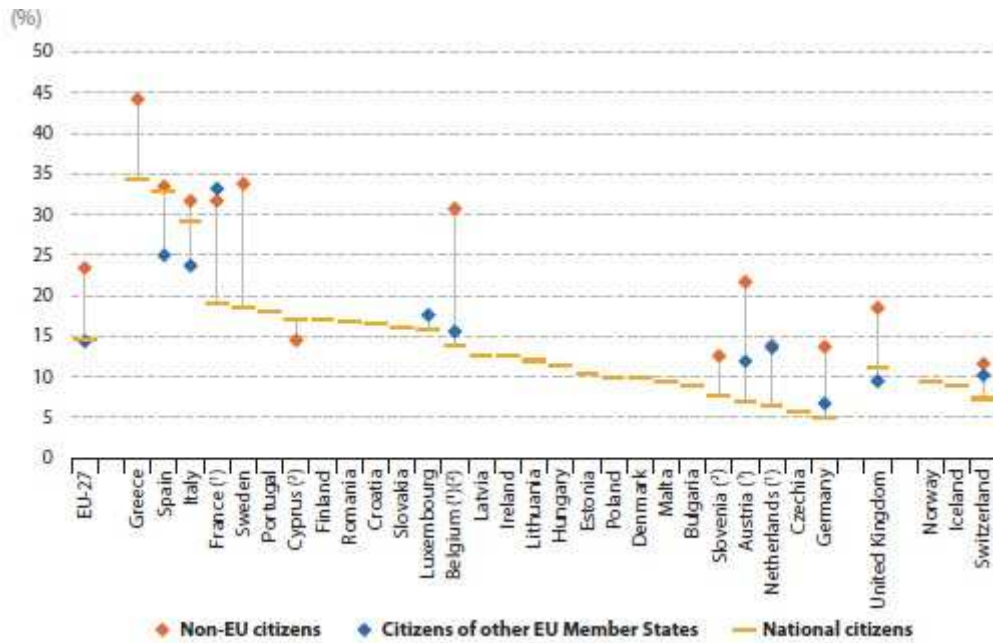


Figure 13: Unemployment rate of young people aged 15-24 by European citizenship or non-European migrants in 2019.



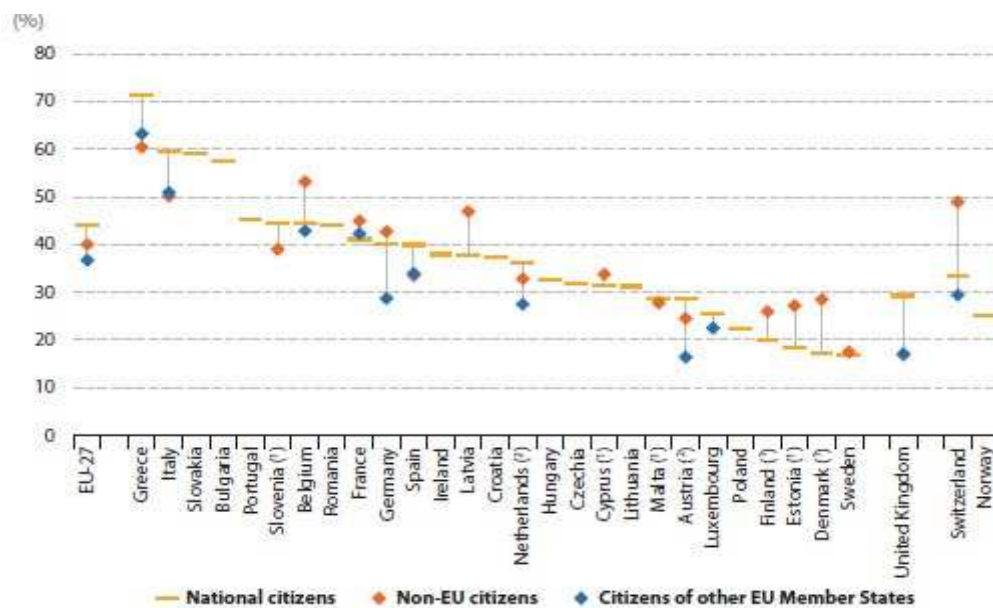
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.



II. 7 Long-term unemployment in the migrant population of non-European origin in Europe

Long-term unemployment refers to people who are unemployed for at least one year. As can be seen in the graph below, the situation of long-term unemployment is lower for European citizens, except in Spain and Italy where the situation is practically identical for citizens of the country and migrants of non-European origin.

Figure 14: Long-term unemployment of non-European migrants relative to the European population in 2019.



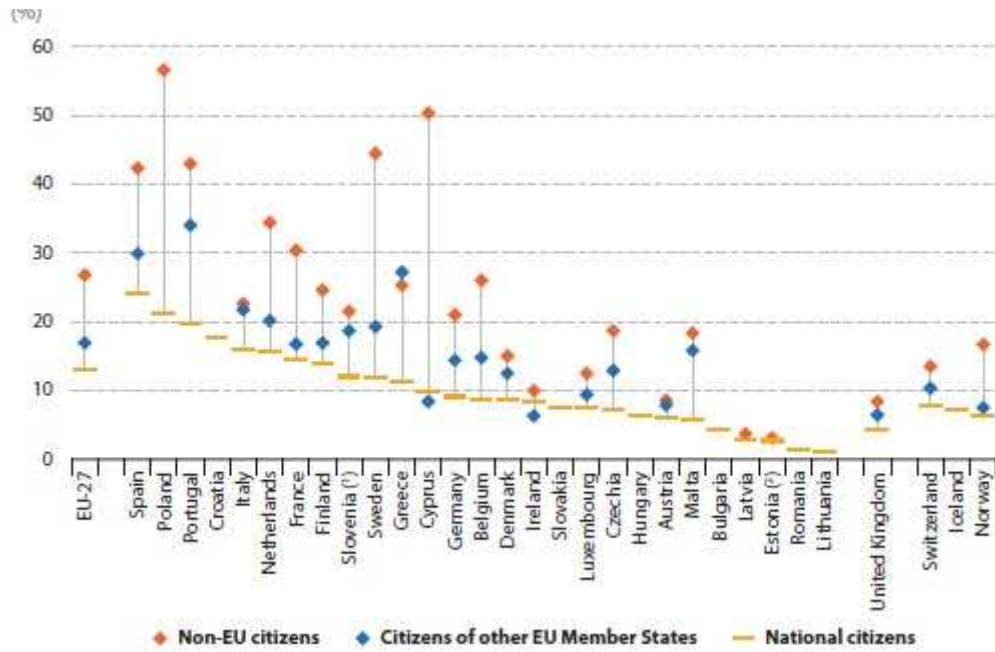
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II. 8 Temporary employment of migrants of non-European origin

The rate of temporary employment was 13.1% for Europeans, while for migrants of non-European origin, it was 26.8%, doubling the percentage of temporary employment for non-European migrants. Of the countries analyzed, Spain (above 40%) and Italy (above 30%) are the countries with the highest rates of temporary employment for European citizens and migrants of non-European origin, to a lesser extent, Belgium and Austria (rates of temporary employment below 30%).



Figure 15: Percentage of temporary employment of non-European migrants compared to citizens of European origin in 2019.



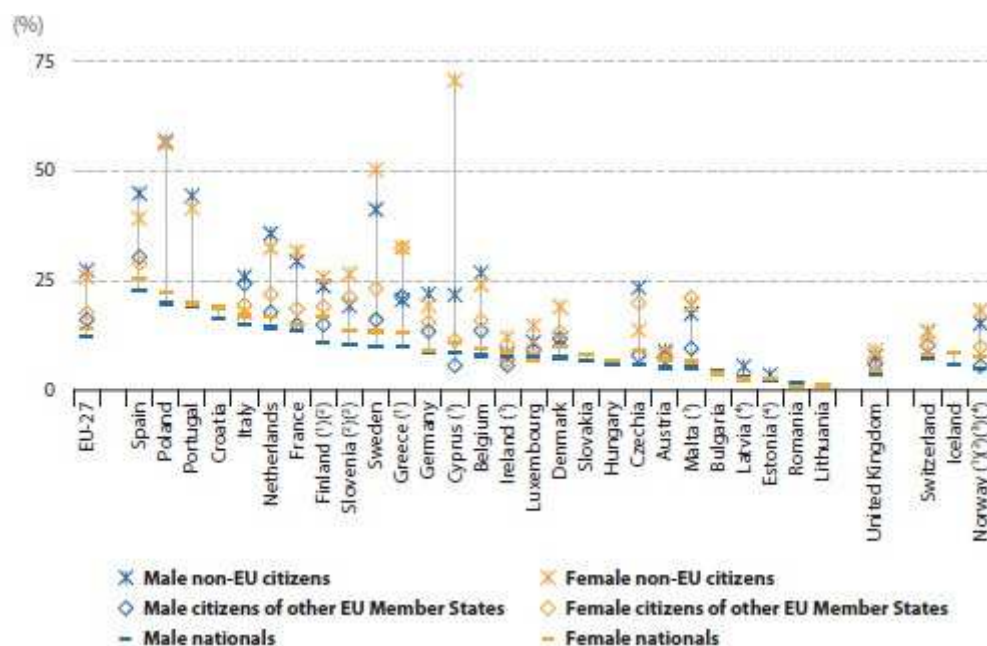
Source: graph prepared by Eurostat, 2020.



II. 9 The feminization of temporary employment among migrant women of non-European origin

It is also worth noting the feminization of temporary work, especially among migrant women of non-European origin. The following graph shows this trend, although, specifically in the case of Spain, this trend may not be sufficiently reflected in the statistics due to the fact that to a large extent, migrant women of non-European origin are engaged in non-formal work.

Figure 16: Feminization of temporary employment of non-European migrant women compared to citizens of European origin in 2019.

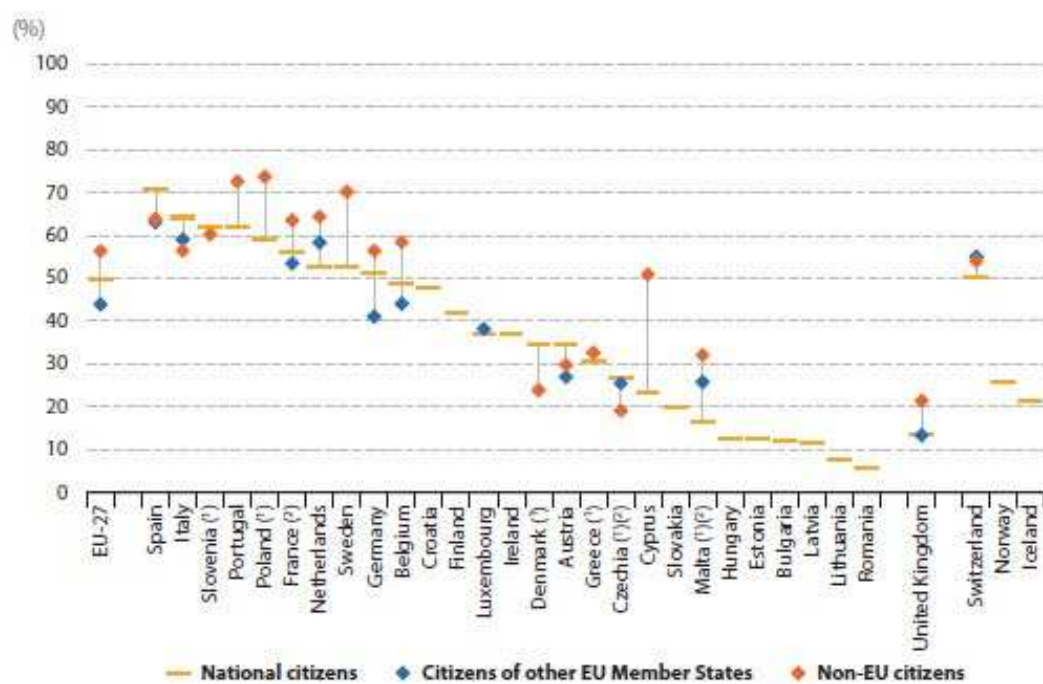


Source: graph prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II. 10 Temporary employment of young migrants of non-European origin in Europe

Another group affected by temporary employment is young people. In this case, the temporary employment rates of young people in Spain are particularly high, being 63.0% for young nationals. With regard to young people of non-European immigrant origin, differences are observed in the countries analyzed, with the temporality rates of young people of non-European migrant origin being lower than that of young nationals in Spain, Italy and Austria, while in Belgium the temporality rate of young migrants of non-European origin is higher than that of young nationals.

Figure 17: Percentage of the temporality rate of young migrants of non-European origin relative to the national population, 2019.



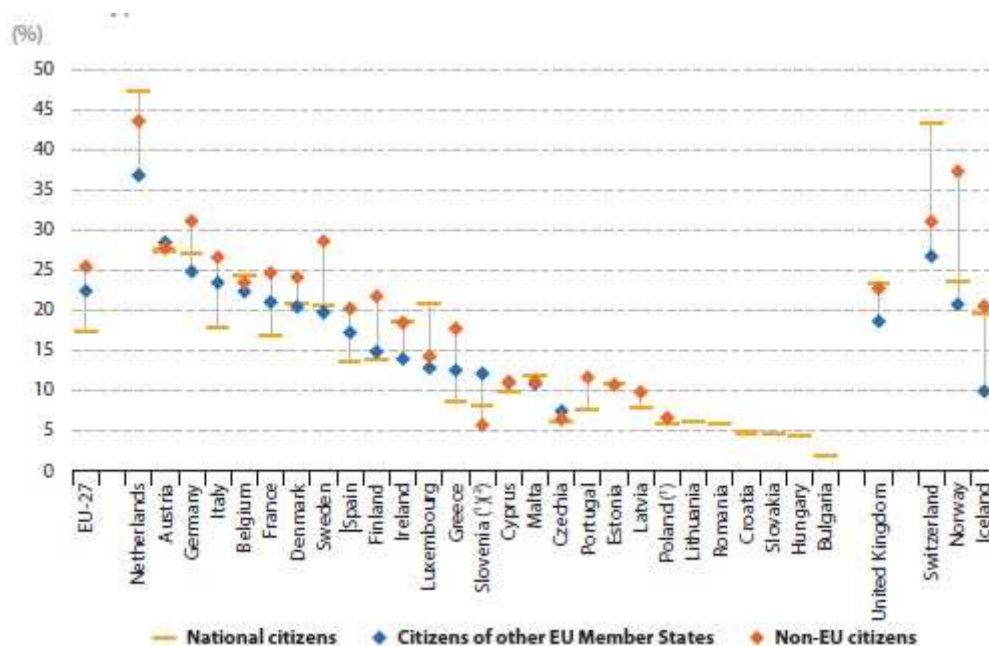
Source: graph prepared by Eurostat, 2020.



II. 11 Part-time employment of the migrant population of non-European origin

In 2019, 1 in 4 working-age migrants of non-European origin were working part-time (25.4%) while for nationals it was (17.2%). Part-time working hours are much more frequent for migrants of non-European origin and especially high in Austria (27.7%), followed by Italy, Belgium and Spain.

Figure 18: Percentage of non-European migrant labour force working part-time as a share of the national population, 2019

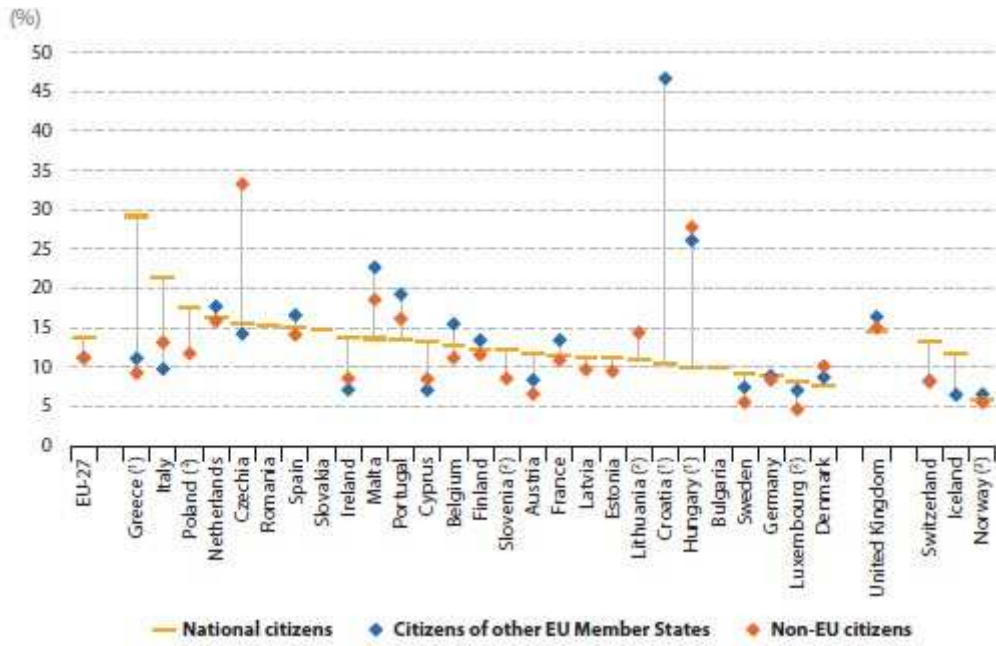


Source: graph prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II. 12 The working conditions of migrant workers of non-European origin

Of the total European working population 26.1 million people are self-employed, in the case of the migrant population of non-European and European origin it is 1.7 million, with the number of self-employed non-European migrants being higher. In 2019 less than 11.2% of non-European and European migrants were self-employed. The lowest rate of self-employed migrants among the analyzed countries was reported by Austria (6.6%). All countries show a gap between self-employment rates between the national and migrant populations, the most prominent gap among the analyzed countries is found in Italy with an 11.7 percentage point difference.

Figure 19: Percentage of self-employed out of total European citizens aged 20-64 in Europe in 2019.



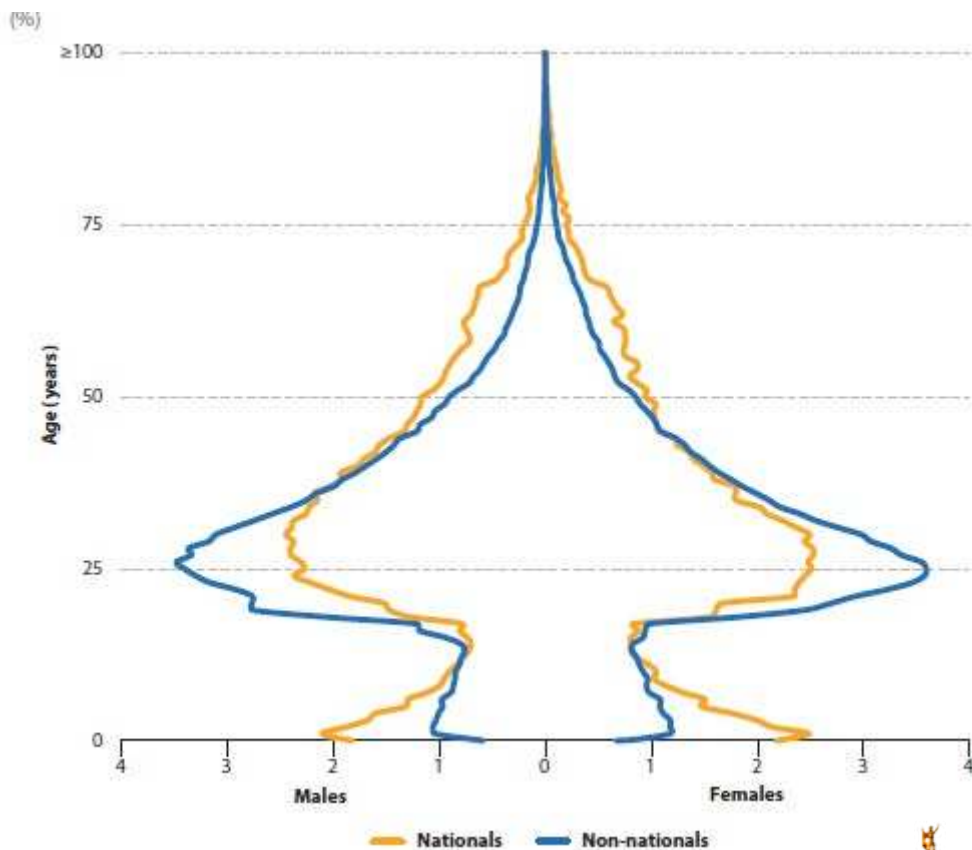
Source: graph prepared by Eurostat, 2020.



II. 13 Sociodemographic characteristics of migrants to Europe

Migrants in EU Member States in 2018 were, on average, much younger than the population already resident in their country of destination. On January 1, 2019, the average age of the EU-27 population stood at 44 years, while it was 29 years for migrants in the EU-27 in 2018.

Figure 20: Age structure pyramid of the migrant population in Europe compared to the resident population in member countries in 2018.



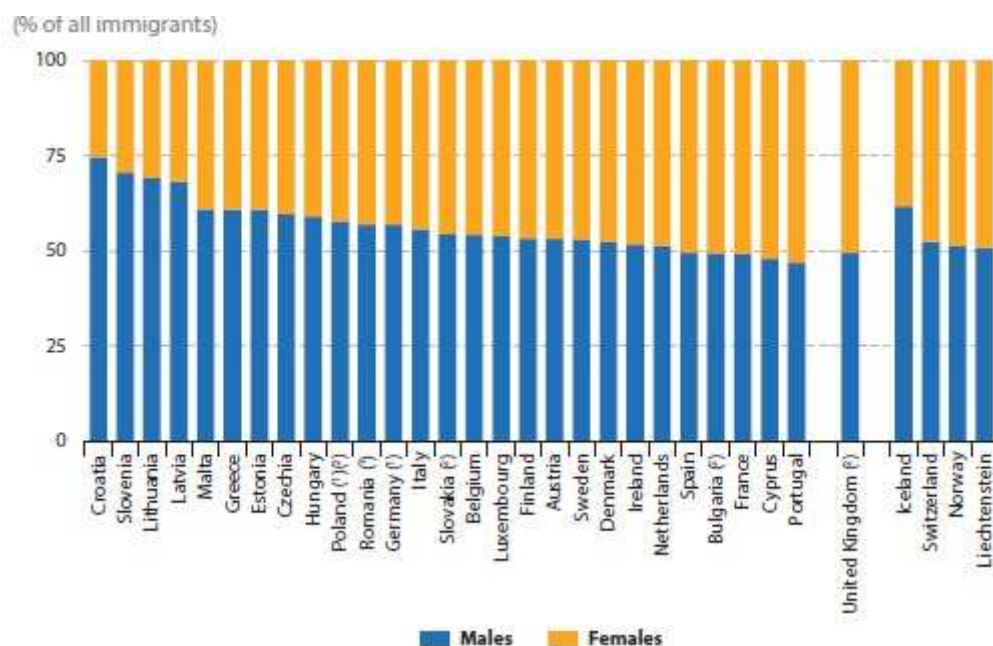
Source: Eurostat age pyramid, 2020.



II. 14 The Gender Perspective of Non-European Immigration in Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria

Generally in the member countries, slightly more men than women have emigrated (54.4% compared to 45.6%), however, in the case of Spain more women than men have emigrated.

Figure 21: Migrant population in Europe by sex in 2018.



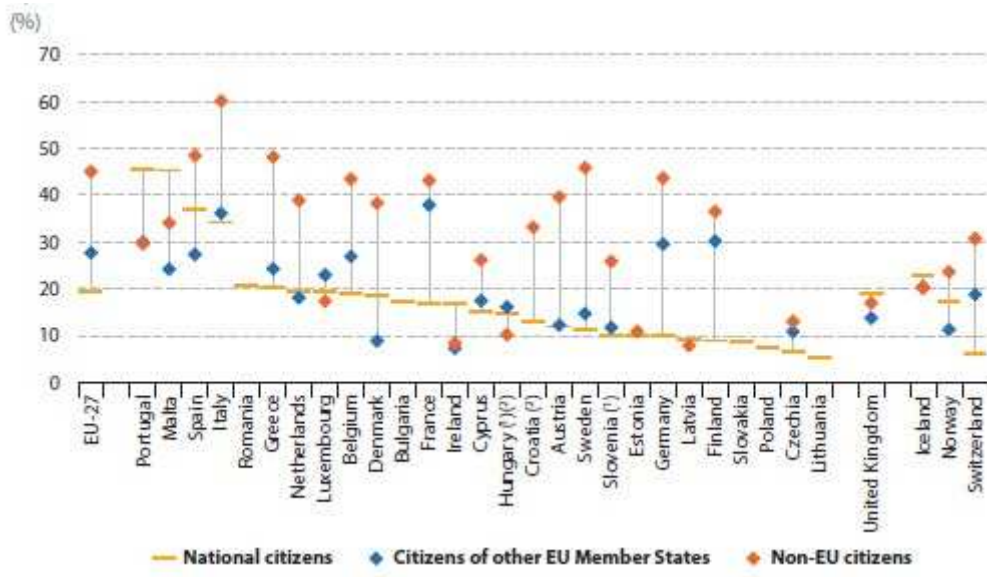
Source: graph prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II. 15 The educational level of the migrant population of non-European origin in Europe

The following are the results found at the educational level for the migrant population of non-European origin. With respect to the working population (20-64 years of age), Eurostat data show that 45.0% had completed primary education, while in the case of European citizens, it does not exceed 19.5%.

Among the member states with the largest share of the migrant population of non-European origin with the lowest educational level were Italy (60.1%) and Spain (48.5%). The gap between the percentage of people with primary education among the population of migrant origin and European citizens is particularly relevant in all the countries analyzed.

Figure 22: Percentage of the migrant population of non-European origin with primary education, 2019



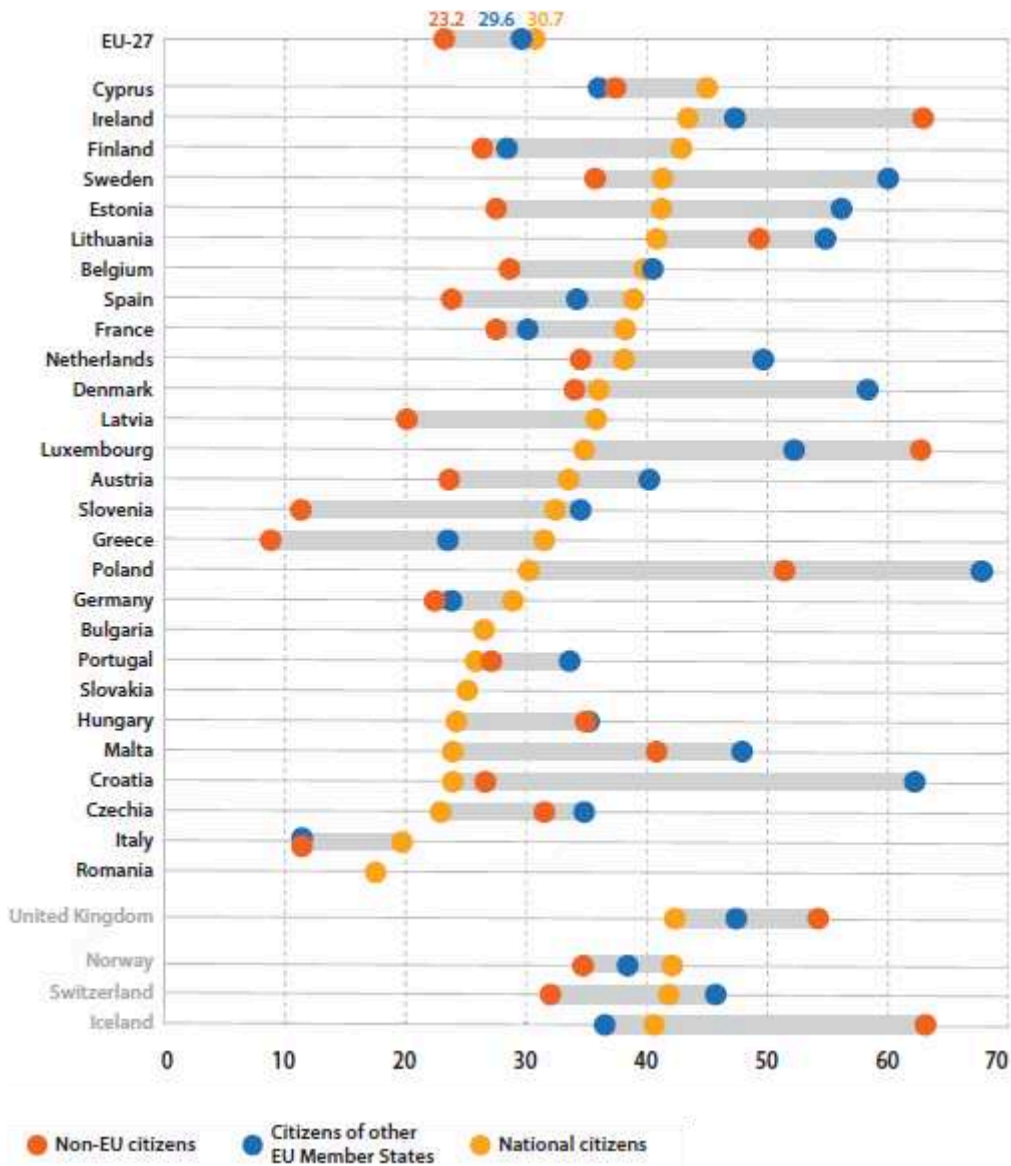
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

At the other extreme, the percentage of European citizens with higher education is 30.7%, 23.2% in the case of migrants of non-European origin (some 7.5 percentage points below the average for national citizens).

The following graph shows that Italy is the country where migrants of non-European origin have the lowest percentage of higher education, at 10%; in the case of Spain and Austria, around 25% of migrants of non-European origin have higher education; in the case of Belgium, the percentage is close to 30%.



Figure 23: Percentage of migrant population of non-European origin aged 20-64 with higher education compared to European nationals in 2019.

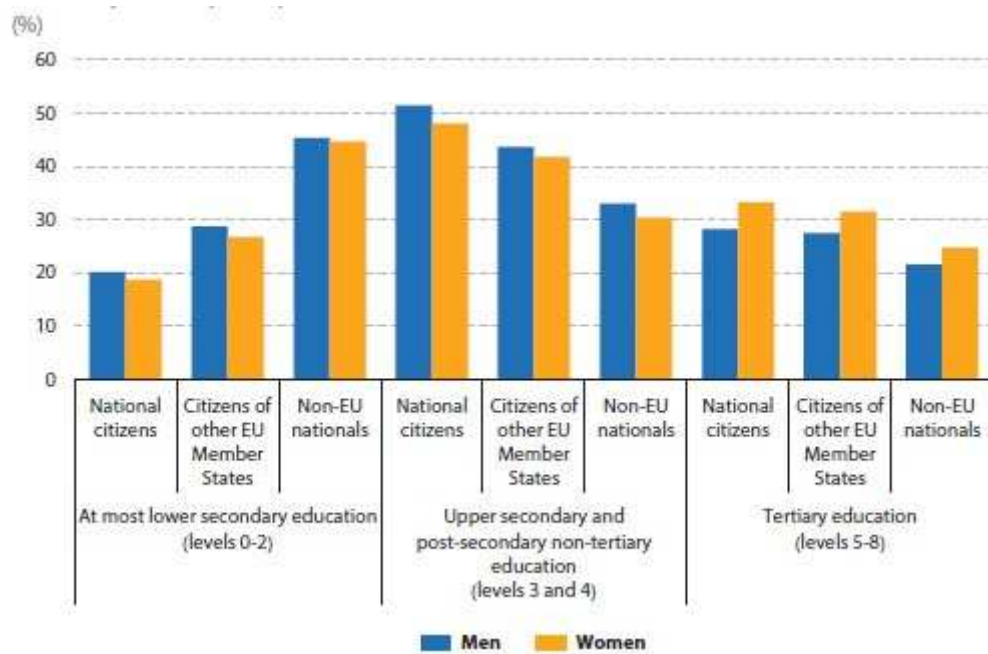


Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

In 2019, the percentage of working-age women with higher education was higher than that of men for both the national population and migrants of non-European origin. The gender gap in the migrant population was 3.4 points and 4 points for European nationals.

However, if we look at the percentage of people with secondary education, men have slightly more often higher education than women, both in the case of nationals and migrants of non-European origin.

Figure 24: Educational attainment of migrants of non-European origin in Europe by gender, 2019.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

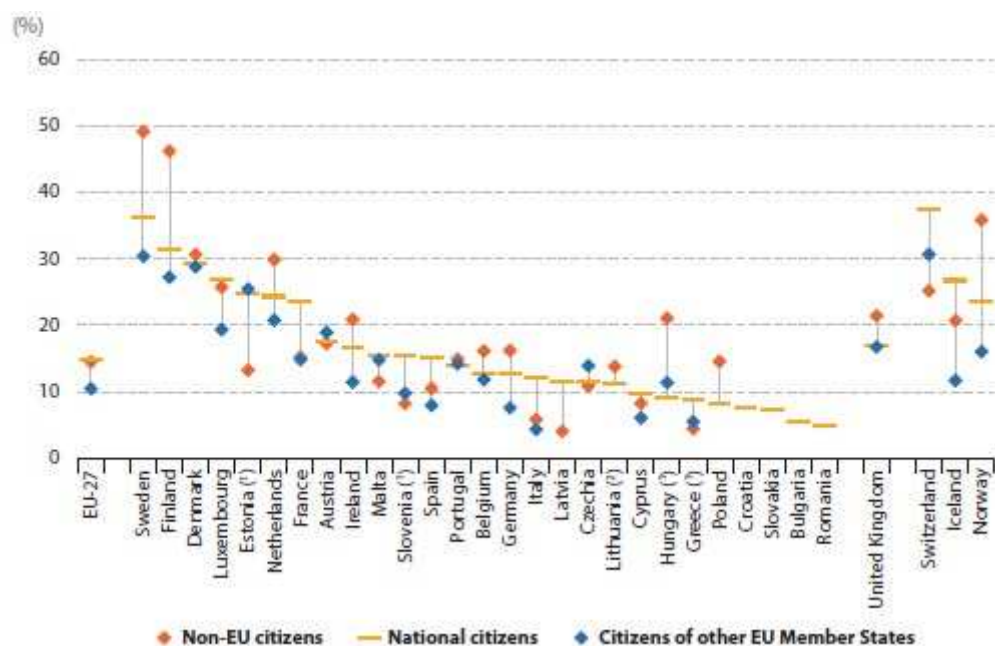
II. 16 Participation of the adult population of non-European origin in adult education programs

The adult learning participation rate is expressed as the percentage of people who received education or training (formal or non-formal) during the four weeks prior to the labour force survey.

In 2019, practically no difference was observed in the proportion of working-age people who participated in adult learning programs if we compare nationals and non-EU nationals (14.4% vs. 14.7).



Figure 25: Percentage of working-age migrant population of European origin participating in adult training programs



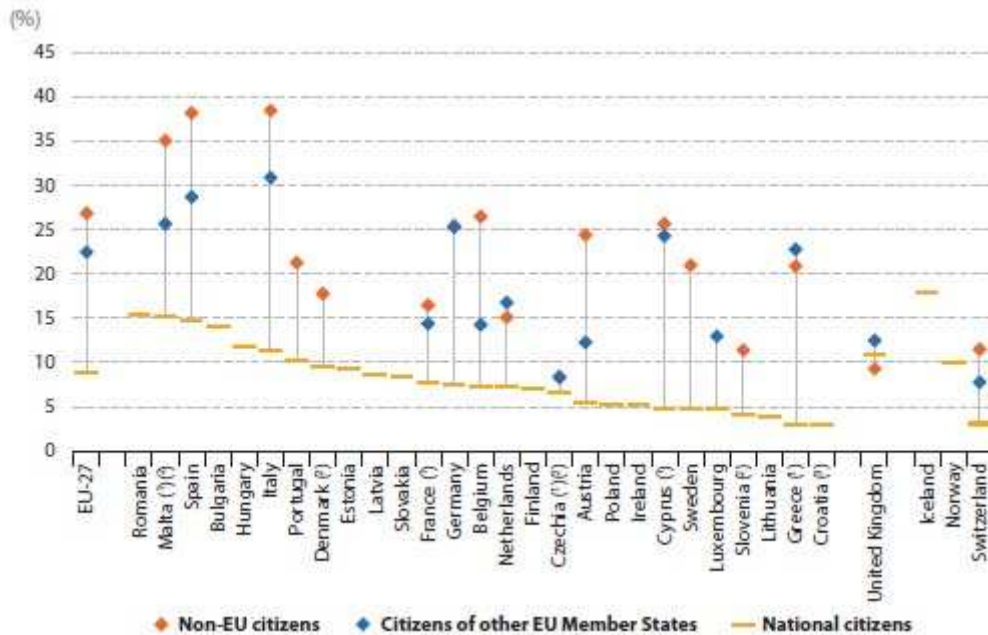
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II. 17 Premature dropout in the migrant population of non-European origin

Early leavers from education and training are defined as persons aged 18 to 24 having attained at most a lower secondary level of education and who did not participate in higher education (formal or non-formal) or training in the four weeks prior to the labour force survey.

In the case of young migrants of non-European origin, the early dropout rate was 26.9%, more than three times higher than that of European citizens (8.9%).

Figure 26: Percentage of early school leavers of non-European origin migrants compared to European citizens aged 18 to 24 in 2019.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

The greatest difference between the rates of early school leaving is observed in Italy and Spain, with a difference of 27.2 percentage points in Italy and 23.5 in Spain. Belgium and Austria also showed differences of more than 15 percentage points compared to EU citizens.

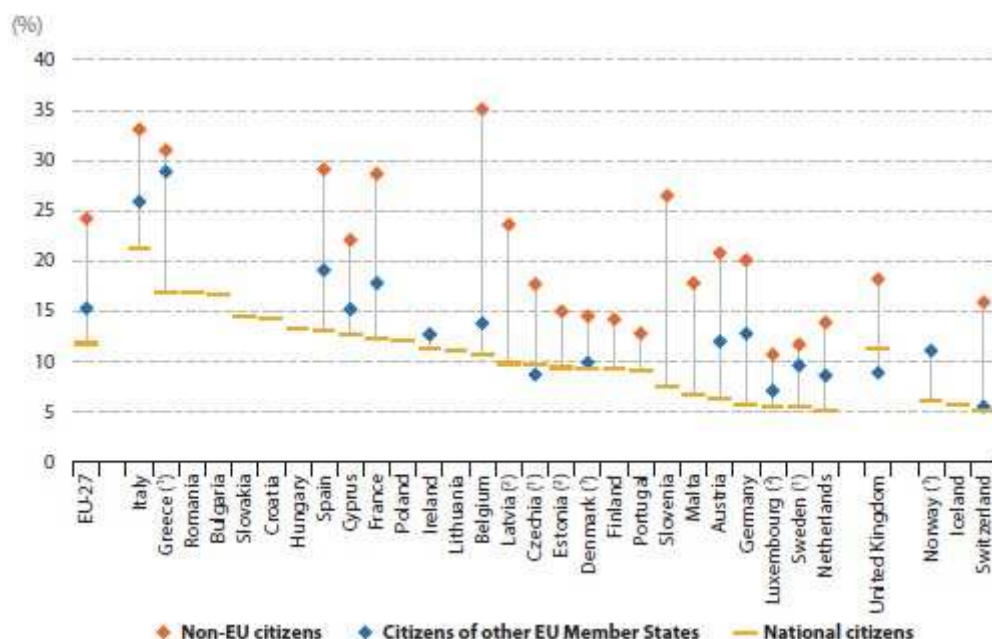
II. 18 The population of non-European migrant origin that is neither working nor studying

In 2019 just over 1 in 10 nationals between 15 and 29 could be described as neither studying nor working (*ninis*). In the case of national citizens it was (11.8%), while in the case of migrants, this was 24.2%.

The highest percentage of "ninis" among national citizens was recorded in Italy (21.2%) while for non-EU migrants it was 35.1% in Belgium.



Figure 27: Percentage of young migrants of non-European origin who are neither studying nor working compared to young Europeans in 2019.



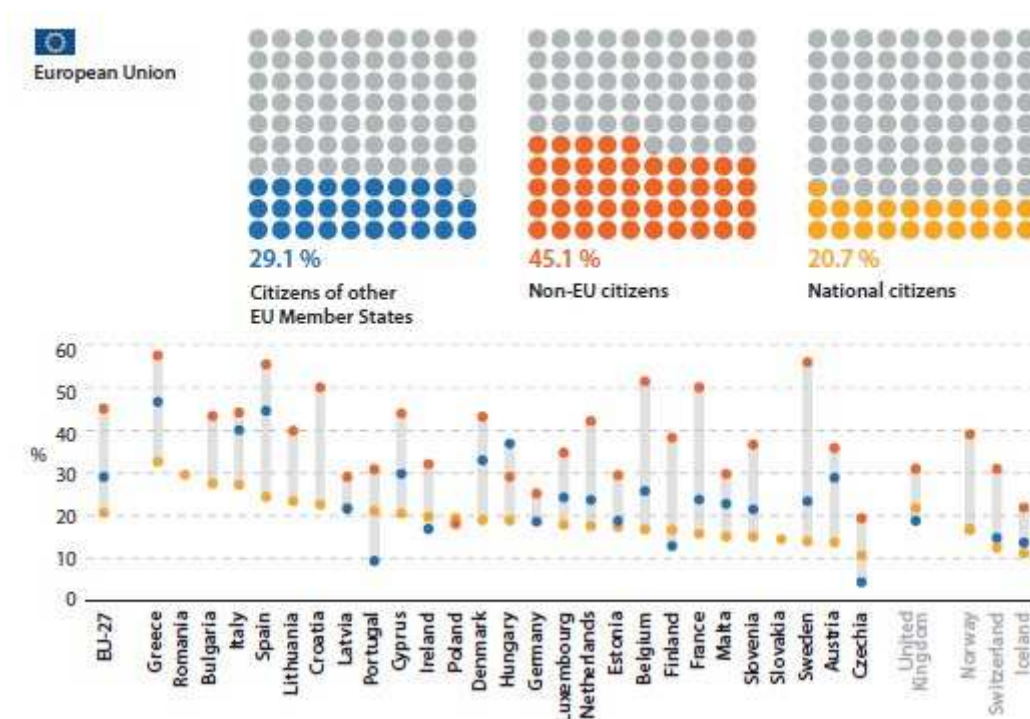
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II. 19 Poverty or social exclusion of migrants of non-European origin in Europe

At risk of poverty or social exclusion, abbreviated as AROPE, refers to a person who is at risk of poverty and/or severely materially deprived and/or lives in a household with very low work intensity. People are only counted once even if they are present in more than one of the three categories. The AROPE rate, the proportion of the total population at risk of poverty or social exclusion, is the main indicator for monitoring the Europe 2020 poverty target.

In 2018 21.6% of Europeans were in poverty or social exclusion (95 million), of which 57 million were of working age. If we widen the focus 20.7% of nationals were in poverty or social exclusion compared to 45.1% of migrants of non-European origin. This pattern is repeated in most Member States.

Figure 28: Percentage of population at risk of poverty or social exclusion of migrants of non-European origin in 2019.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

The graph above shows how the risk of poverty and social exclusion rate of migrants of non-European origin is double than that of EU citizens. Among the countries analyzed in this study, Spain is the country where non-European migrants experience a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion and where the gap between poverty and social exclusion rates is the highest, followed by Belgium, Italy and Austria. The gap between non-EU migrants and EU citizens in poverty and exclusion rates is also particularly relevant in Belgium.

II. 20 The risk of poverty among migrants of non-European origin in Europe

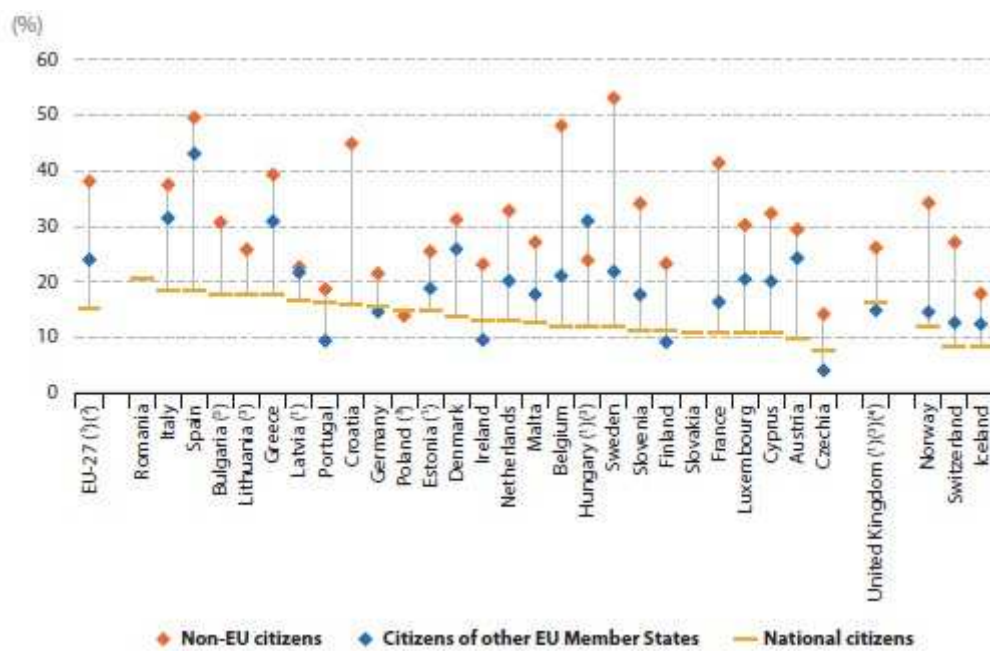
The at-risk-of-poverty rate is the proportion of people with an equivalent disposable income level (after social transfers) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60% of the national median equivalent disposable income after social transfers.

This indicator measures neither wealth nor poverty, but low income compared to other residents in that country, which does not necessarily imply a low standard of living.

In 2017, 15.1% of European citizens were at risk of poverty. In the case of non-European migrants, the risk of poverty was more than double at 38.1%.

In all countries, the poverty risk of migrants of non-European origin is higher than that of EU citizens. Moreover, this gap is particularly relevant in Belgium and Spain, and to a lesser extent in Italy and Austria.

Figure 29: The poverty risk of non-European migrants in Europe (2019).



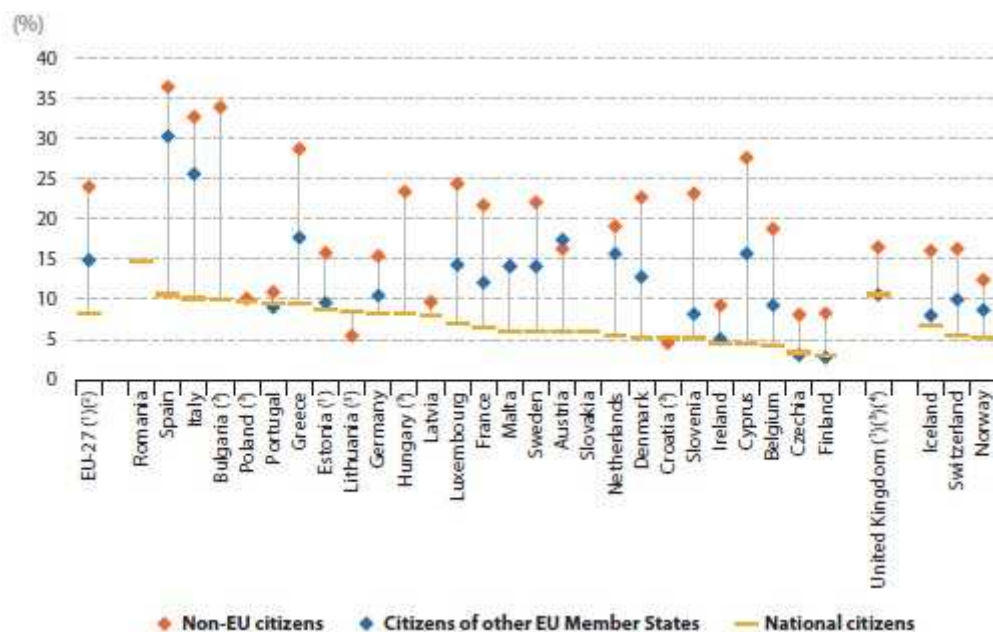
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2019.

II. 21 Risk of poverty due to low intensity or precariousness of employment

This indicator refers to those people who, despite having a job, do not manage to overcome the poverty threshold, which is 60% of the median income.

In 2018, 24% of migrants of non-European origin were at risk of poverty despite having employment. Regarding this type of in-work poverty it is worth highlighting the case of Spain and Italy, countries that report after Romania the highest in-work poverty risk rates among the member countries.

Figure 30: Migrant population of non-European origin of working age at risk of poverty despite being employed in 2018.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2019.

II.22 Obtaining the nationality of the country of residence for migrants of non-European origin

This section refers to the number of people who obtained the nationality of the country of residence during the year under analysis (2018).

The rate of migrants of non-European origin who obtained nationality in 2018 was 2.0%. It is important to note that in the case of Spain where the gap between non-European migrants and European migrants who obtained it was particularly high for the former.

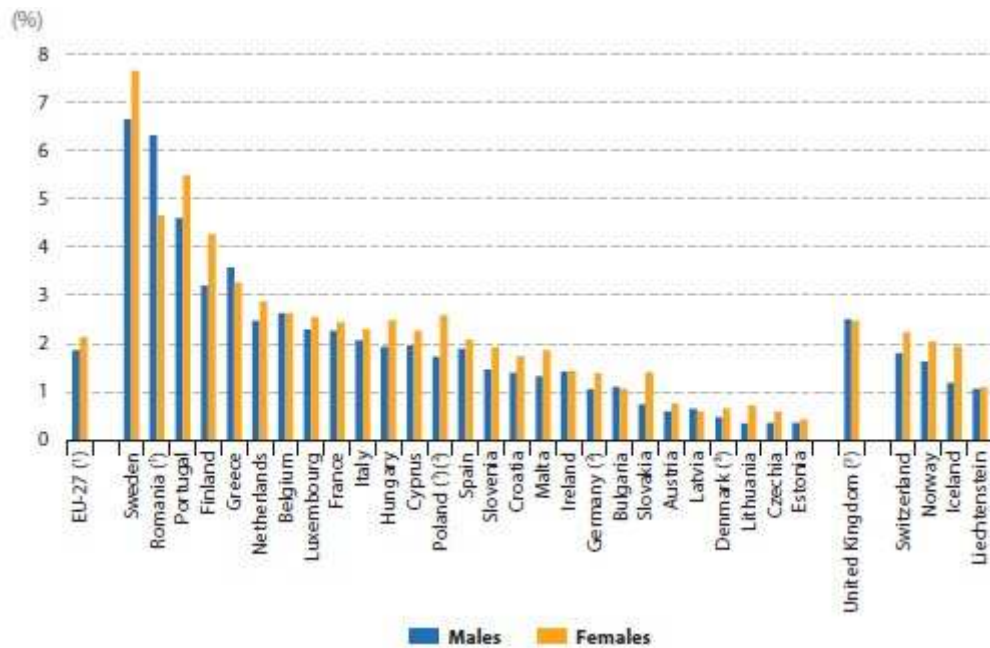
Likewise, in most of the member countries, the rate of obtaining citizenship was higher for women, except in Belgium, where it was identical.

In absolute numbers, 672,000 migrants of non-European origin obtained citizenship in the member states. The most prominent age groups were 35-39 years (80,000) and 30-34 years (74,000).

Of the countries analyzed, the country that granted the most permits was Belgium, followed by Italy, Spain and Austria, with Austria being the smallest.



Figure 31: Obtaining the nationality of migrants of non-European origin by sex in 2018.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2019.

II.23 Long-term residence permits for migrants from non-EU countries

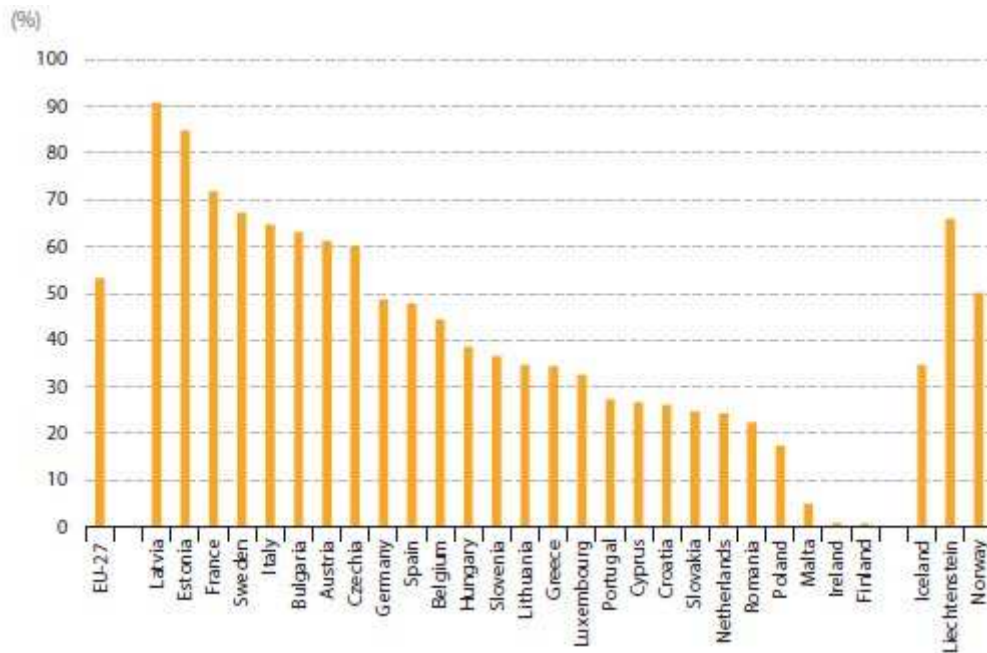
Long-term residence permits cover all residence permits granted to non-EU nationals with a minimum validity of five years or more (including permanent residence permits).

At the EU level, the information presented here includes residence permits issued under the EU long-term permits directive adopted by the Council of Europe in 2003 (Council Directive 2003/109/EC), according to which permits are issued by the Member States.

In 2018 10.5 million migrants from non-European countries had a long-term residence permit.



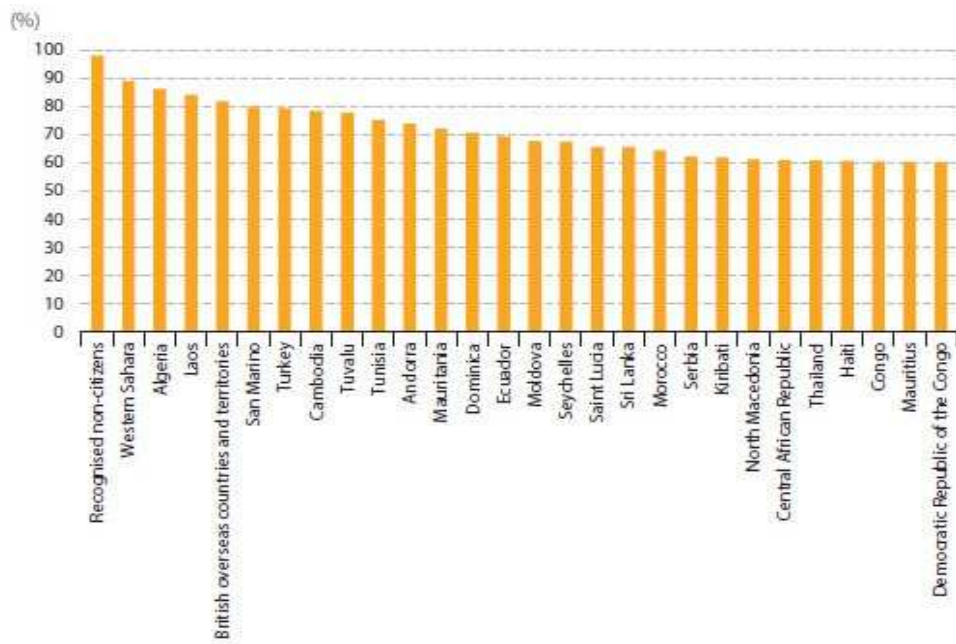
Figure 32: Percentage of non-European migrants with long-term residence permits in 2018.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2019.

The graph below shows the number of long-term permits available to migrants from non-European countries by country of origin. It should be noted that in all cases they are above 60%.

Figure 33: Migrants of non-European origin holding long-term permits in Europe by country in 2018.



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2019.

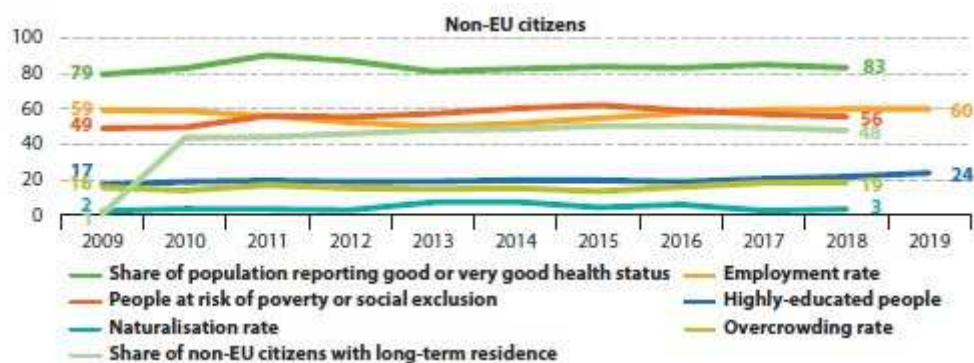
Some indicators of immigration from non-European countries are presented separately below, broken down by country: Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria. Reference is made to the situation.

II. 24 The situation of migrants from non-European countries in Spain

In the year 2018 in Spain, there were minimal improvements in the period (2009-2019) in the indicators referring to health status (4 percentage points of improvement in 2019 with respect to 2009) could be observed. However, a worsening of the indicators of risk of poverty and social exclusion (-7) was reported. Improvements in the areas of employment (+1) and in the level of education, such as having higher education (+7) could be seen.

In regards to obtaining nationality, the increase in the period (2009-2019) was only 1%, while there was indeed an outstanding increase in obtaining long-term residence permits in the period (2009-2010), then it remained constant with a slight increase of 4 percentage points in 2018 compared to 2009.

Figure 34: Data flow of migrants of non-European origin in Spain



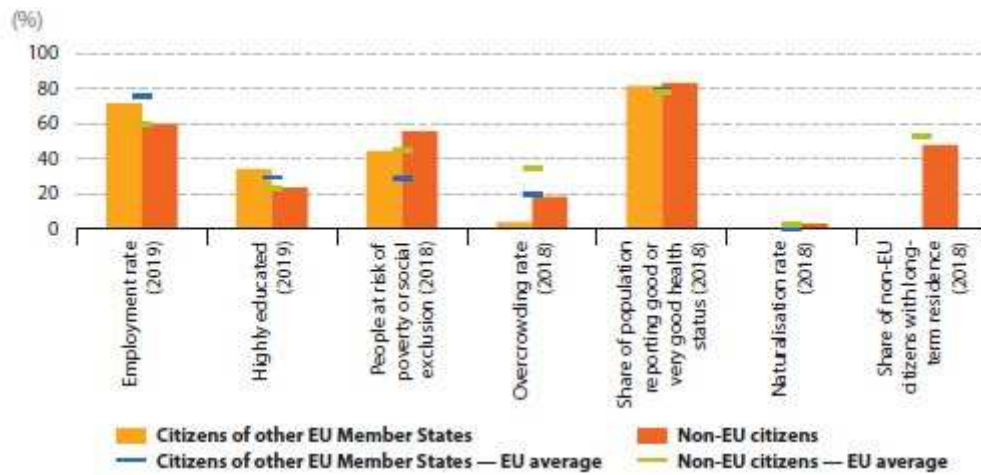
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

The following graph compares the indicators of the previous graph on the situation of migrants of non-European origin with the results of Spain in relation to the results of the average of the countries of the European Union.

It can be shown that the employment rate is at the same level as the European average, as is the percentage of people with higher education. However, migrants of non-European origin in Spain reflect higher rates of poverty and social exclusion than the European average for the same group. However, they do experience a slightly better health situation than the

European average. The percentage of migrants of non-European origin who obtain long-term residence permits is slightly below the average of other European countries.

Figure 35: Indicators of migrants of non-European origin in Spain compared to the European average



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

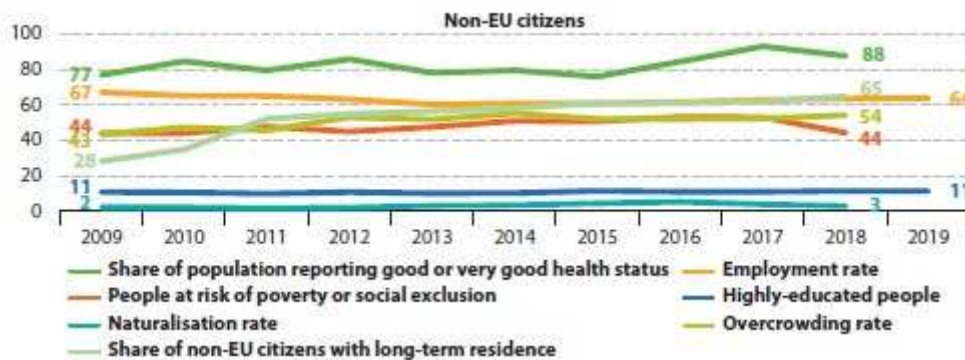


II. 25 The situation of migrants from non-European countries in Italy

In Italy, minimal improvements are observed in the following indicators in the period (2009-2019) except for health status (10 percentage points of improvement in 2019 compared to 2009), however, there is stagnation in the indicators of risk of poverty and social exclusion, a slight worsening in employment rates (-3) and, again, stagnation in the educational level of the population with higher education.

In reference to obtaining nationality the increase in the period (2009-2019) was only 1% - the same as in the case of Spain, likewise an outstanding increase is also observed in obtaining long-term residence permits in the period (2009-2011) then remained constant with a significant increase of 28 percentage points in 2018 with respect to 2009.

Figure 36: Data flow of migrants of non-European origin to Italy

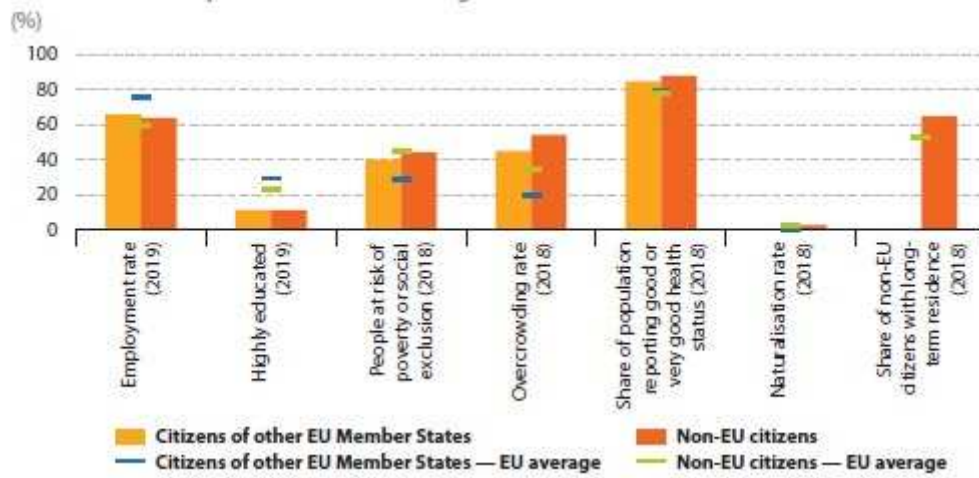


Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

Figure 37 refers to the situation of migrants from non-European countries compared to the European average. It should be noted that the employment rate and the percentage of migrants with higher education in Italy is below the EU average. The rate of poverty or social exclusion is slightly below the average, while, in Spain, the health status is slightly above the European average. The percentage of migrants of non-European origin who obtain long-term residence permits is well above the average of other EU countries.



Figure 37: Indicators of migrants of non-European origin in Italy compared to the European average



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

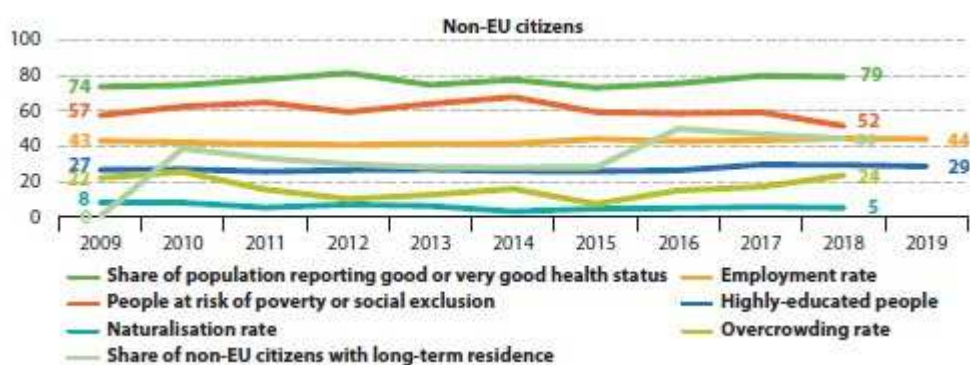


II.26 The situation of migrants from non-European countries in Belgium

In Belgium, minimal improvements are observed in the period (2009-2019) in the indicators referring to health status (5 percentage points improvement in 2019 compared to 2009), a slight decrease in the rate of risk of poverty and social exclusion (-5), a slight improvement in employment rates (+1) and, once again, stagnation in the educational level of the population with higher education (+2).

In Belgium regards to obtaining nationality, unlike in Spain and in Italy, a decrease is observed in the period (2009-2018) being this of minus 3 percentage points, likewise, an increase is also observed in two periods in obtaining long-term residence permits in the period (2009-2010 and 2015 and 2016) then remained constant with a significant increase of 24 percentage points in 2018 with respect to 2009.

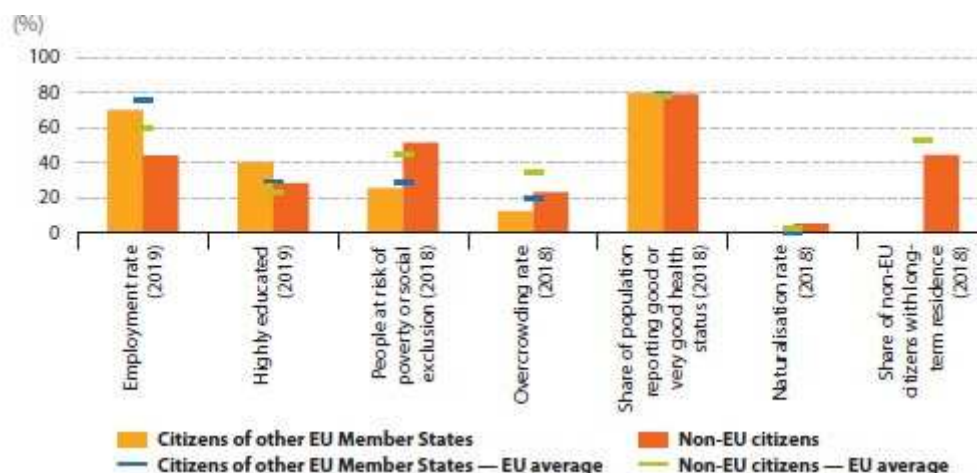
Figure 38: Data flow of migrants of non-European origin to Belgium



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

Figure 39 refers to the situation of migrants from non-European backgrounds compared to the European average, it is worth noting that the employment rate in Belgium is well below the EU average (about 20 percentage points difference). The poverty or social exclusion rate is also slightly above average, while the health status is at the European average. However, in reference to people with a higher level of education, Belgium is above the European average. It should also be noted that the rate of people obtaining long-term residence permits in Belgium is also below the European average.

Figure 39: Indicators of migrants of non-European origin in Belgium compared to the European average



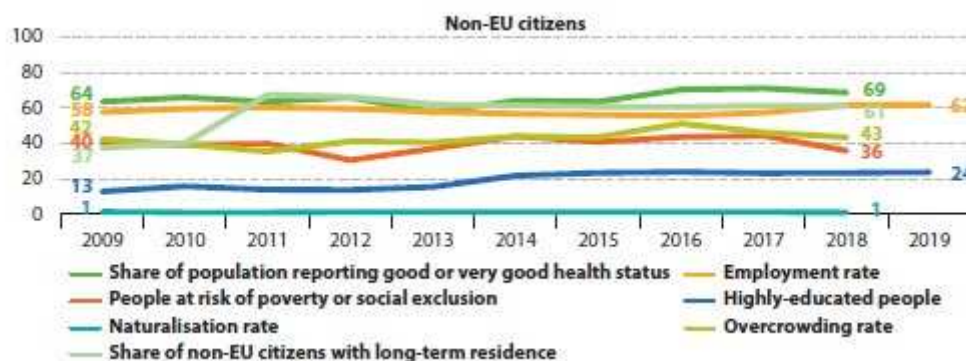
Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

II.27 The situation of migrants from non-European countries in Austria

In Austria, slight improvements are observed in the period (2009-2019) in the indicator referring to health status (5 percentage points improvement in 2019 compared to 2009), a slight decrease in the rate of risk of poverty and social exclusion (-4), a slight improvement in employment rates (+4), and a significant improvement in the educational level of the migrant population of non-European origin with higher education (+9).

In regards to obtaining nationality, unlike the rest of the countries analyzed for the period (2009-2018), no improvement is observed. In relation to obtaining long-term residence permits the same as in the case of Belgium, increases are observed in two periods (2009-2010 and 2015 and 2016), then it remained constant with a significant increase of 24 percentage points in 2018 compared to 2009.

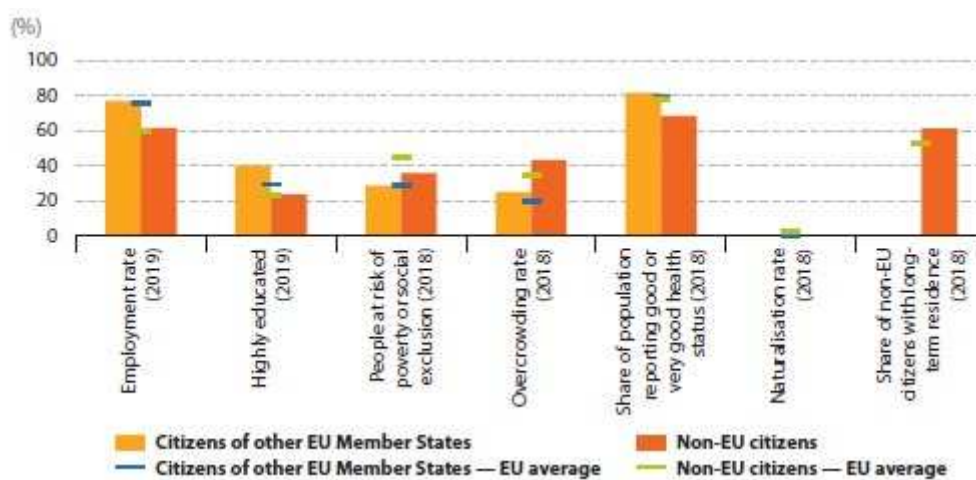
Figure 40: Data flow of migrants of non-European origin in Austria



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.

The following graph, which refers to the situation of non-European migrants compared to the European average of non-European migrants, shows that the employment rate in Austria is at the EU average, while the poverty or social exclusion rate is below the average. On the other hand, if we refer to the state of health Austria is below the European average. In reference to people with a higher level of education, it is at the European average. Similarly to Italy, the number of people obtaining long-term residence permits in Austria is higher than the European average.

Figure 41: Indicators of migrants of non-European origin in Austria compared to the European average



Source: chart prepared by Eurostat, 2020.



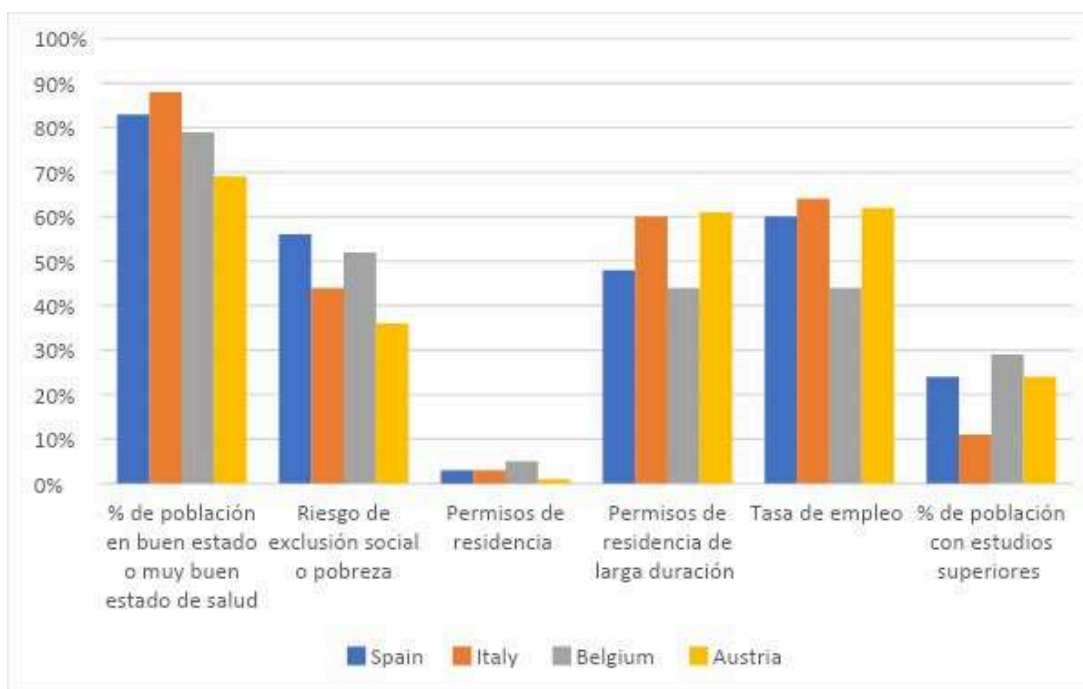
Table 2: Comparative indicators of the situation non- of migrants of European origin in Spain, Italy, Belgium, and Austria.

	Spain	Italy	Belgium	Austria
% of the population in good or very good health condition	83% (2018)	88,0% (2018)	79,0% (2018)	69,0% (2018)
Risk of social exclusion or poverty	56,0% (2018)	44,0% (2018)	52,0% (2018)	36,0% (2018)
Residence permits	3,0% (2018)	3,0% (2018)	5,0% (2018)	1,0% (2018)
Long-term residence permits	48,0% (2018)	60,0% (2018)	44,0% (2018)	61,0% (2018)
Employment rate % of the	60,0% (2019)	64,0% (2019)	44% (2019)	62,0% (2019)
population with higher education	24,0% (2019)	11,0% (2019)	29,0% (2019)	24,0% (2019)

Source: table prepared by the authors based on data from Eurostat, 2020.



Figure 42: Indicators of the situation of migrants of non-European origin in Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria in percentages in 2018 and 2019.



Source: table prepared by the authors based on data from Eurostat, 2020.

In general, the non-European migrant population has good access to health protection and consequently has a good state of health. By country, the data show that non-European migrants in Italy and Spain enjoy a better state of health, followed by Belgium and Austria.

Regarding poverty and social exclusion rates, as mentioned above, they are considerably higher for migrants of non-European origin than for migrants from other European Union countries, and the gap is even wider when compared with the rates for European citizens. In the case of the countries analyzed Spain and Belgium are the countries where migrants of non-European origin experience the highest rates of poverty or social exclusion, followed by Italy and Austria.

If we refer to the number of migrants obtaining nationality in a European country it is relatively low compared to the data on obtaining long-term residence. In 2018, Belgium was the country that granted the most nationalities to migrants of non-European origin, followed by Spain, Italy and to a lesser extent (1%) Austria. However, in the case of issuing long-term residence permits Italy and Austria showed a higher percentage followed by Spain and Belgium.

Following this analysis, the employment rates of migrants of non-European origin were particularly low in Belgium (44%), being highest in Italy (64%), followed by Austria (62%) and Spain (60%). These rates remain particularly

low compared to the average employment rate of European citizens (73.8%).

Finally, if reference is made to the percentage of non-European migrants with higher education, Belgium has the best results (29%) followed by Austria and Spain (24% respectively) and Italy in last place with 11%.



III. LEGAL FRAMEWORK ON MIGRATION AND SEEKING REFUGE

In this section, we will briefly review the international and national regulatory framework of the IntelLAC Market consortium member countries (Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria) in order to understand the situation of migrants and refugees and the context of their socio-labour integration. In the case of Spain, as it is one of the countries with the highest representation of Latin American migrants, we have added some comments provided by the experts interviewed, regarding the new reform of the immigration law approved in 2022.

III.1 International legislative framework

The 1951 **Geneva Convention** is the international legal instrument of reference for the protection of refugees. The Convention establishes the rights of refugees and the obligations of states to protect them. Article 1 defines a refugee as a person who is outside his or her country of origin and is unable to return because of a well-founded fear of persecution on account of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion. The person needs international protection when his or her country of origin is unable or unwilling to provide this protection against the feared harm.

The Geneva Convention was drafted in a post-war context, so that its wording was linked to the consequences of the war, establishing temporal and spatial limits for considering refugee status. In this sense, the **1967 New York Protocol**, in its Article 1.2, eliminates these limitations to broaden the scope of the term refugee.

For its part, in 2016 the United Nations General Assembly adopted the **New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants** (Resolution 71/1), which reaffirms the commitment to respect the rights of refugees and migrants, establishes the commitment to provide more predictable and sustainable support to refugees and the communities that host them, and agrees to expand opportunities to achieve durable solutions for refugees. Some states also committed to making legal or policy changes to improve refugees' access to education, legal employment and social services, substantially increase humanitarian aid, and expand access to solutions involving third countries. This Declaration lays the groundwork for the creation of two Global Compacts on Refugees and Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, adopted in 2018.

The 2018 **Global Compact on Refugees**, while not legally binding like international treaties, is a document that aims to improve the way the

international community responds to large refugee movements and protracted refugee situations, particularly by providing more equitable and predictable burden and responsibility sharing in support of particularly affected countries and communities. In this regard, on the principles of international cooperation and responsibility sharing.

The **Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration** is an instrument that, although not legally binding, presents a framework for cooperation based on the commitments agreed to in the New York Declaration. The Pact aims to *"mitigate the adverse and structural factors that prevent people from building and maintaining sustainable livelihoods in their countries of origin, forcing them to seek a future elsewhere. It aims to reduce the risks and vulnerabilities faced by migrants during the various stages of migration by respecting, protecting and fulfilling their human rights and providing them with care and assistance."* ¹

Professor Cachón points out four important aspects of the Pact:

- 1) A recognition that no state can address the challenges posed by international migration alone;
- 2) One purpose: to promote international cooperation on migration;
- 3) One limitation: the Pact is a non-legally binding framework for cooperation;
- 4) A consequence: the Pact respects the sovereignty of states, although they must comply with their international commitments (Cachón, 2022:58).

Finally,

"Although the Global Compact for Migration is not binding, its political power is undeniable, as it represents a first attempt to manage migration flows on a comprehensive and international scale, under the premise of the necessary cooperation, in order to expand the positive impact for all. The official adoption of the document was subscribed by 156 countries, although some decided to stay out, such as the USA and other European countries like Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania or the Czech Republic." (Economic and Social Council Spain, 2019: 25)

Important to mention that Austria and Italy did not sign because they are countries under study.

III.2 European legislative framework

As for the European regulatory framework, since 2008, the European community has sought to unify its immigration and asylum policies. In this

¹Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (A/RES/73/195), Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 19 December 2018. Retrieved from: <https://documents-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N18/452/03/PDF/N1845203.pdf?OpenElement>

regard, a significant development was the adoption of the **Common European Asylum System (CEAS)**, which establishes a common set of rules to ensure that asylum seekers are treated equally and in a fair manner in all European Union (EU) countries.

Another important achievement was the approval of the **European Pact on Immigration and Asylum** in 2008, which aims to lay the foundations for the EU's migration and asylum policy. Thus, the Pact emphasizes the importance of promoting integration and is articulated through five specific objectives: organizing legal immigration in accordance with the labour market, the fight against irregular immigration, increasing border control and the creation of common bases for asylum policies, as well as cooperation between countries of origin and transit of immigration. Thus,

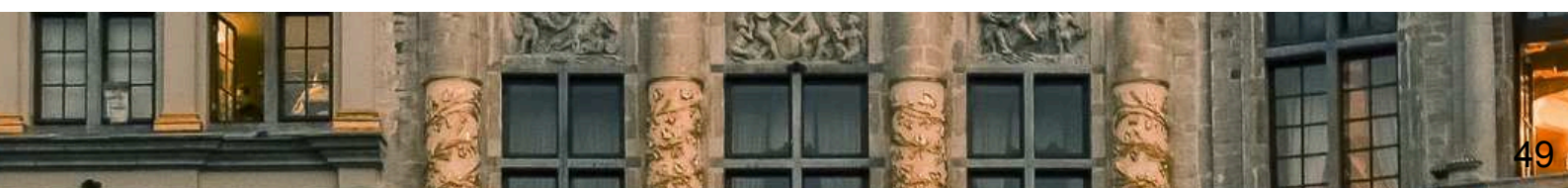
"the European Ministerial Conference on Integration held in 2010, collected the Common Basic Principles for immigrant integration policies in the European Union, known as the Zaragoza Declaration, whose principles include: employment as a fundamental part of the integration process and essential for the participation of foreign people in the host society; education as an essential element in the fight against discrimination and social exclusion; intercultural dialogue as an important tool to promote the integration of people from other origins, cultures and religions and the importance of incorporating integration issues in all relevant areas of action, with the cooperation and coordination of the various Administrations involved." (Economic and Social Council Spain, 2019: 29-30)

In this sense, and since the recent economic crisis, Europe has provided entry facilities to non-EU foreigners based on two criteria: that they are highly qualified and to students and research personnel, based on the reciprocal enrichment that these entries would imply for the countries of origin and the receiving countries (Economic and Social Council Spain, 2019: 31).

Finally, among the European rules to be highlighted in this area is the **Dublin Regulation**, which was approved in 2013, and establishes the criteria and mechanisms for determining the Member State responsible for examining an application for international protection filed in one of the Member States by a third-country national or a stateless person. In this sense, it establishes the general guidelines of the European Community for international protection applications concerning asylum.

III.3 Spanish legislative framework

As for the Spanish state framework, according to Article 10.2 of the **Constitution**, the rules relating to fundamental rights and freedoms are interpreted in accordance with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights



and in the light of international treaties ratified by the State. Likewise, according to Article 96 of the Magna Carta, international treaties concluded by Spain shall form part of the internal legal system, so that international treaties, such as the Geneva Convention, are part of the Spanish regulatory framework.

Article 13.1 of the Spanish Constitution states that foreigners shall enjoy the public freedoms set forth in Title I, which refers to fundamental rights, in accordance with the provisions of international treaties and laws. In this regard, Spain has specific laws on asylum and foreigners, which we will detail below.

Regarding asylum and refugees, **Law 12/2009 regulating the right to asylum and subsidiary protection** constitutes the normative framework of reference. Article 3 of Law 12/2009 establishes that the status of refugee is recognized to those *"owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion, membership of a particular social group, gender or sexual orientation, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country, or a stateless person who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence, for the same reasons is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it."*

According to this law, persons seeking international protection may be beneficiaries of the so-called subsidiary protection or asylum in cases where the authorities consider that there are reasonable grounds to believe that if they were to return to their country of origin they would face a real risk of suffering any of the serious harm provided for in the law, even if they do not qualify as refugees under the 1951 Geneva Convention. In this regard, we interviewed some academic experts on the subject to get their opinions on migration policies and the situation of the group under study. One of them emphasizes that the rejection of asylum applications for failure to meet the requirements is often an obstacle because it leaves applicants in an irregular situation in which they tend to occupy precarious jobs.

Moreover, in the current situation of the Russian invasion of Ukraine, the rejection of asylum seekers from Latin America, such as Venezuelans and Colombians, has increased.

Thus, they state,

"We could talk about more than refugees, asylum seekers and people in an irregular situation who do not apply for asylum because they do not have enough evidence as a sufficiently convincing story for the authorities here. I don't know if just being afraid and believing that your life could be in danger is enough, but you need to have that evidence with which we are with the same as always with working people who are doing precarious jobs, the most precarious of the occupational structure, in an irregular

situation and therefore in very precarious working conditions below the law." (A1)

Another expert on the subject agrees and adds that,

"The main handicap in Catalonia and Spain, in general, for people who have applied for asylum, which are not all of them, is the rejection of these applications and how many of these people fall back into a situation of irregularity, and there the main possible ways to find a job and regularize their status are the figure of 'work roots'" (A2).

Asylum seekers are entitled to free legal assistance and interpreters, as well as to health care or to receive specific social benefits. They will also be suspended from any return, expulsion or extradition procedure until their application is resolved. Likewise, they will have access to the social and reception services necessary to guarantee the coverage of their basic needs in conditions of dignity, provided they lack economic resources, and they will also be able to work in Spain once the first six months have elapsed since the filing of the asylum application.

As for the regime for migrants, Spain has **Organic Law 4/2000 on the rights and freedoms of foreigners in Spain and their social integration**, which has recently had its regulations amended by **Royal Decree 629/2022**, which makes some substantial changes that we will briefly review in terms of the impact it may have on the group under study.

The LO 4/2000 establishes the rights and freedoms for foreigners in Spain, including the access of immigrants to the labour market. Although the modification of the regulation does not cover all the cases that occur on a day-to-day basis and a period of two years is still required to apply for "arraigo", the reform makes some requirements more flexible and contemplates some modifications that facilitate the obtaining of work permits, residence authorizations in Spain and the integration of migrants in the labour market. In this sense, it is clear from the general provisions of **Royal Decree 629/2002** that the reform seeks to favour the arrival of foreigners and their incorporation into the Spanish labour market.

Thus,

"Effective access to work under the protection of the law remains a fundamental key to the integration and social inclusion of foreigners in Spain, regardless of their entry route. The framework regulating the access of foreigners to work is, therefore, a fundamental instrument in the framework of immigration policy (...). Foreigners who are legally resident have the right to engage in paid employment or self-employment, as well as to access the Social Security system". (Consejo Económico y Social de España, 2019: 92)

The reform contemplates a series of small technical modifications that make some of the requirements for starting a business more flexible, such as, for

example, the reduction of the economic means required for maintenance. Also, the hiring of foreigners in their countries of origin will be easier, offering these workers a four-year work permit, after which they will be eligible for a residence permit in Spain, and they will be able to work as employees and self-employed workers. On the other hand, the student visa will allow work up to 30 hours, as well as the possibility of applying for residency once studies are completed without the requirement of staying in Spain for 3 years, as was stipulated in the previous regulations.

The reform also contemplates facilitating family regrouping and through the relaxation of some of the requirements of the figures of "arraigo" (labour, social and family) it intends to help the regularization of foreigners. In this sense, a new figure is incorporated so that immigrants who have been in an irregular situation in Spain for at least two years have a way to obtain their papers. This is the "arraigo por formación", which will offer a residence permit for training in occupations in which labor is needed, and which will subsequently allow foreigners to regularize their situation by means of an employment contract.

Nevertheless, the reform implies an improvement for an important sector of migrants, such as, for example, skilled migrants, in terms of making requirements more flexible and streamlining bureaucratic procedures, it is true that there is still much to be done to address the situation of migrants in an irregular situation who cannot access the figure of "arraigo" for training because they lack the economic means to cover it, and who are part of the underground economy through precarious jobs. It will be necessary to assess the impact of the reform on this group and remedy these shortcomings based on national and local public services or programs that can offer an alternative for these people.

In this regard, one of the experts we interviewed commented:

"The modification of the law on foreigners is not designed for the most vulnerable, it is designed for those who come to study and who have money to pay for their studies in the meantime (...) It is designed for those who have applied for asylum and who have had the opportunity that while they have a work permit, they have been working for the previous six months.) It is designed for those who have applied for asylum and who have had the opportunity that while they had work a permit they have been working for the previous six months, and then they have the option to make labour roots as long as they have a job offer, such as a contract, which depends on whether your company wants to do it or not, it is not automatic, it depends on the employer, the employer which is what people are staying behind. You would have to be very qualified for the company to want to...and the issue of the homologation process, it also depends on the profession because not all careers can be homologated, so you can't do it so easily, it costs money, it costs paperwork...while you have just arrived the first thing you need is to survive, so it takes years, the first years of arrival are of precarious and informal work." (A1)



In this sense, another expert adds that the model on which the Spanish State is based favours irregularity and this is what should be changed. She points out that the model requires,

"to go through irregularity, that afterwards there are paths to regularization that in other countries there are not, and in this aspect the figure of arraigo (roots) in itself is positive, it has a comparative value because in other countries the figure as such does not exist, but of course, having a model in which the entry is irregularity, even for asylum and refugee applicants...the message has come to Spain and once here apply for it and then the trajectories already begin." (A2)

In addition, regarding the modification of the immigration regulations, the improvements and the criticism that they only serve migrants with economic means, he points out that

"It (the regulation) can generate a little bit of this distinction, because even to be able to dedicate to the hours of training that are required, not all the profiles can be available to have the time to do that training. It is undoubtedly a step forward, it is a specific reform of the regulation that will make it easier for some people to have access to the roots, which, if it is not through this reform, the alternative is a 12-month full-time job offer and that was really very complicated. I cannot speak of a balance of what the impact is going to be, I think for some people it is not going to be enough, for others, it can be the lever, for, once regularized really being able to access the general labour market, which is what makes it difficult for many of the qualified people to be able to develop trajectories in accordance with their educational level." (A2)

In addition to the regulatory framework, the creation of organizations and institutions aimed at protecting this group is also important to mention. In Spain, the Ministry of Inclusion, Social Security and Migration has created a Secretariat of State for Migration specialized in the development, management and implementation of regulations and public policies in this area. On the other hand, there is the Observatory against Racism and Xenophobia or the Forum for the Social Integration of Immigrants.

III.4 Italian legislative framework²

Italy manages the phenomenon of migratory flows from non-EU countries, such as LAC countries, through policies that combine reception and integration with the fight against irregular immigration. Entry into the Italian territory is allowed for those in possession of a passport or equivalent document and a visa. Foreign citizens may enter Italy if they are able to document the reason and conditions of their stay, as well as the availability of means both to support themselves during their stay and to

² Source: <https://www.openpolis.it/parole/come-funziona-laccoglienza-dei-migranti-in-italia/>

return to their country of origin, except in cases of entry for work purposes. The State does not admit anyone who does not meet these requirements or is considered a threat to national security or that of any of the countries with which it has signed agreements for the free movement of persons across internal borders.

The State periodically schedules by decree of the President of the Council of Ministers (the so-called "decree-flow" introduced by **Law No. 40/1998**) the maximum quotas of foreigners to be admitted on Italian territory for subordinate and self-employed work. The legislation also provides entry for work purposes in special cases, in Article 27 of the **Consolidated Text on Immigration**.

The State, the Regions and the local autonomies, in cooperation with the associations of the sector and with the authorities of the countries of origin, promote the integration of immigrants and refugees who are legally in Italy (Article 42 of the Consolidated Text on Immigration) through programs that: (a) provide information on the rights and opportunities for integration or reintegration in the countries of origin; (b) promote linguistic, civic and professional training; (c) promote entry into the labour market.

The **Territorial Councils for Immigration**, created in each prefecture (Prime Minister's Decree of December 18, 1999), monitor the presence of foreigners in the territory and the level of socio-labour integration, in order to promote specific local integration policies, in cooperation with other institutions and private social bodies. They are chaired by the prefect of the province and composed of representatives of state administrations, local authorities, chambers of commerce, associations/organizations working in the field of assistance and integration, and organizations of employers and non-EU workers. These bodies represent the connecting element between the central government and local realities for all matters relating to immigration and related issues, ensuring the homogeneity of policies for managing the phenomenon throughout the territory.

Refugee status or subsidiary protection status will be granted to the applicant for international protection depending on his or her specific condition. This is related to a series of objective and subjective parameters referring to the applicant's personal history, the reasons for the application and the country of origin. Foreign nationals already assisted by a UN agency (not the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees) are excluded from protection. Refugee status and subsidiary protection are recognized after a preliminary investigation conducted by the Territorial Commissions for the recognition of international protection.



Law 173/2020 regularizes the dual reception system implemented in Italy. The first reception implies that foreigners who have entered Italy irregularly and apply for international protection, are hosted for the time necessary for the procedures of verification of the relevant requirements. These facilities are divided into:

a) First reception and assistance facilities, the so-called *hotspots*, are defined as crisis points by Article 10b of Legislative Decree no. 286/98. These are designated areas, usually in the vicinity of a landing site, where, in the shortest possible time and in a manner compatible with the Italian regulatory framework, arriving persons disembark in safety, undergo medical examinations, receive initial assistance and information on immigration and asylum legislation, are checked, pre-identified and, after being informed about their current situation as irregular persons and the possibilities of applying for international protection, photographed.

b) Once the identification procedures are completed, applicants for international protection in Italy are transferred to first-level reception facilities, spread throughout the country, where they remain while waiting for the international protection application to be defined, which are differentiated into: *Centri di Prima Accoglienza* (CPA - First Reception Centers) or *Centri Accoglienza Straordinaria* (CAS - Extraordinary Reception Centers). The CAS is founded by the Prefects following special calls and is conceived as temporary facilities that are opened in case of "consistent and close arrivals of applicants".

On the other hand, the second reception is ensured through personal counselling and integration projects on the territory activated by local authorities belonging to the System for the Protection of Asylum Seekers and Refugees (SPRAR) and Unaccompanied Foreign Minors (SIPROIMI). For this purpose, local authorities can use the financial resources made available to them by the Ministry of the Interior through the Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF).

The Protection System is characterized by the voluntary participation of local authorities in the network of reception projects and synergy policies in the territory with subjects of the third sector that contribute in an essential way to the realization of interventions.

The reception projects, submitted on the basis of specific calls for proposals, are examined by an evaluation commission composed of representatives of the Ministry of the Interior, a representative of the National Association of Italian Municipalities (ANCI) and a representative of the Union of Italian Provinces (UPI). A representative of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and a representative of the Regions are also part of

the Commission. The Ministry of the Interior provides specific guidelines, with emphasis on the criteria and procedures for local authorities to submit applications for access to the annual allocation of the National Fund for Asylum Policies and Services.

The 2020 reform and the division of the Italian reception system into two levels prevents asylum seekers from accessing some integration-oriented services. The second reception is aimed at further integration and social inclusion. However, the second reception is underutilized compared to the needs. Asylum seekers who are hosted in *Centri Accoglienza Straordinaria* (CAS - Extraordinary Reception Centers) when there are no places available in *Centri di Prima Accoglienza* (CPA - First Reception Centers) may not receive the same services as applicants hosted in CPA.

III.5 Belgian legislative framework

The reception process according to the Belgian legal framework begins at the arrival centre, the Federal Agency for the Reception of Asylum Seekers (FEDASIL). It carries out an initial social and medical examination of the applicants and checks whether they are eligible for reception. If so, they are housed in the arrival centre until a suitable reception place can be found for them. FEDASIL informs applicants of international protection of their rights and responsibilities during the reception period. It will then assign them to a reception place, where the asylum seeker will benefit from material assistance. The reception offered is optional. If people decide not to be hosted, because they can be hosted by friends or relatives, they lose the benefits of material assistance, except for medical assistance. They do not receive any financial assistance.

Belgium has more than 28,000 shelters in total. The network is made up of collective and individual shelters. Collective structures are shelters managed by FEDASIL, the Belgian Red Cross or other partners. The individual structures are housing managed by the Public Center for Social Welfare ("local shelter initiatives") or by NGOs. The shelters are "open", which means that residents are free to come and go. They receive room and board, clothing as well as social, medical and psychological support, a daily allowance (pocket money), as well as access to legal assistance and services such as translation services and training.

The right to reception ends once the international protection procedure has been concluded and all possible remedies have failed. In case of a positive decision, refugees (or beneficiaries of subsidiary protection) receive a residence permit and can start looking for their own accommodation. They have the right to stay in the reception structure for two more months in order to find suitable accommodation. They can apply to a Public Social

Welfare Center for assistance. Following a negative decision, the "rejected" applicant for international protection receives an order to leave the territory. Those whose negative decision has been confirmed by the Aliens Council are invited to go to one of the four FEDASIL centres that organize "open return places". The priority is to convince residents of the advantages of voluntary return as opposed to forced return. The "open" character of the reception centres is guaranteed since no resident will be expelled while waiting for the order to leave the territory (generally 30 days) and during their stay in the centre, residents are free to come and go.

Regarding residence permits in the Belgian context, the following table summarizes the relevant information:

MAIN PERMITS IN THE BELGIAN CONTEXT	Legal Basis	Residence Permit Issued	Benefits	Travel abroad	Impact of staying abroad
REFUGEE PROTECTION	Loi sur les étrangers (Aliens Act)	A Refugee is at first entitled to a residence permit in Belgium for a period of five years. After this period of five years, they will be given a permanent residence permit. They have to register in their municipal office to receive an electronic A-card (temporary residence). After a period of five years, an electronic B-card is issued (unlimited residence)	The recognised refugee is subject to Belgian law and must respect the same laws as Belgian citizens	Yes: Refugees must inquire at destination embassy or consulate before departure whether they need a visa or not for their trip. A short stay is for a maximum period of time. They must inform the municipality. They have the right to return to Belgium within one year; after that, a return is not guaranteed.	No information specific to Belgium could be found. The European legislation should therefore apply: You have generally the right to travel visa free within the Schengen area up for a period of 90 consecutive days. Whether you move without the required visa or recognised residence permit for further periods, then you could lose the rights in Germany
SUBSIDIARY PROTECTION	Loi sur les étrangers (Aliens Act)	The Subsidiary Protection status gives right to an initial limited stay in Belgium; the electronic Aliens card (A). The electronic A card is valid for one year and can be renewed for a period of two years. After these two years, it is again possible to request a renewal for two years. After five years, the refugee is entitled to stay for an unlimited period of time.	In order to work in Belgium, the subsidiary protected has to apply for an employee work permit or self employed work permit.	During the first years of residency, every journey to the country of origin must be reported to the municipality where the person was given subsidiary protection from. A passport can be requested at the Embassy or consulate of the country of origin. Travelling to the country of origin may question the status of the person enjoying the subsidiary protection.	

III.6 Legislative Framework Austria

Like in other other countries, Austria has various laws and regulations related to migration and refugees. Some of the key legal frameworks on migration and refugee issues are listed below:

Asylum Law 2005: This law regulates the granting of asylum to refugees in Austria. Define eligibility criteria and procedures for granting asylum.

Settlement and Residence Law: This law regulates the entry and residence of foreigners in Austria. Define the types of visas and permits available, as well as the conditions for their issuance.

Integration Law: This law establishes the rights and obligations of immigrants in Austria, as well as measures for their integration into Austrian society.

Aliens Police Act: This law regulates the police control of foreigners in Austria, including their registration, detention and deportation.

European Union Law: As a member state of the European Union, Austria is subject to various EU regulations on migration and refugees. These include the Dublin Declaration, which determines which EU country is responsible for processing an asylum application, and the EU-Turkey Declaration, which sets out the terms of the EU's agreement with Turkey on the return of refugees.

The main laws that establish the rules for the employment of foreigners in Austria are the Employment Act for Foreigners (AuslBG), the Settlement and Residence Act (NAG) and the Foreigners Police Act (FPG).

In detail, foreigners working in Austria are subject to different procedures depending on their country of origin. As for workers from EU/EEA countries, they have free access to the Austrian labor market and do not need any permission from the labor market authorities, in accordance with the free movement of workers within EU countries and the EEA.

However, workers who wish to stay in the country for more than three months must acquire a registration certificate issued by the competent residence authority. The Public Employment Service (AMS) helps workers from EU/EEA countries of origin in their search for employment in the Austrian labor market.

As for workers from third countries (non-EU or EEA countries), they must have a combined residence permit and work permit to access the Austrian labor market, which facilitates an employment relationship with a specific employer. It's Austria.

Skilled workers from third countries can access the Austrian labor market through the Red-White-Red Card system, which is based on a points system. The most important criteria for acquiring the Red-White-Red Card are professional qualifications, language knowledge, age, job offer and remuneration. The Red-White-Red Card is awarded to high-quality professionals, workers in fields with employee shortages, key workers, recent graduates, permanent employees, self-employed key workers and emerging entrepreneurs.

Once issued, the Red-White-Red card is valid for 24 months and allows you to establish and work with a specific employer or on your own.

The Red-White-Red Card Plus, on the other hand, offers unlimited access to the Austrian labor market. Red-White-Red Card Plus is eligible for those who have already worked with Red-White-Red Card for at least 21 months within

24 months. Specialists and key workers have immediate access to the RWR card and also have the right to bring their families with them. Anyone who has lived in Austria can apply for an EU permanent residence permit, which requires certain knowledge of the German language (B1), the permanent residence permit provides unlimited access to the labor market.

Access to the labor market for students and students with the corresponding residence permit can also have paid employment if this does not harm their education as the main objective of their stay.

Third-country national pupils and students are subject to the Employment Act for Foreigners and require a work permit to work in Austria. This also applies to minor jobs.

Title recognition:

For foreign workers, the recognition of their professional qualifications can play an important role in entering the Austrian labor market. The contact points are aimed at people living in Austria who have completed their vocational training abroad and have questions about the recognition or professional use of their skills. To support the recognition and evaluation process, contact points have been created in Vienna, Linz, Graz and Innsbruck. In addition, advice days are held weekly in Feldkirch, Sankt Pölten, Wiener Neustadt, Klagenfurt

IV. LABOUR INTEGRATION POLICIES FOR MIGRANTS AND REFUGEES

In this section we will review the main labour integration policies in Austria, Belgium, Spain and Italy, bearing in mind that access to the labour market is a key element for the social integration of migrants and refugees in the destination countries. In this sense, in order to be able to enter the labour market, foreigners must have a work permit, which is granted in accordance with the regulations on foreigners in each country, which we have outlined in the previous section. Likewise, some countries have a set of policies and programmes to promote labour market integration, especially in the case of vulnerable groups, such as immigrants and refugees, and in the case under study, Latin Americans. In the case of Spain, as it is one of the countries with the highest representation of Latin American migrants, we have added some comments provided by the experts interviewed regarding the public



programmes and services available to foreigners for labour market integration in the country.

IV.1 Labour integration policies for migrants in Spain

The Royal Legislative Decree 3/ 2015 of the Employment Act is the reference regulation that establishes employment policies at state level. Thus, it defines the National Employment System, which refers to the *set of structures, measures and actions to promote and develop employment policies and which* is made up of the State Public Employment System (SEPE) and the services that may be offered by the Autonomous Communities. Among the competences of the State Public Employment Service is the management of services, intermediation programmes and active policies for the labour integration of migrants. In this regard, Article 30 of this Law states that the priority group targeted by employment policies will include immigrants and people in a situation of social exclusion. For this reason, different frameworks for action, policies and programmes have been developed in Spain, which can be summarised in the following table:

Annual Employment Policy Plan (APEP)	It forms the state framework of reference for the public employment services to design and manage their policies and to determine the conceptual and organisational framework to which all actions carried out within the National Employment System in the field of active policies and vocational training for employment must refer.
Spanish Employment Activation Strategy	It contains services (actions) and programmes (measures) of active employment policies that are proposed to be carried out in the Autonomous Communities, such as those financed by state funds, distributed according to the objective criteria agreed by the Conference of Presidents.



Public Services System (PES) Employment Information System	It sets up a common information system to be organised with an integrated IT structure. Management of active employment policies.
Jobseeker's Visas	
Blue Card Procedure	Procedure for migrants with high technical qualifications
Red Card Procedure	Procedure from which, six months after the recognition of international protection, the refugee has the right to access the labour market and register as a job seeker.
EmpleaIN Programme	Programme that seeks to promote actions aimed at the labour integration of immigrants in a situation or at risk of social exclusion through the development of integrated itineraries of individualised labour integration. In the different phases, the personal and employment aspects of the target people are considered, trying to identify and enhance the potential of each participant, in order to improve their employability from an individualised approach that enables their integration into the labour market. The phases of these itineraries include a diagnosis and individualised assessment, training actions in different areas, employment guidance, accompaniment for access to occupational training, as well as for the implementation of an interactive device for the assessment and identification of employment activity and labour market integration; it will also include awareness-raising actions among the different socio-economic agents, as well as transversal actions and participation in local networks.

As an example of employment policies and services implemented by some Autonomous Communities, in Andalusia, within the **Recovery, Transformation and Resilience Plan**, a series of measures have also been tested this year to favour labour market integration and personalised attention to vulnerable groups, including immigrants, through the

These measures to be developed will be:

- Job orientation actions and to facilitate the job search (CV preparation, job interview workshop, general information on the labour market, on trends, career opportunities and alternative employment opportunities linked to the territory, etc...).
- Training actions for professional qualification and requalification, enabling the acquisition of technical knowledge and adequate and sufficient skills for the performance of a job.
- Accompaniment during the development of the personalised itinerary carried out by the participants with the aim of promoting and monitoring the improvement of their employability, as well as accompaniment at the beginning of their incorporation into the labour market.
- Prospecting of the labour market in the territory where the Programme is developed, which allows for obtaining updated information on the economic and labour situation of the environment.

The Andalusian Employment Service (SAE) has also launched 127 projects for the integration of people in vulnerable situations, including immigrants and people belonging to ethnic minorities. The programme is called New Territorial Projects for Rebalancing and Equity. Vulnerable groups are expected to participate in integrated work integration projects lasting a maximum of 9 months, during which they can receive aid to reconcile their participation in the project, for the care of family members, training, transport or accommodation. These projects are developed by training entities, non-profit entities, integration companies and third-sector entities.

On the other hand, another example of policies and services in Autonomous Communities can be found in Catalonia. **Law 10/2010** on the reception of immigrants and returnees to Catalonia establishes programmes for the reception and adaptation of migrants with the culture and basic skills of the Catalan language, among other aspects. Considering that, according to the data, most Latin American migrants work in the service and customer service sector, knowledge of the Catalan language is very important for their social and labour inclusion.

In terms of employment policies, the Autonomous Community has the Catalan Employment Service, which refers to the set of services, entities and programmes that promote and develop public employment policy. In this sense, the **Public Employment Service of Catalonia (SOC)** is fundamental to achieving the objectives of labour integration of people at



In terms of employment policies, the Autonomous Community has the Catalan Employment Service, which refers to the set of services, entities and programmes that promote and develop public employment policy. In this sense, the Public Employment Service of Catalonia (SOC) is fundamental to achieving the objectives of labour integration of people at risk of social exclusion. Among its functions are: professional guidance, training, and labour intermediation, among others.

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It also has a wide range of programmes, some of which are focused on the group in question, including the **University Recognition Accompaniment Service (SARU)** and the **ACOL Programme** to help immigrants in an irregular situation by means of employment contracts.

The **University Recognition Support Service (SARU)** of the Government of Catalonia is responsible for informing and accompanying people, many of whom are immigrants, in the process of recognising foreign qualifications so that they can take effect in the country. Given that, as mentioned above and as will be discussed in more detail below, the procedures for the recognition and validation of qualifications constitute a bureaucratic barrier for many immigrants and hinder their integration into the labour market, we believe that a service aimed at facilitating this process is very positive. Another group of immigrants in need of greater protection are those in an irregular situation. For this reason, the **Work and Training Programme - ACOL Line** of the Generalitat de Catalunya is worth highlighting. In this sense, the programme seeks to regularise the administrative situation of undocumented migrants, who are the most unprotected group, through the subsidisation of one-year contracts with collaborating entities, which facilitates their insertion into the labour market through experience and training. Regarding this programme, the migration expert we interviewed mentioned that,

"It is a policy that is giving good results and that is benefiting, not many people, but people who are hired by non-profit social entities and some city councils. This ACOL programme is positively valued because it not only helps to regularise the situation by means of a decent contract, but once the one-year contract ends, the people keep their papers, that is, they can access the formal labour market with proper documentation, so it is a boost for these people, but they can be Latinos or other nationalities". (A1)

Although the ACOL programme is not specifically aimed at Latin American migrants, in 2020 a project was carried out aimed at care workers, a highly feminised group, the majority of whom come from Latin America. In this regard, another of the academics interviewed told us that,

"There have been some specific programmes, for example, for the regularisation of women domestic workers, but of course, this no longer affects the highly qualified, but in some way this aid, these subsidies for women who are working as irregular domestic workers, helps them to formalise their contract through their families. This was promoted in 2020,

at the very least it is a lever for this woman to be able to access the general labour market later on, as she cannot be irregular. This programme no longer exists, it was only done in 2020 and we did the impact report. It was a pilot test, very few women were regularised, but most of them were Latin Americans, especially Central Americans, who were in the sector in a submerged way. Of course, becoming regularised in the domestic service sector may seem like a step, a small step, but it is undoubtedly a way for these women who could have applied for roots and could not, through the subsidy, to achieve these roots, to achieve this 12-month job offer". (A2)

At the municipal level, Barcelona has a **Service for Immigrants, Emigrants and Refugees (SAIER)** that provides information and advice on immigration, refuge, emigration and voluntary return, addressing different issues such as reception and general information about the city, social assistance, legal procedures for foreigners, recognition of diplomas, employment and training guidance, among others.

Finally, a good local practice to highlight is the **Barcelona Anti-rumour Strategy** established within the framework of the BCN Interculturality Plan, which aims to raise awareness and train the population to avoid stereotypes about the migrant population. In this sense, given that one of the barriers to social inclusion can be discrimination, it is important that at local and national level strategies are put forward to dismantle prejudices and value cultural diversity.

IV.2 Labour integration policies for migrants in Italy

The Directorate General for Immigration and Integration Policies (within the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies) manages both immigration quotas and integration policies. In particular, it monitors the labour market, plans quotas, implements bilateral cooperation agreements with migrants' countries of origin and promotes interventions financed by national and European funds. The Multiannual Agenda for Labour Integration and Social Inclusion 2021-2027 identifies the main priorities of the Directorate-General in the next programming period.

The following interventions have been identified:

- Actions to support the improvement of multilevel governance for the integration of migrants among the different actors involved, with a perspective of vertical subsidiarity (Central Administrations, Regions and Local Authorities) and horizontal subsidiarity (social partners, Third Sector, subjects representing migrant citizens, etc.);
- Prevention and fight against undeclared work and the phenomenon of "caporalato", promotion of decent work and the

culture of legality; ("Caporalato" is the Italian term for the illicit intermediation of workers; it is a criminal phenomenon carried out by hiring workers, mostly selected daily by a foreman, to perform different types of work).

- Social and labour integration of vulnerable groups of immigrants through the personalised attention model (applicants/holders of international protection, unaccompanied foreign minors, women with minors, etc.);
- Empowerment, transparency and skills development, also through actions to avoid school backwardness and dispersion and to link education, training and the world of work;
- Promoting the participation and social and labour market inclusion of migrant women;
- Promotion of the active participation of migrant citizens in economic, social and cultural life, and actions to prevent all forms of discrimination also through qualified information services.
- Promotion of legal channels for legal entry into Italy for work purposes.

The main project activities in the field of the socio-occupational integration of immigrants promoted and funded by the Directorate-General for Immigration and Integration Policies are detailed below.

Programme Agreement between the Directorate General for Immigration and Integration Policies and the National Institute for Public Policy Analysis (INAPP - it is a public research body supervised by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies) for the activities of analysis, monitoring and evaluation with reference to the system of integration policies addressed in Italy. This agreement is aimed in particular at the implementation of interventions of common interest on the national territory, with the objective of obtaining an information framework representative of the real situation of the most vulnerable people and/or those at risk of discrimination.

- Programme Agreement between the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies and the Ministry of Youth and Sports Policies for the definition of a multi-annual plan of interventions for the promotion of sport as a tool for dialogue, social inclusion and the fight against discrimination.

- Sport and Integration Project #IOVENGODALLOSPORT - Promoting Inclusion Policies through Sport.
- INCAS - Action Plan in support of local authorities in the context of the processes of Inclusion of foreign nationals and interventions to counteract labour exploitation in agriculture and "caporalato".
- Inclusion in urban areas with greater social vulnerability.
- PUOI - Objective Protection United for Integration.
- Futurae - Entrepreneurship Programme for Immigrants.
- IMPACT - Integration of Migrants with Co-Designed Policies and Actions in the Territory.
- PRIMA - Migrant Workers' Integration Project (Proyecto de Integración Laboral de MigrAntes).
- Migrant Integration Portal - Living and Working in Italy.

Specifically, the following immigrant labour integration projects are analysed below: InCaS; PUOI; Futurae; and PRIMA.

InCaS (INcreasing impaCt in internAtional work placementS) arises from an agreement signed between the Ministry of Labour and ANCI, which implements the actions in collaboration with Cittalia. The general objectives of the project are: i) to support local authorities in the definition, management, monitoring and dissemination of the results of territorial projects for the social inclusion of immigrants promoted by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies; and, ii) to develop a national programme to support local authorities in those territories with phenomena of exploitation and/or hardship related to agricultural labour, and to assist them in the development of effective policies and tools to implement, at the local level, the "Three-year plan to fight against labour exploitation in agriculture and "caporalato" (i.e. an illegal form of hiring and organisation of work).

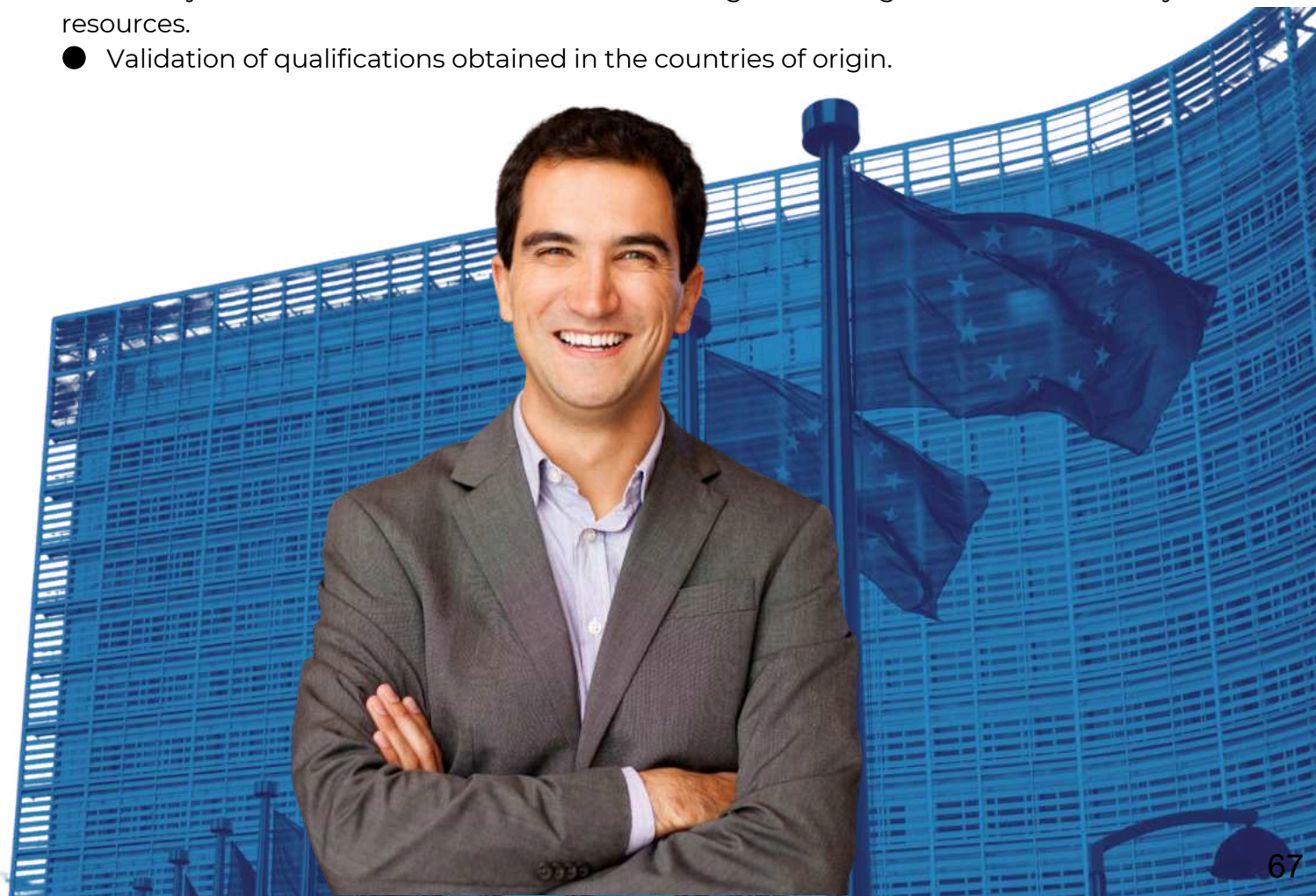
The PUOI - Protezione Unita a Obiettivo Integrazione (United Protection with the Objective of Integration) represents a plan focused on social and labour integration pathways aimed at specific categories of vulnerable immigrants, with the objective of promoting their integration into the world of work. The target groups of this project are foreigners with international and humanitarian protection, foreigners holding a Residence Permit issued in special cases that allow the performance of work activities, and foreigners who have entered Italy as unaccompanied minors and are regularly present in Italy. The initiative, promoted by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies - Directorate General for Immigration and Integration Policies, offers, on the one hand, access to a series of integrated services for socio-occupational integration, aimed at improving and developing individual skills (tutoring services, professional guidance and assistance in job search, assessment and certification of skills, etc.) and, on the other hand, services aimed at socio-occupational integration and support for autonomy, through a six-month extracurricular internship period.



The **Futurae** programme aims to support the development and consolidation of immigrant entrepreneurship. The target groups of this project are first and second generation immigrants motivated towards entrepreneurship and self-employment. The project has two main strands. The first line foresees the creation of an Observatory to carry out research activities on the socio-economic and financial inclusion of migrant-led enterprises, also as factors of territorial development and international dynamism. The second involves 18 Chambers of Commerce active in 25 Italian provinces and foresees actions of: information; professional guidance; training; personalised assistance; assistance in the creation of a new business also through accompaniment and access to credit; mentoring in the start-up phase; promotion and communication.

Finally, with the **PRIMA** project, the Directorate General for Immigration and Integration Policies promotes the implementation of Plans to Strengthen the Labour Integration of Immigrants. The proposed actions are mainly articulated through nine lines of activity that include

- Facilitating access to services
- The validation of competences
- Strengthening multilevel governance
- Promoting the traceability of policies/actions
- The activation and improvement of ad hoc tools
- Improving awareness-raising channels
- Innovative actions in emerging sectors
- The systematisation of models and methodologies with regional and community resources.
- Validation of qualifications obtained in the countries of origin.



This intervention aims to promote the activation of individualised integrated itineraries to support autonomy and socio-economic integration, based on synergy and connection between employment, integration and reception policies.



IV.3 Labour market integration policies for migrants in Belgium

The access of asylum seekers to the labour market is regulated by **the Law of 9 May 2018** and the **Royal Decree of 2 September 2018**. Asylum seekers who have not yet received a first instance decision on their asylum case within 4 months of submitting their asylum application are allowed to work. The right to work is mentioned directly on their temporary residence permit (orange card), so that an additional work permit is no longer necessary. These persons can work in the field of their choice and have the right to work until the State takes a decision or, in case of an appeal, until a negative decision is notified.

Asylum seekers who have access to the labour market can register as job seekers with the regional employment offices and are then entitled to a free assistance programme and vocational training. In practice, however, finding a job is very difficult during the asylum procedure due to the temporary and precarious residence status, the very limited knowledge of national languages, the fact that many foreign diplomas are not considered equivalent to national diplomas and discrimination in the labour market.

Turning now to the laws regulating the employability of migrants in Belgium, in order to work in Belgium, foreign workers must have a work authorisation. Until 31 December 2018, this work authorisation was evidenced by a work permit. Since 1 January 2019, the single permit has been in force. The residence document therefore indicates whether you have a work permit. It should also be noted that each region has different regulations. The work permit can be of two types:

- For self-employed activity: professional card

As a general rule, a foreign national wishing to work in Belgium for more than 90 days must apply for a work permit from the competent Region via

his or her employing entity. This application for a work permit is equivalent to an application for a residence permit (single application).

Since 3 January 2019, all residence permits issued by Belgium include a statement regarding access to the labour market: "Labour market: limited", or "Labour market: unlimited", or "Labour market: no". This means that, by virtue of having a residence permit, it is not mandatory to have a work permit.

Since April 2017, the Brussels Capital Region has had an integration strategy for migrants. The Community Commission designed the strategy, which is to be implemented by the reception offices. This strategy specifies a compulsory integration programme, which includes the following priorities: citizenship training, French or Dutch as a second language, and social and economic participation.

In terms of programmes or policies to improve the labour market integration of migrants and refugees, the state has two good practices. First, French courses in Brussels for new arrivals. The Commission of the French-speaking Community of Brussels (COCOF) made a general policy statement on 29 October 2021, which refers to the future of the Brussels people, especially in the context of integration and support for social cohesion. One of the notable changes is the increased availability of French courses in Brussels for newcomers.

Secondly, the Flemish authorities wanted to strengthen the effectiveness of the (civic) integration policy in order to increase economic autonomy, active and rapid social participation, language acquisition and knowledge of Flemish values and society. To this end, the Flemish government has modified the civic integration programme.

The integration programme has two new aspects of content, in addition to the existing language component and the social orientation component (norms and values). The third pillar of the programme aims to make newcomers economically independent as soon as possible, through a compulsory registration with the competent employment agency. In addition, the fourth pillar will engage newcomers in a 40-hour participation or networking programme. This can be done in various ways: in the form of a buddy project, an introductory internship in a company, association, organisation or local government, an initiation to volunteering, etc.

However, the civic integration programme will no longer be accessible to applicants for international protection. The programme will not be free of charge either: each candidate will have to pay a fee of 360 euros. To obtain

the compulsory certificate, those integrating will have to pass a standardised social orientation test and a standardised Dutch as a second language test. They will have to register with an employment agency and complete the 40-hour network path. Finally, people integrating who are not working or studying two years after obtaining their civic integration certificate will have to obtain level B1 in spoken Dutch.

IV.3 Labour integration policies for migrants in Austria

In Austria, there are no labour policies specifically designed for Latin American and Caribbean migrants, perhaps because they are a minority group among the migrant populations living in Austria. Instead, they fall under the category "Non-EU/EEA citizens or third country nationals", in German: Drittstaatsangehörige. The employment of third-country nationals in Austria is regulated by the Employment of Foreigners Act and provides for different types of residence and work permits such as the Red-White-Red Card (Rot-Weiß-Rot) among others.

All permits are issued by AMS, which stands for Arbeitsmarktservice and is the leading service company in the Austrian labour market. They place workers in vacancies and support the initiative of job seekers and companies with advice, information, qualification and financial support. As a service company under public law, AMS aims to contribute to, prevent and eliminate unemployment in Austria within the framework of the full employment policy of the Federal Government on behalf of the Federal Ministry of Labour.

In Austria, labour integration policies for migrants are regulated by a combination of laws, regulations and government programmes. Some of the key regulations and policies include:

- Foreign Employment Act (AuslBG): This law regulates the employment of foreign workers in Austria. It sets out the requirements and procedures for employers to hire workers from countries outside the European Union (EU) or the European Economic Area (EEA). The law also addresses issues such as work permits and working conditions for foreign workers.
- Residence and Establishment Act (Niederlassungs- und Aufenthaltsgesetz - NAG): This law regulates the residence and establishment of foreigners in Austria. It contains provisions relating to temporary and permanent residence, including residence permits for those coming to Austria for the purpose of work.
- Integration of Foreigners Act (Integrationsgesetz): This law establishes measures to promote the integration of foreigners into Austrian society, including labour integration. It may include language training programmes, civic education and job orientation.
- Recognition of foreign qualifications: In Austria, there is a process for the recognition of foreign qualifications, which allows migrants to use their previous skills and experiences in the Austrian labour market. This is regulated by the Recognition of Professional Qualifications Act (Berufsqualifikationsanerkennungsgesetz).
- Job orientation and training programmes: The Austrian government offers job orientation and training programmes to help migrants integrate into the Austrian labour market. These programmes may include language courses, specific job training and job search counselling.
- Protection against discrimination: Austrian laws prohibit discrimination in the workplace on the basis of ethnic origin or other protected characteristics. This ensures that migrants have equal employment opportunities and are protected against employment discrimination.

Similarly, Austria has implemented several policies and measures to help facilitate the labour integration of migrants in the country, such as:

- Integration programmes: Austria offers integration programmes including language courses, cultural orientation courses and job training programmes to help migrants adapt to Austrian society and the labour market.
- Recognition of qualifications: Procedures are in place for the recognition of foreign qualifications, allowing migrants to use their previous skills and experience in the Austrian labour market. This process may involve the assessment and validation of academic degrees, professional certificates and previous work experience.
- Access to employment services: Migrants have access to the same employment services as Austrian citizens, including participation in job search programmes, job counselling and CV support.
- Training and education: Training and education programmes specifically designed for migrants are offered, with the aim of improving their skills and increasing their employment opportunities in the Austrian labour market.
- Business start-up support: Austria offers financial support and advice for migrants who want to start their own business or enterprise in the country.
- Protection against discrimination: Laws and regulations prohibiting discrimination in the workplace on the basis of ethnicity are enforced, ensuring that migrants have equal employment opportunities.



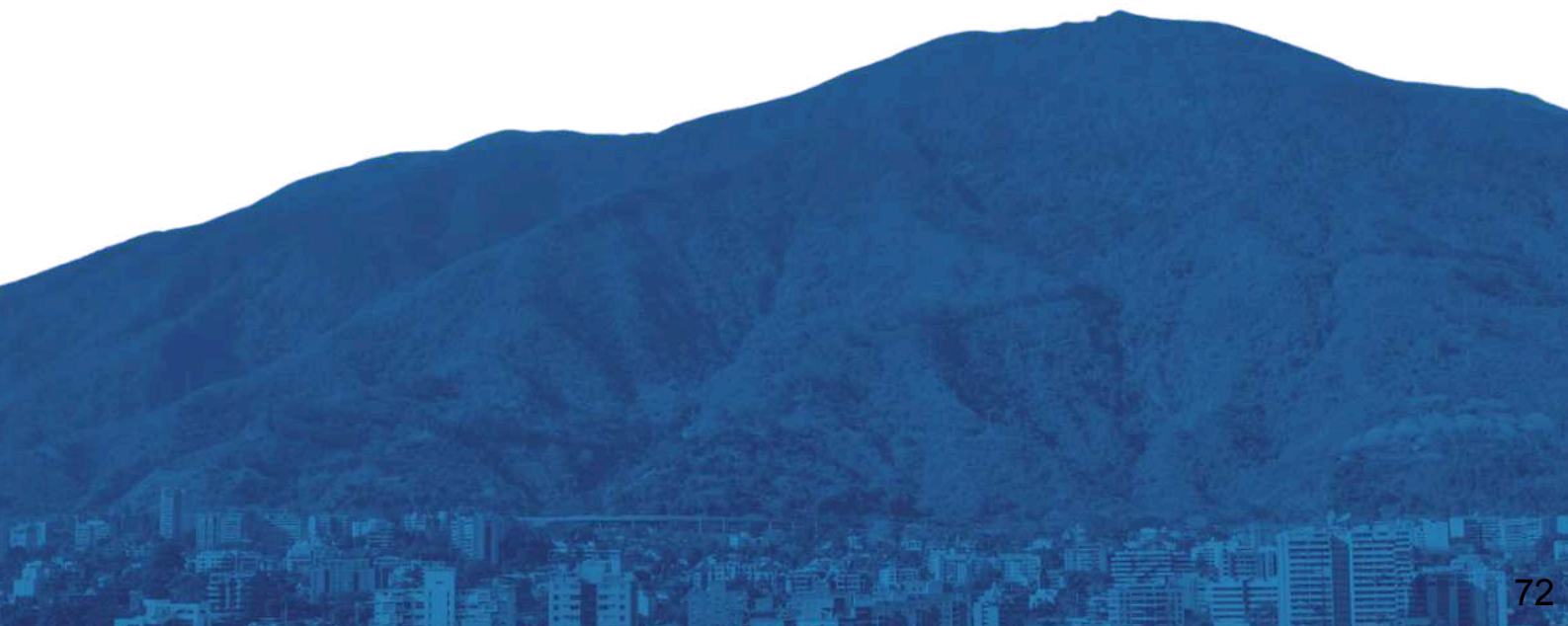
I. GOOD PRACTICES OF LABOUR INCLUSION FOR MIGRANTS AND REFUGEES FROM LATIN AMERICA

Just as public programmes and services for migrants and refugees have been implemented at the state level, private and third sector entities work on the social inclusion of groups at risk of exclusion and in vulnerable situations, including migrants and refugees. As part of their social inclusion, access to employment is crucial. In the following section we outline some of the organisations at the national level in Spain, with examples from some autonomous communities such as Catalonia and Andalusia, Austria and Belgium.

In the case of Spain, as it is one of the countries with the highest representation of Latin American migrants, we have added some comments provided by the experts interviewed, regarding the programmes implemented by some private entities and organisations.

V.1 Spain

ACCCEM works at the national level and aims to improve the living conditions of people in vulnerable situations by defending their rights regardless of their gender, sex, origin, class, age, among others. One of its areas of action is the work with migrants and their social and labour inclusion, based on programmes of direct care, reception, legal advice, psychological care, training and insertion in the labour market. ACCCEM takes into account the particularities of migrants, taking into account the gender perspective in its programmes, taking into account that migrant women face various inequalities, not only because of their gender but also because of their intersectional nature. Thus, one of its campaigns to work for social integration in equality, without discrimination or prejudice, is the MujeresIN campaign, which gives visibility to various migrant women and their trajectories.



The organisation **Acción Laboral**, with offices in several autonomous communities, carries out training and counselling activities for this group. Although they do not focus on Latin American migrants in particular, they have three programmes that can be considered good practices. The OPEA actions are vocational guidance services for employment and assistance for self-employment, articulated in personalised itineraries aimed at improving the possibilities of insertion of unemployed people. The PIOME programme seeks to develop occupational guidance itineraries aimed at improving the employment possibilities of people registered as job seekers in the Public Employment Service of the Principality of Asturias and the ACTIVA programme, which refers to support for employment, are those that aim to develop comprehensive plans that combine actions such as: information, guidance and advice, training, work experience and geographical mobility, with the aim of achieving the labour market integration of unemployed participants in the same.

The **Workers' Communities of Catalonia (CCOO)** is a trade union organisation that seeks to promote stable employment and defend the labour rights of all people, without discrimination. Although it is not specifically aimed at migrants and refugees, one of its lines of action is to help foreign workers through information and advice on their labour rights and the Law on Foreigners. Thus, they have the **CITE Programme**, which, as the academic expert in migration points out, from the Information Centre for Foreign Workers,

"There have been several initiatives that have been promoted by the CITE, especially to empower and provide tools to defend the rights of women domestic workers, it coincides that most of them are Latin American, because the sector is Latin Americanised". (A1)

The organisation **Mujeres Pa'lante's** mission is to support women, especially migrant women, through socio-occupational, legal, psychological and training counselling. In this sense, they offer advice in the elaboration of curricula vitae, registration for job offers, occupational training, among others.

The **Surt Foundation** works for the empowerment of women through different axes such as economic, personal, community and socio-political and cultural. It seeks to promote the empowerment and socio-labour inclusion of women, especially vulnerable groups, such as migrant women. In this sense, among its lines of action is to offer itineraries of labour insertion, entrepreneurship and training.

The **CATNOVA Association** works for the integral development of people in vulnerable situations, especially immigrants, including those in an irregular situation. Thus, they have specific social and labour inclusion programmes for Latin American migrants, such as the **Inclusión Vital-Mujeres cuidadoras**

project, aimed at improving the employability of undocumented migrant women who work as caregivers, by reinforcing their technical, digital and transversal skills in order to access employment and regularise their administrative situation.

The **Andalucía Acoge Federation** was founded in 1991 to provide a more effective and comprehensive response to the then incipient phenomenon of immigration and has set itself the fundamental objective of building a plural and inclusive society that guarantees equal rights and opportunities for all people living in Spain. It is currently made up of 9 associations that carry out their work in 21 centres throughout Andalusia and Melilla.

The general objective of Andalucía Acoge is to favour the integration of immigrants in the host society and the promotion of interculturality, understood as the positive relationship of communication between people from different cultures living together in the same geographical framework. Among its lines of work is the defence of the labour rights of immigrants, from an egalitarian perspective, regardless of their age, gender, social, cultural or religious condition.

As an example, we can mention its 'GLOBALemplea' project, a programme that promotes access, permanence and promotion in the labour market, as well as the quality socio-occupational development of third-country nationals with special difficulties, developing learning processes that reinforce the capacities of the project beneficiaries. In this way, the project works for the reconstruction of the labour market and the revaluation of labour rights as principles, values and inalienable requirements.

The services offered include information, guidance and socio-occupational accompaniment, vocational training for employment, informative group sessions on key aspects of the labour market, work experience in companies, labour intermediation, professional diversification, information on self-employment, validation and homologation of studies, recognition of professional experience and accreditation of competences.

Don Bosco is a Salesian NGO that, through education and with a preferential option for young people, carries out a series of activities in search of a fairer, more equitable and sustainable world. Its lines of action include proposals for development education in the formal, non-formal and informal spheres, weaving networks of participation with citizens' organisations and addressing mechanisms for intervention, reflection and positioning in relation to migration, gender and inequalities, among other areas.

The intervention carried out by the **Andalusian Red Cross** is comprehensive, covering the entire journey of the immigrant to achieve

their integration or the objectives set within the migration process, intervening, in many cases, from the moment they enter the Andalusian coasts. The Red Cross has a network of humanitarian care reception centres, where the needs of hygiene and accommodation are covered and progress is made in their integration.

On the other hand, Cruz Roja Andalucía collaborates in settlements, occupied by immigrants waiting for an opportunity to access temporary employment. Through its Integration Project, the Institution covers their basic needs for food, hygiene and clothing, providing them with ongoing support, detecting new settlements and referring them to specific resources when necessary. Likewise, in recent times, the intervention with applicants for international protection has also gained relevance. Also noteworthy are the awareness-raising actions aimed at the population in general, the continuous training of the people who work with immigrants, as well as the volunteers who actively participate in the development of the projects. We interviewed a Red Cross employment technician who told us about their social inclusion programmes. In this regard he pointed out,

"We have several labour inclusion projects for people in vulnerable situations, such as the 'Interlabora' project, which focuses on the immigrant population with a gender perspective, combining information, guidance, the use of new technologies and digital skills... The programme includes non-work placements in real environments that help them improve their skills and enhance their experience. In the end, almost half of those who participate in this project end up getting a job. We also have the 'Poises' programme, which offers training actions related to commerce or the service sector in general. Afterwards, business support is very important, so that after the courses, these people can have a chance to prove their skills. We usually look for agreements with companies so that they can do internships, which sometimes end up as work contracts". (T3)

In terms of his working methodology, he noted that,

"When someone arrives looking to improve their employment situation, we carry out a personalised diagnosis to see what they need, whether it's career guidance, to do some studies or to improve their professional skills. Then they are directed to different projects to improve their chances of getting a job or improving it". (T3)

The **Centro de Iniciativas para la Cooperación Batá** (CIC Batá) was founded in Córdoba in 1994, with the aim of fighting for inclusion and social justice, sustainable development, the promotion and defence of human rights and international solidarity. For this reason, they work in training, employment, cooperation, communication and education for development, human rights and digital inclusion, among other areas.

In its Employment area, they carry out a series of actions that include guidance, training and intermediation with companies, managing different programmes and facilitating the socio-occupational integration of people in situations of social vulnerability. Batá has several employment guidance units, self-guidance and digital inclusion rooms, with training and free internet access, and intermediation and self-employment programmes to facilitate the improvement of the employability of users, as well as managing job offers through its employment agency.

V.2 Belgium

Belgian organisations that have implemented good practices for the integration of migrants into the labour market are the following:

Myria is one of the partners of the Belgian National Contact Point (NCP) of the European Migration Network (EMN). Myria is therefore a member of the Contact Point's Board of Directors and actively participates in its daily operations. The Belgian EMN is a mixed Contact Point, composed of four public institutions: Myria, the General Commissariat for Refugees and Stateless Persons (CGVS-CGRA), the Federal Agency for the Reception of Asylum Seekers (Fedasil) and the Immigration Office (DVZ-OE), which is also responsible for coordination.

The **Citizens' Platform - BELRefugees** aims to mobilise and federate the energies of citizens and associations in order to transform social representations and attitudes towards migrants and contribute to providing a response to their fundamentally human and quality needs by developing, if necessary, new solutions. Faced with the mismanagement of reception in Belgium, the Citizens' Platform in Support of Refugees was born in September 2015 and defined itself as a space for the meeting and coordination of individual and collective initiatives concerned with migration issues. Since then, the Citizen Platform offers, to the best of its ability, an unconditional welcome, a response to requests for information, training and assistance to exiles, migrants, asylum seekers, new arrivals and undocumented migrants, with full respect for the individual and their choices. It works to integrate these people into their new environment.

Fair Work Belgium is a Brussels-based organisation that works to defend the labour rights of the most vulnerable workers. This includes supporting migrants who come to Belgium with the intention of joining the labour market, advising them on issues such as the work permit required to work in Belgium.



V.3 Austria

These are some of the Austrian organisations that have implemented good practices for the labour market integration of migrants and represent a variety of approaches and resources to facilitate the labour market integration of migrants.

Caritas Austria: Caritas is a non-profit organisation offering a wide range of social services in Austria. They have implemented job placement programmes for migrants, including training, job orientation and job search support.

Österreichischer Integrationsfonds (ÖIF): The Austrian Integration Fund is a governmental institution that promotes the integration of migrants into Austrian society. They offer job training programmes, language courses and counselling services for migrants seeking work in Austria.

International Organization for Migration (IOM) Austria: The International Organization for Migration has an office in Austria that works in partnership with the government and other organizations to facilitate the integration of migrants, including their integration into the labour market. They offer job orientation services, training and job search support.

ArbeitnehmerInnen-Überlassungsgesetz (AÜG): This is an Austrian association that focuses on labour intermediation and job placement. They have developed specific programmes to help migrants find work in Austria and establish themselves in the labour market.

Vienna Business Agency: This agency provides business support services in Vienna and has also implemented programmes to encourage the recruitment of migrants. They work in partnership with local employers to promote diversity in the workplace and facilitate the labour integration of migrants.

Arbeitsmarktservice (AMS): The Austrian Employment Service is the government agency responsible for employment policy in Austria. They have developed specific programmes and services for migrants, including job orientation, training and subsidies for the recruitment of migrant workers.

Wiener ArbeitnehmerInnen Förderungsfonds (waff): This is a labour promotion fund in Vienna that offers a variety of services and support programmes for workers, including migrants. They offer career counselling, training and subsidies for job training.



VI. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF MIGRATION AND REFUGEE FLOWS FROM LATIN AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES (LAC)

VI. 1 Analysis of the situation of Latin American and Caribbean migrants in Spain

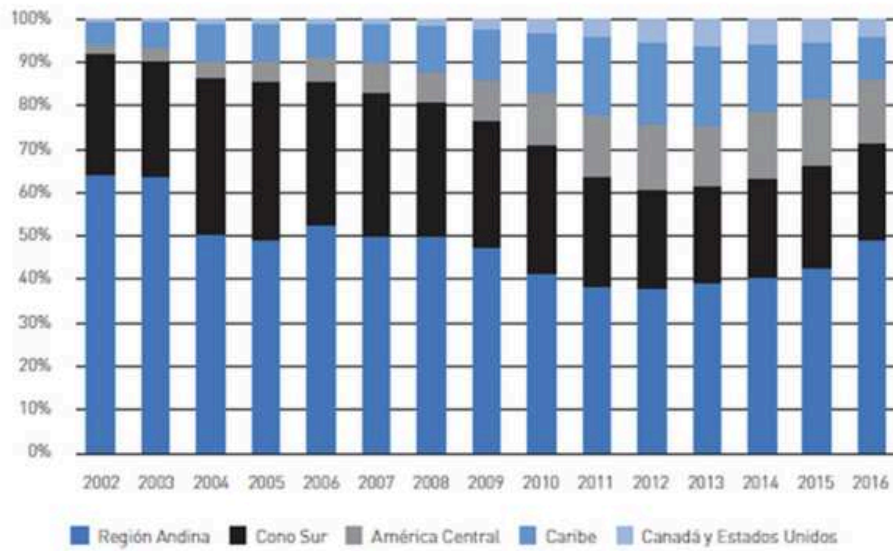
Spain is one of the main destinations for emigrants from Latin America and the Caribbean after the United States. In the period from 2002 to 2016, more than three million migrants from the Americas entered Spain. In 2004, before the economic crisis, just 1% of immigrants from the Americas in Spain left the country each year. When the Spanish economy entered a deep recession, the overall unemployment rate tripled, rising from 8% in 2007 to 26% in 2013. Between 2002 and 2016, one third of immigrants from Latin American and Caribbean (hereafter LAC) countries had left the country by 2015.

Differences in mobility patterns have been changing among immigrants of different nationalities from LAC countries, with a sharp decrease in the Andean region (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela) and the Southern Cone (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay). From 2013 onwards, immigration from LAC countries to Spain became more diverse with an increase in immigrants from other regions, especially from Central America (Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua). In 2014, there was a rise in immigration levels with a prevalence of countries from the Andean region and the Southern Cone, while migration from Central America remained stable.

Figure 43: Migration from the Americas to Spain, by region of origin, 2002-2015

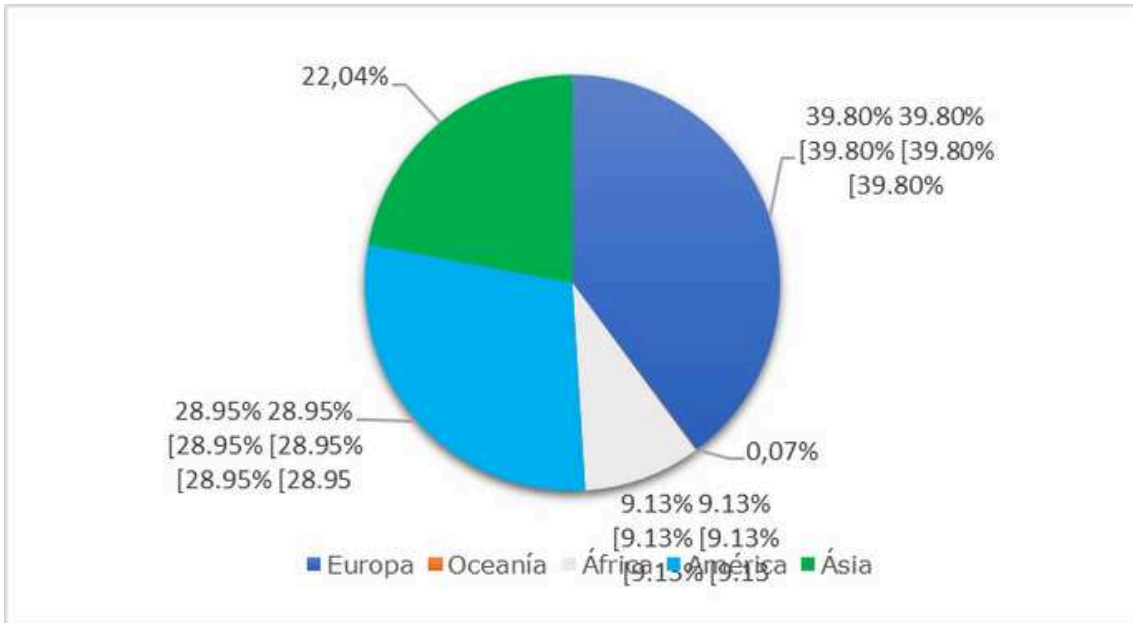
VI. 2 The migrant population from LAC countries in Spain

The range of nationalities of the foreign population in Spain is very diverse, coming from all continents. The most prominent countries of origin by continent are, from Europe (39.80%): Romanian nationals, followed by Italian and Bulgarian nationals. From the African continent (9.13%), Morocco, Senegal and Algeria stand out. From the Americas (28.95%): Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador and Peru, countries belonging to South



America. Countries from Asia (22.04%) include China and Pakistan. Lastly, in Oceania (0.07%), Australia stands out. If these trends continue, there would be a change in the structure of the origins of migrant flows, with a lower relative weight of Africans and Europeans and a greater weight of LAC countries.

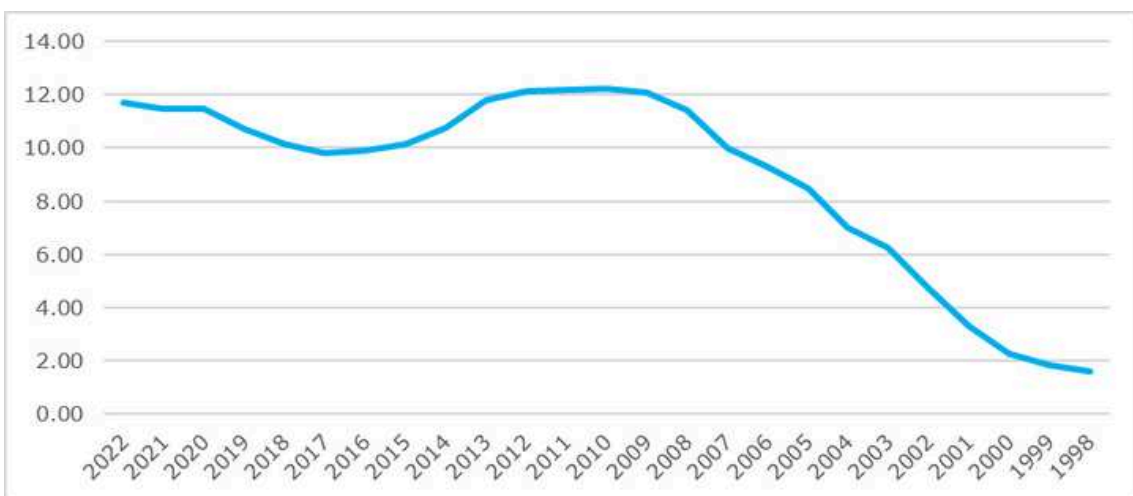




Graph based on INE 2023 data.

According to the Spanish National Institute of Statistics (2022) (hereinafter INE) Spain registered a total of 47,475,420 million inhabitants in 2022, of which 5,542,932 (11.68%) were of foreign origin. The following graph shows the large increase in the migrant population at the beginning of the year 2000. There was also a turning point in 2008 when the percentage of the migrant population began to fall as a result of the country's major economic recession.

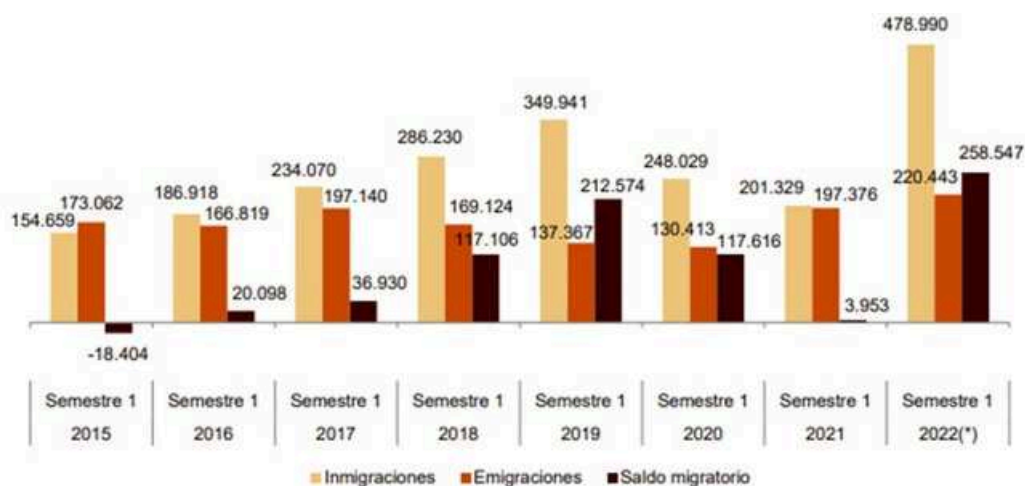
Figure 45: Foreign population flow in percentages, Spain period (2022-1998).



Graph based on INE 2022 data.

With regard to the evolution of the migratory balance, Spain is characterised as a country with positive migratory balances, although the economic crisis produced a significant outflow of Spaniards abroad. Currently, the migratory balance is 258,547 persons (there were 478,990 immigrations from abroad and 220,443 emigrations to foreign countries).

Graph 46: Evolution of the migration balance in Spain, 2015-2022.



Source: CP - 1 July 2022 and MS - First half of 2022

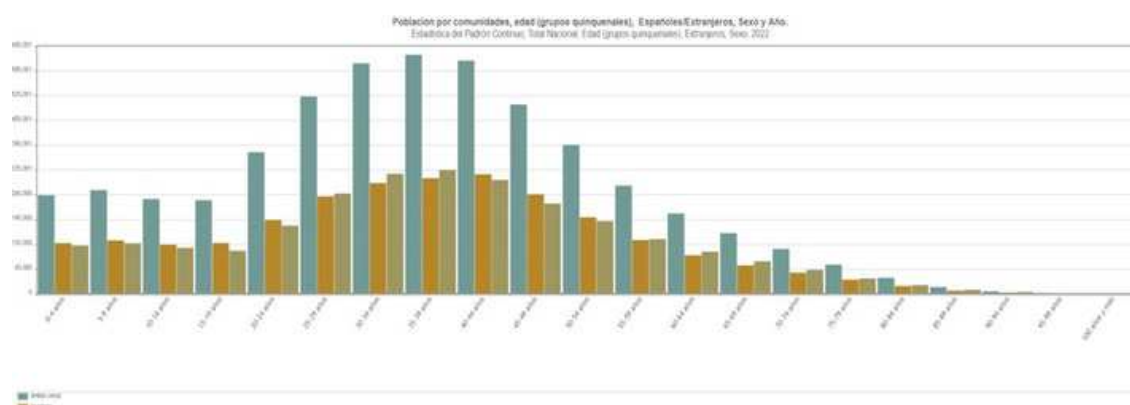
As we can extract from the graph above, the migratory balance experiences an increasing trend from 2016 when inflows amounted to more than half a million people, 200,000 more (in round numbers) than, in 2019, however, it is still far from the 920,000 inflows reported in 2007.

In terms of the composition of migration, the largest migrant communities in Spain during the period under study were those from LAC countries. Especially between 2016 and 2017 there was an extraordinary increase, with inflows in 2017 already exceeding the figure reached in 2008.

It is important to note that the largest foreign population is of working age: 20-24 (370,612), 25-29 (516,804), 30-34 (603,708), 35-39 (626,186), 40-44 (610,628), 45-49 (496,033), 50-54 (389,311).



Graph 47: Foreign population by age group and sex in Spain (2022).



Graph based on INE 2023 data

Below is a graph of migration flows from LAC origin in Spain in 2022. According to the National Institute of Statistics, Spain registered (463,944) migrants from LAC in 2021.

Table 3: Weight of nationalities according to country of origin in Spain, year 2022 (INE, 2022)

Nacionalidad	Población residente		Crecimiento semestre	
	1 enero 2022	1 julio 2022	Absoluto	Relativo (%)
TOTAL	5.407.491	5.579.947	172.456	3,2
Marruecos	775.159	770.610	-4.549	-0,6
Rumanía	631.585	619.833	-11.751	-1,9
Colombia	315.386	375.528	60.142	19,1
Reino Unido	315.824	307.443	-8.381	-2,7
Italia	298.170	306.621	8.452	2,8
Venezuela	220.258	251.961	31.703	14,4
China	193.046	187.988	-5.058	-2,6
Ucrania	105.667	154.063	48.396	45,8
Alemania	142.632	144.386	1.755	1,2
Perú	117.949	141.705	23.756	20,1
Honduras	125.199	135.214	10.015	8,0
Francia	127.732	127.668	-64	-0,1
Ecuador	120.801	117.431	-3.370	-2,8
Bulgaria	116.843	114.616	-2.227	-1,9
Argentina	104.076	113.558	9.483	9,1

Datos provisionales, excepto la población residente al inicio del periodo, que es definitiva.

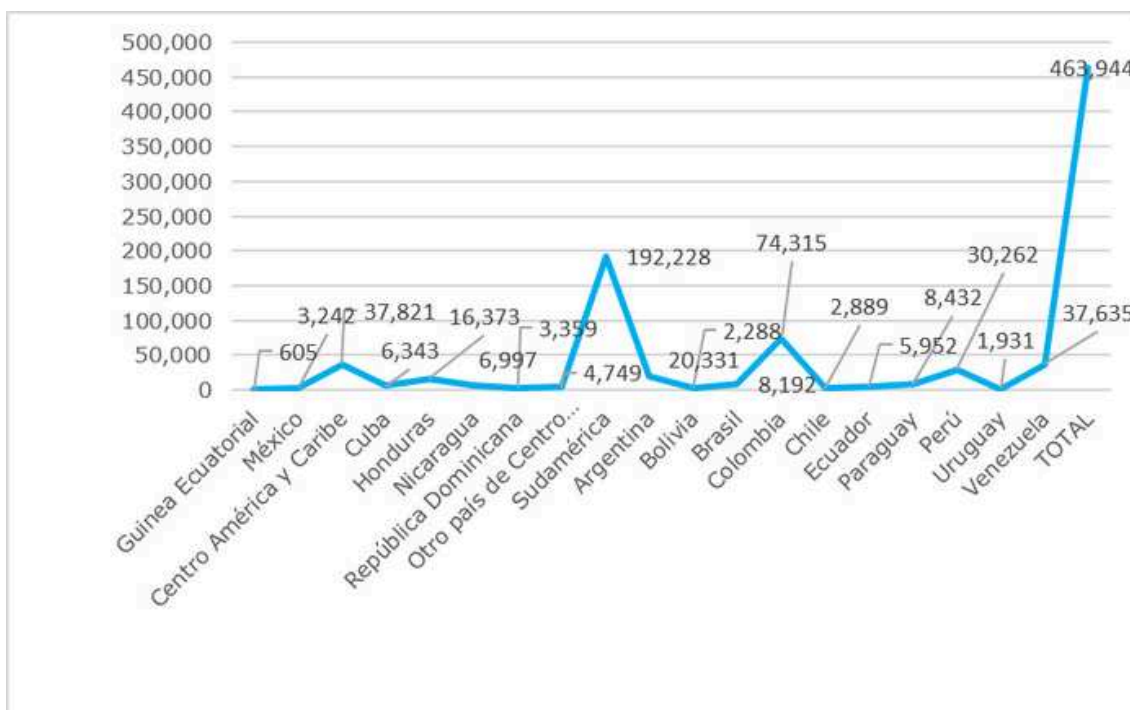
Table elaborated by INE, data 2020 (INE, 2023)

Among the main nationalities, the largest increases in the first half of the year 2022 were among the Colombian population (60,142 more people),

Ukrainian (48,396 more) and Venezuelan (31,703 more). And the largest decreases were in Romania (11,751 fewer people), the United Kingdom (-8,381) and China (-5,058).

In relative terms, the highest growth rates were for Ukrainian nationals (45.8%), Peruvians (20.1%) and Colombians (19.1%).

Figure 48: Immigration flow from abroad by nationality in Spain year, 2021.



Graph based on INE 2023 data.

The table below, accompanied by the corresponding graph, shows the trend in the flow of LAC migrants in Spain. As can be seen, in 2008 there was a boom in migrant arrivals, but in the following years the flow of arrivals began to decrease, coinciding with the country's economic crisis. Specifically, it is worth highlighting the arrival of 15,237 migrants from Colombia, 14,888 from Ecuador and 14,488 from Peru. To a lesser extent, a total of 7,529 people from Brazil, 6,941 from the Dominican Republic, 6,672 from Paraguay, 5,932 from Argentina and 4,090 from Bolivia.

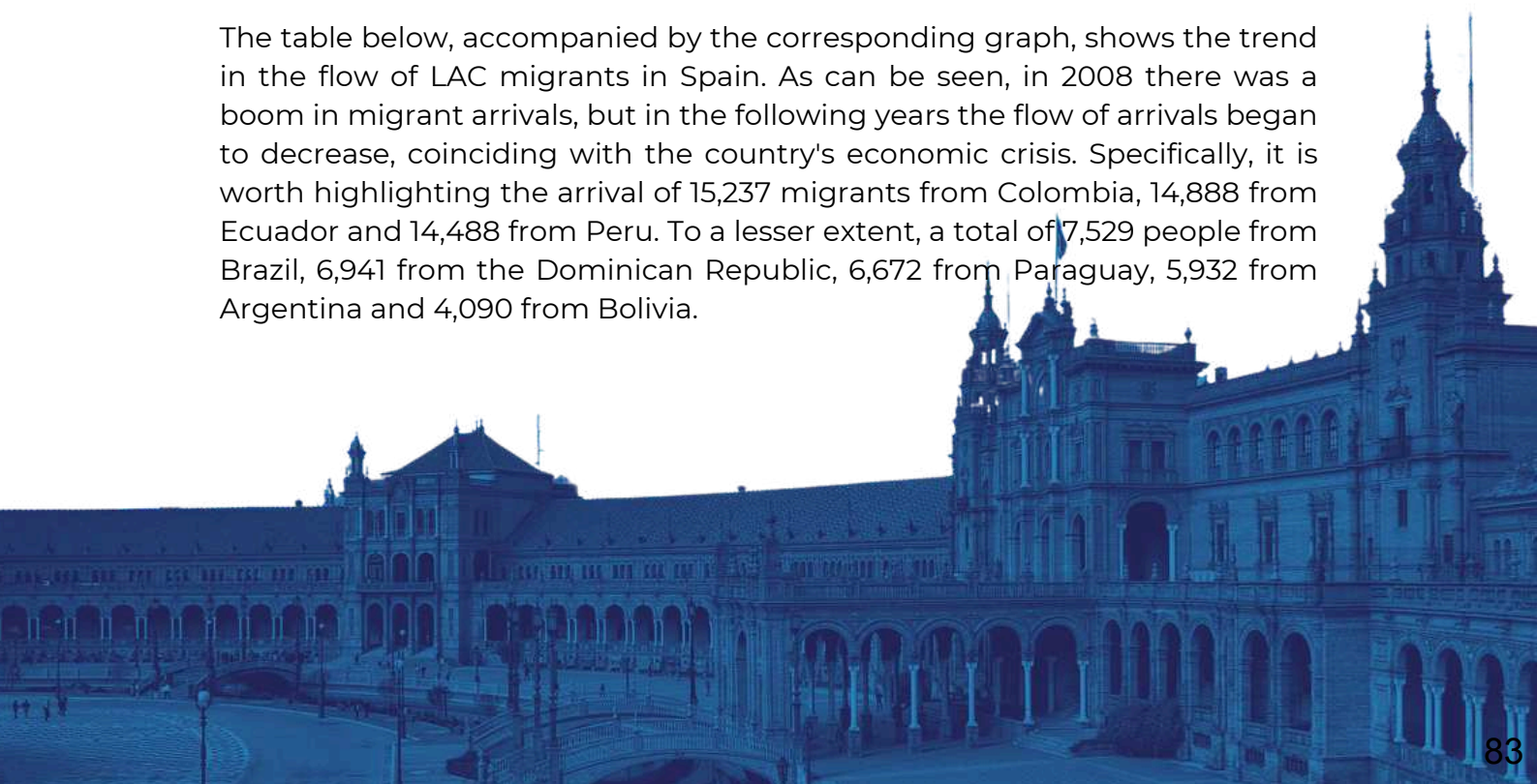


Table 4: Immigration flows from abroad according to nationality in Spain, 2008-2014

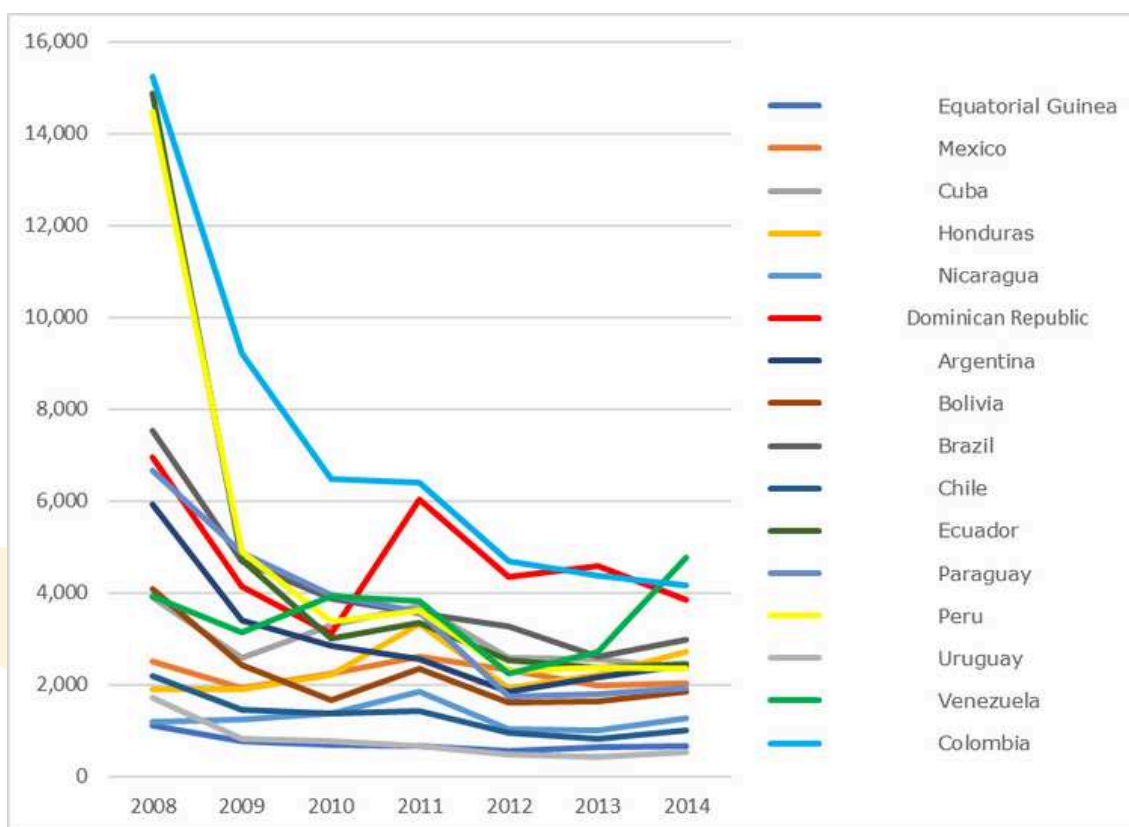
Country of origin	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Equatorial Guinea	1.114	766	692	652	546	633	675
Mexico	2.503	1.920	2.236	2.624	2.331	1.974	2.042
Cuba	3.913	2.578	3.293	3.716	2.595	2.570	2.350
Honduras	1.893	1.903	2.225	3.321	1.932	2.227	2.725
Nicaragua	1.194	1.241	1.385	1.855	1.026	1.018	1.260
Dominican Rep.	6.941	4.138	3.119	6.023	4.356	4.594	3.858
Argentina	5.932	3.408	2.854	2.571	1.838	2.159	2.440
Bolivia	4.090	2.434	1.674	2.341	1.618	1.647	1.858
Brazil	7.529	4.680	3.877	3.558	3.279	2.601	2.972
Colombia	15.237	9.214	6.477	6.393	4.680	4.376	4.152
Chile	2.191	1.461	1.382	1.419	942	827	996
Ecuador	14.888	4.720	3.006	3.344	2.542	2.384	2.454
Paraguay	6.672	4.867	3.957	3.589	1.731	1.796	1.919
Peru	14.488	4.901	3.366	3.624	2.308	2.365	2.335

Uruguay	1.704	812	767	651	471	427	520
Venezuela	3.929	3.142	3.929	3.821	2.245	2.727	4.766
Other Central American and Caribbean country	1.299	1.014	1.179	1.402	1.071	1.058	1.306
Central America and the Caribbean	15.240	10.875	11.200	16.317	10.980	11.466	11.499
South America	76.664	39.643	31.290	31.312	21.659	21.312	24.414
TOTAL	187.421	103.717	87.908	98.533	68.150	68.161	74.541

Table compiled by the authors based on INE 2023 data.



Figure 49: Immigration flows from abroad according to nationality in Spain, 2008-2014



Graph based on INE 2023 data.

As mentioned above, the arrival of migrants from LAC countries was particularly important in 2008. In 2013, coinciding with periods of recovery of the Spanish economy, the reactivation of migration to Spain from LAC countries was again observed, albeit less markedly.

The table below shows the flow of migrant arrivals from LAC countries in the period 2015-2022. From the table below it is important to focus on the increase in migration that occurred again between 2015 and 2019, especially in migration from some countries such as Colombia and Venezuela. Colombia's migrant population increased from 5,073 migrants in 2015 to 20,331 in 2022. In the case of Venezuela, there were significant waves of refugee and migrant arrivals during 2017-2019 during the Maduro regime.

Table 5: Immigration flow from abroad according to nationality in Spain (2015-2022) (INE, 2023)

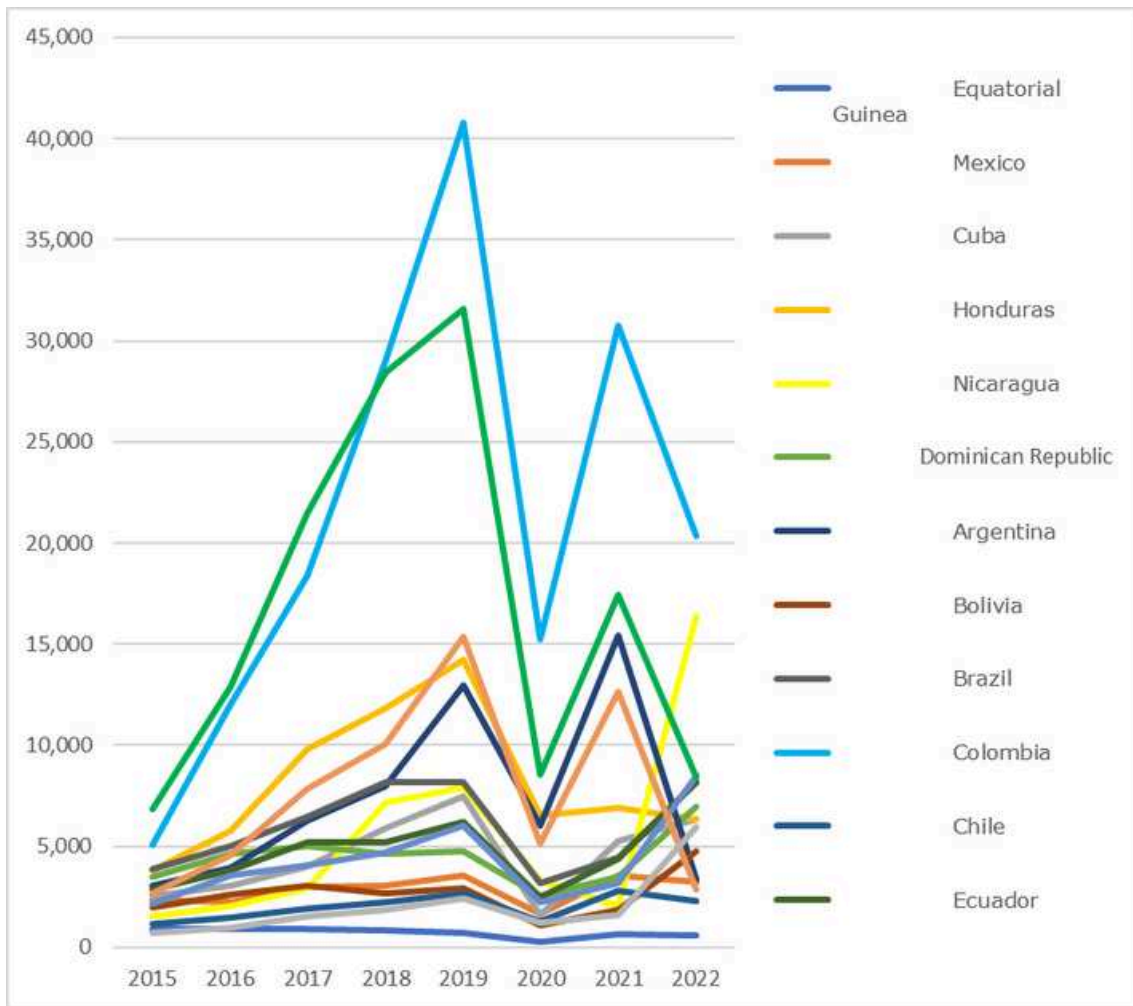
Country of origin	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Equatorial Guinea	936	938	891	832	740	251	671	605
Mexico	2.377	2.238	2.971	3.081	3.553	1.647	3.581	3.242
Cuba	2.555	3.082	4.011	5.883	7.485	1.599	5.250	5.860
Honduras	3.825	5.750	9.841	11.832	14.220	6.551	6.933	6.343
Nicaragua	1.511	2.072	2.956	7.173	7.890	3.325	2.039	16.373
Dominican Rep.	3.504	4.614	5.041	4.612	4.737	2.531	3.473	6.997
Argentina	3.036	3.960	6.298	7.990	12.969	6.025	15.406	3.359
Bolivia	1.957	2.621	3.059	2.702	2.949	1.076	1.873	4.749
Brazil	3.851	5.010	6.443	8.150	8.156	3.181	4.425	8.192
Colombia	5.073	12.047	18.421	28.966	40.808	15.265	30.737	20.331
Chile	1.194	1.492	1.923	2.234	2.650	1.294	2.813	2.288
Ecuador	2.896	3.816	5.191	5.225	6.202	2.485	4.389	8.192
Paraguay	2.198	3.562	4.069	4.701	5.995	2.249	3.156	8.462
Peru	2.675	4.541	7.860	10.052	15.334	5.137	12.664	2.889
Uruguay	752	995	1.519	1.837	2.427	1.230	1.580	5.952

Venezuela	6.839	12.908	21.466	28.422	31.596	8.558	17.433	8.432
Other Central America and Caribbean country	1.593	2.252	3.019	3.884	5.493	2.364	3.242	30.262
Central America and the Caribbean	12.988	17.770	24.868	33.384	39.825	16.370	20.937	1.931
South America	30.472	50.953	76.250	100.283	129.091	46.501	94.482	37.635
TOTAL	90.232	140.621	206.097	271.243	342.120	127.639	235.084	463.944

Table compiled by the authors based on INE 2023 data.

Figure 50: Immigration flow from abroad by nationality in Spain, 2015-2022





Graph based on INE 2023 data.

Graph 51: Map of the distribution of the foreign population by Autonomous Community in Spain, 2019



Source: INE 2021 through the continuous census statistics.

In relation to the spatial distribution of migrants, it is quite concentrated in the Community of Madrid (0.82% - 53,698), the Balearic Islands (0.68% - 7,904), Catalonia (33,453), the Community of Valencia (0.66% - 24,121) and Andalusia (19,054). It should be noted that there has been a movement of dispersion within Spain, indicating that some communities normally successful in receiving migrants are losing population to other provinces. The interactive map can be consulted at the following link: [Immigrants by Autonomous Community, by continent of origin of migration to Spain](#)

VI.3 Socio-demographic characteristics of LAC migrants in Spain

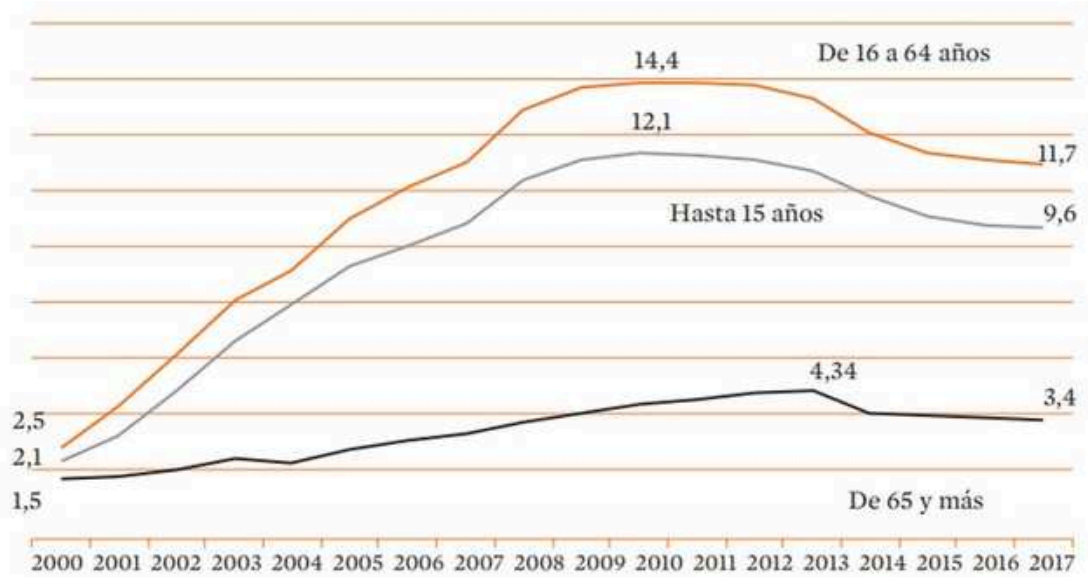
A first observation is that the age and gender composition of migration flows seems to be progressively changing, as a comparison of the detailed age profiles of migrants between the beginning and the end of the last decade would indicate (Figure 53).

Over the entire historical series, the highest frequency of migrants' ages corresponds to those between 20 and 30 years of age, with most of the total number of entries accumulating between 18 and 40 years of age.

But, unlike then, the younger age group is less representative, particularly in the 10-15 age group, and entry has increased in all the older age groups, from 45 onwards.

Figure 52: Evolution of migrants in Spain by age group, 2002-2017

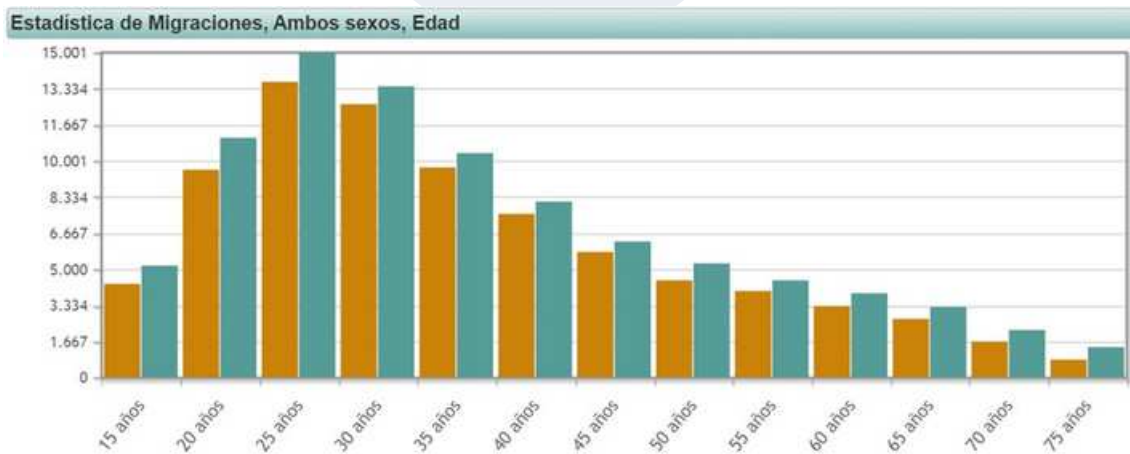




Source: Statistics for the continuous census, 2018

It is also noticeable, moreover, the greater recovery of the flow of female immigration, which is less noticeable, on the other hand, this change towards a lower weight in the inflows of young people, between 20 and 35 years of age. In the following graph by sex, men correspond to the left-hand column in brown and women to the right-hand column in green.

Figure 53: Migrant population in Spain by sex, 2019.

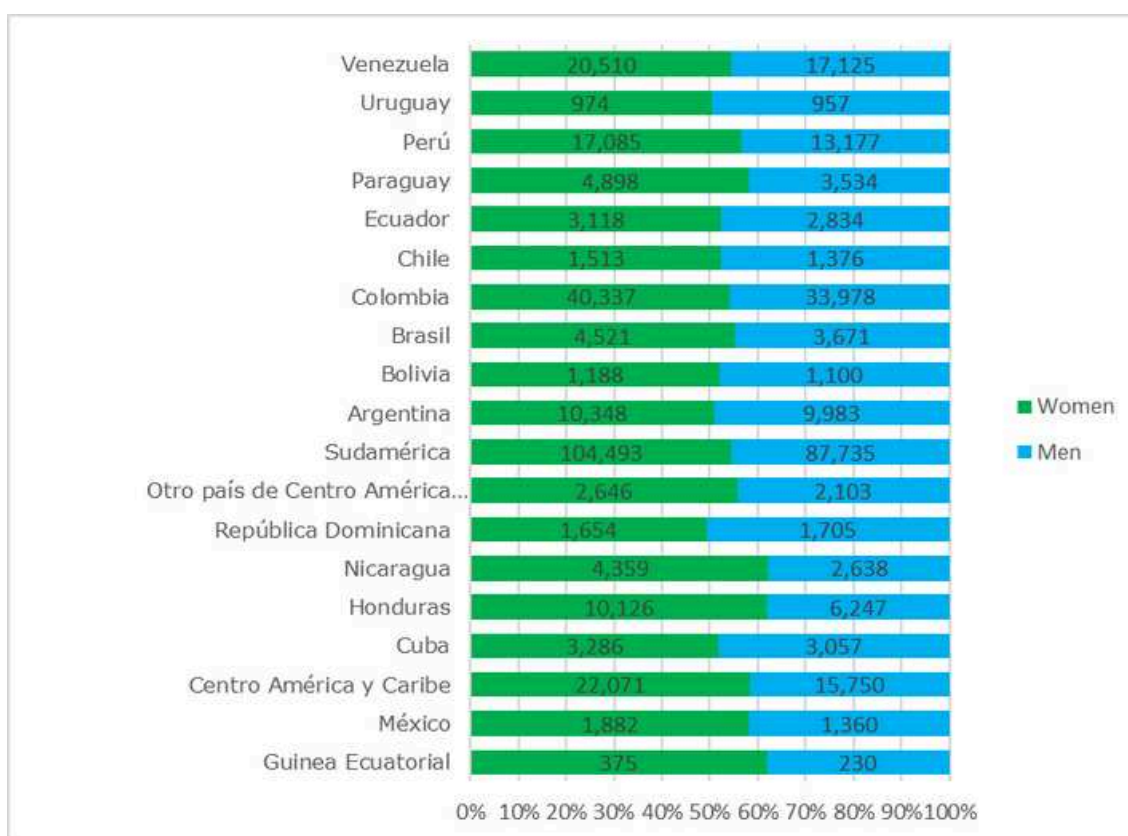


Source: graph produced by INE - Migration statistics by age for the years 2020-21.

VI.4 The feminisation of immigration to Spain from LAC countries

As can be seen in the following graph, when referring to immigration from Latin America and the Caribbean, gender is particularly relevant, with women migrating to a greater extent than men. This fact has important implications in terms of focusing on the jobs they occupy, which are mostly related to care, and in what working conditions, being over-represented in informal work, temporary contracts and part-time work.

Figure 54: Immigration from LAC countries to Spain by gender, 2022 .

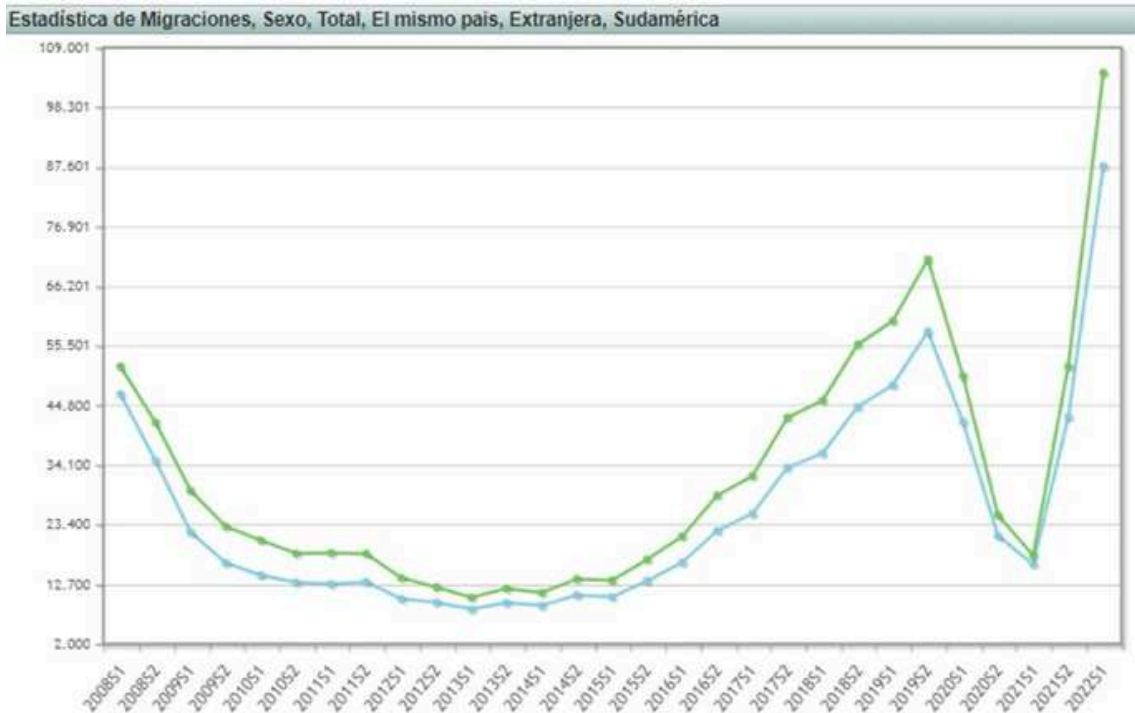


Graph based on INE 2023 data.

As can be seen in the table above, **women** have been gaining prominence in the most recent migration flows. In 2008, female immigration accounted for 48.2% of the total, compared to 51.1% in 2017; there has also been a feminisation of LAC immigration. In flows from the Americas, the data show an ever greater number of women and a greater representation of women

in migration flows since the 2008 crisis, with 53-55% from the 1990s to 2008, and between 58.0% and 60.0% since then.

Figure 55: Immigration flow by sex from Latin American and Caribbean countries to Spain (2008-2022) (INE, 2023).



Note: Women are reflected in green and men in blue.

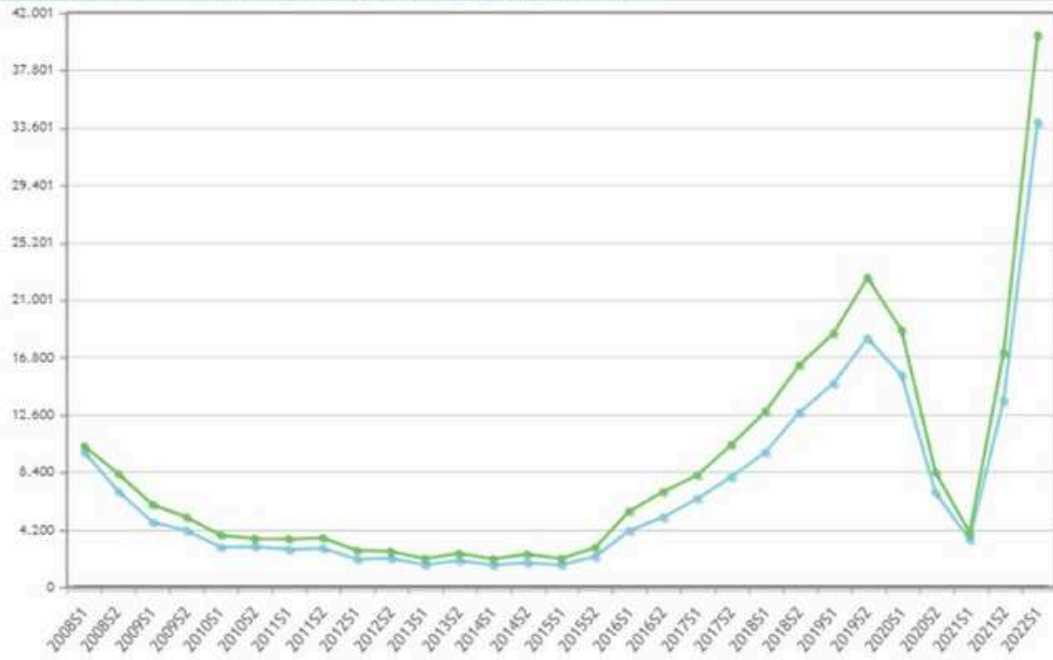
Graph via INE 2023 data

Below are two graphs that show the feminisation of immigration from the LAC countries with the highest number of arrivals in recent years by sex between 2008 and 2021.

Figure 56: Immigration flows by sex from Colombia, 2008-2022



Estadística de Migraciones, Sexo, Total, El mismo país, Extranjera, Colombia

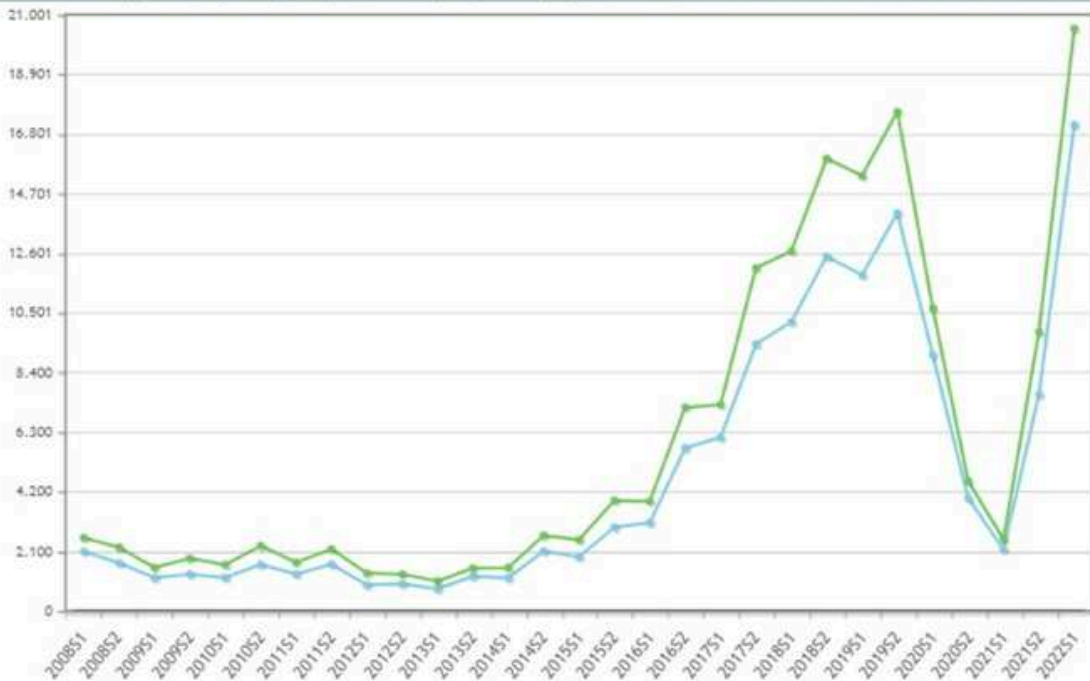


Note: Women are reflected in green and men in blue.

Graph via INE 2023 data

Figure 57: Immigration flows by sex from Venezuela, 2008-2022

Estadística de Migraciones, Sexo, Total, El mismo país, Extranjera, Venezuela



Note: Women are reflected in green and men in blue.

Graph via INE 2023 data

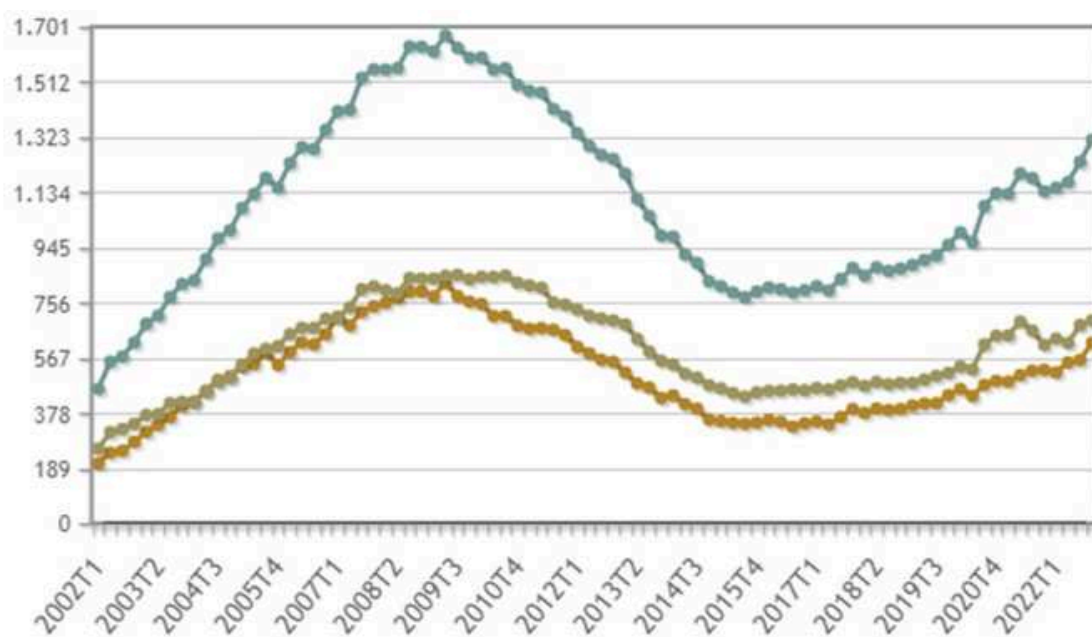
VI. 5 Data on the labour market situation of LAC migrants in Spain

In 2010-2011, three out of every four people who migrated from the Americas to Europe went to Spain and the United States. By 2015, the number of LAC migrants amounted to more than 2.4 million in Spain, representing 6.2% of the working-age population.

As a whole, during the period 2014-2015 the European Union had growth rates of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the Spanish economy showed clear signs of recovery, with an annual GDP growth in 2015 equivalent to 3.2%. Even though the Spanish economy was in a period of recovery, the situation of migrants from LAC countries in the labour market has been lagging behind, with an employment rate of 58% and an unemployment rate of up to 29%.

In relation to employment, the weight of the migrant population in the Spanish labour market has shown no signs of declining. In 2013, the weight of foreign nationals in the labour force stood at 15.2% and in 2018, driven by the greater presence of people with dual nationality in the labour force, it stood at 15.6%. Among men this weight is 14.7% in 2018 and among women, 16.6%, with an even greater importance in the younger groups. The activity rate of foreigners is higher than that of Spaniards, especially in certain age groups such as those under 25 and those over 55. The activity rate of migrants from Latin American countries was 1,313.4.

Graph 58: Labour force in Spain from Latin America by gender, 2021

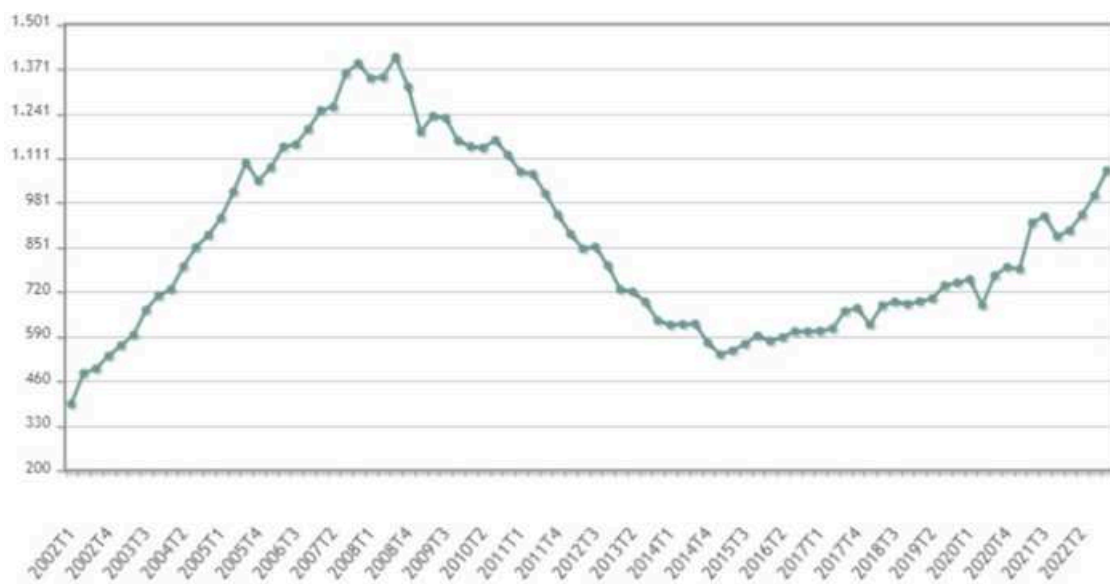


Source: Graph based on data from INE EPA survey, 2023.

The employment rate of migrants in European OECD countries increased on average by 1.6 percentage points. The increase was higher for men, 2 percentage points, than for women, 1.4 percentage points. This can be explained by the fact that men are employed in sectors that are more sensitive to the business cycle, such as construction and hotel services. Male migrants in Spain particularly benefited from the employment recovery, as their employment rate increased by 3.6 percentage points between 2012-2013 and 2014-2015.

The following graph shows the flow of the employment rate of migrants from Latin American countries in Spain from 2002 to 2022. As can be seen, 2008 was the year with the highest employed population. In 2022, 1,073.9 people of Latin American origin are working in Spain. Of the 1,073.9 employed people from Latin America, 519.5 were men and 554.3 were women.

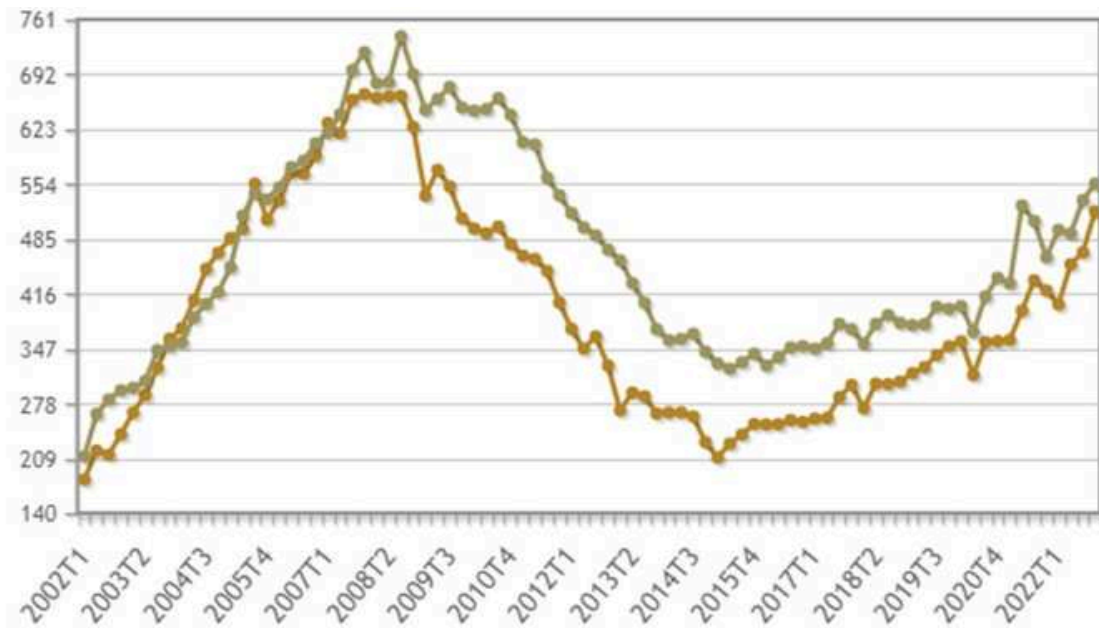
Figure 59: Employed population in Spain from Latin America, 2021



Source: Graph based on data from INE EPA survey, 2023.

Figure 60: Employed population in Spain from Latin America by sex, 2021





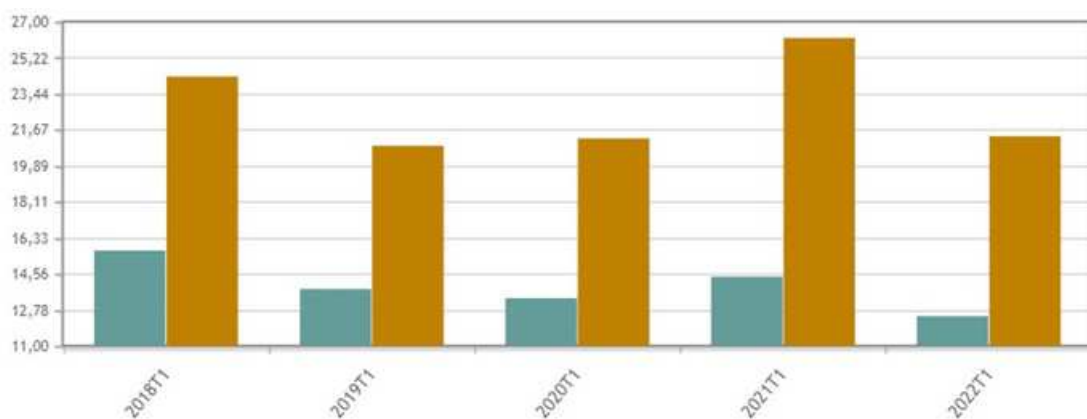
Source: Graph based on data from INE EPA survey, 2023.

Spain is the main destination country in Europe for migrants from LAC countries, both men and women are more at risk of unemployment than those born in Spain, but less so than other migrants.

An important characteristic is that the migrant population is at a disadvantage compared to the national population, something that has been

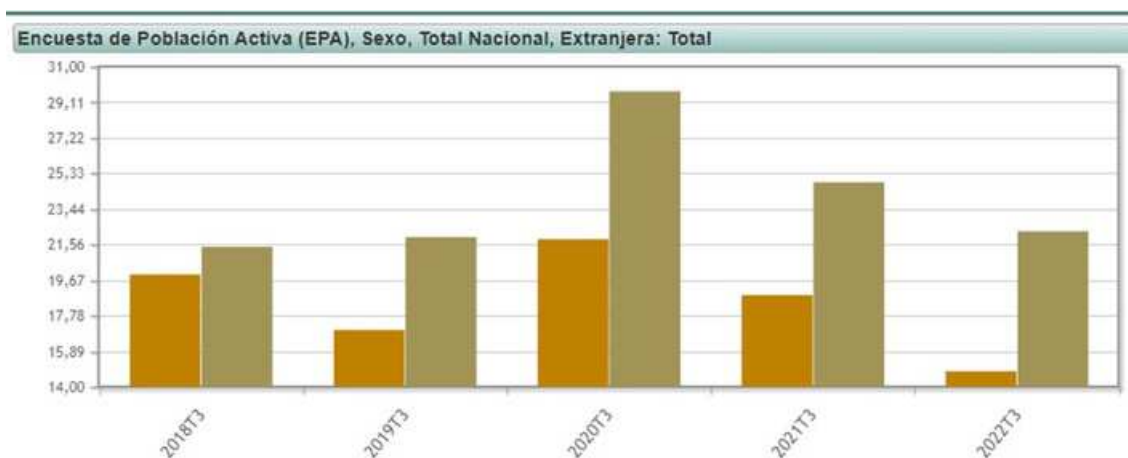
observed over a fairly long period of time, with a considerable widening of the gap in the crisis that has not yet been reduced. In 2018, the total unemployment rate for foreign nationals was 21.5% compared to 14.1% for Spanish nationals only. Currently, for the year 2022, the unemployment rate for migrants in Spain is 21.33% compared to 12.5% for nationals.

Graph 61: Evolution of national and foreign unemployment rates in Spain, 2008 - 2022



Source: Labour Force Survey. Unemployment rate of foreign population in Spain (INE, 2023).

Graph 62: Evolution of the unemployment rate of foreigners in Spain by sex, 2018-2022



Source: Labour Force Survey. Unemployment rate of foreign population in Spain (INE, 2023).

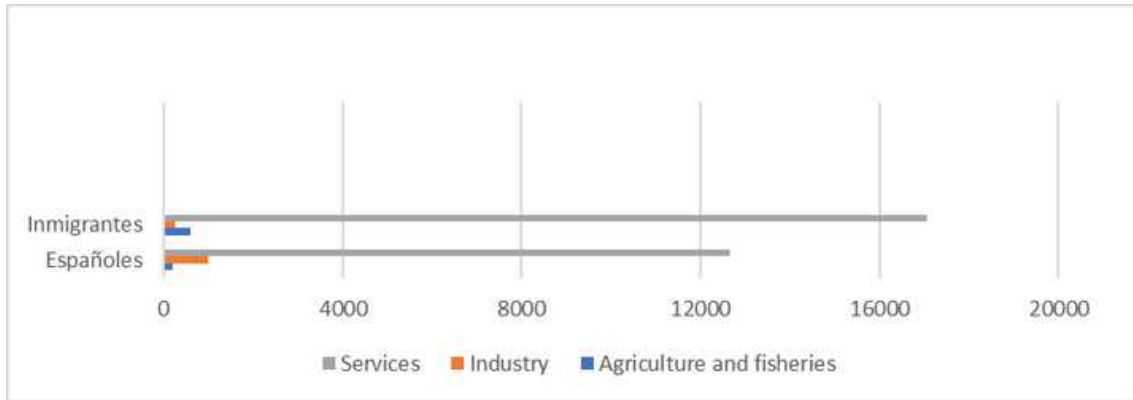
The differences in unemployment rates are not only associated with the economic situation, which could point to problems of insertion or - above all - to a more unstable relationship with employment.

An approximation of the volume of all recruitment at origin would be given by the work visas granted between 2010 and 2017, which have been increasing, both long-term and short-term work visas, especially with the entry into force of the so-called "blue card".

If we analyse by sector, "agriculture and services" are the most favourable sectors for foreign employment. In the industrial sector, the foreign population loses its comparative advantage and has a higher presence than the Spanish population. The foreign population finds greater employment opportunities in sectors with more precarious working conditions in terms of temporality, part-time work and working conditions. They have a clear disadvantage in the industrial sector, characterised by a greater trade union presence, with better employment guarantees and stability and generally better working conditions, which are mainly occupied by the Spanish population.

Figure 63: Distribution of employed population by sector and nationality, data 2021

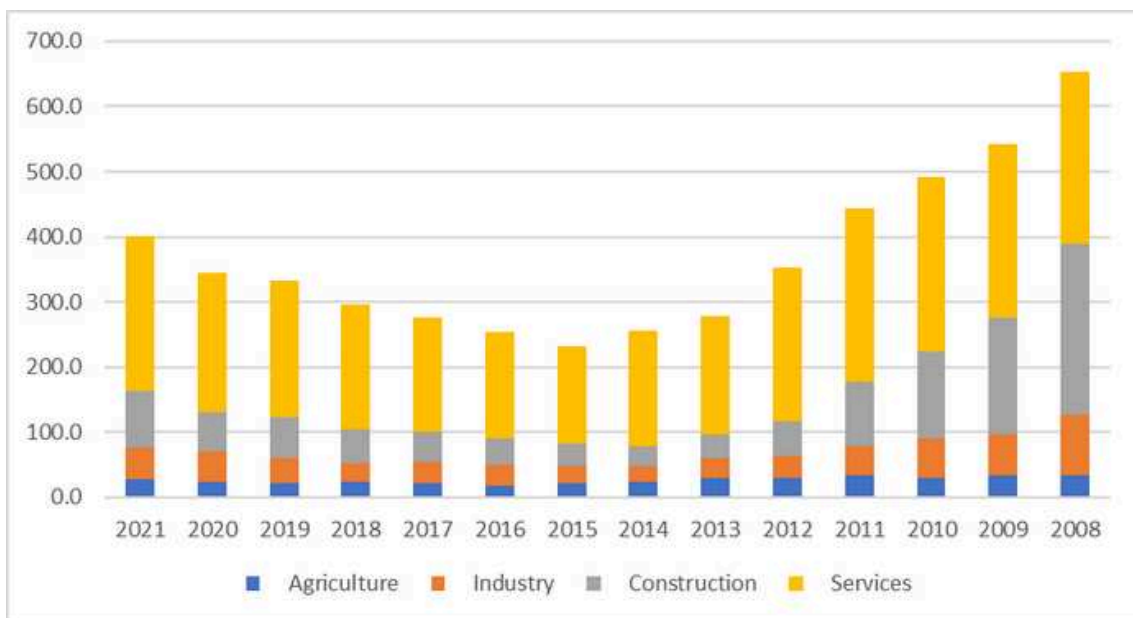




Source: Table compiled from the Labour Force Survey (2022).

The following graph shows in which sectors male migrants from LAC countries are employed. As can be seen, they are mostly employed in the services sector, followed by construction, industry and agriculture.

Figure 64: Men from LAC countries in employment by sector of activity

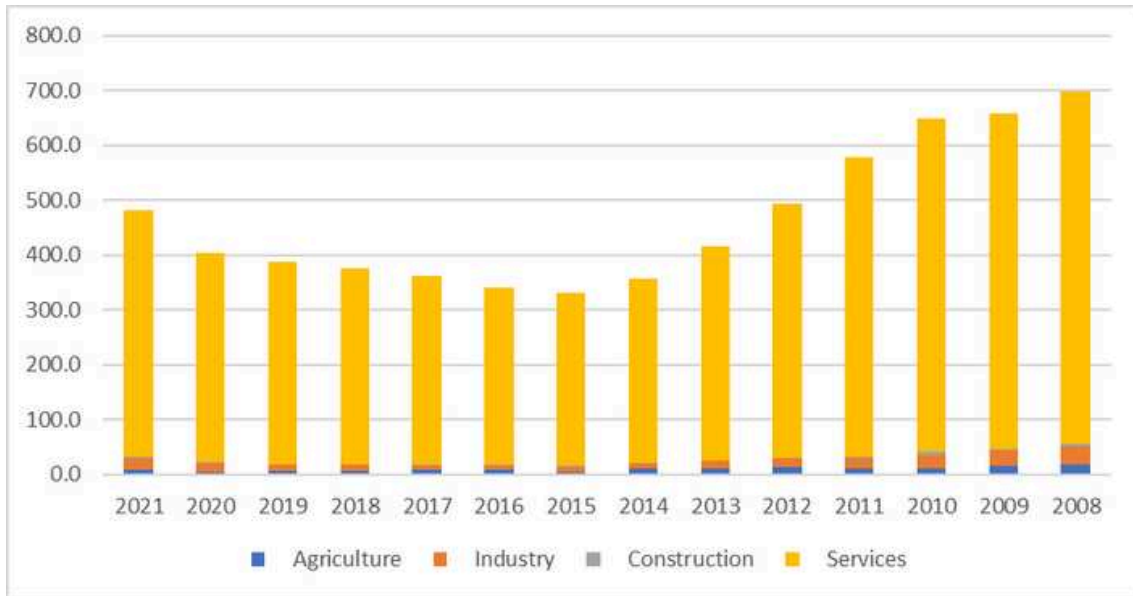


Source: Graph based on data from INE EPA survey, 2023.

In Spain, women originating from the Americas have higher activity and employment rates (79% and 57%, respectively) than migrants from other

countries. Migrant women from the Americas employed in Spain are over-represented in core service sector occupations; in fact, 38% are employed directly by households.

Figure 65: Women from LAC countries in employment by sector of activity, 2008-2021.

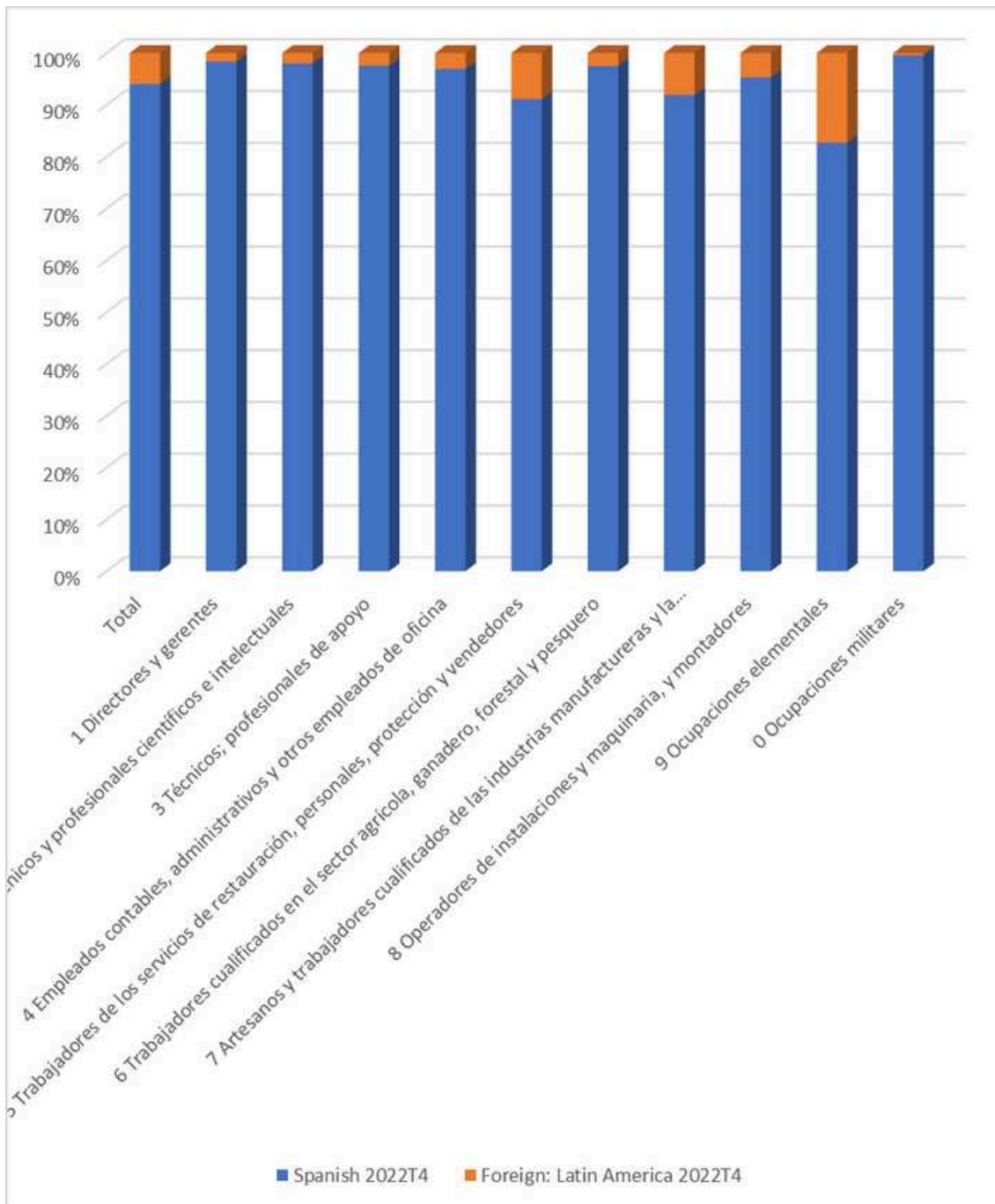


Source: Graph based on data from INE EPA survey, 2023.

The following graph shows that a large proportion of migrants from LAC countries are employed in elementary occupations, which are the lowest paid and offer the worst working conditions. In line with the previous graph, it can also be seen that they are more highly represented in the service sector and in industry.

Figure 66: Types of occupations held by migrants from LAC countries in Spain relative to the national population in 2022.

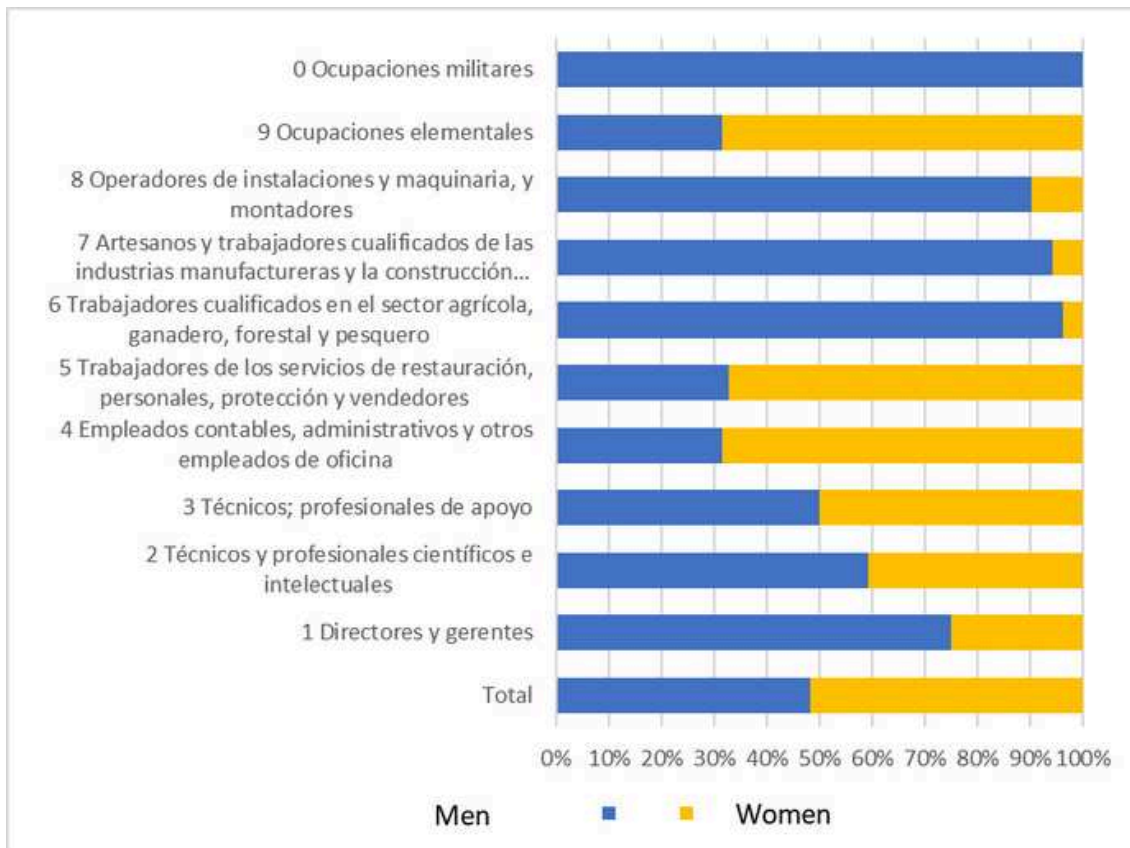




Source: Graph based on data from INE EPA survey, 2023.

Focusing on the type of occupations held by LAC migrants in Spain by gender shows that women are over-represented in elementary occupations, in the service sector (catering, personal services, social protection and sales) and in administration-related professions (office clerks).

Figure 67: Types of occupations held by migrants from LAC countries in Spain by sex in 2021.



Source: Graph based on data from INE EPA survey, 2023.

On the other hand, while 36% of the Spanish population works in managerial and technical positions, only 18% of the foreign population manages to reach such positions. On the other hand, the foreign population is 28 points ahead of the Spanish population in elementary occupations and in jobs in the agricultural, livestock, forestry and fishing sectors.

Graph 68: Distribution of employed population by job and nationality



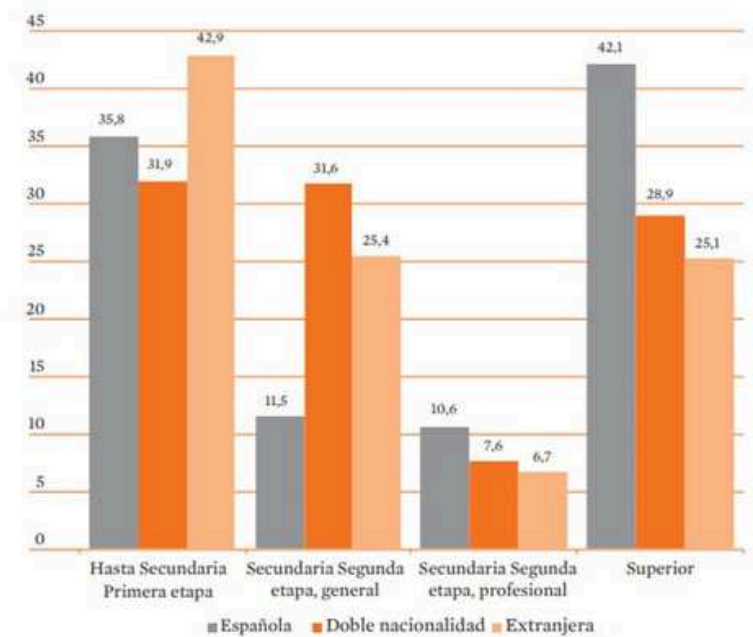
	Total	Española	Doble nacionalidad	Extranjera: Total	Diferencia porcentaje ocupación
Directores, gerentes y técnicos	33%	36%	17%	17%	-19%
Contables, administrativos y oficina	10%	11%	7%	5%	-6%
Restauración, personales, protección y vendedores	23%	21%	31%	30%	9%
Sector agrícola, ganadero, forestal y pesquero	2%	2%	1%	2%	0%
Ind. Manufactureras y de construcción	11%	11%	10%	12%	1%
Operadores de instalaciones, maquinaria y montadores	8%	8%	6%	7%	0%
Ocupaciones elementales	12%	10%	27%	27%	17%

Source: Table compiled from the Labour Force Survey (2019).

VI. 6 The educational situation of the migrant population in Spain

On the other hand, there is a difference between the skill structure of the labour force of migrant origin and that of the native population.

Graph 69: Labour force by nationality and educational attainment in Spain (2018).



Source: Economic and Social Council Report, 2019

From the data provided by the OPI, as well as from the Spanish Economic and Social Council Report, the educational structure of migrants in Spain shows that that of Europeans is similar (except again for the weight of higher education) to that of Spaniards, with 37% of people with secondary education (10% professional) and 35% with university studies.

Nor is it very far from that of the Latin American labour force, with 39% and 23%, respectively, at the same two levels of education. However, while Europeans do have unemployment rates more similar to those of Spaniards, the latter have substantially higher rates. This shows that, despite its relevance, education is not the only factor that currently determines the worse employment situation of migrants in the Spanish labour market.

VI. 7 Migrants from the Americas with tertiary education tend to be overqualified for the jobs they do.

Migrants from LAC countries represent 10% of employed migrants with higher education in Europe, with a significantly higher percentage in Spain of 39%.

Migrants with tertiary education include those who migrated as children or who remained in the country for study reasons, as well as those who obtained their highest degree in their country of origin and migrated as adults under a work permit or - more often - for humanitarian or family reasons (OAS/OECD, 2015). Despite their level of education, these people may occupy jobs that require medium or low skills, in which case they are "overqualified" for their jobs. This definition of overqualification is based on the classification of skill level for occupations according to the attainment of the level of education normally required to obtain the corresponding job. In Europe, 36% of employed persons of origin from the Americas with tertiary education are overqualified for their jobs, comparable to the situation for natives in Spain, where 46% of migrants from the Americas reside.

VI. 8 Migrants by continent and most represented countries, according to reasons for moving to Spain

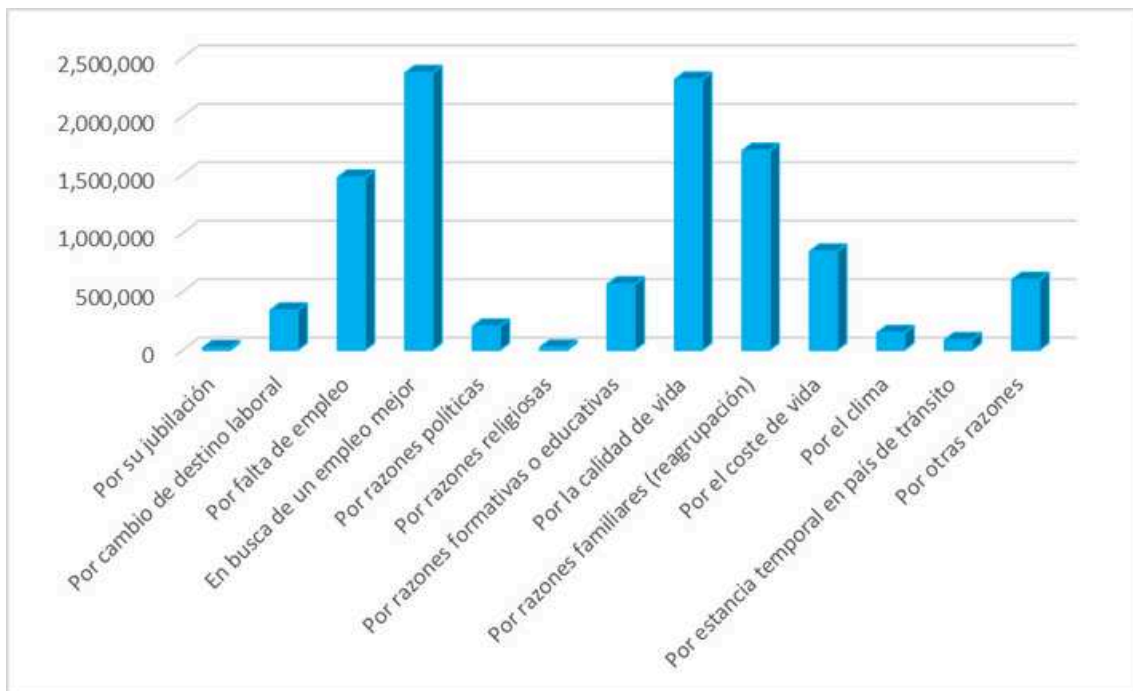
Below is a table with a corresponding graph showing the reasons for which the migration process originated. As can be seen in the following graphs, the main reasons why citizens from LAC countries migrate to Spain are related either to the lack of employment in their countries of origin or in search of a better job. Also, the improvement in quality of life or for reasons of family regrouping stand out. To a lesser extent, people from LAC countries have done so for political or other reasons.

Table 6: Migrations to Spain by reason for relocation according to country of origin, 2019.

	Retirement	Change of assignment	Lack of employment	A better job	Policy	Religious	Formative
AMERICAN COUNTRIES	5.961	116.416	492.594	789.990	67.533	7.231	190.804
AMERICAN COUNTRIES WITHOUT UNITED STATES AND CANADA	5.666	111.112	491.511	789.364	66.425	6.655	185.416
Ecuador	0	16.726	133.676	206.541	6.984	142	28.358
Colombia	1.135	15.897	98.097	138.349	10.030	275	30.703
Bolivia	0	10.276	72.746	96.120	1.663	229	11.501
Argentina	2.511	18.599	41.249	76.578	11.408	1.202	19.212
Rest of American countries excluding the United States and Canada	2.019	49.614	145.743	271.775	36.340	4.808	95.642

Source: Table prepared by the authors based on data from the INE EPA survey, 2023

Figure 70: Migration to Spain by reason for move, 2019



Source: Own graph based on data from INE EPA survey, 2023.

VI. 9 The situation of migrant populations from LAC countries in Italy, Belgium and Austria.

The Italian case

The following data are extracted from ISTAT (Italian Statistical Institute) in particular from the Annual Report for the year 2022 and the XII Annual Report on the labour market situation of migrants in Italy edited by the Directorate General for Immigration and Inclusion Policies of the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies.

In 2022 the migrant population in Italy was 5,194,000. It should be noted that in the last 4 years the number of arrivals of the migrant population has been reduced by less than 200,000 per year. In the following graph it can be seen how in the period 2015-2017 immigration has been decreasing considerably.

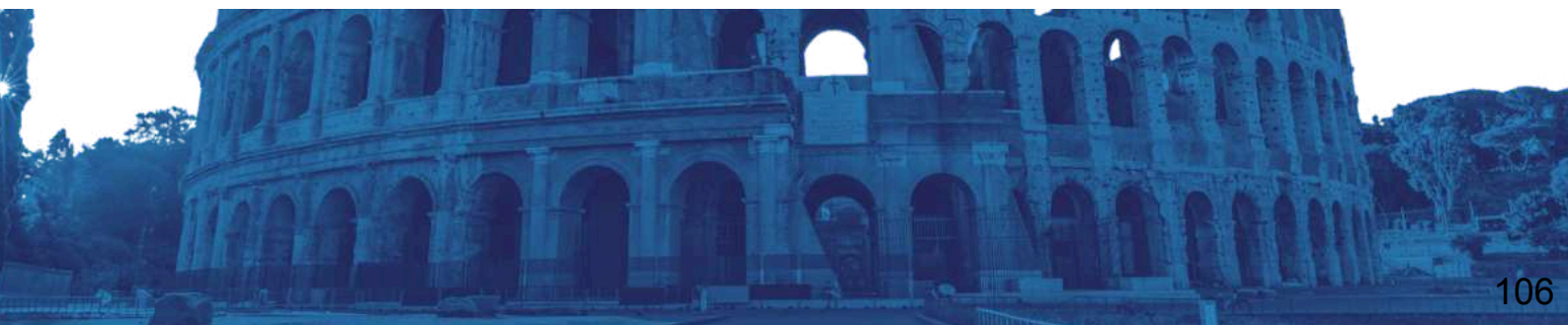
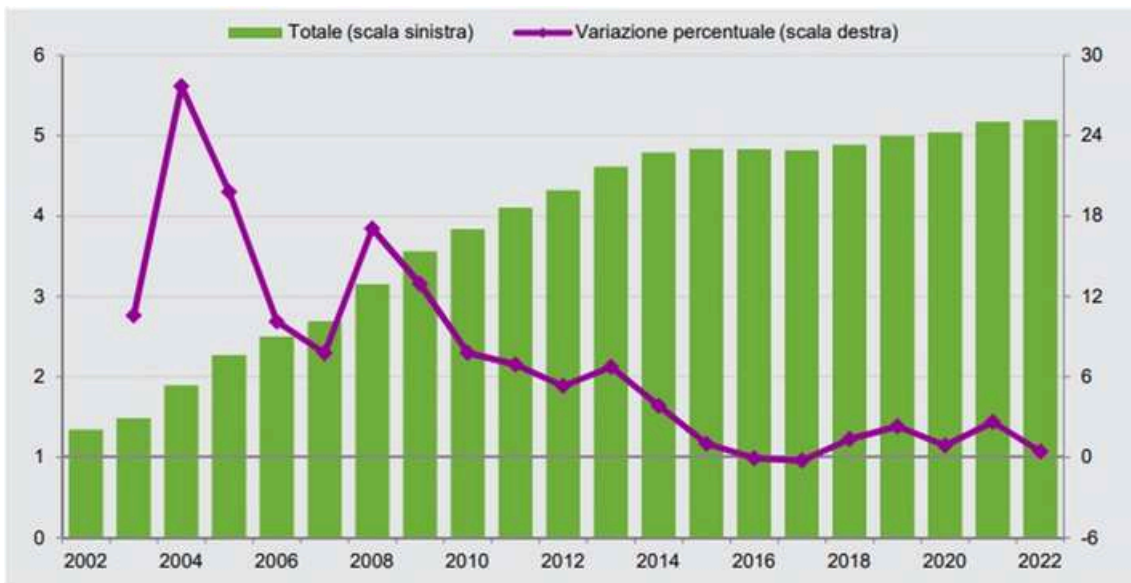


Figure 71: Flow of resident population of migrant origin in Italy in the period 2002-2022 (absolute values in millions of inhabitants).

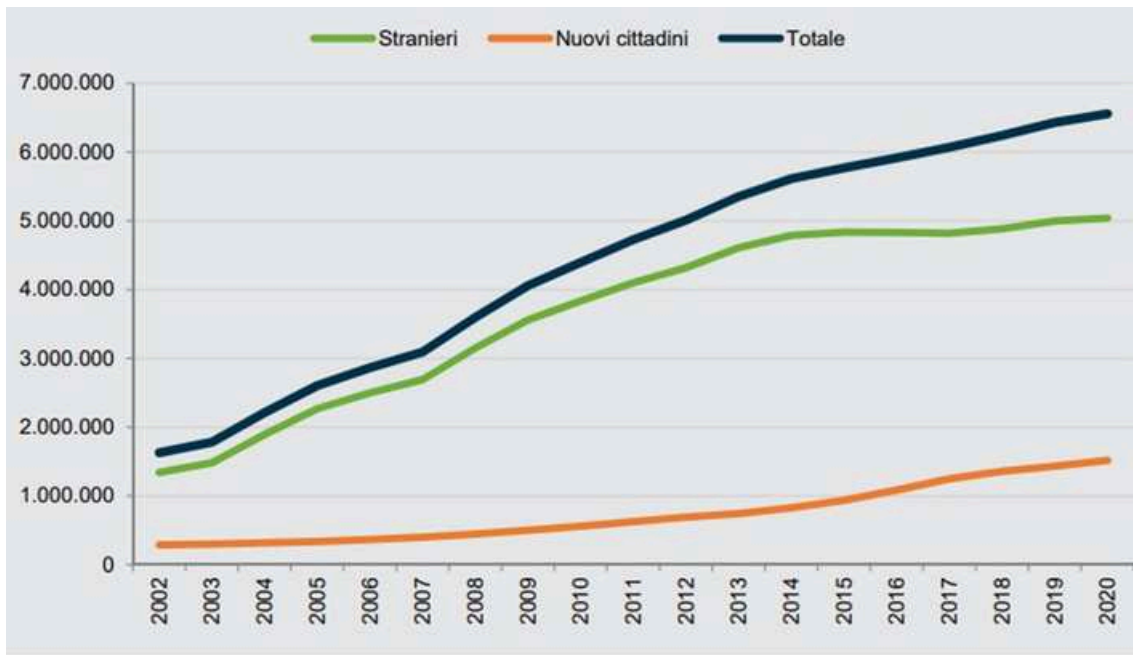


Source: ISTAT, 2022

This slowdown was underpinned both by the reduction in incoming migration flows and by the long lack of regularisation measures that in the past had led to peaks in the registration of migrant arrivals. To fully understand the real dynamics of recent years, one has to consider that the acquisition of nationality has gained prominence in Italy, as it already did in other countries with a longer history of immigration such as Spain. Between 2011 and 2020, more than 1.25 million people obtained Italian residency, and it can be estimated that, as of 1 January 2021, new citizens by acquisition of residency in Italy amounted to around 1.6 million. The population with a migration background has continued to grow, although not at the same pace as in the past, reaching almost 6.8 million residents in 2021.

Figure 72: Number of migrants and new citizens residing in Italy in the period 2002-2020.





Source: ISTAT, 2022

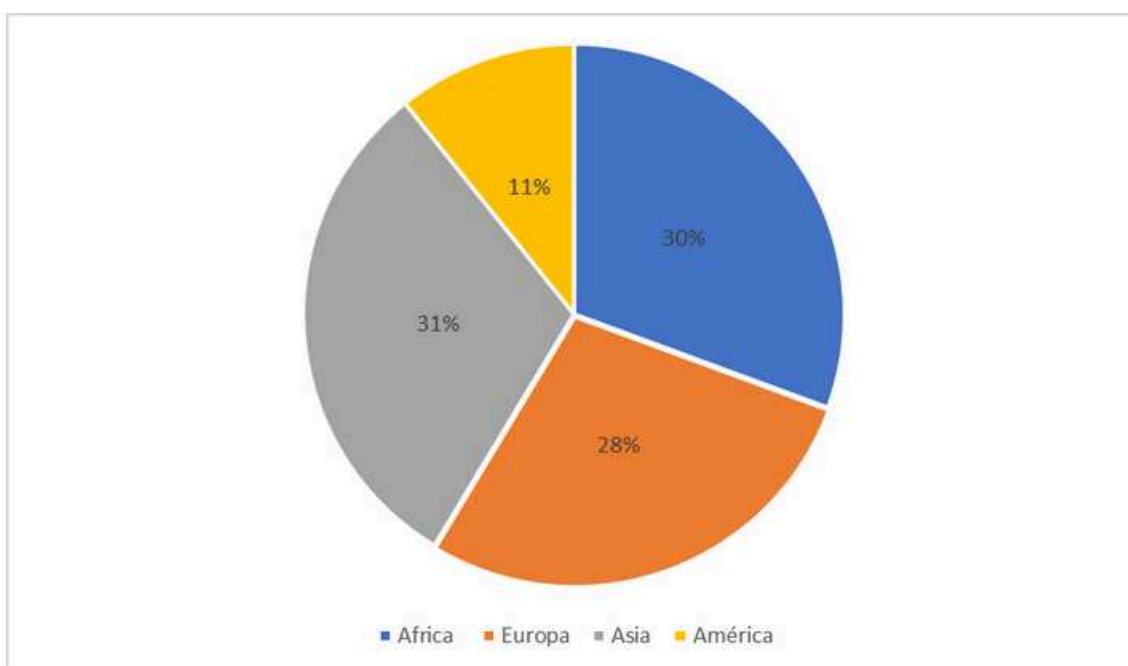
The last decade has been marked both by the entrenchment in the territory of migrants who arrived in recent decades and by a significant change in the migratory flows arriving in Italy. Not only has the inflow of migrants decreased, but the characteristics and patterns of migration have also changed profoundly.

Focusing on non-EU migrants, there has been an unprecedented contraction in labour flows, substantial stability in family reunification flows (linked to stabilisation processes in the territory) and a sudden growth in arrivals of people seeking international protection. According to the XII Annual Report 'Foreigners in the labour market in Italy' (2022), in 2021, 27.9% of non-EU nationals came from a European country. 30.5% came from an African country. Slightly more than three out of ten non-EU citizens (30.9%) come from an Asian country. Significantly fewer citizens come from the Americas (North America: 1.1%; South America: 9.6%) and Oceania (0.1%).

Considering migrants from LAC countries, in 2021, compared to the Italian population, they represented only 0.54% of the Italian population. Compared to the total number of migrants outside the EU, migrants from LAC countries constitute 9.6% of the foreigners present in the Italian territory.



Figure 73: Origin of migrant population in % in Italy, 2021.



Graph based on ISTAT data, 2021.

As mentioned above, the LAC community in Italy represents a minority, accounting for 9.6% of the total foreign population. As for the other nationalities, although the Romanian community in Italy decreased by 6.0% between 2020 and 2021, it was the most represented migrant community in Italy (1.76 million residents). It is followed by the Albanian community (421,000) and the Moroccan community (414,000), which, contrary to the Romanian community, recorded an increase in the period 2020-2021 (Albanian community +2.7%; Moroccan community +3.5%). Turning to the communities with lower demographic weight, between 2020 and 2021 the presence of Spanish citizens grew by 25.7%. Significant increases were also recorded for the Chinese (14.4%) and Bangladeshi (13.8%) communities. In contrast, a significant reduction was observed in the presence of Polish (-10.3%) and Bulgarian (-11.1%) citizens.

Table 7: Migrant population from non-European countries with long-term residence in Italy, 2021.

Geographical Area	Absolute values	%
-------------------	-----------------	---

Europe	940.022	27.9
North Africa	654.294	19.4
South Africa	22.441	0.7
East African	35.425	1.0
West Africa	315.759	9.4
East Asia	454.501	13.5
West Asia	53.385	1.6
East and Central Asia	534.906	15.9
North America	35.841	1.1
Central and South America	324.625	9.6
Oceania	2.125	0.1
Stateless persons	552	0.0
Total	3.373.876	100

Table compiled by the authors based on ISTAT data, 2021.

According to ISTAT data (2023), in 2022, with respect to the sex of the immigrant population from LAC countries, there was a higher prevalence of females in Italy (138,203 males and 213,375 females). The table below shows the breakdown by gender and geographical area. Specifically, certain Latin American citizenships were unbalanced in terms of women, such as those of Brazilian, Ecuadorian, Cuban and Ivorian nationality, where the female component exceeded 60% of the total presence. For other

communities, such as the Dominican Republic, thanks to a family-type migration pattern, the gender structure observed is more balanced.

According to ISTAT (2022), in terms of the main nationalities of the country and its regions, 324,625 migrants from LAC countries residing in Italy have been counted, the Peruvian community ranked first with 85,000 citizens, followed by the Ecuadorian community with 66,477 citizens and the Brazilian community with 41,614 citizens. The communities from the Dominican Republic, Ivory Coast, Cuba and Colombia were also significant.

Table 8. Citizens of Latin American origin legally present in Italy by gender and geographical area, 2022.

	Men		Women		Total
	Frequency	%	F	%	
Antigua and Barbuda	6	50,00	6	50,00	12
Argentina	4797	45,59	5725	54,41	10522
Bahamas	7	43,75	9	56,25	16
Barbados	7	41,18	10	58,82	17
Belize	6	54,55	5	45,45	11
Bolivia	5071	39,24	7853	60,76	12924
Brazil	14274	30,17	33044	69,83	47318
Chile	1303	43,25	1710	56,75	3013
Colombia	7487	39,35	11538	60,65	19025

Costa Rica	169	32,31	354	67,69	523
Cuba	6405	29,79	15094	70,21	21499
Dominica	410	38,10	666	61,90	1076
Dominican Republic, Rep.	11444	39,72	17368	60,28	28812
Ecuador	29424	44,19	37166	55,81	66590
El Salvador	8661	42,03	11947	57,97	20608
Jamaica	59	46,09	69	53,91	128
Grenada	5	55,56	4	44,44	9
Guatemala	315	34,81	590	65,19	905
Guyana	8	44,44	10	55,56	18
Haiti	149	44,35	187	55,65	336
Honduras	1042	33,37	2081	66,63	3123
Mexico	1579	33,12	3188	66,88	4767
Nicaragua	252	32,52	523	67,48	775
Panama	94	28,14	240	71,86	334
Paraguay	503	27,73	1311	72,27	1814
Peru	39899	42,39	54232	57,61	94131

Saint Kitts and Nevis	4	57,14	3	42,86	7
Saint Lucia	4	36,36	7	63,64	11
Saint Vincent and the Grenadine	2	40,00	3	60,00	5
Suriname	2	28,57	5	71,43	7
Trinidad and Tobago	10	25,64	29	74,36	39
Uruguay	458	39,15	712	60,85	1170
Venezuela	4347	36,13	7686	63,87	12033
Total	138203	39,31	213375	60,69	351578

Table compiled by author from ISTAT data, 2023

According to ISTAT (2022), with reference to the age factor, in 2021, 54.8% of non-EU citizens present in Italy were between 25 and 54 years of age; 30.0% were represented by young people up to 24 years of age, while the incidence in the population over 55 years of age was 15.2%. With the exception of North America (42.8%), in all macro-areas of origin the majority of citizens were aged 25-54.

In 2021, for LAC countries, the most represented age group was under 17 years old (50,226), followed by: 40-44 years old (38,570), 35-39 years old (35,339), over 60 (34,341), 45-49 years (33,920), 30-34 years (30,821), 50-54 years (27,810), 25-29 years (27,000), 18-24 years (25,543) and 55-59 years (21,055).

As far as educational attainment is concerned, according to ISTAT data (2022), the educational qualifications of parents of migrant pupils are

fathers with no qualifications or with only a school-leaving certificate (primary education) is (8.2%), while for Italians it is (2.4%); a similar situation has been found for mothers. For migrants, the proportion of graduates is much lower than for Italians.

Table 9: Educational attainment of migrants of non-European origin relative to European migrants in %, 2021

	Up to secondary education	Secondary education	University students
Migrants of non-European origin	61,2%	29,7%	9,1%
European migrants	37,3%	50,9%	11,7%

Table compiled by the authors based on ISTAT data, 2023.

With regard to migrants from LAC countries, although no specific information on their educational attainment was found, national data highlighted that in the 2018-2019 school year, 860,000 students from LAC countries were studying in Italy, around 10% of the total number of students in Italy. Of these, the most represented communities were Peruvian (19,000), Ecuadorian (15,000) and Brazilian (7,000). These are mostly children born in Italy to foreign parents. There were also many students enrolled in Italian universities (around 9,000) in the 2019-2020 academic year, thanks to the numerous exchange and cooperation agreements signed with Italian and international universities.

The labour situation of migrants in Italy

Although no specific information was found on migrants from LAC

countries;

information was obtained from the 12th Annual Report 'Foreigners in the labour market in Italy' (2022).

According to the 12th Annual Report 'Foreigners in the labour market in Italy' (2022), in 2021 there were just over 3.8 million migrants of working age, i.e. aged between 15 and 64. Of these, 2,257,000 were employed, while 379,000 were seeking employment and 1,238,000 were inactive. Overall, the incidence of employed migrants in the total was 10%, the

incidence of unemployed was 16.0%, and the incidence of inactive migrants was 9.3%.

The following graph shows the incidence of migrants employed in 2021 by sector of economic activity and citizenship. In the case of agriculture, migrant labour accounted for 18.0 per cent of the total, in the hotels and restaurants sector it was 15.3 per cent and in construction 15.5 per cent. In other collective and personal services, the presence of migrant workers was high at 34.3%, with a preponderance of non-EU workers.

In 2021, with reference to gender distribution, the percentage of men and women in employment is linked to economic activity. The sectors of Construction (98%), Agriculture (79.4%) and Industry (76.8%), are almost exclusively occupied by men; while the presence is particularly representative in other activities of the Services sector (53.2%) and Trade and Repair (35.3%).

In relation to the foreign population of non-European origin most present in Italy, we find a higher activity rate (2021), in the population of: Ecuador (+16.5%), Bangladesh (+26.0%), Pakistan (+15.8%), Egypt (+14.5%), Tunisia (+12.7%) and Ghana (+11.7%). Conversely, the nationalities for which a decrease in recruitment was observed were: Peru (-3.8 %), Moldova (-2.7 %) and Ukraine (-6.8 %).

With reference to specific job sectors, the data show that the foreign population in 2021 was employed in the following sectors:

Industry: Peruvians (+48.0%) and Ecuadorians (+40.4%), and also Filipinos (+51.0%).

Construction: Peruvians (+68.7%), Pakistanis (+99.4%), Tunisians (+69.5%) and Ghanaians (+66.2%);

Trade and Catering: Ecuadorians (+35.5%), Peruvians (+26.5%), and also Filipinos (+36.9%), Bangladeshis (+25.3%).

Other Service Activities: contractions in the number of contracts were found for Peruvians (-7.1%), and also for Egyptians (-10.3%), Ukrainians (-10.1%), Moldovans (-6.5%).

According to the XII Annual Report 'Foreigners in the labour market in Italy' (2022), in 2021 migrants are hired especially on temporary employment contracts, with a decrease in permanent contracts of -13.0% in the case of non-EU foreigners.

In general, as the map below shows, migrants, including those from LAC countries, tend to live in particularly large metropolitan areas, especially in Central and Northern Italy. Some patches can also be seen in the south,



particularly near some Sicilian urban centres and in the area of Olbia (north-eastern Sardinia). The rest of the south is entirely white, indicating an important spatial duality of the Italian context, which also emerges in relation to the spatial distribution of migrant citizens.

The situation of migrants from LAC countries in Belgium

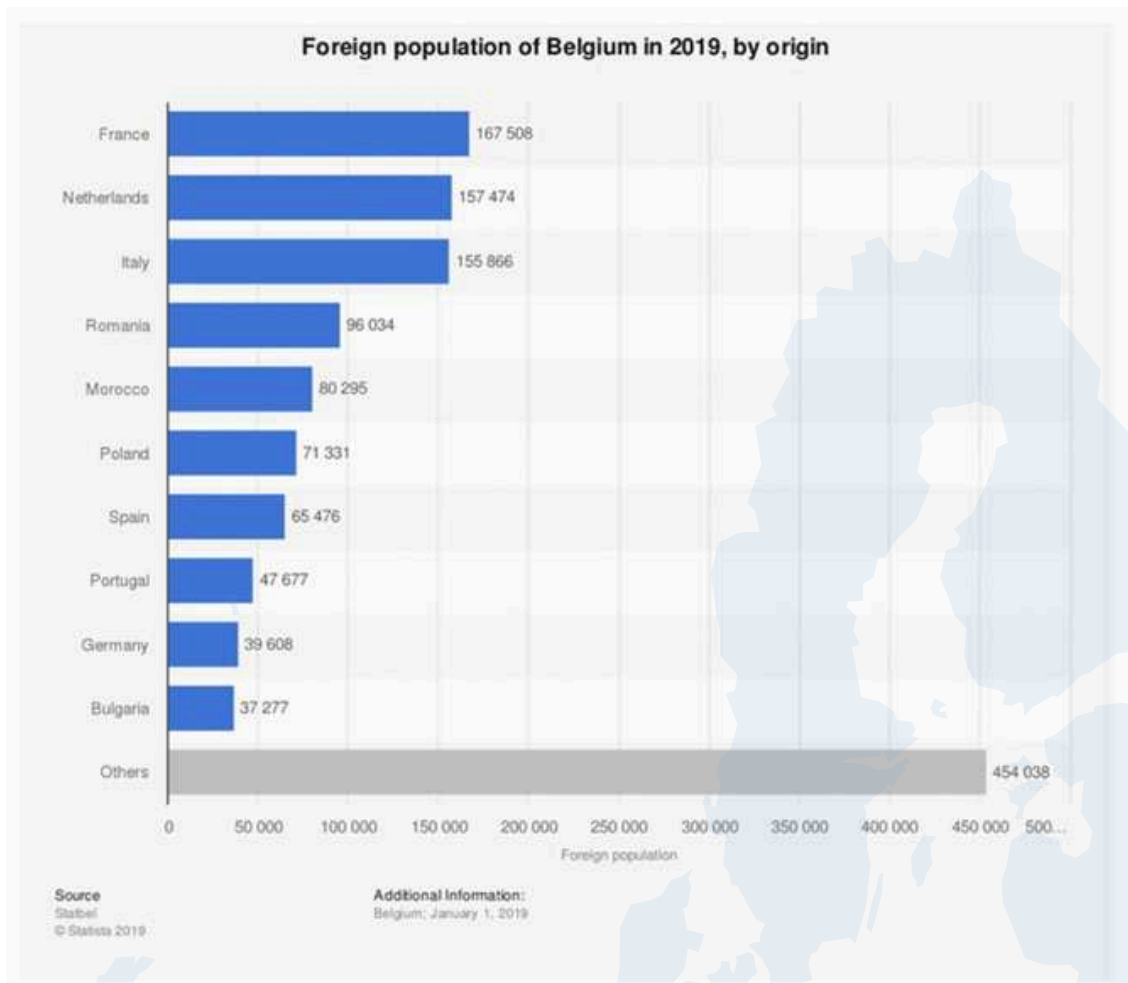
Belgium is one of the most diverse countries in terms of population in the EU. Today, the population of migrant origin represents about 12 per cent of the total population (about 10 million people). Unlike in some neighbouring states, migrants from other EU countries account for more than 60 per cent of the total population of migrant origin. Among non-EU nationals, Moroccans (more than 120,000) and Turks (about 70,000) are the largest groups, but almost all nationalities of the world are represented. The population of migrant origin is unevenly distributed throughout the territory. It is difficult to quantify the actual number of people with a migrant background in Belgium due to the high rates of obtaining residence in recent decades. In addition, no information is collected on the nationality or place of birth of parents, which makes it difficult to know the exact size of second and third generation migrants.

Migration for family reunification is generally understood to account for the majority of residence permits issued, but estimates vary between 30 and 50 per cent of all permits issued annually. Study and paid work often account for approximately 5-15 per cent of all permits issued. Data on both categories are incomplete, as they only count those who have formally registered either for a degree in Belgium (leaving out exchange students) or for paid work. Therefore, the labour force data only give an indication of the active migrant population present in Belgium and its share of employed and unemployed persons.

According to data from the Belgian Statistical Institute, Statbel (2019) Belgium had 1,391,425 foreign nationals in 2019, representing 12.2% of the country's total population whereas, in 2009, foreign nationals represented 9.4% of the total population, or 1,013,260 persons.

In 2019, 66.5% of migrants in Belgium were from the EU. The French, Dutch, Italians, Romanians and Moroccans were the most represented nationalities. They make up almost half of Belgium's foreign population (47.2%).

Figure 74: Population with foreign citizenship in Belgium according to country of origin, 2019.



Source: graph developed by Stabel, 2018

In 2019, the number of foreign nationals in the Brussels-Capital Region (34.9%) was significantly higher than the corresponding figure for the Walloon Region (10.3%) and the Flemish Region (9.0%).

Population groups of non-European origin are over-represented in unemployment and under-represented in employment. The groups most affected by unemployment are the population of 'other African' origin (41.3%), those of Congolese/Burundian/Rwandan origin (39.3%) and populations of Maghrebi (34.0%) or Turkish origin (30.5%). The unemployment rate of this population is between 3 and 3.5 times higher than that of people of Belgian origin (11.8%).

In general, women are less present than men in the labour market, regardless of their origin. This is particularly true for the following four population groups: Turkey (34.8%); Maghreb countries (38.4%); other African countries (44.3%); and Congo-Kinshasa, Burundi and Rwanda (38.9%). Their unemployment rate is up to four times higher than that of women of Belgian origin (11.2%).

A large share of jobseekers of foreign origin have completed studies abroad which are not recognised in Belgium. On average, 1 in 2 jobseekers of foreign origin are employed (51.4% of jobseekers of non-EU origin and 50.8% of jobseekers from other EU countries).

Regarding migration from Latin America and the Caribbean, it should be noted that migration from the entire American continent represents only 4.2 per cent of the migration that Belgium receives.

Table 10: Migrant population from LAC countries in Belgium by country, 2011.

Immigration by country of origin	Belgium
Argentina	2036
Bolivia	2031
Brazil	10441
Chile	4085
Colombia	5270
Costa Rica	256
Cuba	1496
Dominican Republic	2125
Ecuador	5180
El Salvador	417
Guatemala	775

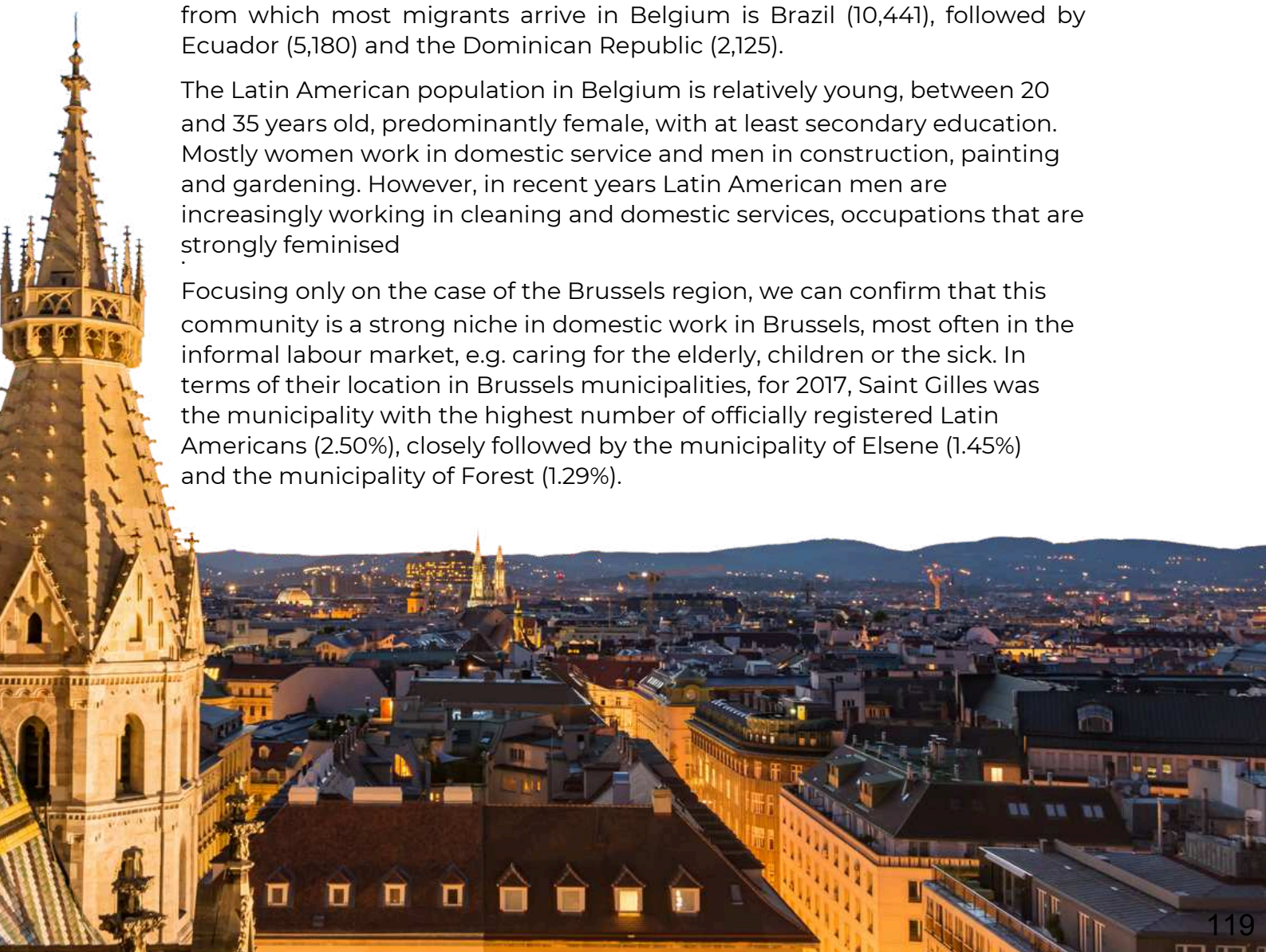
Honduras	195
Mexico	1994
Nicaragua	268
Panama	158
Paraguay	397
Peru	3272
Total	41049

Source: table prepared by the authors based on Statbel data, 2010.

Looking at the countries of origin of LAC migrants, we find that the country from which most migrants arrive in Belgium is Brazil (10,441), followed by Ecuador (5,180) and the Dominican Republic (2,125).

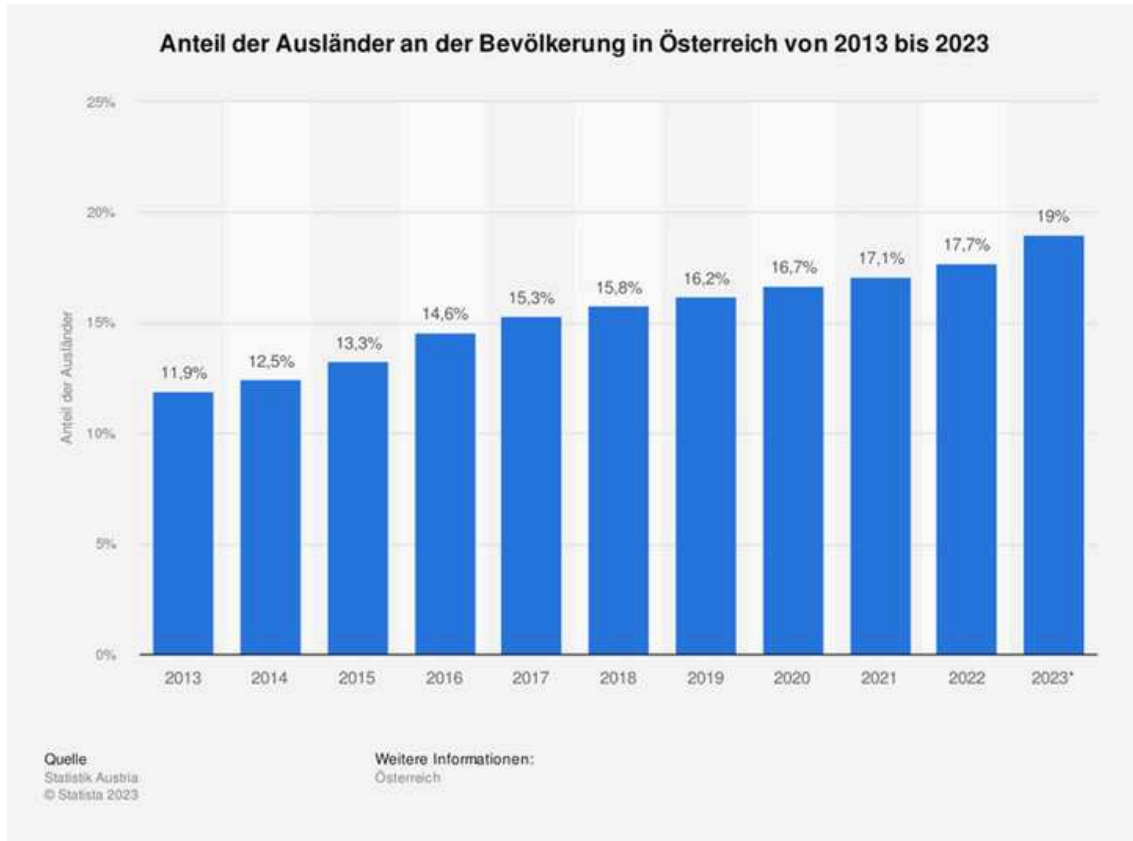
The Latin American population in Belgium is relatively young, between 20 and 35 years old, predominantly female, with at least secondary education. Mostly women work in domestic service and men in construction, painting and gardening. However, in recent years Latin American men are increasingly working in cleaning and domestic services, occupations that are strongly feminised.

Focusing only on the case of the Brussels region, we can confirm that this community is a strong niche in domestic work in Brussels, most often in the informal labour market, e.g. caring for the elderly, children or the sick. In terms of their location in Brussels municipalities, for 2017, Saint Gilles was the municipality with the highest number of officially registered Latin Americans (2.50%), closely followed by the municipality of Elsene (1.45%) and the municipality of Forest (1.29%).



The situation of migrants from LAC countries in Austria

The migration trend in Austria increased significantly after 2015 and has continued to rise since then.



The percentage of the population with a migrant background has also increased steadily over the last 10 years and has risen by 7 per cent.

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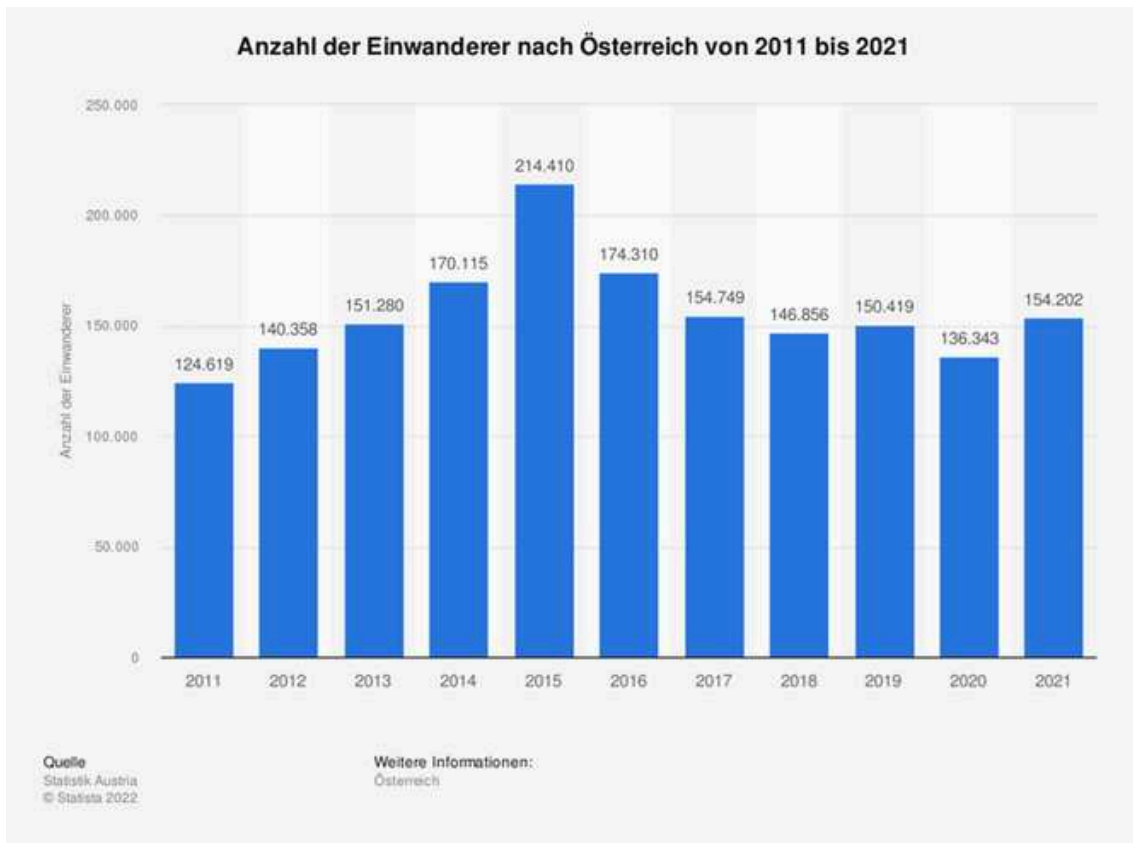


Figure 3: Number of immigrants to Austria from 2011 to 2021 (Statista, 2023).



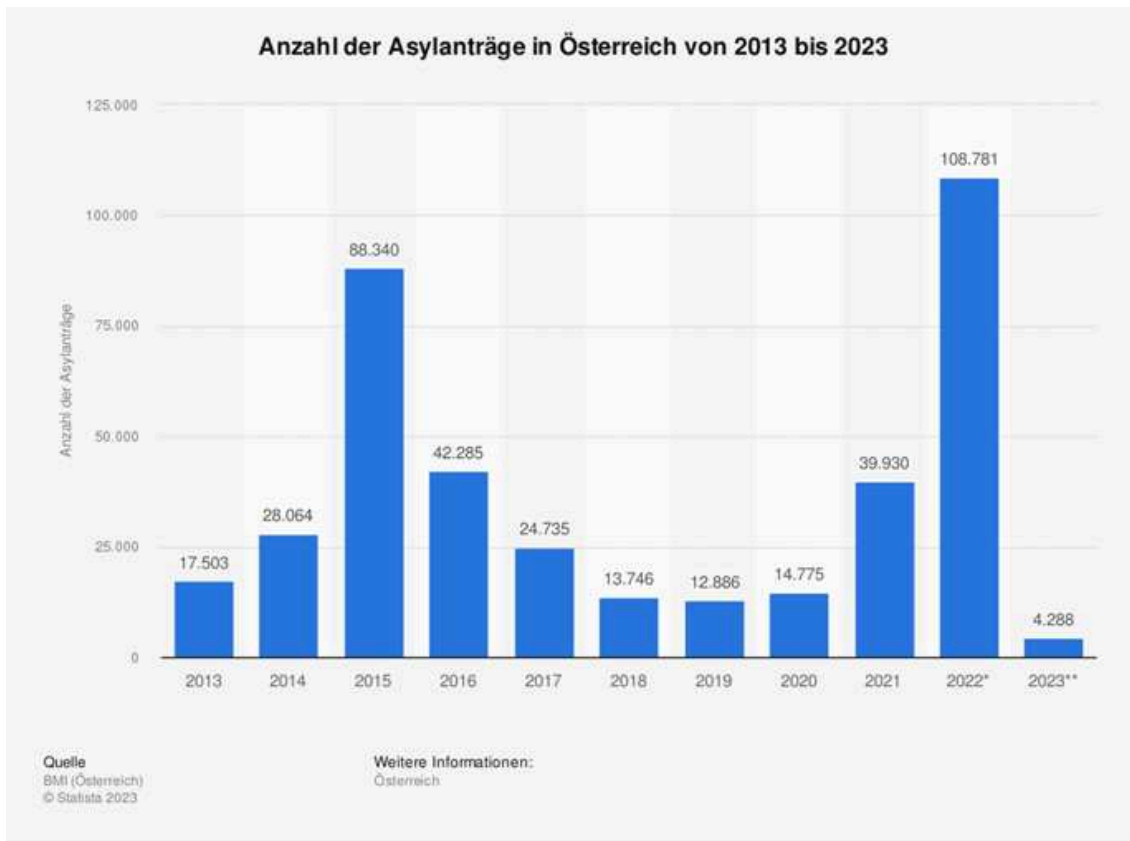


Figure 4: Number of asylum applications in Austria from 2013 to 2023 (Statista, 2023).

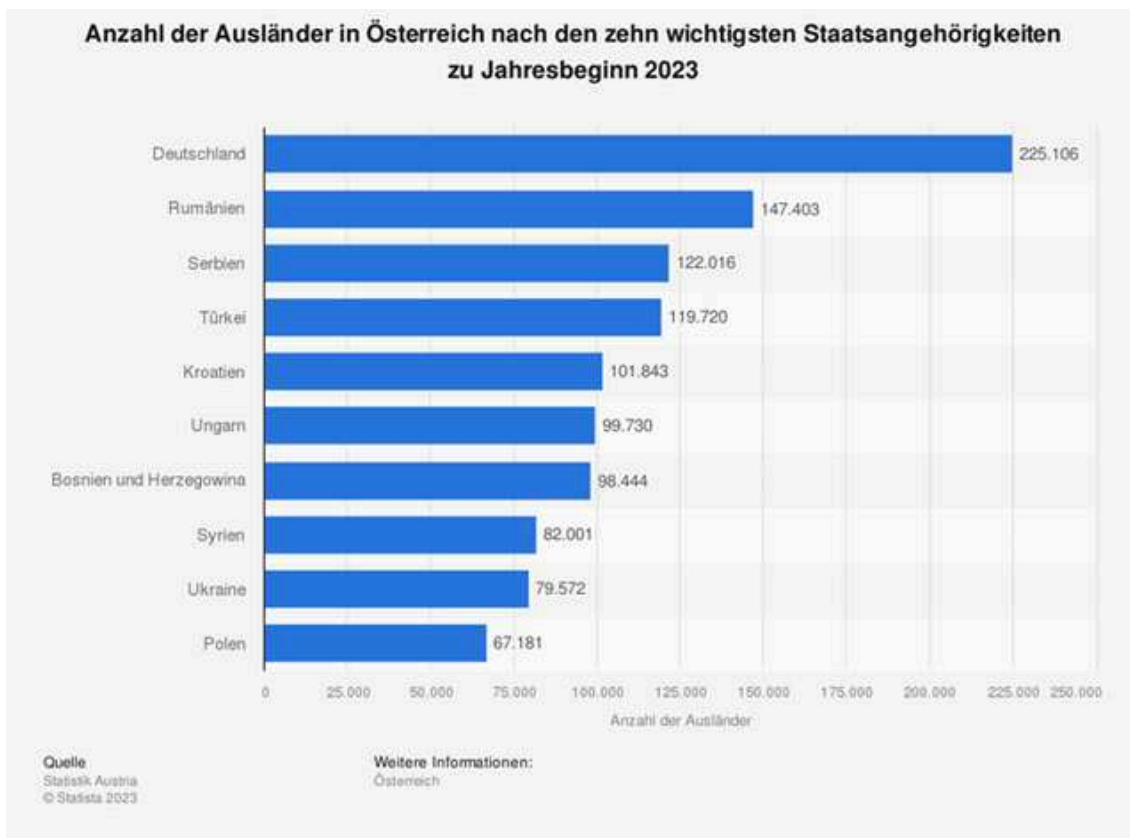


Figure 5: Proportion of foreigners by citizenship in Austria at the beginning of 2023 (Statista, 2023)

At the beginning of 2023, the total number of foreigners in Austria amounted to about 1.7 million. About 225,000 of them were Germans, thus constituting the largest foreign population group, followed by Romanians with about 147,000 and Serbs with about 122,000. Foreigners are defined as persons whose main residence is in Austria and who do not hold Austrian citizenship (Statistical Yearbook on Migration and Integration, 2022). Dual citizenship is not possible in Austria, apart from a few exceptional cases: foreigners wishing to naturalise must renounce their previous citizenship within two years in order to subsequently obtain Austrian citizenship. This also applies to Austrians, as they lose their Austrian nationality when they acquire a foreign nationality. Due to immigration, the number of foreigners in Austria has increased steadily in recent years. The same applies to their share of the total population. The proportion of foreigners is highest in the Vienna metropolitan area and lowest in rural Burgenland.

The proportion of LAC migrant migration compared to migrants from other countries is not significant, as the difficult language does not attract most LAC migrants.

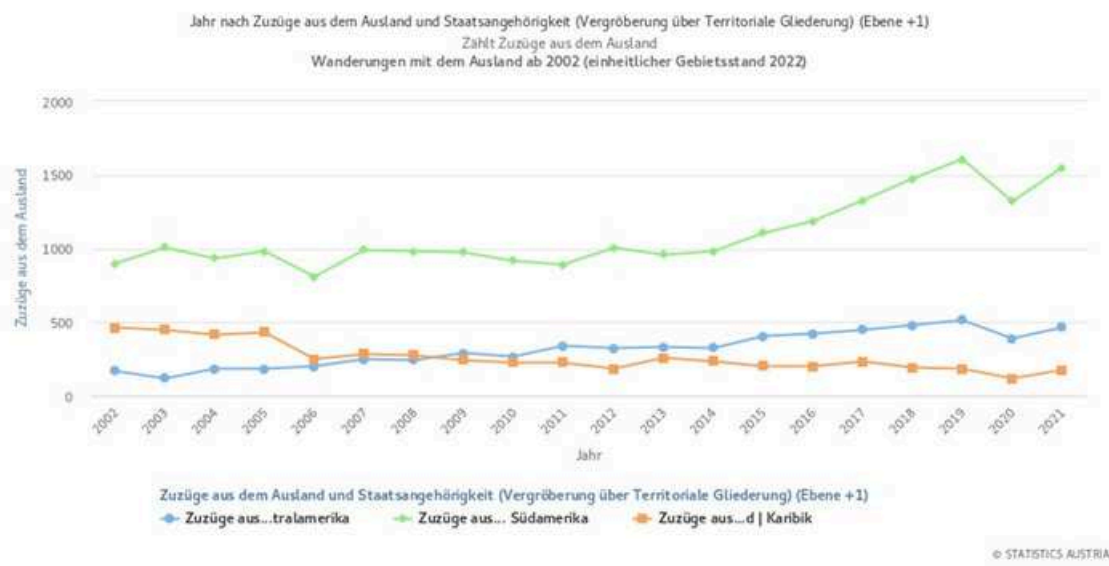


Figure 6: Migrant flows to Austria since 2002 for people from Central and South America and the Caribbean (Statistics Austria, 2022)

Figure 6 shows migration flows from 2021 to the present. It shows that migration flows have been fairly stable over the last 20 years, with South American migrant inflows accounting for the largest share of all migrants in LAC.

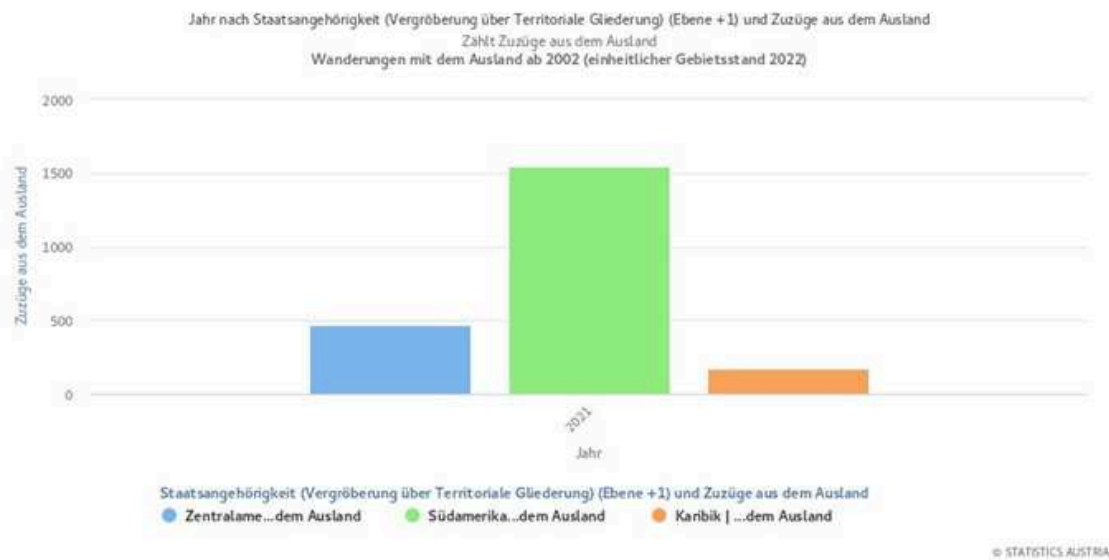


Figure 7: Migration flows to Austria since 2002 for people with citizenship from Central America (blue), South America (green) or the Caribbean (orange) (Statistics Austria, 2022).

According to Statistics Austria, a total of 154,202 people moved to Austria in 2021. Of this number, 2194 people were from LAC regions, which corresponds to 1.42% of all migrants. 469 persons came from Central America, 1,551 from South America and 174 from the Caribbean. In terms of gender distribution, 42% of the people who came were male and 58% were female in total. As shown in the table below, the majority of women were of South American origin.

		Zuzüge aus dem Ausland		
<< Staatsangehörigkeit (Vergrößerung über Territoriale Gliederung) (Ebene +1)		Zentralamerika	Südamerika	Karibik
Jahr	Geschlecht			
2021	männlich	177	660	90
	weiblich	292	891	84

Figure 8: Gender distribution of migration inflows to Austria by citizenship (Statistics Austria, 2022)

In terms of age, out of 2195 immigrants from LAC countries, 7.3% were under 14 years old (160), 49% were aged 15-29 (1086), 32.6% were aged 30-44 (715), 7.9% were aged 45-59 (173), 2.3% were aged 60-74 (51) and only 0.4% were over 75 (9).

Age Distribution of LAC migrants 2021

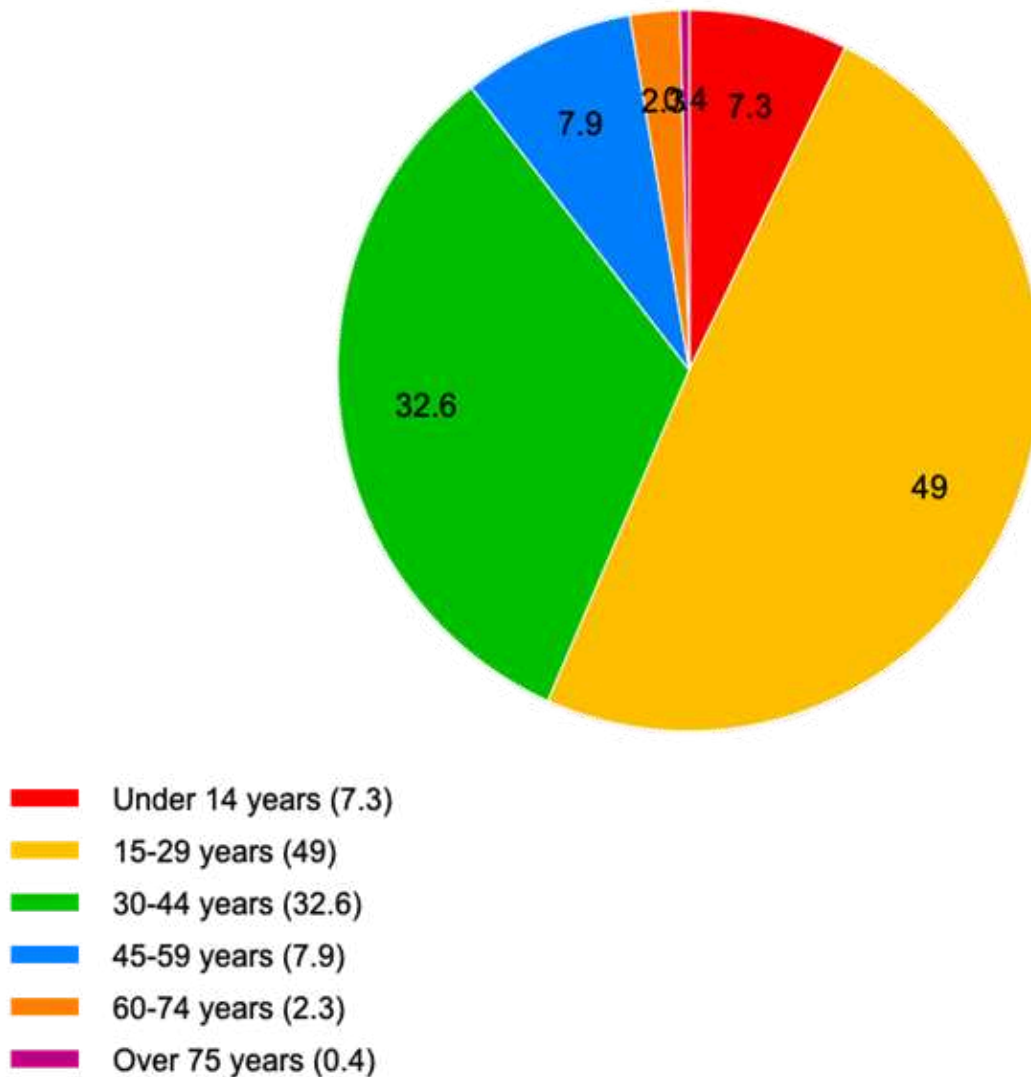


Figure 9: Age distribution of migrants from LAC to Austria in 2021 (Chart created by the authors using data from Statistics Austria, 2022).

In terms of Austria's total population, the proportion of people with LAC citizenship is small:

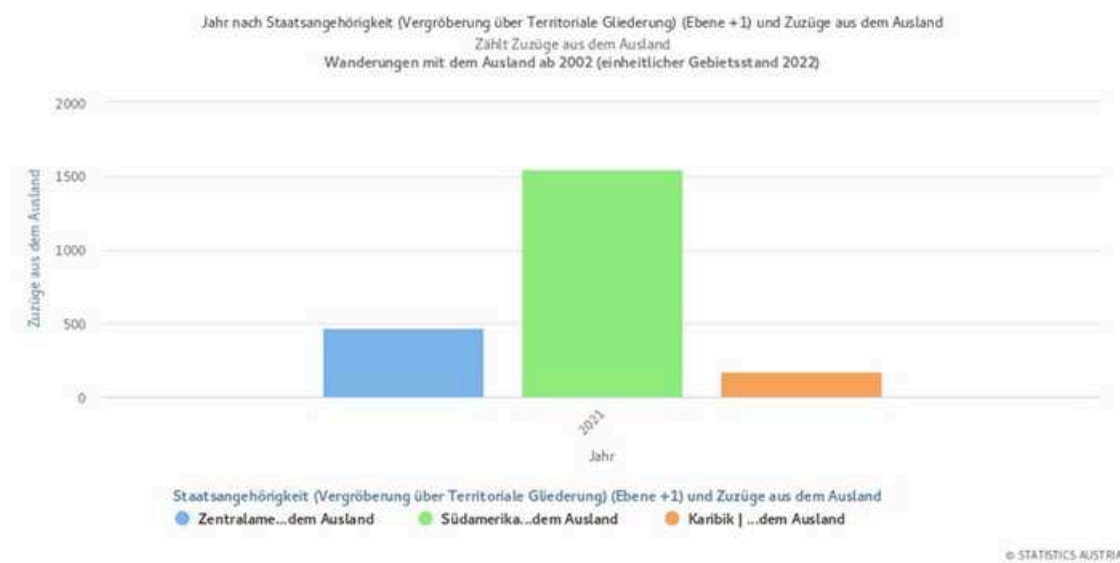


Figure 10: Share of LAC citizens in Austria in 2021, where blue corresponds to Central America, green to South America and orange to the Caribbean (Statistics Austria, 2022).

The total population of Austria in 2021 was 8,932,663 inhabitants, of which 13,356 had LAC citizenship, corresponding to 0.15% of the Austrian population. Of the total number of persons with LAC citizenship, 2,212 were Central Americans, 8,601 were South Americans and 2,543 were Caribbean nationals. The gender distribution here is similar to that of migrants. About 40 per cent are men and 60 per cent are women.

VI. 10 The refugee situation in Europe: Spain, Belgium Italy and Austria.

The case of Spain

This quantitative analysis is based on data provided by the INE, the OPI, as well as Eurostat and the CEAR (Spanish Commission for Refugee Aid).

While political, economic and social developments in recent years have led to significant refugee flows in Europe, Russia's invasion of Ukraine has led to the largest forced population exodus since World War II.



In global terms, by mid-2021, according to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 85.8 million people had fled their homes due to persecution, human rights violations and wars, driven by events such as the war in Syria, the Taliban's rise to power in Afghanistan and finally, again, the war in Ukraine. Not only that, but recent years have also seen a phenomenon of forced displacement due to climate change and its consequences, which has led the United Nations to approve a new category of refugees: climate refugees.

In total there are **89.3 million** refugees in the world, with the number having increased by 8% in recent years (UNHCR, 2022).

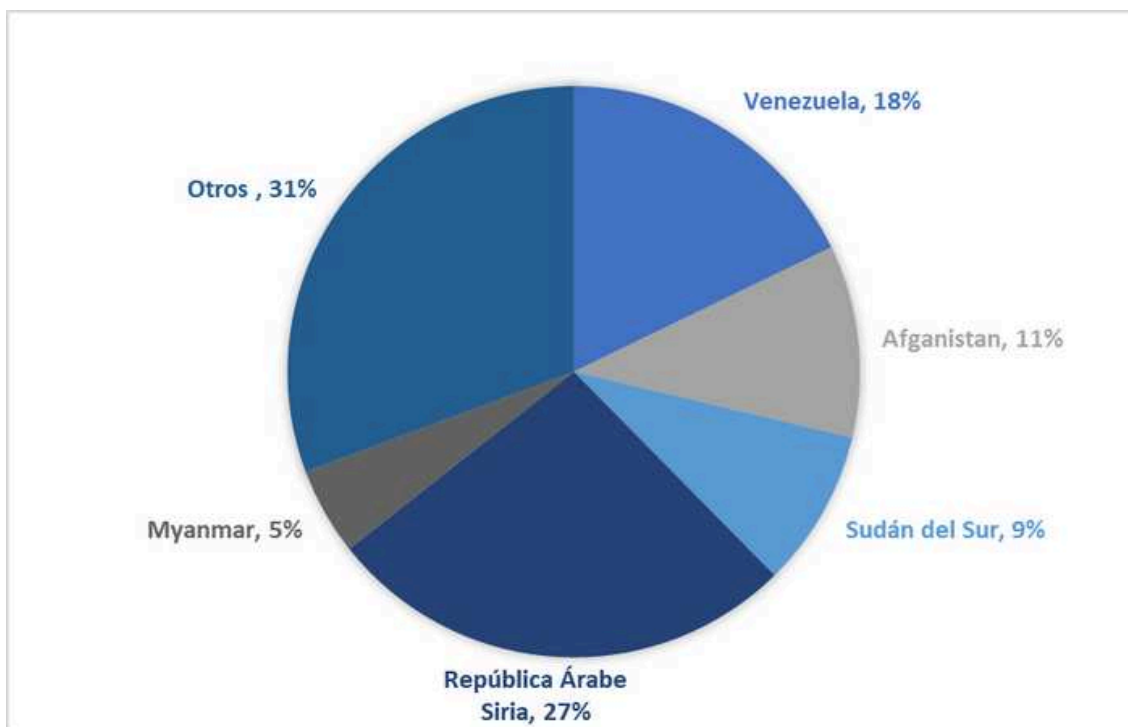
By mid-2021, 82% of people forced to cross a border were from **ten countries**: Syria (6.8 million), Venezuela (4.1 million), Afghanistan (2.6 million), South Sudan (2.3 million), Myanmar (1.1 million), Democratic Republic of Congo (865 000), Sudan (806 000), Somalia (792 000), Central African Republic (713 000) and Eritrea (490 000). These figures are almost identical to those at the end of 2020. Also noteworthy is the case of Afghanistan, which, with an increasingly insecure situation in the first half of 2021, registered 25,200 new refugees in the first half of the year.

More than two-thirds (69%) of all Venezuelan refugees and displaced persons abroad came from just five countries.

Refugees are persons recognised as refugees under the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees or its 1967 Protocol, the 1969 Organisation of African Unity Convention governing the specific aspects of refugee problems in Africa, persons recognised as refugees in accordance with the status of the UNHCR. Persons granted humanitarian refugee status and provided with temporary protection. Excluded are asylum seekers, persons who have applied for asylum or refugee status and have not yet received a decision or who are registered as asylum seekers. Palestinian refugees are persons (and their descendants) whose residence was Palestine between June 1946 and May 1948 and who lost their homes and livelihoods as a result of the 1948 Arab-Israeli conflict. The country of asylum is the country where an asylum application was lodged and granted.



Figure 75: Percentage of refugees by country of origin, 2021



Source: chart prepared by UNHCR, 2022

According to UNHCR (2022) the main receiving countries globally were Turkey (3.8 million) and at the European level Germany (1.3 million). In terms of the number of arrivals, there was a 52% increase in the number of irregular arrivals to Europe in 2021.

According to data from the International Organisation for Migration (IOM), the majority of arrivals were in Germany, followed by France, Spain (34%) and Italy.

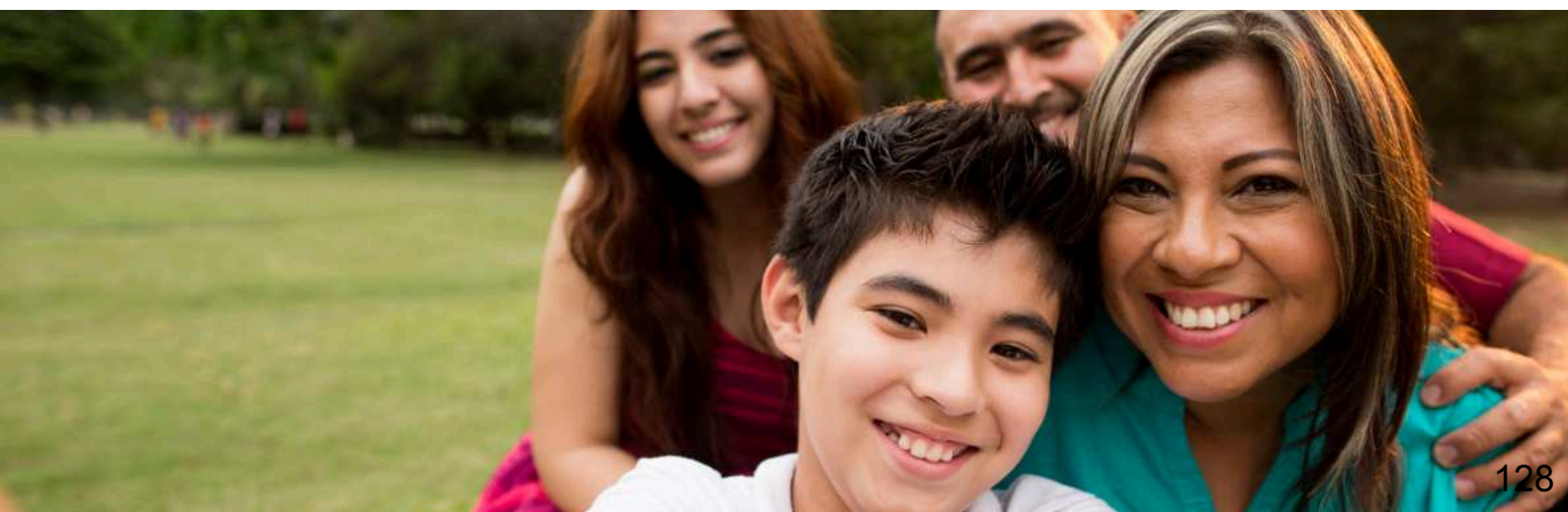


Figure 76: Number of asylum applications made by country, 2021

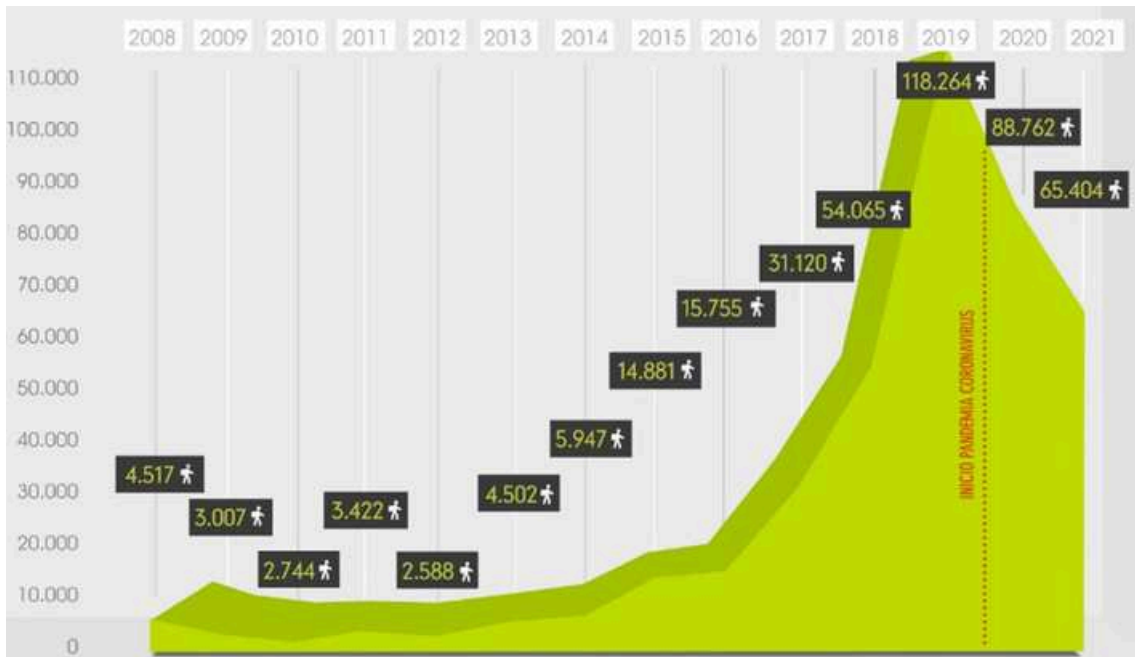


Source: CEAR, 2022

On the other hand, and in third place according to CEAR (2021), 630,630 people applied for asylum in the EU, which represents a notable increase with respect to the 472,395 of the previous year. Syria was again the leading country of origin of asylum seekers in the EU, with 115,470, 18% of the total, more than half of them in Germany. Also, for the third year in a row, Afghanistan, with 98,685, was the second country, registering a notable increase. In third place, Iraq overtook Venezuela with 29,850 applications, almost 5% of the total. These three nationalities alone accounted for almost a third of all applications in the EU. In fourth and fifth place were Pakistan, which ousted Colombia (24,820) and Turkey (22,190). It should also be noted that in 2021, half of the applications made by unaccompanied minors were from Afghanistan.

Spain has also seen an increase in the number of applications in recent years, as can be seen in the graph below. In 2021, 65,404 applications for international protection were submitted, which represents a decrease of more than 26% compared to the previous year, a figure that confirms the downward trend that began with the start of the pandemic in March 2020. During the two years of this global pandemic caused by COVID-19, asylum applications in Spain have fallen by more than 55%.

Graph 77: Evolution of the number of asylum applications by refugees in Spain in the period 2008-2021.

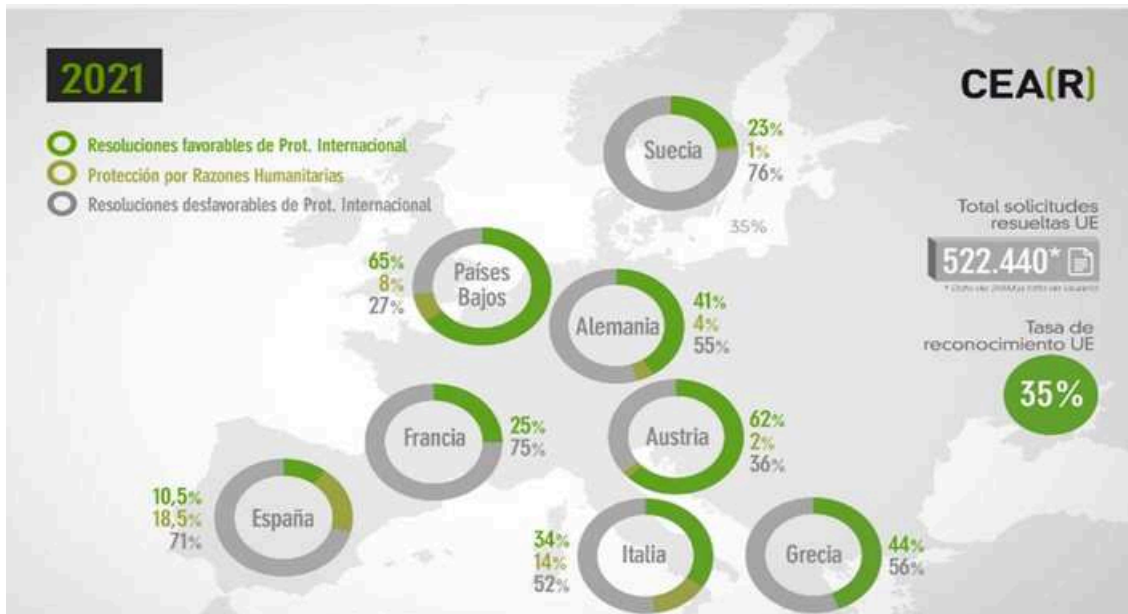


Source: CEAR, 2022

Fourthly, it is positive that the rate of recognition of international protection (obtaining asylum) has been increasing in recent years from 25% to 35%. In Spain, the recognition rate has exceeded 10%, standing at 10.55%. Although it is true that it has doubled in relation to the year 2020, it is still far from the asylum recognition rate of the European Union.

The graph below shows the percentage of applications for international protection, as well as the bulk of favourable versus unfavourable asylum decisions. As shown in the graph elaborated by CEAR (2022), in Spain 71% of the decisions were unfavourable compared to 10.5% that were favourable; of the total number of asylum applications, 18.5% were for humanitarian reasons. In the case of Italy, 52% of applications were rejected compared to 34% favourable, while 14% of applications were for humanitarian reasons. In the case of Austria, 36% of the total number of asylum applications were rejected compared to 62% of successful applications, of which 2% were for humanitarian reasons.

Figure 78: Share of refugee asylum applications in Europe, 2021.



Source: CEAR, 2022

In terms of country of origin, Venezuela, with 15,836, and Colombia, with 11,526 applications, continue as in previous years to lead the list of countries of origin of applicants for international protection. Morocco, with 6,558, Mali, with 4,661, and Senegal, with 3,202 applications, are the next, at a considerable distance from the first two.

Between the five nationalities, they account for 41,783 applications, 63.80% of the total. Likewise, of the 65,482 applications received in 2021, 27,362 correspond to Venezuelans and Colombians, 41.78% of the total. Of the remaining nations, eight have more than 1,000 applicants, the top three being: Peru, with 2,354, Honduras, with 2,264, and Afghanistan, with 1,716 applications.

This significant increase in applications is due to the fact that Spain activated a military evacuation operation from 16 to 27 August 2021, which ended with a total of 2,206 returnees. At the same time, the 'Operation Antigone-Afghanistan', a plan prepared by the Ministry of Inclusion, Social Security and Migration to regulate the reception of persons who arrived in that period from Afghanistan, was launched.

Applications from Syrian nationals should also be mentioned given that, with more than half of its population forcibly displaced, it represents by far the largest displaced population in the world, 13.2 million people. During 2021, the downward trend in this nationality since 2017 has been reversed, from 400 applications in 2020 to 1,075 in 2021.

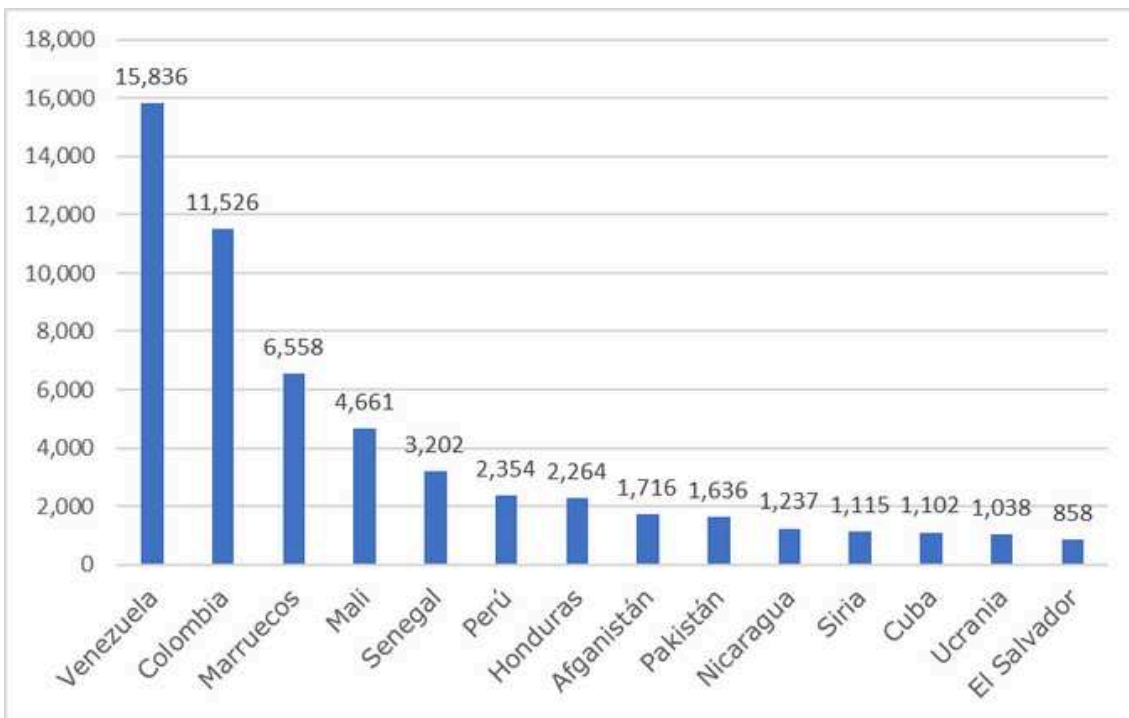
Table 11: Number of applicants for international protection in Spain by country of origin, 2022.

	Asylum seekers
Venezuela	15.836
Colombia	11.526
Morocco	6.558
Mali	4.661
Senegal	3.202
Peru	2.354
Honduras	2.264
Afghanistan	1.716
Pakistan	1.636
Nicaragua	1.237
Syria	1.115
Cuba	1.102

Ukraine	1.038
El Salvador	858

Source: own elaboration based on data from the Ministry of the Interior, 2022.

Figure 79: Number of applicants for international protection in Spain by country of origin, 2022.



Source: own elaboration based on data from the Ministry of the Interior, 2022.

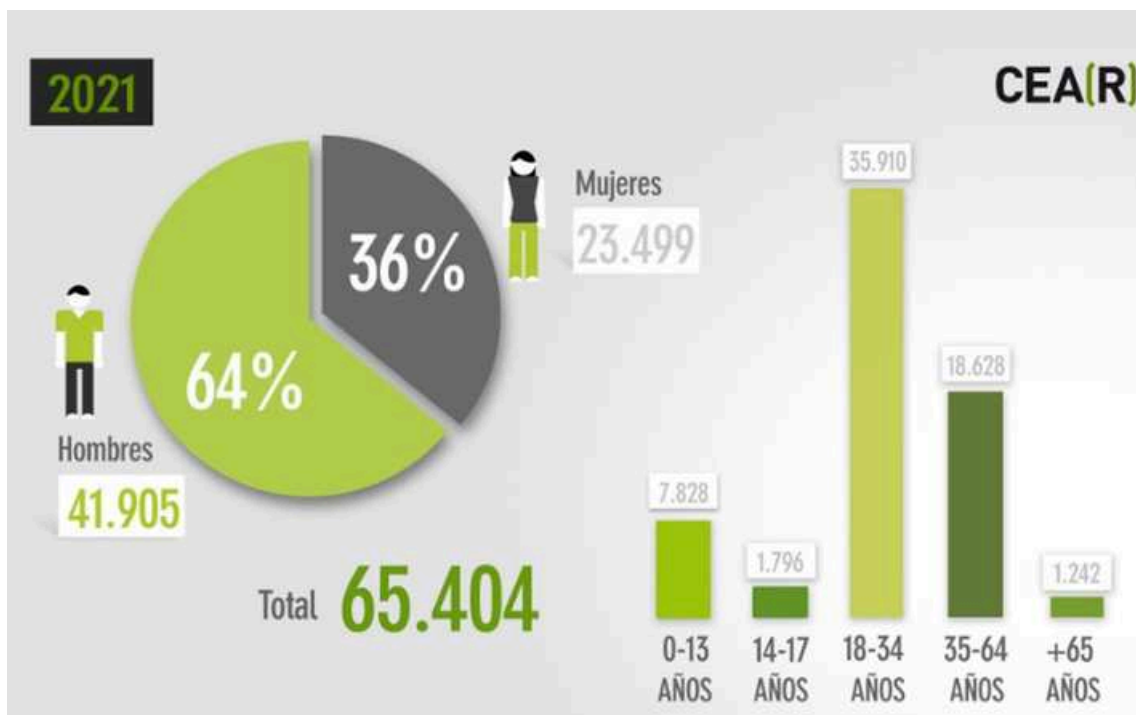
If we analyse the profile of asylum seekers, in recent years the majority profile was that of Latin American people with large family groups, however, during 2021 the main profile has been that of young men of African origin, with solitary migratory journeys.

In 2020 the top five nationalities of asylum seekers, accounting for 80% of the total, were from Latin America while in 2021 there was a decrease in these applications and an increase in applications from people of African origin.

Regarding the change of profile linked to gender, since 2015 the average percentage difference between men and women who formalise their asylum application in Spain has remained at around 10%, during the year 2021, there has been a significant percentage increase in this difference of up to 28%. In data, during the year 2021, 64.07% of applicants were men, while 35.93% of applicants were women.

In terms of age, there is an increase in the number of applicants for international protection between 18 and 34 years of age, 54.90% in 2021 compared to 48.66% in 2020 (an increase of more than 6 percentage points), while there is a decrease in the group of minors in 2021, 14.72% in 2021 compared to 11.23% in 2020¹³³. These data confirm the change in profile due to the increase in the number of young people applying alone, to the detriment of applications from family groups.

Figure 80: Percentage of refugees by age group and sex, 2021.

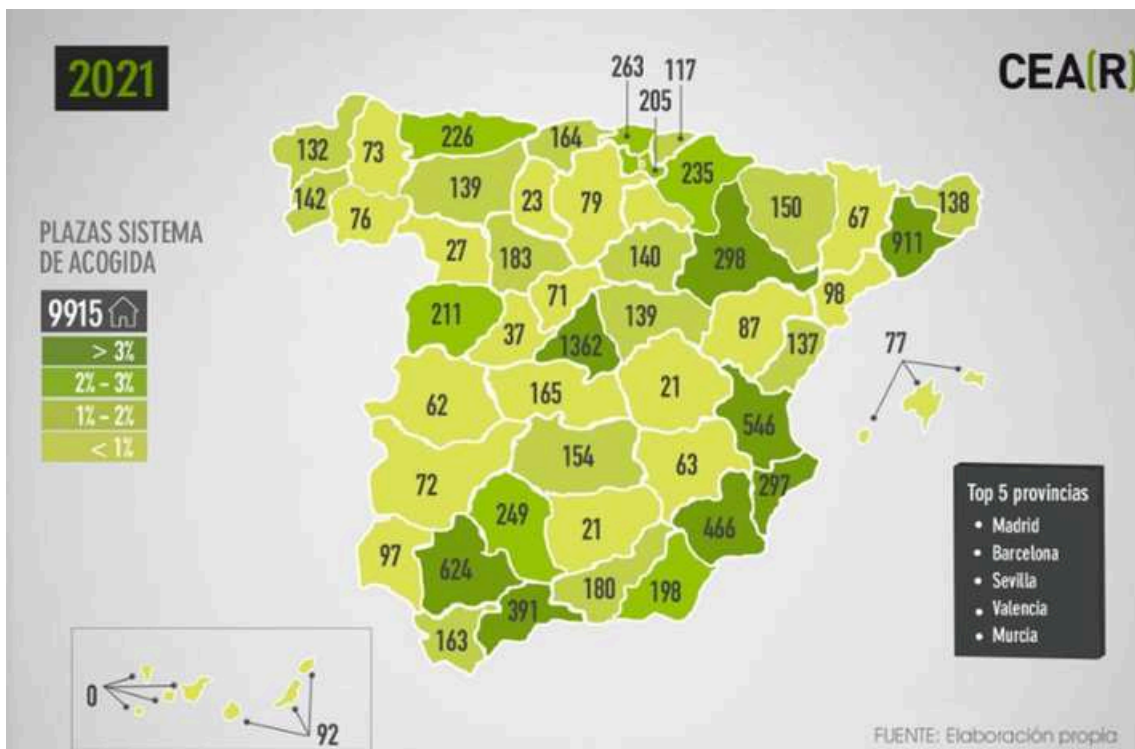


Source graphics prepared by CEAR, 2022

In relation to migratory flows, in Spain the migratory trend towards the Canary Islands (56%) has been consolidated in September 2019, which is 4.1% less than the previous year, while 17,341 arrived through the southern border of the peninsula, in this case, an increase of 4.7% with respect to the previous year.

As can be seen in the following graph, in terms of the distribution by Autonomous Community, the Autonomous Communities with the highest number of applications were, in decreasing order: Community of Madrid (18,295), Catalonia (8,519), Andalusia (6,902), Canary Islands (5,495) and Community of Valencia (4,259).

Graph 81: Number of places offered in Spain through the national reception system by Autonomous Community, 2021.

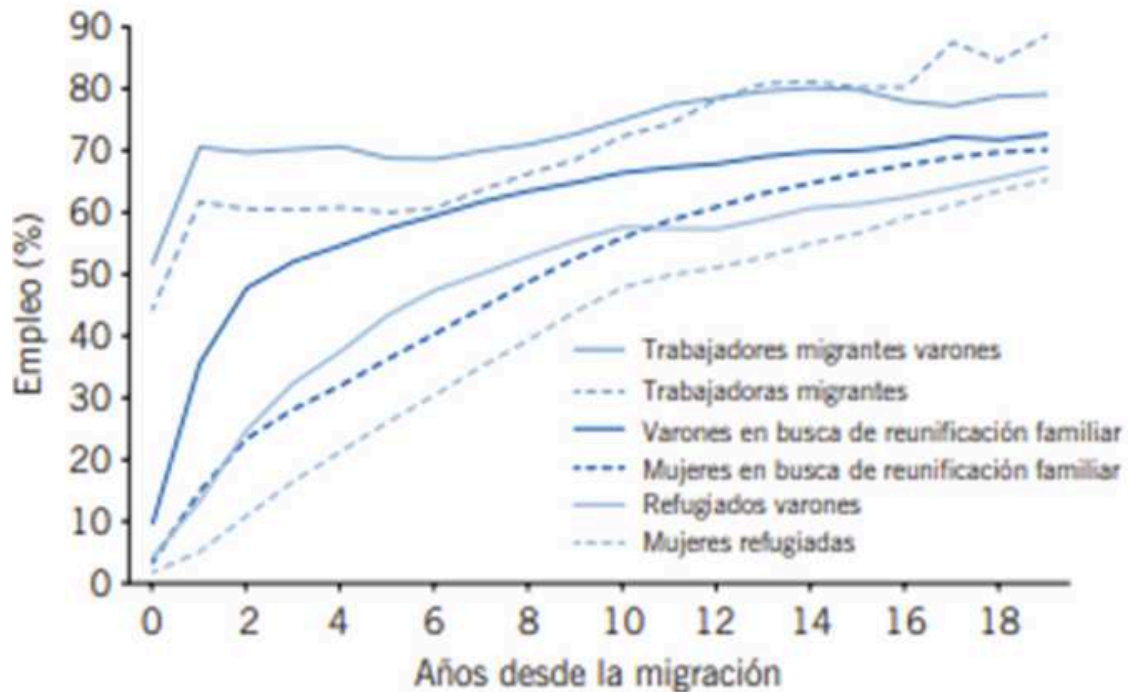


Source graphics prepared by CEAR, 2022

In terms of employment data, refugees have had difficulties in integrating into the labour market throughout the historical series, with unemployment rates higher than those of nationals. However, as can be seen in the graph below, employment rates improve the longer the refugee has been settled in the host country.

Figure 82: Refugee and migrant employment rate by years since migration, 2021.

Integración laboral de migrantes y refugiados



Source: World of labour, 2021

The following conclusions can be drawn from the study carried out by *The World of Labour* (2021):

Refugees take longer to integrate into the labour markets of host countries than migrant workers because they are not primarily selected for the labour markets of the host country. Labour market outcomes (e.g. employment and income levels) are similar for male and female refugees in different European countries, with a slight difference in Spain.

The case of Italy

According to ISTAT (2022), between 2011 and 2021, a total of around 516,000 permits were issued for asylum-related reasons in Italy. With a rapid growth since 2013, in 2016 and 2017 permits issued on these grounds peaked and accounted for more than 30 % of new issuances. Subsequently, however, from 2018 onwards, there has been a steady decline in new permits issued on international protection grounds, both in absolute terms and as a percentage of total issuance.

In 2020, as a consequence of measures to curb the spread of COVID-19 (mainly long border closures), the lowest number of new permits issued in the last ten years was reached: around 106,500, with a negative percentage change compared to the previous year of 40%. The drop was even sharper for asylum and protection permits: -51,1%. During 2021, the number of new permits issued recovered - a total of almost 242 thousand (+127% compared to 2020) - and new asylum documents also grew again: almost 31 thousand were issued (+129% compared to 2020). In relative terms, however, asylum permits and other forms of protection have a lower incidence than in 2019 (12.8% vs. 15.6%, respectively) due to the fact that, following the regularisation measure issued in 2020 (Art. 103 of Decree-Law No. 34 of 2020), work permits grew.

Migratory flows of people seeking protection have also resulted in shifts in the ranking of the main nationalities, which have changed significantly in correspondence with the political crises and conflicts that have erupted in different parts of the world.

As the following table reports, focusing on 2021, it can be seen that the majority of new permits were issued to Pakistani nationals, followed, but at a distance, by Bangladeshi and Nigerian nationals.

During 2021, flows of people seeking protection from Africa (Egypt, Mali and Côte d'Ivoire) also became more significant again, while inflows from Latin American countries (particularly Venezuela and Colombia), which had otherwise played a major role in 2020, declined. Today, arrivals from the Indian subcontinent continue and arrivals from Afghanistan are on the rise.



Table 12: Number of refugee asylum seekers 2020- in Italy in the years 2021, in absolute values and percentages

Country	2020	2021	%
---------	------	------	---

Total	26.963	53.609	99%
Pakistan	5.315	7.514	41%
Bangladesh	2.745	6.899	151%
Tunisia	1.024	6.443	529%
Afghanistan	645	5.250	714%
Nigeria	3.199	5.016	60%
Egypt	382	2.711	610%
Morocco	492	1.634	232%
Georgia	500	1.361	172%
Ivory Coast	629	1.232	96%
Mali	600	1.210	102%
Somalia	764	1.193	56%
Senegal	696	1.095	57%
Gambia	699	1.087	56%
Ghana	414	797	93%
Albania	455	792	74%
El Salvador	1.068	639	-40%

Peru	739	610	-17%
Ukraine	407	609	50%
Guinea	317	591	86%
Venezuela	834	464	-44%
Iraq	472	454	-2%
Colombia	550	393	-17%
Cameron	202	374	95%
Turkey	224	357	67%
Kosovo	165	302	116%
Other	3.426	4.492	31%

Source: own table based on ISTAT data, 2021.

As highlighted in the table below, applications for international protection are generally made by men, although the presence of unaccompanied minors has increased in recent years. Focusing on 2021, with the return to the growth of flows from Africa, the proportion of men in the total number of new asylum entries is also increasing: in 2020 it was 76.2% and, in 2021, 80.2%. Among the top ten communities by number of entries for this reason, only Georgia saw a clear prevalence of women (82.3%). Women accounted for around 40 per cent of asylum seekers from Nigeria and 31.3 per cent among those arriving from Côte d'Ivoire. However, the male predominance was clear: for three communities in the top ten it was around 99% and for Mali it exceeded 97%.

The share of unaccompanied asylum-seeking minors has also increased significantly compared to the past: they barely exceeded 3% in 2016 flows while in 2021 they accounted on average for 9.5% of inflows for international protection-related reasons (with a slight decrease compared to



2020). For some communities, the presence of minors is particularly relevant: in El Salvador, Peru, Nigeria and Afghanistan, the share of unaccompanied persons under 18 years of age in the total inflows in 2021 exceeded 23%.

Table 13: Asylum seekers in Italy according to sex period 2020-2021.

Country	2020	2021	%
Total	26.963	53.609	99%
Men	21.238	44.163	108%
Women	5.725	9.446	65%
Accompanied minors	3.385	5.677	68%
Unaccompanied minors	519	1.499	189%

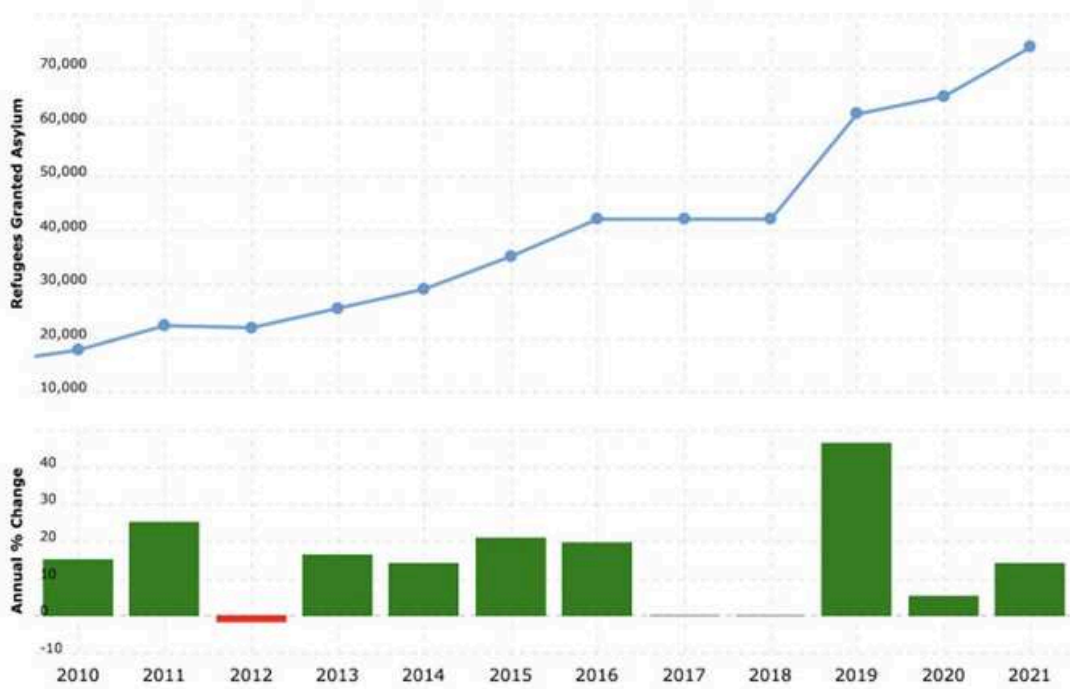
Source: own table based on ISTAT data, 2021.

The case of Belgium

According to Statbel (2020), in 2021 Belgium registered 74,063.00 refugees which is an increase of 13.99% compared to the data recorded in 2020.

As can be seen in the graph below, compared to previous years, Belgium's refugee statistics for 2020 were 64,973.00, an increase of 5.37 % compared to 2019. In 2019 there were 61,662.00 asylum seekers showing an increase of 46.26% over 2018. And, for 2018 there were 42,158.00, an increase of 0 % compared to 2017.

Figure 83: Flow of asylum applications in Belgium in the period 2010-2021.



Source: graph developed by Statbel, 2022

Considering the regions of birth of persons granted international protection in the period 2001-2014 in the table below, we find that the majority group (38%) was born in West Asia. This is followed by persons born in Sub-Saharan Africa (32%). The third group consists of people from non-EU countries (26%, comprising a substantial share of people from the former USSR). For the 2001-2006 cohort, the group of non-EU asylum seekers was the largest (51%). For the 2007-2009 and 2010-2014 cohorts, persons from West Asia constituted the largest group, followed by persons arriving from sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 14: Percentage of asylum-seeking population in different periods



Table 7a: Distribution of the region of birth for people granted an international protection status by cohort²⁵

International protection*	2001–2014	2001–2006	2007–2009	2010–2014
Region of birth	%	%	%	%
Western Asia	37.5	10.4	34.7	37.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	31.2	34.0	34.3	31.2
Europe (non-EU)	25.5	50.9	24.5	25.5
Eastern Asia	3.8	2.1	4.6	3.8
Northern Africa	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Latin America & Caribbean	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.3
Stateless and unknown	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1
13 new EU-member states	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.1
EU-15	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
North America	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	100	100	100	100

*: since 10 October 2006

Source: National Register, calculations by authors

Source: table compiled by Statbel, 2015.

As the table below shows, in the 2001-2006 cohort, 51% of refugees and 62% of persons with subsidiary protection were born in non-EU countries. Their share decreased substantially in the 2007-2009 cohort and declined further in the 2010-2014 cohort.

For the 2010-2014 cohort, West Asia is the most important region of origin for refugees (39%), closely followed by sub-Saharan Africa (37%). These regions also constitute the two main regions of origin for persons granted subsidiary protection in the period 2010-2014. However, it is noteworthy that more than 90 per cent of those granted subsidiary protection status in the period 2010-2014 were from West Asia.

Table 15: Distribution of asylum-seekers in Belgium by country in different periods.



Table 7b: Distribution of the region of birth for people granted an international protection status by international-protection status and by cohort²⁶

Region of birth	2001–2006		2007–2009		2010–2014	
	Refugee (%)	Subsidiary protection* (%)	Refugee (%)	Subsidiary protection (%)	Refugee (%)	Subsidiary protection (%)
Western Asia	10.3	22.8	26.2	72.4	38.6	90.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	34.3	13.0	38.3	17	36.9	6.3
Europe (non-EU)	50.8	61.8	28.0	8.7	16.5	1.5
Eastern Asia	2.1	0.0	5.6	0.0	6.0	0.0
Northern Africa	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.6	0.9
Latin America & Caribbean	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.4
Stateless & unknown	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2
13 new EU-member states	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
EU-15	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0
North America	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	100	100	100	100	100	100

*: since 10 October 2006

Source: National Register, calculations by authors

Source: table compiled by Statbel, 2015.

Focusing on the case of refugees seeking asylum in Belgium, below is a table with the number of asylum applications received by Belgium by country of the applicant in 2021.

Table 16: Distribution of asylum-seekers in Belgium by country, 2021.

Origin	Applications	Accepted
El Salvador	205	50
Colombia	160	30
Venezuela	120	70
Peru	55	30
Brazil	30	5

Guatemala	15	0
Honduras	10	0
Nicaragua	10	10
Total	605	195

Source: own table based on Statbel data, 2022.

The table above shows the data of the LAC countries seeking asylum in Belgium. Among them, El Salvador stands out, followed by Colombia and Venezuela. These three are clearly the countries with the most asylum seekers in Belgium.

Considering that the number of asylum seekers in 2021 was 19,265 and the number of accepted applications was 8,235, we can state that the percentage of Latin American refugees in Belgium is relatively insignificant. If we compare in percentage terms with asylum seekers from other countries, Latin American refugees only represent around 3% of all refugees seeking asylum in Belgium.

The following table shows the socio-demographic profile of persons aged 18 and over who obtained international protection status in Belgium in the period 2001-2006, 2007-2009 and 2010-2014 and during the total period 2001-2014.

Table 17: Total asylum applications by sex and age in Belgium in different periods.



Table 5a: Gender and age at the moment when granted a status of international protection by cohort

	2001–2014	2001–2006	2007–2009	2010–2014
	International protection	International protection	International protection	International protection
N	36,540	10,333	6,757	19,450
<i>Gender</i>				
Males	61.5	53.5	62.3	65.4
Females	38.5	46.5	37.7	34.6
<i>Age at recognition</i>				
18–24	21.6	16.3	22.5	24.1
25–34	42.5	40.1	43.9	43.3
35–44	22.5	26.7	21.5	20.7
45–54	8.8	11.8	7.9	7.4
55 and over	4.6	5.2	4.2	4.4
<i>Mean age at recognition</i>	33.0	34.7	32.5	32.3

*: since 10 October 2006

Source: National Register, calculations by authors

Source: table compiled by Statbel, 2015.

This table is similar to the previous one, but age and sex are shown for each cohort of refugees and persons with subsidiary protection status separately. Characteristics identified in the year or time of granting international protection status are calculated for the first international protection status obtained. Some persons may, for example, first obtain subsidiary protection status and then acquire refugee status.

If we consider all beneficiaries of international protection during the period 2001-2014, almost two out of three are men. The 2007-2009 and 2010-2014 cohorts had more men relative to the 2001-2006 cohort, 62% and 65% versus 54%, respectively. The 2007-2009 and 2010-2014 cohorts were also composed of the youngest relative to the 2001-2006 cohort. In terms of age, young people are strongly represented among those granted international protection status in the period 2001-2014. The average age is 33 years. Looking at the age distribution, 22% of asylum seekers are under the age of 25. The 25-34 age group accounts for 43% and the 35-44 age group is almost as large as the 18-24 age group. Only 5% are 55 years old or older.

Finally, as shown in the table below, for persons granted international protection status in 2001-2014, the first country of birth was the former

USSR (16%), followed by Iraq (12%) and Afghanistan (10%). Especially, the 2001-2006 cohort covered a very large group from the former USSR (36%). Also persons from Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia were important groups among those granted international protection in the period 2001-2006. Among the 2007-2009 cohort, the most important country of origin was Iraq (21%), followed by the former USSR. The 2010-2014 cohort covered 16% of persons from Afghanistan and Syria.

Table 18: Total asylum applications by country of origin in Belgium in different periods.

2001–2014 cohort		2001–2006 cohort		2007–2009 cohort		2010–2014 cohort	
International protection*	%	International protection*	%	International protection	%	International protection	%
Former USSR	15.8	Former USSR	35.5	Iraq	20.7	Afghanistan	15.9
Iraq	11.6	Rwanda	13.9	Former USSR	13.5	Syria	15.5
Afghanistan	10.2	Form. Yugoslavia	12.4	Form. Yugoslavia	7.3	Iraq	13.2
Syria	8.9	DR Congo	7.6	Rwanda	7.0	Guinea	8.1
Rwanda	6.5	Afghanistan	3.1	Guinea	5.9	Former USSR	6.2
Form. Yugoslavia	6.5	Iran	2.6	DR Congo	4.7	China	4.0
Guinea	5.8	Iraq	2.6	Afghanistan	4.6	DR Congo	3.5
DR Congo	4.9	Burundi	2.5	China	4.3	Form. Yugoslavia	3.1
China	3.4	Ivory Coast	2.0	Cameroon	2.7	Iran	2.8
Iran	2.7	China	1.8	Iran	2.6	Rwanda	2.4
Others	23.7	Others	15.9	Others	26.7	Others	25.5
	100		100		100		100

*: since 10 October 2006

Source: National Register, calculations by authors

Source: table compiled by Statbel, 2015.

The case of Austria

Austria has experienced an increase in the number of asylum seekers and refugees over the last decade, although the numbers have fluctuated from year to year.



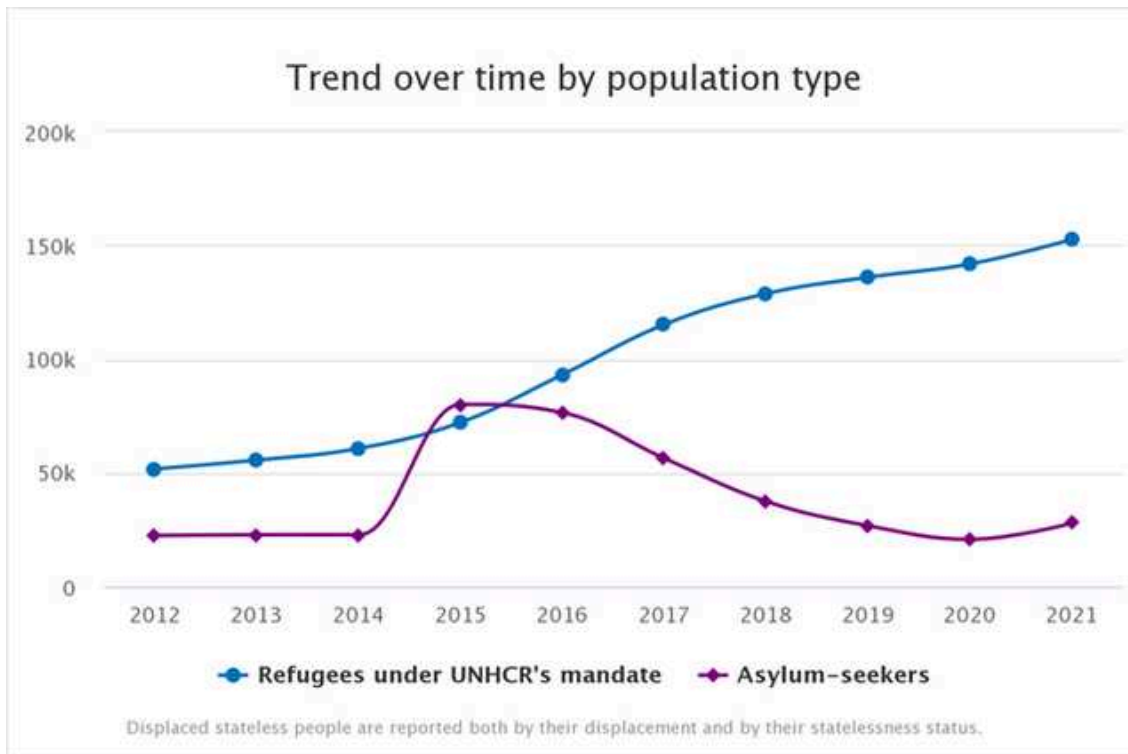


Figure 12: Refugee inflows to Austria over time from 2012 to 2021 (UNHCR, 2022)

2015 saw a significant increase in asylum applications: more than 88,000 people applied for asylum in Austria, the highest number since the end of World War II. This increase was largely due to the refugee crisis in Europe, as many people fled conflicts in Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan.

The number of asylum applications decreased in the following years, with 42,000 applications in 2016 and 22,400 in 2017. However, the number of persons granted asylum in Austria increased slightly in these years.

In 2018, the number of asylum applications increased again to around 25,000, with the majority of asylum seekers coming from Syria, Afghanistan and Iraq. The number of asylum applications decreased again in 2019 to around 14,400, with the majority of asylum seekers coming from Afghanistan, Syria and Iran.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic and border closures in 2020, the number of asylum applications decreased significantly in 2020 to around 7,500, with the majority of asylum seekers coming from Syria, Afghanistan and Pakistan.

In absolute numbers, the proportion of refugees from LAC countries is very small. As shown in Figure 14 below, 114 refugees arrived in Austria in 2021 under a UNHCR mandate. However, we can see a similar trend in refugee

influx over time. The trend has been increasing since 2012 with a drop in refugee movement in 2017:

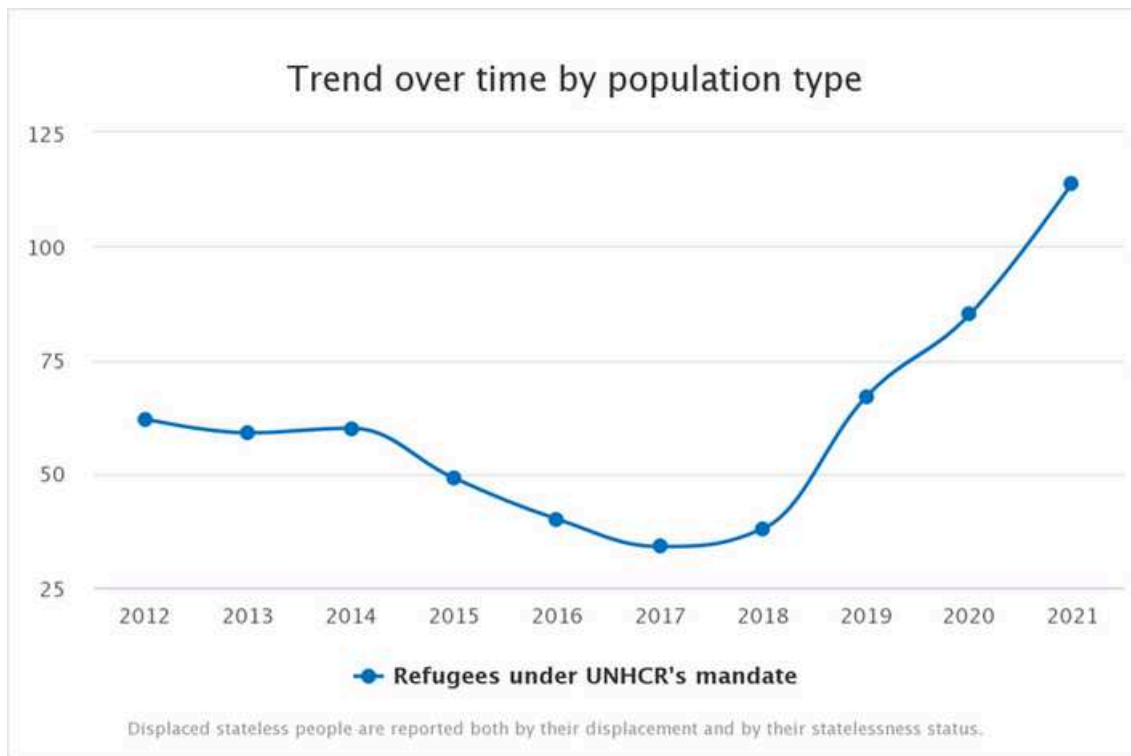


Figure 14: Trend of refugee influx from LAC countries from 2012 to 2021 to Austria (UNHCR, 2022)

In relative numbers, 0.07% of refugees came from LAC countries to Austria in 2021. Compared to Austria's national population, the proportion of LAC refugees was 0.001%.



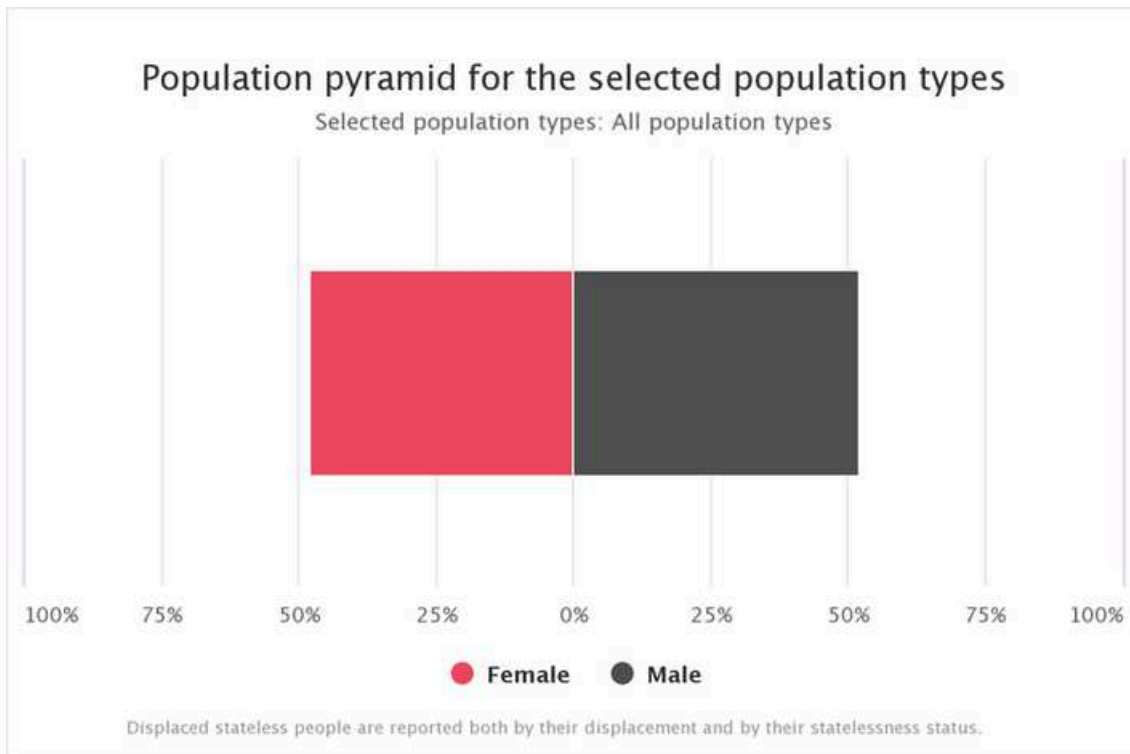


Figure 15: Gender distribution of LAC refugees arriving in Austria over time (UNHCR, 2022)

In terms of gender distribution, refugee flows were relatively balanced with 48% women and 52% men.

The main nationality of those arriving in Austria was Venezuelan, followed by Cuban, and similar percentages from Guatemala, Colombia and Nicaragua, as shown in the table below:



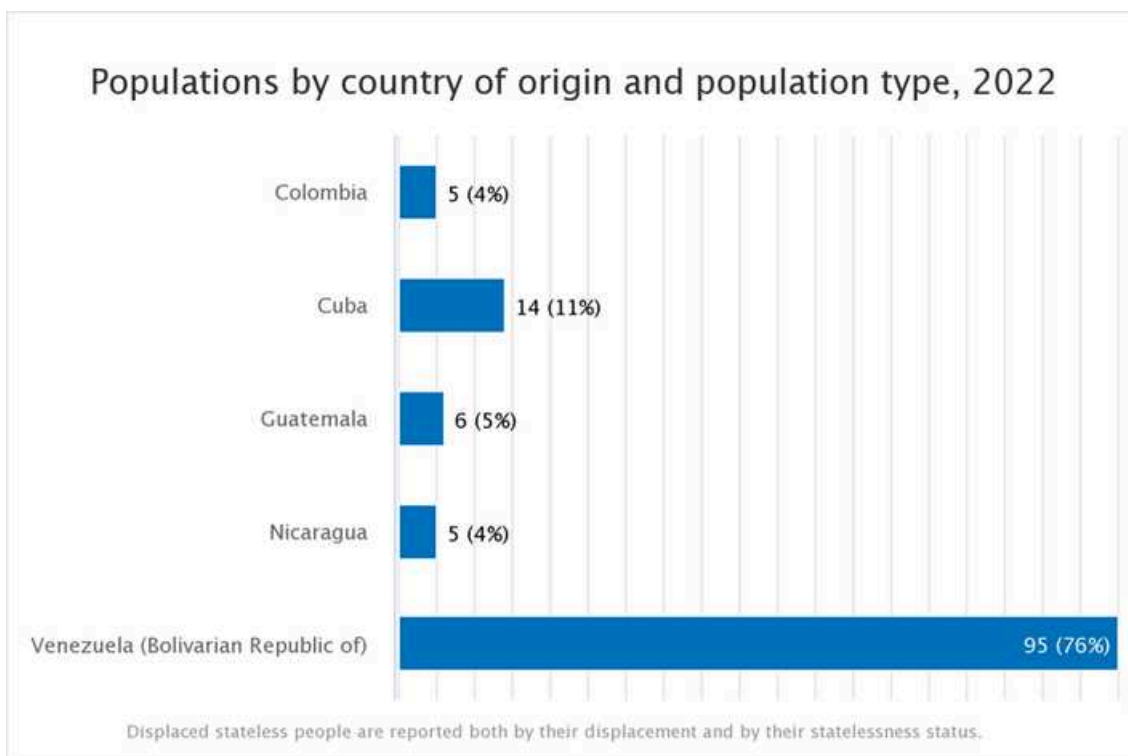


Figure 16: Refugee influx to Austria in 2022 by nationality (UNHCR, 2022).

I. QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE MIGRATION OF PEOPLE FROM LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES (LAC) TO SPAIN

In this section we will carry out a complementary analysis of the situation of Latin American migrants in Spain through a qualitative analysis using interviews with labour experts and counsellors to understand some of the key aspects of the migration profile, as well as focus groups of migrants from LAC living in Spain.

In this sense, it is important to take into account the perspective of migrants regarding their situation in the country, reasons for mobility, the main barriers they have encountered and what improvements could be



implemented according to their needs. For this reason, we wanted to learn about the migration experience of some of the people on whom this study focuses. Thus, we conducted two focus groups in Asturias and Andalusia. Below are the results of these analyses divided by thematic axes.

VII.1 Migration Trajectories and Reasons for Mobility

In terms of migration trends, from the 1990s onwards there was a boom in Latin American migration, the reasons for which were diverse. Thus, one of the experts we interviewed, who has focussed her research on Latin American migration and gender, commented on the migration of the late 1990s and the current decade, considering that there are different generations of migrants, given that there is a more consolidated Latin American migration that arrived more than twenty years ago, which may have led to other waves of migration, for example through family regrouping. Thus, with regard to the migrants of the 1990s, he pointed out that,

"Right now we are at a slightly different migratory moment in Spain, because we are now at a stage of settlement of the mobile population and of the citizenship that has arrived from other countries of origin, and we are already at a stage in which many of these people have already obtained nationality. As a result, especially the Latin American population, they are at a much more consolidated stage in their migratory trajectory, they are already Spanish citizens and therefore have already had an experience in the country, and they have settled, and I would like to think that they have settled quite successfully in this sense due to the linguistic and cultural proximity. In the 2000s, the process of migratory flows from Latin America was just beginning. Spain was the top point of confluence of the Latin American population". (A3)

One of the characteristics of the demographic profile of Latin American migrants is the growing feminisation of the group, and on this basis, various situations can be analysed, such as, for example, the causes of their migratory trajectory and the employment sectors into which they enter. Thus, one of the academics interviewed commented on the feminisation of migratory flows in Spain, reflected above all in cities such as Madrid and Barcelona, and understanding that Spain is an attractive destination for migrants and an alternative to the United States, a destination that is more dangerous in terms of crossing the border with Mexico and where more men arrive. With regard to the reasons for mobility, the same expert points out that migrant and/or refugee women

"They are arriving because of violence and the Venezuelan men and women, in this case, if the data are more or less the same. And what they have in common is violence. Expulsion due to violence, beyond the poverty that we saw in past decades, which was mostly for economic reasons, and now it is mostly due to expulsions caused by violence, loss of habitat, threats. (A1)

For her part, another of the experts interviewed suggests that the reasons, although very diverse and depending on each country of origin, may lie in the global systemic crises and the insecurity experienced in many of the migrants' countries. This, together with possible gender-based violence, may be a determining factor for mobility (A3).

In this sense, the reasons for mobility are heterogeneous, as expressed by the experts, and we cannot encompass the entire group of Latin American migrants as a monolithic entity. In this sense, from the focus groups we conducted, it emerged that there is sometimes a generalised idea that migrants initiate this process in order to achieve economic improvement or because of the precarious situation in the country. However, one of our interviewees commented:

"It was more of a social issue, more of a violence issue, and I was already bored with that. And we came here to look for an improvement in that sense. People think that we migrate because we are poor, and yes, we may be humble, but we have knowledge, and we have studies, and I don't know if it is anger or frustration that a Latino comes and has very similar knowledge and is better off than a person who is already here". (CC, man, 32 years old, Colombian, commercial advisor, 3 years in Spain)

On the other hand, the feminisation of Latin American migration has led to the convergence of different difficulties in their social inclusion. In this sense, one of the employment technicians interviewed commented on her appreciation of migrant women and the barriers they face, such as suffering greater discrimination for being women and also, in the case of Latin American women, other variables such as their origin:

"In the case of women, all the problems that we can find come together, whether refugees or people who have escaped from political or family situations, which are also very traumatic. The fact of being a woman, of being racialised, and the fact that they also have a glass ceiling in any additional job that they could have come from their own country, because of their training, because of the homologation of their studies. She does not have, or does not take into account first of all, that she is the one who has to get her studies recognised in order to raise her family, because she is put in second place for the upbringing of her children or family members, and all the emotional and physical burden that this entails for the role of the woman in a refugee circumstance is brutal. These people are referred by the public employment services and it is a profile that we have to work with them, not only purely in terms of employment guidance, but also in

terms of female empowerment and a series of circumstances that we have to work on". (Π)

VII.2 Migration and Labour Inclusion

Access to employment is fundamental for the social inclusion of migrants. In this sense, it is essential to regularise the administrative situation of migrants and refugees in order to be able to access employment with decent working conditions. In turn, the employment contract is a means to regularise the administrative situation, but it is very difficult for companies to take on this type of procedure, which is why migrants in an irregular situation often end up joining the underground economy and working in sectors with precarious conditions. Thus,

"The type of relationship with employment not only determines the living conditions of working people of foreign origin, but also decisively marks the possibilities and characteristics of access to the main mechanisms of the welfare state and citizenship rights" (Consejo Económico y Social de España-CES, 2019: 89).

The Economic and Social Council of Spain, in its 2019 Report, already gave an account of certain characteristics of the immigrant population in Spain and its relationship with the labour market, which we can corroborate are not very different from the current data. Firstly, the unemployment rates of the immigrant population are higher than those of the autochthonous population, and factors such as the lack of work permits and difficulties in obtaining a university degree make it difficult for them to find employment. Secondly, Latin American migrants and other non-European origins have a greater weight in unskilled occupations, with Latin American migrants being concentrated in sectors such as industry, construction and services. Thirdly, immigrant women are concentrated in less skilled sectors, such as care work. Fourthly, and as a consequence of the previous points, the average annual earnings of Latin American migrants compared to the indigenous population represent 62% of their income, with Latin American women and women of other non-European origins obtaining the lowest wage incomes and the largest wage gap (CES Spain, 2019). In this sense, it is concluded that the employment situation of immigrants points to,

"(...) an unfavourable position in the labour market, concentrating in unskilled occupations, even beyond what would be the result of their lower relative qualification, and with a higher frequency of situations of excessive temporariness and involuntary part-time work, and even underemployment. (...) the reading of these indicators according to some variables, such as the length of residence in Spain and the geographical area of origin (largely a reflection, in turn, of a different average level of

qualification and basic skills), also shows that these positions improve over time" (CES, 2019: 117).

Therefore, employment is a key axis for the social inclusion of migrants and it is important to pay attention to the difficulties in accessing it and the working conditions available to this group. In this regard, one of the employment counsellors interviewed commented that,

"For immigrants, being unemployed means losing the main social capital for which they came to this country. If unemployment is prolonged over time, it can lead them to consider returning to their country, which is often experienced as a failure. Moreover, after having lived in Spain for some time, the possibility of returning affects their own identity, because many say to me "we are neither from here nor from there" (T3).

In the following sections we will briefly address one of the main sectors in which Latin American migration has concentrated, such as care work and its feminisation, the social imaginary of the Latin American migrant and the stereotypes and prejudices that underlie it, as well as skilled migration.

a) Main labour sectors: the feminisation of care

As we pointed out in the previous section and as the figures confirm, the main employment sectors to which immigrants of Latin American origin gain access tend to be those with lower qualifications, especially customer service in the service sector and care work. This concentration of sectors does not necessarily occur because there is a correspondence between low educational qualifications and employment, but rather, as will be seen in the following section and as previously mentioned, a barrier in the system is the bureaucracy and costs of the homologation or validation of academic qualifications. Another cause is the irregular situation of many immigrants, who, as long as they do not have papers to access formal employment, must adapt to precarious jobs that do not have fair conditions. In this regard, the experts consulted affirm that there are currently two key sectors in which migrants, many of them Latin American, are concentrated: domestic workers and *riders*, workers in digital applications.

Regarding care work, one of the academics interviewed told us about her research on this topic and the causes of this labour need:

"Spanish families are less and less able to take care of dependents because the double salary in households has become generalised, women have left home years ago to join the labour market and well, it continues to fall on families because we are in a "familist" Welfare State and families somehow outsource this care to immigrant women because it is cheaper". (A1)

The experts also point out that care work is feminised and that the majority of workers are of migrant and Latin American origin, and this is due to the fact that often, due to their irregular situation, many migrant women have domestic service as their only means of subsistence. Thus, one of the experts mentions that there is a dilemma since, in turn, many organisations that seek to promote the labour insertion of migrant women feed these perceptions of Latin American migrants as caregivers by offering them training in these sectors. In this sense, she points out that,

"The dilemma is a bit complex because if you sometimes train women for other sectors if they are in an irregular situation, they are probably not going to find employment while they are in an irregular situation, while in domestic service they are guaranteed that this type of training or initiative will provide them with immediate economic support, and of course breaking this bias is complicated. I believe that this is obviously a question of stereotypes and prejudices, but also that the domestic service sector in Spain has not resolved the issue of dignified employment in these tasks to the extent that they are so precarious and invisible that it is migrant women who occupy these segments, because the sector exists (...) it is assumed that only migrant women, especially Latin American women, will accept and have access to these types of conditions, due to their migratory project, also because of the stereotypes and of course to break with this ... to create other types of figures for domestic service in Spain....to create other types of figures that can be attractive to other segments of the population, otherwise it is always the most vulnerable group: migrants, foreigners, irregular migrants, women, in this case, they will occupy these segments and a process of substitution will be seen, hence the fact that now there is a lot of talk about Central American women, when a few years ago other groups were there, Bolivian and Ecuadorian women, they are rotating and the sector is still there.(A2)

This is corroborated in practice, when one of the technicians of labour insertion programmes adds that migration flows are especially marked by a majority of women who initiate their migration process and which is related to global care chains,

"that is, they leave people who are no longer cared for in their countries of origin, and most of them, especially women, end up working or caring for others in Spain" (P1). (P1)

Care work is one of the sectors in which most of the migrant population is concentrated, generally Latin American women. In this sense, one of the experts interviewed, who has done extensive research on the subject, commented on how care work has become the entry route into the Spanish market for the Latin American population. In this sense, this sector is configured as a labour niche that pigeonholes Latin American immigrant women and generates a space in which to develop a job, despite the fact that it does not have the best conditions. The expert points out that there are many reasons for this to happen, including cultural and linguistic proximity, religion, language, and what she considers to be very important:

"The colonial process that has been experienced with Latin America is very strong, which means that the imaginary of Spanish families also finds in women from Latin America specific personality traits that make them more suitable to work in this activity, the emigration also from impoverished areas of Latin America to urban environments and that many women are very used to having had previous experiences related to care, even very socialised to be docile bodies for certain jobs in precariousness" (A3). (A3)

The same expert indicates that the causes of this concentration of Latina migrant women in the sector are varied. One of them is the precariousness of the sector, which means that it is the most vulnerable people who accept to start working in a totally irregular sector with very poor working conditions, as is the case of domestic work in Spain. Secondly, the Spanish population is experiencing a process of ageing and longer life expectancy, and there has been a change in the organisation of care within households, in which women have entered the labour market and can no longer assume the role of central carer. On the other hand, these social and cultural changes, which have influenced the labour insertion of Latin American migrants in this activity, have not been accompanied by public policies that promote co-responsibility; on the contrary, they are still based on the sexual division of labour. Thus, the interviewee adds that,

"There is a situation of a care crisis where a flexible and cheap labour force is needed to cope with these processes of dependency among the elderly population, because in reality, carers are most often hired for the care of the elderly". (A3)

b) Social imaginary of the migrant person LAC

However, according to what was discussed with some of the experts, it can be inferred that part of the Latin Americanisation of care work lies in the social imaginary that has been constructed of Latin American migrant women. In this sense, it is interesting to address the stereotypes and prejudices faced by this group and the possible discrimination they may suffer, in the labour market, for example. Thus, we asked the different people interviewed, both experts and employment counsellors, as well as the migrant participants in the focus group, about this issue.

A first issue is the prejudice that exists around the low qualifications of Latin American migrants, particularly women, insofar as it is due to their lack of education that they are unable to access better opportunities and have to take on care work. On this point, one of the experts consulted argues:

"I don't think it has to do with the education they bring from their country of origin. Even coming from impoverished areas you can have a high level of education. I think we have to start to dissociate the two aspects. The Latin American population or women who enter this work is not because of their personal education, but because it is the job that exists for them, there is a social construction about who should carry out these tasks in Spain and who are the most suitable people to do them. I think that in this collective imaginary of care, they have fit a stereotyped and stigmatised profile due to colonial links with the tasks they have to carry out for personal assistance". (A3) (emphasis added).

In the same vein, another interviewee agrees:

"Within the Spanish imaginary, Latin Americans, especially if they are women, have certain characteristics that make them more likely to care for people. Between the fact that they are women, they are Latin American, they come without papers, it is very difficult for them not to enter the market unless it is through care work, with all the difficulties and all the complications that this entails". (P1)

These prejudices and associations of Latin American women as carers, which are deeply rooted in society, are also present in the employment counsellors themselves. One of them told us the following about the Latin American women seeking the services of the association:

"Another issue that I also consider to be cultural: Latin American women don't seem to think much about working, especially when they have children and so on, it's like they take on the role of mother, but they don't

think about working. There were even cases where they said "well, I'd work...". "What would you work as a kitchen assistant?" "No, because I don't know Spanish cuisine", but they don't seem to want to do it either". (T2) (underlined).

Another labour counsellor commented on migrant communities:

"They tend to generate their own groups, their own communities, so create something a little more... where there is a meeting, because there is also a cultural clash. And these communities often encourage the informal economy. And more so to look for benefits and not so much to actively seek employment. When they know what the social wage is, there are people who stagnate there and with the underground economy." (T2)

On the other hand, another key factor is the social class into which they are pigeonholed. Thus,

"Many people are in the sector because they do not have documentation, but also because, even if they do, this is the job they can access. Nor are there many other possibilities beyond working in the hotel and catering or cleaning services, as there are already some employment and ethnic niches. Even if they have other training, they cannot access other jobs that are more highly valued and better paid because they do not have the social capital or the necessary networks to be able to take on these activities, so there is an absolute delegation of these tasks to certain sectors of the population. Precarious sectors, not only whether or not they belong to Latin America, but also determined by their social class, regardless of their level of education. Their social class is very important in order to be pigeonholed in this sector. It is clear that there are qualified migrants or even doctors or people who have a very high qualification and can even work in this activity, but let's say that they have more possibilities to leave in the future and reach other work sectors". (A3)

For their part, just as the experts agreed on the construction of a stereotypical social imaginary and prejudices towards the Latin population, particularly towards women working in care, the migrants interviewed commented on situations of discrimination in this area. In this sense, they agreed that there are prejudices towards the Latino population that make it difficult for them to enter the labour market. Thus, they reported having felt insulted or discriminated against because of their race in their professional career, although more of a "passive" or indirect type of prejudice than in a more aggressive or direct way; for example, undervaluing their effort or their dialectal form of Spanish. These have been experienced personally or by acquaintances. Thus, one of the participants in the focus group commented:

"As I have always worked in the hotel and catering business, they have always made fun of me for being a foreigner. Once I was working and a man came up to me and asked me if I had ever been a whore in my life, and I told him why, because I was a foreigner? They always think that because we are from Latin America we are like that". (EC, woman, 37 years old, Brazilian, own business, 16 years in Spain).

b) Skilled migration

Although we do not have data on skilled migration, the experts agree that due to the situation of irregularity and bureaucratic difficulties, there is a percentage of skilled people working in the black economy, for example, doing care work in homes without legal conditions. In this sense, one of them points out that,

"Being in an irregular situation places you in a condition of absolute vulnerability because you do not have a work permit and, therefore, your chances of entering the labour market are reduced, not only in the formal market but also in sectors that have to do with what you know how to do. You know that there are people who have studies in their countries of origin, who were doing something else, but it all boils down to the fact that they cannot be hired and that they go to the informal labour market, and this informal labour market is for domestic workers, households and little else.
(A1) (emphasis added)

However, there is another part of the group that has had the means to come here regularly, through a study visa, and subsequently wants to enter the labour market, but they have difficulties in getting their qualifications recognised, as mentioned above. In this sense, this population is privileged and is one of those most favoured by the reform of the regulations on foreigners; however, they still suffer from the prejudices mentioned in the previous section. Thus, the same expert points out that,

"What they complain most about is precisely stereotypes. Not about precariousness, but about stereotypes. I don't care if you're the best and you have thousands of degrees and postgraduate studies and you speak I don't know how many languages, you're a Latina and you're good for cleaning, that's what exists. And as long as you don't have a recognised degree here, you are an uneducated person, whatever you do. Another thing is, those who have the possibility of having enough social capital to make contacts and recommendations with companies and circles where they can work, but if you don't have those social networks you will be a victim of the stereotype of the Latin American woman who is only for certain sectors, it's not easy". (A1)

VII.3 Barriers and needs of LAC migrants

As previously mentioned, migrants face various barriers to their inclusion in the labour market, including difficulties in accessing work with decent conditions due to their irregular situation, bureaucratic obstacles to regularising their administrative situation, the problem of the homologation of foreign qualifications and the discrimination they suffer in society, among others.

Thus, according to the Red Cross employment counsellor we interviewed, one of the main barriers they have to overcome to enter the labour market is that of regularisation. When an immigrant or asylum seeker arrives in the country, in most cases they must begin a long and tedious bureaucratic process to obtain a work permit that allows them to start their search, being limited to training courses, which can end up leading them to a state of impatience and demotivation. In this sense, work becomes particularly important in cases where the immigrant must prove their situation over time in order to continue to obtain a residence permit. In many cases, they become irregular because they do not have a job at a given time, or because they have not paid contributions for long enough, despite having family in Spain and/or being fully adapted to the local community. These consequences can aggravate the stress and anxiety that migrants already suffer in the process of arriving and acclimatising to the country.

Secondly, another relevant barrier, according to the interviewed career counsellors, is the problem of validation of studies and the lack of protection they suffer in terms of training. Going through a long, tedious and costly process of validation is something that not everyone is willing to do (or does not have the knowledge of the administrative processes, or the financial resources), which can result in them ending up doing jobs for which they are overqualified or entering the black economy. These processes can take up to 5 years depending on the policies of the country of origin.



Another aspect, which in any case does not affect Latin American migrants as much, is **language**. Although at first glance it might seem that the linguistic aspect is not a problem, it can become a limiting factor in the search for employment. The use of different words in Spanish in Spain and in each of the Latin American countries can make it difficult to find a job on online portals using keywords, for example.

Likewise, another important barrier is the lack of assistance upon arrival in the country, in the sense of the community networks that are needed or the **lack of knowledge of reception and counselling services**. In this sense, when this population arrives in Spain, they often do not have a support network to help them in the process. This contributes to a lack of knowledge of the services available to them (such as employment programmes), which contributes to them turning directly to care services for the elderly (especially women) or construction-related work (especially men).

From a gender perspective, women face all the problems mentioned above, added to the fact that they are women, racialised, and face an additional glass ceiling for any job position due to the issue of validation of studies. The gender component is crucial, as it is mostly women who put themselves in second place (abandoning processes such as validation of studies) in order to be able to take care of children or family members, with the physical and emotional burden that this entails.

With regard to the barriers mentioned by migrants, these are related to those previously expressed in the interviews by the experts and employment counsellors. Mainly, these are bureaucratic barriers to validating qualifications, regulating migration status, and stereotypes and prejudices that persist about the Latin American population, which generate discrimination and make it difficult for them to enter the labour market. Likewise, the difficulties in validating qualifications and the lack of experience in the country often mean that migrants have to work in less qualified jobs that are less in line with their studies. Thus, with regard to conditions and access to employment, they point out:

"The conditions sometimes vary a lot in the type of hiring for us Latinos, and we have experience, we have knowledge, and the important thing is that we certify it and demonstrate it. So it's very different, and it's not as easy as saying "there's work and you don't want to work", no, we come with studies, we have them approved, we come well prepared to do a job,

but sometimes they don't like it, or they offer us something, but because they see us as Latinos, they change the conditions directly. In other words, even if we complete the process of validating our studies, there are still obstacles. I got my baccalaureate recognised and I am getting my university studies recognised, but it has been a very long process". (CC, male, 32 years old, Colombian, commercial advisor, 3 years in Spain)

"I have been in my profession for 13 years, I have worked very hard, I am recognised in my country... And you arrive here, you knock on doors, you pass 2500 CVs every day, and they don't know if they see it, if they receive it, you don't know if it reaches the HR person, and the job search is very tedious, and you have to resort to alternatives to survive and not let yourself die, especially in our case which is an artistic subject, the area of communication, that if you don't update yourself you die". (C, woman, 37 years old, Colombian, publicist, 3 years in Spain)

"It is not difficult to find work in Spain in the public sector, always earning the minimum wage, but in the professional areas, although I have technical studies (or as they say here, vocational training), in areas of administration, they do not validate them, so where they call you most quickly is in the areas of customer service: in clothing shops, hotel workers, picking up tourists for their respective destinations by bus,... I have had many jobs, but almost always focused on that area. I am currently working as a receptionist in a language academy, as my profile was not suitable as a teacher until I had my degree and certified my level". (K, female, 29 years old, Colombian, linguist, 5 years in Spain)

However, and in relation to access to employment, the main obstacle that the migrants interviewed agreed with, and one of the greatest obstacles when trying to find a job in Spain, is that of the validation or recognition of qualifications obtained in their countries of origin. In most cases, there is no programme for the direct validation of university studies between Spain and Latin American countries, and the existing process can take two years. This results in highly educated and highly qualified people having to look for work in low-skilled sectors or positions, often with lower pay and poorer working conditions. This creates a certain feeling of anxiety and disappointment that the mental and financial effort made over the years is not rewarded and they have to start again from scratch.

On the other hand, there is dissatisfaction with the functioning of public services related to employment and a need for improvement in this aspect. In this sense, the people surveyed also agree that they have received little or no support during their arrival and subsequent adaptation process from public organisations, and that the help they have received has come from their acquaintances or, on some occasions, through professionals they have hired themselves. Thus, one of the interviewees pointed out:



"They send you to the employment office, you register to generate your demand. You sit down, you talk about your whole life, the official doesn't take care of you, in the end they never call you from an employment agency, and they work from 10 to 2 and leave, and they don't look at you". (C, woman, 37 years old, Colombian, publicist, 3 years in Spain)

In most of the cases of the people interviewed in Andalusia, the main reason why these people have managed to regularise their situation has been due to family reunification, so they have not faced particularly complicated problems, beyond the wait that bureaucratic processes of this type usually entail.

In summary, based on the discussions with migrants and with reference to all the information previously presented, the key and common points that can be highlighted are the following:

- Long, costly and tedious processes, not only for the homologation of studies, but also to receive documents such as the NIE. Moreover, these people have faced these processes in the middle of the pandemic, which has slowed it down even more. However, even with their papers up to date, they continue to face obstacles. The delay in these processes has a tremendous impact on access to employment and, more specifically, to qualified positions. If these processes are complicated for skilled people, the complication is much greater for those who lack all kinds of information and training.
- The use of a different Spanish language is often unpopular with companies.
- Discrimination and stereotypes. Racial discrimination is a determining component and one that they have encountered on more than one occasion, as well as being constantly confronted with the belief that they are less qualified just because they are Latinas. This also sometimes results in their working conditions being changed. Their studies and experience are not valued in the same way, and there is no openness to other ways of doing things.
- In some cases they are overqualified for the jobs they are applying for.

- The lack of a support network upon arrival in Spain may be another factor, because in some cases they do not have a network of contacts.
- Support from the Public Employment Service is deficient. The processes are lengthy and ineffective, as no real help is provided, adapted to the specific needs of the person.
- What really helps them are the communities (with other Latin people) that they form when they arrive in Spain. It is through these contacts that they end up entering the labour market.
- More concrete measures are needed to facilitate integration into the labour market, and more training for those who are not yet able to work. The obstacles imposed contribute to the black economy, which is often the only option for survival. Concrete protocols are needed in terms of time and, as far as companies are concerned, they should be able to work while the administrative procedures are being carried out.
- There is a need for training courses that provide an introduction to the real labour market. Long courses that really enable people to do a job, and that are certified, motivating people to look for different ways of employment. Also, courses that do not necessarily require the completion of the homologation of studies, because then again it is a hindrance, and neither employment nor training can be accessed.

Among the needs of the migrant population to overcome the barriers previously mentioned, we find the need for an improvement in the processing of the recognition of university degrees, improvements in changes that speed up the regularisation of migrants, better communication with public employment services and greater accompaniment and training.

In the first place, bureaucracy in the processing of validation and homologation of studies is one of the obstacles faced by qualified migrants in finding employment. Thus, one of the labour counsellors interviewed told us:

"With regard to the recognition of studies, precisely because of the policies of the country of origin itself, this is what makes the recognition or certification of their studies in their country of origin take years, we are not talking about 2 years, but perhaps 5 years, these are people who are very well prepared. I have several cases. For example, a woman who was a doctor in her country, in Cuba I think it was, when she arrived in Spain,

she tried to speed up this certification as much as possible, she didn't have the money so she couldn't do it. And during the time she was working in Spain, it was mainly in the field of care services for the elderly. When they arrive in Spain, either because of a lack of knowledge, or because they do not know the resources available to them in terms of training. There are many people from Latin America who end up doing care services for the elderly, especially women. And in terms of men, it's construction, especially in terms of what has to do with more physical loads". (T1)

However, the reform of the regulation of the law on foreigners is expected to improve this aspect, but its impact will still have to be assessed.

Secondly, better communication with the Public Employment Service. In this sense, one of the techniques indicates that,

"Better communication with the public employment service would be essential. Because this is not the first, second or third time that we come across cases of women or men who have been unemployed for a long time. You realise that when they arrive here, there is a first phase in which they are without papers, I can't say 100%, but those I have met, there is a large percentage who are in the country illegally. So what happens is that until they are in a regularised situation, they cannot access the guidance that can be given to them by the public employment services. And there are also many people that I know who are in the programme, who have told me that if they had known about the issue of validating their studies five years ago, they would already have that qualification. Of course, it is not the same if you arrive in a country and they give you all the access to information on the subject of studies, that you have all the access to digital competences, that you have, which is also a very important gap, digital literacy, and that you do not have access to the language of the destination country, these are brutal limitations, they are very big challenges". (T1)

Thus, she proposes that the SEPE be more agile in terms of referrals to employment programmes and in providing newly arrived users with the necessary information for day-to-day procedures.

Thirdly, offering more accompaniment services. This work is usually carried out by social services or NGOs, but it would be interesting to incorporate specific mechanisms available to the workers of private entities, in order to be able to accompany people arriving in Spain from a more comprehensive perspective. In other words, better mechanisms to help regularise the situation of these people, providing a shield of protection to avoid extreme situations of vulnerability (sexual violence, drug addiction, etc.).

Also, improve the promotion of guidance and employment programmes. Many users arrive at the SEPE branch offices without having previously been aware of the existence of these programmes, which are totally free initiatives available to the public. Even so, many people come out of obligation just to avoid losing the benefit they receive, unaware of the real

value they can derive from them. It would also be interesting to integrate psychological support into these programmes, either through the figure of an additional expert, or by providing different resources and tools to counsellors, who do not always have the necessary knowledge to deal with the diversity of situations they encounter.

Finally, the training needs of the migrant population should be addressed. In this sense, one of the counsellors interviewed pointed out that these needs should be focused on,

"Digital skills, the main ones, and then it depends on the sector for which each person is looking for a job. For example, someone who works in cleaning, office automation is not going to be good for them, or languages, it depends a bit, but I think that training in digital skills, key skills, professional certificates... that you try to train a bit further, to open up the field a bit". (T2).

Another job counsellor interviewed adds,

"in addition to the transversal competences, which would be important for everyone to be aware of, the subject of language, the subject of digital competences, the subject of psychological motivation and so on, as these would be important areas." (T1)

With regard to education, the migrants interviewed in Andalusia were asked about their education, and three of them had studied in the country, and one more intended to do so; however, only one of them had completed their studies. The main difficulties for this were economic reasons, as they cannot always combine their studies with a job, and without this source of income, it is difficult to maintain this situation for a long period of time.

In their opinion, there is a wide range of areas to focus on when providing educational material for inclusion in the labour market. On the one hand, there is a demand for courses on financial information, such as how to open a bank account, as this can be a different procedure in the country of origin, as well as requiring more documentation. They also ask for physical material that allows them access to the Internet, where they can access a greater amount of information that is useful to them in their adaptation and job search process. Finally, they also consider it necessary to train companies, which are the ones that end up hiring, so that they can understand the needs of this target group and can guide them in the process, as well as educate them to eliminate possible prejudices.

Finally, the great challenge to improve a large part of the labour sector in which the Latin American migrant population is immersed lies in valuing and

dignifying care work, a task that the feminist movement has promoted, as well as the migrant activists who have organised themselves in various associations and in communities. Thus, one of the experts consulted concludes that,

"A large part of the situation experienced by care workers of Latin American origin is related to the way in which care is sustained and how it is valued politically and publicly (...) apart from migration policy, it is also due to the way in which care converges and how it is valued socially, because in the end, how care work is constructed in policies, both labour and social, influences the form of working conditions that these women will have in their daily work and in the activity that they carry out. So a social valorisation of care would be important first to be able to access a dignification of their working conditions". (A3)

Another expert adds,

"As long as the state does not recognise care work, society will not recognise it either. So now they are Latinas, but tomorrow they may be before they were Filipinos. Societies take advantage of the work of women who have been impoverished and have had to flee their countries of origin. And often we don't realise this as a society and we say look at this poor girl... I think we need to raise awareness, but above all we need the state to get involved and we need to socialise care because once care falls less on families, families will be able to look at care work from a distance. Also, one of the conclusions I have reached is that we need to professionalise care work, but we need to give migrants the right to do it, because there is no point in professionalising it if you need papers to access this professionalisation. That's where the issue lies, it's like a vicious circle, the issue of papers is the axis..." (A1)

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

4.9% (21.8 million people) of the total European population (446.8 million people) are migrants of non-European origin in 2019.

Of the countries analysed, Spain, Italy, Belgium and Austria, **Spain has the highest number of migrants.** Of the total Spanish population of 47,475,420 million inhabitants, 11.68% or **5,542,932** million are people of foreign origin. This is followed by **Italy** with a total population of 60,640,893 million inhabitants, of which 6.8%, i.e. **5,194,000**, are of foreign origin. In the case of **Belgium**, the total population is **11,409,077**, of which 17.2%, i.e. **1,981,919** are foreigners. Finally, **Austria** has a population of **9,082,934**



million inhabitants of which 9.8% or 814,800 persons are of foreign origin.

The arrivals of migrant population in the different countries have not followed a uniform evolution, with regard to Spain it is worth highlighting the waves of migratory flows in periods of economic growth (2000-2007) and subsequently, a considerable decrease in the years of crisis (2008-2014), again there was an increase in arrivals in the following period (2015-2020), especially highlighting the arrival of Venezuelan population during the Maduro regime (2017-2019). The number of arrivals dropped considerably coinciding with the covid-19 crisis. In general, a progressive decrease in the arrival of immigrant population in Spain can be observed.

Some nationalities from Latin American and Caribbean (LAC) countries have been identified as having a greater presence in the countries analysed. The origin of the most represented migrants from LAC countries are: Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, Brazil, Dominican Republic, Paraguay, Argentina and Bolivia. In addition, the migration of the population from LAC countries is highly feminised, with 60% in Spain and Italy.

The country of origin of the migrant has a direct impact on his or her labour market opportunities. People of non-European migrant origin have lower activity and employment rates than people with European citizenship or even migrants of European origin.

In 2019 the activity rate of the European labour force stood at 78.6% while this fell to 70.3% for non-European migrants. In Italy and Spain, non-European migrants have lower activity rates than in Belgium and Austria, however, the gap in the activity rate between the two groups is significantly high in Belgium.

The employment rate for EU citizens was 73.8%, while for migrants of non-European origin it was below 60.0%. Among the countries analysed, Belgium is the country with the lowest employment rate for migrants of non-European origin (44.0%). Employment rates for migrants of non-European origin were particularly low in Belgium (44%), being highest in Italy (64%), followed by Austria (62%) and Spain (60%).

The unemployment rate for non-European migrants in 2019 was more than twice as high (14.7%) as for European citizens (6.1%). Spain had the highest unemployment rate for non-European migrants (22.3%) followed by Italy, Belgium and Austria, all three countries with unemployment rates below 15.0% for migrants of non-European origin.



However, Belgium experiences the highest gap in unemployment rates between Europeans and non-Europeans at 14.1%.

Unemployment is particularly high among young people, both for migrants of non-European origin (23.4%) and Europeans (14.4%), especially in Spain and Italy. Likewise, Belgium and Austria show a larger gap between the unemployment rates of young non-European migrants and young Europeans.

Undoubtedly, one of the biggest **barriers to employment** for immigrants is the **lack of administrative regulation and/or residence and work permits**. In 2018, only 2% of the population of non-European migrant origin obtained citizenship in a European country. It is important to note that in the case of Spain, where the gap between non-European migrants and European migrants who obtained it was particularly high for the former. Of the countries analysed, the one that **granted the most residence permits was Belgium, followed by Italy, Spain and Austria**. Migrants of non-European origin, when they have work permits, experience **more temporary and part-time work, have less skilled jobs, lower pay and more precarious working conditions**. In addition, the proportion of the population working in the **informal sector** is higher in the immigrant population.

In 2019, 1 in 4 non-European migrants of working age work **part-time** (25.4%) while for nationals it was 17.2%. Part-time working hours are particularly high in Austria (27.7%), followed by Italy, Belgium and Spain.

The **temporary employment rate** was 13.1% for Europeans, while for migrants of non-European origin it was 26.8%. Of the countries analysed, Spain (above 40%) and Italy (above 30%) are countries with the **highest temporary employment rates** both for European citizens and migrants of non-European origin, to a lesser extent, (rates below 30%) as well as Belgium and Austria.

Moreover, it is important to note that temporary and part-time work is particularly **high among young people and women**. It should also be noted that part-time work is **involuntary** in both cases and that, in the case of women, it is largely in the **informal labour market**. In this sense, there is a **difference between the sectors occupied by male and female migrants** in all the countries analysed. In the case of men, they are mostly employed in **construction** and industry, while in the case of women, they have a high presence in **feminised sectors such as care and the service sector** (cleaning, domestic service and catering). In this sense, in Spain, the **2008 crisis** in the construction sector had an

unprecedented impact on the expulsion of immigrant men from the labour market. In the same vein, the crisis generated by covid-19 has once again made it clear that people in **less secure jobs (informal economy)**, such as migrant women, are the **first to be excluded from the labour market**. Moreover, people working in the informal sector are not entitled to any kind of benefits from the public system and, therefore, their exposure to the risk of poverty and social exclusion becomes particularly relevant.

In terms of **educational attainment**, migrants of non-European origin have a **higher proportion of secondary education** than European citizens. The countries with the largest share of migrants of non-European origin with the lowest educational attainment were Italy (60.1%) and Spain (48.5%). The **gap** between the percentage of people with primary education among the population of migrant origin and European citizens is **particularly high** in all countries. Also, when non-European migrants have **tertiary or higher education, they occupy 36.0% of overqualified jobs** in Europe.

European migrants experience the **highest risk of poverty and social exclusion**. In 2018, 21.6% of Europeans were at risk of poverty or social exclusion (95 million), of which 57 million were in employment. 20.7% of nationals were at risk of poverty or social exclusion compared to 45.1% of migrants of non-European origin. This pattern is repeated in most Member States. **The at-risk-of-poverty of the migrant population was particularly high in Spain (56.0%) followed by Belgium (52.0%), Italy (44.0%) and Austria (36.0%)**. Also, the gap between poverty and exclusion rates among the migrant population of non-European and European origin is particularly high in Belgium. It is also important to note that **24% of migrants of non-European origin were at risk of poverty and social exclusion despite being in employment**.

In terms of the asylum-seeking refugee population, there are a total of **89.3 million** refugees in the world, with the **number having increased by 8 per cent** in recent years. According to data from the International Organisation for Migration (IOM), the majority of arrivals in Europe were in **Germany, followed by France, Spain (34%) and Italy**.

In 2021, 82% of people who had been forced to cross a border **came from ten countries**: Syria (6.8 million), Venezuela (4.1 million), Afghanistan (2.6 million), South Sudan (2.3 million), Myanmar (1.1 million), Democratic Republic of Congo (865 000), Sudan (806 000), Somalia (792 000), Central African Republic (713 000) and Eritrea (490 000).

Refugees have more difficulties integrating into the labour markets of host countries. Labour market outcomes (e.g. employment and income

levels) are similar for refugee men and women in different European countries, with a slight difference in Spain.

The proportion of unaccompanied minors arriving for asylum has also increased significantly: they barely exceeded 3% in 2016 flows while in 2021 they accounted on average for 9.5% of entries for reasons related to international protection.

The regulatory framework governing the situation of migrants and refugees varies from country to country and not all states have a specific law on the subject. However, at the international and European level, there are common instruments. Thus, at the international level, there is the 1951 Geneva Convention, which is the reference document on the protection of refugees, the New York Declaration of the United Nations General Assembly, which reaffirms the commitment to respect the rights of migrants and refugees, as well as two Global Covenants on Refugees and Migration. Although the latter are not legally binding, they are symbolically relevant. On the other hand, at the European level, there is the European Pact on Migration and Asylum of 2008, which highlights the importance of promoting integration and is articulated through five concrete objectives: organising legal immigration in accordance with the labour market, the fight against irregular immigration, increasing border control and the creation of common bases for asylum policies, as well as cooperation between countries of origin and transit of immigration.

Labour market integration policies are not aimed exclusively at migrants or refugees, but special attention is paid to vulnerable groups, which include the people who are the subject of this study. In this regard, each country has public programmes and services that can promote various actions for labour market integration, including counselling, reception services, support in the search for employment, training, among others. Likewise, third sector organisations that work with migrant and refugee groups have various good practices to help the socio-occupational inclusion of this group, in some cases focusing especially on women.

One of the characteristics of Latin America's migratory demographic profile is the feminisation of migration, especially in Spain. This is due to various reasons for mobility, which vary according to each country of origin, but we can highlight some reasons: the need for better employment, migration due to political or gender-based violence, family reunification, among others.

The feminisation of Latin American migration implies the convergence of different difficulties in their social inclusion, including labour market

insertion, which in many cases is seen when Latin American migrant women occupy positions in less qualified sectors and with poorer working conditions. In this sense, migrant women face greater barriers, such as discrimination because they are women and also because of their origin, which is why it is important that employment policies have a gender perspective.

Access to employment is fundamental for the social inclusion of migrants. In this sense, it is essential to regularise the administrative situation of migrants and refugees in order to be able to access employment with decent working conditions. In turn, the employment contract is a means to regularise the administrative situation, but it is very difficult for companies to take on this type of procedure, which is why migrants in an irregular situation often end up joining the underground economy and working in sectors with precarious conditions. One of these sectors is care work, a highly feminised and poorly regulated sector.

The interviews conducted coincide in that there is a social imaginary of Latin American migrants, especially women, as the main carers. Likewise, there is prejudice regarding the low qualifications of Latin American migrants, in that due to their lack of education they are unable to access better opportunities and have to take on care work.

Just as the experts agreed on the construction of a stereotypical social imaginary and prejudices towards the Latin population, particularly towards women working in care work, the migrants interviewed commented on situations of discrimination on this issue. In this sense, they agreed that there are prejudices towards the Latino population that make it difficult for them to enter the labour market. Thus, they reported having felt insulted or discriminated against because of their race in their professional careers, although more of a "passive" or indirect type of prejudice than a more aggressive or direct one; for example, undervaluing their effort or their dialectal form of Spanish. These have been experienced personally or by acquaintances.

The group of Latin American migrants is heterogeneous. In this sense, there is a part of the group that has had the economic means to come here regularly, through a study visa, and subsequently wants to enter the labour market, but they have difficulties in getting their qualifications recognised. In this sense, this population is privileged and is one of those most favoured by the reform of the regulations on foreigners, however, they can still suffer from prejudices and stereotypes due to their gender and origin.

Among the main barriers that migrants face and that were identified from the interviews and focus groups are: the regularisation of residence authorisation due to employment roots, bureaucratic difficulties in the



homologation of qualifications, lack of knowledge of free reception, counselling and training services, and the discrimination and prejudices that still persist in society regarding migration.

In this sense, experts and migrants agree that public services should be improved to facilitate homologation procedures and speed up regularisation procedures, as well as to establish better communication with public services so that they are aware of the programmes offered and that they in turn offer accompaniment for people who are in an irregular situation. Finally, the experts agree that it is important to bear in mind that a large part of the Latin American migrant population is involved in a precarious labour sector, such as care work, and that this needs to be professionalised and socially valued. In this sense, they point out that the great challenge to improve the labour inclusion of Latin American migrant women, in particular, also involves dignifying care work and valuing it in society.

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Code	Profile	Sex	Age	Nationality	Profession	Workplace
A1	Academic	Woman	44	Mexican	Sociologist	Comisiones Obreras and Researcher UAB
A2	Academic	Woman	49	Spanish	Sociologist	Lecturer at the UAB
A3	Academic	Woman	42	Spanish	Sociologist	Senior Lecturer at the University of Coruña
P1	Policy	Woman	53	Spanish	Graduate in Labour Sciences	L'Hospitale t de Llobregat City Council
T1	Application technology	Woman	34	Spanish	Labour counsellor	Labour Action
T2	Application technology	Woman	31	Spanish	Labour counsellor	Labour Action
T3	Employment technician	Man	34	Spanish	Refugee Programme Coordinator	Red Cross



FIRST PROJECT RESULT (PR1)

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2023**



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