Report on the integration of immigrants in Catalonia 2015
Inclusive Strategies (Instrategies) was commissioned to produce this study.

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Foreword

One of the directives of Law 10/2010, of 7 May 2010, on the reception of immigrants and returnees to Catalonia, is the preparation of an independent annual assessment of how far one of the most important and complex objectives of our society has been met: the integration of immigrants and refugees in our country. The report you are now reading fulfils this goal.

The document evaluates how we are coping with the challenge of being a nation whose people were born in 180 different countries, speak 300 different languages and yet want to continue sharing the same society. It looks at the level of coexistence achieved by those who are different yet wish to share the same country; a country that respects us for who we are and with which, at the same time, we can all feel identified.

The report reveals some troubling results as well as successes achieved through the efforts made. These data need to be used to push for reinforcing public policies to overcome inequalities. To mention three particularly relevant examples regarding equal opportunities and individual autonomy, we are particularly concerned with the large difference observed in the unemployment and inactivity rates amongst immigrants; the low level of knowledge of the Catalan language still displayed by many of the newly arrived, and the differences in school results amongst students of different nationalities. This latest piece of data is clearly a warning sign we need to be very aware of if we want to avoid diversity being identified with inequality.

And yet, despite having to overcome these major challenges, we can confirm that Catalonia has undergone and is still undergoing one of the most intense demographic transformations in the world, maintaining a good level of coexistence and capable of offering many people opportunities for better lives. This means that we are achieving a capacity to relate to the world, a capacity for understanding others and projecting ourselves, and that this will be a key factor in the globalized world and the open societies of the 21st century. We have experienced major changes and we have managed them with a very broad social consensus, with policies that have been thought through and executed in close partnership with the Catalan Government, the local authorities and civil society, and this has been essential for surmounting all manner of challenges.

We are assuredly a welcoming country with our own model that is worthy of study and explanation. A model that could provide a significant contribution in a world where, in many places, serious difficulties in coexisting with diversity are to be found.

An imperfect contribution, no doubt, but yet unique and valuable.

Dolors Bassa
Minister for Employment, Social Affairs and Families
Introduction

The Report on the integration of immigrants in Catalonia 2015 provides us with a thorough analysis, an assessment of corporate interventions, a proposal for integration indicators and their results, and finishes off with conclusions and recommendations.

The demographic context of the period 2008-2014 marks the end of a cycle and the beginning of the open society with elevated flows of arrivals and departures. We have come to the end of the third great wave of immigration over the last 100 years, resulting in there being approximately one third of Catalans born outside Catalonia, exactly the same as happened to us in the previous two waves. This major transformation happened without a change in the relative distribution of the population in Catalonia, with a mixture throughout the region yet with definite unequal concentrations in the centres of some cities.

The report puts forward an innovative proposition based on the integration indicators proposed. On the one hand, by basing it on indicators proposed for the Intercultural Cities (ICC) project, used to compare Catalonia with the 70 most advanced cities in Europe, and on the other, making a useful and comparable proposal using indicators put forward by the Council of Europe as a starting point. A useful system of indicators can be extracted from a synthesis of the two sources for comparisons between different European countries and regions.

The study undertaken is a good exercise of independent assessment on how best to consider the steps that need to be taken from now on, and then to embark on them immediately. Now is the moment for us to decide the kind of country we want to create in terms of policies on immigration and the foreign population, which we would like to call citizenship policies. And we want to give them this name to express their objective: to create citizens, people with equal rights and responsibilities, people committed to the society they belong to.

Now is the time to assume the duties of a democratic country and comply with international treaties on the right to asylum and refuge. Because they represent the law and make us more democratic. Now is the time, in view of the results of the report, for all public services to reinforce every action directed at equal opportunities, in the knowledge that origin and nationality are still a cause of discrimination.

Now is the time to understand that we are no longer speaking about the diversity that has arrived but rather the diversity that we are. We need to recognise ourselves as a diverse society yet reaffirm ourselves as a united society.

To make an independent analysis and constructive criticism of it, before moving straight into action. It is in this spirit that we take delivery of the 2015 report with gratitude to the efforts and quality of work of the authors.

Oriol Amorós
Secretary for Equality, Immigration and Citizenship
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Since 1993, when the first Interdepartmental Immigration Plan was passed, the Catalan Government has paid particular attention to the integration of foreign immigrants in Catalonia as a key factor in guaranteeing harmonious coexistence in an atmosphere of diversity and social cohesion.

Since then, the different actions and policies that have been rolled out have underlined the importance of building a cohesive Catalan society in which the diversity of its members is encompassed in a shared and common project. Indeed, the second Interdepartmental Immigration Plan (2001-2004) set forth the idea of the Catalan path to integration, which implies finding a balance between respect for diversity and the sense of belonging to a single community. Similarly, the National Pact for Immigration signed in 2008 defines Catalonia as ‘a diverse society built, to a large extent, on the settlement of people from elsewhere. This process, which has taken place in a global context that has intensified in the last few years, poses certain challenges while at the same time offering a new opportunity to define the country we will be in the future’. A process which, at the same time, establishes the need to construct a common public culture that can be defined as ‘a shared space for communication, coexistence, recognition and participation in our differentiated diverse society’.

The Catalan Government has progressively assumed responsibility for its positioning in the management of the migratory phenomenon, primarily in managing the integration of newly-arrived immigrants. Consequently, the Statute of Catalonia of 2006 enshrines the government’s competences in the realm of immigrant reception and integration, amongst other matters.

The 2006 Statute also envisaged the development of the Reception Law for immigrants and returnees to Catalonia. Passed in 2010, the Catalan Government has, since that time, viewed it as comprising ‘a set of educational and informative tools for new arrivals aimed at fostering social mobility and reducing dependence on public systems, thus increasing their contribution to society’.

One of the directives established by Law 10/2010, of 7 May 2010, on the reception of immigrants and returnees to Catalonia, is the preparation of a report on the integration of immigrants in Catalonia. The first Report on the Integration of Immigrants in Catalonia was presented in 2013, thus fulfilling the provisions of Article 20 of the above mentioned Law. As a continuation of the provisions in this article, the document you now have in your hands is the Report on the Integration of Immigrants in Catalonia for 2015.

In Catalonia, integration is understood as a bidirectional, dynamic and continuous process between the residents of a region, the recently arrived and those who arrived beforehand or were born there.¹ The aim of this Report is to offer, as far as possible, an

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¹ National Pact for Immigration, 2008.
accurate snapshot of this dual perspective: on the one hand, how immigrants have managed to absorb the social, occupational, educational and civic reality of Catalonia; and on the other, how the structures, services and actions of the Catalan Government, in collaboration with local authorities, have been sensitive to incorporating this new diversity.

In accordance with previous documents on this subject, this Report considers immigrants to be people of foreign nationality who are living in Catalan territory. Article 15.3 of the Statute of Autonomy establishes the possibility that the rights that the State itself recognises for the citizens of Catalonia, i.e. the Catalan people as individuals who enjoy the citizenship of Catalonia – while understanding this status as that of Spanish nationals with administrative residence in Catalan territory – should also be extended to ‘other people’. By the same token, there are public policies and actions which are also directed at people who may be foreign nationals or of foreign origin, to the extent that the objective of any such public action, as reflected in the Reception Law is that: ‘the principle that citizenship, this being understood as full rights and obligations, should try to be extended to all the people living in Catalonia, if not as an immediate or instant reality but as a commitment by the Catalan authorities by means of a propensity to universalize, or extend to everyone, the policies, services and benefits that seek to promote equality and social cohesion’. In this respect, it is worth remembering that the National Pact for Immigration makes it clear that migration policies are not exclusively foreign policies. ‘Migration policies also include flow management policies, reception policies, integration policies and equality of opportunity policies’.

The report has been put together with a clear commitment to learning from the resulting snapshot, yet at the same time with the determination to help facilitate a framework for a longitudinal comparative analysis. For this reason, we have chosen to use the indicators and measurements that are used in the European framework in order to make the best use of the definition and analysis of these indicators, which outline the basic principles of integration that dovetail with Catalonia’s integration policy. The indicators used are from two main sources: on the one hand, those proposed by the European Commission, resulting from the outcome of the Conference on Integration in 2010 (and subsequently approved by the Council of the European Union); and on the other, the indicators proposed by the Council of Europe itself. The European Commission’s indicators take their definitions of integration from those approved by the Declaration of Zaragoza 2010, which have been expanded with complementary data with the collaboration of the OECD. Meanwhile, the Council of Europe’s indicators are closer to the way that administrations articulate them in order to manage the ever more diverse societies of European countries. The use of these indicators is also aimed at facilitating comparisons on integration between Catalonia and other European scenarios, to thus identify our strengths and any areas for improvement.

As a complement to this main objective, the 2015 Report also had various other specific objectives:

- To provide a statistical overview of foreign immigration in Catalonia, providing information on migratory flows and the composition of the foreign-born population and people of immigrant origin in Catalonia.
- To promote awareness by comparison by selecting the indicators used by the European Commission and the Council of Europe in other European regions.
To identify areas for improvement and best practices in the context of public policies for reception and integration through the contributions of local authorities, civil society organizations and experts in various fields.

To facilitate public debate on the integration of immigrants and people of immigrant origin in Catalan society.

The report has offered the opportunity to examine a wide range of actions and instruments implemented by the Catalan Government, primarily through its Directorate General for Immigration and the different departments represented on the Interdepartmental Immigration Committee. At the same time, it has offered an opportunity to discuss and share reflections with a significant number of agents who work on integration in Catalonia and on building an inclusive and cohesive Catalan society in different departments and levels of the public administration, social organizations, economic institutions, etc. It is therefore important to recognize and thank all of them for their time and the knowledge they have shared in drawing up this Report on the Integration of Immigrants in Catalonia 2015.

An Overview of Immigration in Catalonia

This first section of the sociodemographic contextualization of the Report on the Integration of Immigrants in Catalonia is based on three premises: firstly, the need to contextualize the evolution of the last year in the broader framework of the economic crisis that started in 2008 and which is still the sociodemographic horizon within which integration needs to be considered; secondly, it is necessary to reiterate that the scenario is conditional upon the information available and the quality of that information which, as we shall see, sometimes raises even more questions about the uncertainty imposed by the economic crisis; and thirdly, as far as possible our aim was to give continuity to the perspective adopted in the previous report while at the same time adding a dimension that has not yet been considered: the territorial dimension.

Consequently, this chapter is divided into three sections: the first is on the demographic context 2008-2014 as it stands, looking at the evolution in international migratory flows, the main characteristics of settled communities, particularly the diversity of the first nationalities that settled in Catalonia, and the impact of both births and naturalizations which, bearing in mind the drop in the flow of arrivals, takes on a particular significance in terms of the increase or decrease of the different communities settled in Catalonia.

The second section examines the sociodemographic dimension of the integration of the foreign population in Catalonia, starting with the employment dimension which, given the strongly synoptic nature of this report, focuses on the evolution of jobs and employment figures. It also examines the economic dimension, considering poverty indicators from different sources both in terms of individuals according to their different population groups and from the perspective of the household as a whole. In the third section we have considered the family and household dimension, thanks to the availability of data from the 2011 Census. Fourthly, we have examined the main factors that reveal information on the educational dimension and finally we bring in the dimension of language knowledge which in our country is particularly significant in terms of the recognition of cultural integration, the ability to maintain intercultural relations and as a support for integration in the areas considered earlier.

Finally, as a new feature, we have added a section on the territorial dimension with three objectives: acknowledging the significant population diversity resulting from international immigration, and how this might be changing as a result of the economic crisis; making an initial estimate of the residential segregation of the main nationalities settled in Catalonia, which implies adopting an infra-municipal scale; and finally, gathering

3. Andreu Domingo and Jordi Bayona, Centre of Demographic Studies (CED).
information on the processes of neighbourhood concentration as an indicator of the conditions of appropriation of space that have an impact on the spatial assimilation, or lack thereof, of the immigrant population. This chapter closes with a section on conclusions.

2.1. The demographic context, 2008-2014

2.1.1. The evolution of migratory flows: recovery after the crisis?

Almost certainly, the most memorable factor of the last year in terms of migratory movements has been the timid recovery of international immigration, which, accompanied by a slight drop in emigration, had the effect of reducing the negative migration balance which in 2013, according to the Migration Survey (EM) of the INE, had reached 66,091 more departures than arrivals (figure 2.1).

Since 2009, this negative migration balance has been responsible for the loss of 210,324 foreign residents. In this drop in emigration, an important role could have been played by the simple depletion of returns which, so far, have represented the most significant volume of the whole period (89.9% of all movements abroad from the outbreak of the crisis until 2014 involved people born abroad). If we look at variations by place of origin and nationality of emigration flows, we should not overlook the increase in the emigration of people who have been naturalized as Spanish, along with the extraordinary boom in the number of naturalizations in 2013, as we shall see further on (almost tripling the number in 2012).

With regard to the slight increase in immigration, it is worth pointing out that according to the data from the Residential Variation Statistics (EVR) (the Migration Survey [EM] does not show an itemized national figure), this increase took place above all in the Latin American and European communities (figure 2.2). With regard to Latin America, there are two distinct groups: firstly, those from countries who were the last to arrive, just before the start of the crisis (for example: Honduras, Bolivia and Brazil), whose flows are now on the increase again; and secondly, new countries with a direct association with the Historical Memory Act or, which is one and the same thing, the Latin American countries where there was significant emigration from Spain in general and from Catalonia in particular during the period of 1939-1955, such as Venezuela and Mexico. Naturally the biggest volume from Venezuela is related to the progressive worsening of the country’s economic conditions, its lack of political stability and the political uncertainty in the country, circumstances which point to growth in these numbers in the future. With regard to Europeans, the increase has occurred in both European Union nationals, headed by Romanians, and non-EU nationals, with a particular increase in the number of Ukrainians (which could be related to the conflict between Ukraine and Russia) and Russians (due to other sociodemographic reasons).

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4. It should be noted that the Migration Survey is an estimate produced by the INE from the basic data of the Residential Variation Statistics to correct the apparent underestimation in emigration and the biases caused by the registration method in terms of both the final numbers and the shift in the schedule of this registry. This is why we use the Migration Survey.
2.1.2. Communities of resident foreigners and immigrants

With regard to the evolution of the immigrant population, the slight drop in numbers, the change in the hierarchy of origins, and the continuing heterogeneity of resident populations are the three most significant features of the recent period.

If we observe the evolution of the population of foreign nationality by major continental origin (figure 2.3) from the start of the economic crisis in 2008, the first point worth noting is that these communities continued to grow just after the start of the crisis: thus while in 2008 there were 1,103,533 foreigners registered, the following year this increased to 1,189,002. Despite the drop in migratory flows and the increase in emigration, the slowdown in the migratory dynamic only started to make itself clearly felt from 2011, reaching a total of 1,088,942 foreign residents in 2014, with a drop of 110,000 people since the peak of 2010. With regard to percentage breakdowns, the most significant variation was the drop in the number of Latin Americans, who in 2008 represented 30.4% of all foreign residents, with 335,677 people, which had dropped to 20.3% by 2014 with 221,041 residents.
Figure 2.2. Foreign arrivals in Catalonia by continental origin, 1996-2014


Figure 2.3. Evolution of the main origins of foreign residents in Catalonia, 2008-2014, by nationality

Source: prepared by the CED based on the Ongoing Population Census, using data IDESCAT.
This drop is not only the result of naturalizations and return emigration, but also of re-emigration. This fact has put Latin Americans, for the first time since the migratory boom, below other continental groups, such as 26.6% of citizens from other European Union countries (which in absolute numbers has increased by 7,680 people) or 21.8% of North Africans (who represent the biggest increase in absolute numbers, 19,416 people).

The population pyramids of the main origins by place of birth and nationality (see figure 2.4), as at 1 January 2014, offer an overview of the hugely heterogeneous spread of the populations that we are used to referring to generically much too lightly. In the first instance we have demographic diversity, which stems from different migratory strategies and timescales, related to the year of arrival and consequently the longevity of certain communities resulting from different migratory flows. However, there is also diversity promoted by jurisprudence, which is applied unequally in terms of different origins and unwittingly leads to these pyramids having singular demographic features.

In the first group, ‘demographic’ diversity per se is notable for the balance or imbalance between the sexes, such as the very notable masculinization of the Pakistan pyramid (74.9% men) or, in contrast, the feminization of the Bolivian community (59.6% women) which, in turn, contrast with the very balanced pyramids (such as the Chinese, which could be classified as family immigration, notable for the presence of several generations). Another figure worth noting is the proportion of minors born in Spain, which is very notable in the case of Moroccans (78.6% of children under the age of 15 were born in Spain) and the Chinese (76.6% born in Spain).

Apart from the demographic reasons that explain the structures strictly by age and gender, there are other differences caused by legislation. These differences can be seen in the significant number of naturalizations of immigrants of Ecuadorian origin (55% of Ecuadorian-born residents now have Spanish nationality) and the French community, which has the peculiarity of having a much older profile than other nationalities, a combination of the result of older Spanish emigrants and their descendents who were born in France, retired French migrants, a new young community and even a growing number of minors who were born in Spain. The positive discrimination in favour of taking Spanish nationality among the Latin American population means that over the years the high proportion of naturalizations that we have seen in the Ecuadorian pyramid is likely to be reflected in other Latin American nationals. Another legal distortion worth noting with regard to Ecuador and Bolivia is the notable absence in these groups of minors aged approximately over seven years old, which would correspond to the descendents of Ecuadorians or Bolivians born in Spain who, by default, are given Spanish nationality to prevent them from being stateless, as the laws of both countries do not currently recognize children born outside their territories. Although this peculiarity was modified, this absence is still perceptible because by having the status of Spanish nationals born in Spain, their bond with the original population group of their parents is invisible as far as statistical records are concerned. Meanwhile, another figure that stands out is the number of young girls born in China, which corresponds to international adoption processes. Finally, in the case of Italy it should be borne in mind that 47.3% of the Italians born outside Spain were not actually born in Italy, as a very significant percentage of them are actually Latin American in origin (57.9% of these Italians were born in Argentina; 14% in Uruguay and 5.4% in Venezuela, for example).
Figure 2.4. Population pyramids of the main nationalities resident in Catalonia in 2014 by nationality and place of birth

Source: prepared by the CED, based on the Ongoing Population Census of 2014, using data from IDESCAT.
2.1.3. The impact of births and naturalizations

With the drop in migratory flows, the number of births has taken on greater significance. This is not because of its action in offsetting the low birth rate in Spain but because today these births constitute (along with internal migration) the most important factor in the growth of certain population groups at different territorial levels. Basically, the evolution in births to a mother or father born abroad has varied according to the volume of the immigrant population, with a structure that, overall, was concentrated around the fertile ages of both women and men, and with a distribution by marital status favourable to childbirth. Thus apart from the drop in the number of couples susceptible to the economic constraints on the household that affect their immediate plans for having children, from 2010 there has been a progressive drop in the number of births in couples in which both members were born abroad, the influence of which had brought down the number of births overall. This effect is even more evident in the percentage of all births in which at least one of the parents is foreign, which reached a maximum of 33.7% in 2010 – coinciding with the maximum registered population – and the current minimum of 32.1%, which is back at the starting figure (see figure 2.5). The numbers of children born to foreign mothers and Spanish fathers, or conversely, Spanish mothers and foreign fathers, has remained fairly stable, although the percentage of total births where one of the parents was born abroad increased from 27.8% in 2008 to 36.1% in 2013.

Figure 2.5. Evolution of births according to parents’ origin, 2008-2013

Finally, it is worth mentioning the evolution of naturalizations. A glance at figure 2.6 shows that the most notable feature is the extraordinary increase in 2013: the 25,891 applications in 2012 grew threefold in 2013, amounting to 73,468. This anomaly needs to be put into the context of the bottleneck that had built up in previous years due to the
convergence of the increase in applications from people of Latin American origin – primarily responsible for the migratory boom – with people of other origins who had arrived earlier. This increase is also rooted in the reasons for seeking nationality, in terms of both the people who had completed 10 years or more of residency and the children of foreign nationals born in Spain, both of which helped to triple the naturalizations of the previous year. The return to much lower figures in 2014, however, echoes the new distribution of both origin (with a greater presence of non-Latin American non-EU foreigners) and the growing percentage represented by people with 10 years or more of residency or those born in Spain among the routes for seeking naturalization. Thus while up to 2012 the breakdown by access route corresponded to 64.8% with two years, 14.2% with ten years and 14.3% to births, in 2014 these percentages changed considerably in favour of the second two routes, with 47.7%, 25.8% and 19.6%, respectively.

Figure 2.6. Evolution of naturalizations in Catalonia by previous nationality and route to naturalization, 2008-2014

2.2. The sociodemographic dimension

2.2.1. The employment dimension: economic activity and employment

When taking stock of occupational integration over the last few years, we need to bear in mind the context defined by gender differences – in that men are more widely affected by unemployment – whereby while the workforce decreases for foreigners, generally due to emigration, unemployment figures increase very significantly when compared to the native population, with very big disparities depending on the origin of the immigrant population.
When talking about the active population of working age (see figure 2.7), the first thing that draws the eye is the disparity in the stated occupation between non-EU foreigners and EU foreigners, a fact that should hardly surprise us if we consider the contrasting age structure of these two populations, with a considerable proportion of the EU community not working. In terms of the difference between the sexes, despite the lower numbers of female than male workers, there is a notable trend towards growth in the female workforce from 2008 through to the first quarter of 2012 (rising from 237,000 to 257,500). Part of this increase is due to the so-called ‘add-on effect’ – i.e. women who before the crisis had not declared themselves as jobseekers and for family reasons – often due to the unemployment of their spouses, parents or children – decided to actively seek work. The most obvious example of this is among the working population of African women, whose employment rate rose between 2007 and 2014 from 34.3% to 53.3%. Unfortunately, this increase in women’s occupation in the workplace is almost directly reflected by a proportional increase in general unemployment. At the end of the day, as in the case of men, what prevails is a drop in the number of people actively employed due to the joint effect of emigration and naturalizations.

**Figure 2.7.** Quarterly evolution of the number of employed foreigners by gender and by whether they are members of the EU, in Catalonia, 2008-2015

Overall, this crisis has tended hit men harder than women in terms of unemployment (regardless of nationality), which is fairly distinct from other crises in which, traditionally, women have been the first to be expelled from the labour market. The key role of the real estate bubble (and hence the construction sector and other associated industries) partly explains this gender bias, while another part is explained by the continued demand for services in general, which is a strongly feminized sector, especially in the case of non-EU
foreign women dedicated to looking after the elderly, children and other domestic services, which may not have grown but has not decreased either, comparable to the business sectors where there is a concentration of male workers.

The evolution of unemployment is one of the indicators which, despite its apparent simplicity, provides more information on inequalities associated with gender and country of origin of the foreign population during this period. Analysing the differences between Spanish people and foreigners, and in this latter group between EU and non-EU nationals by gender (see figure 2.8), the differences are quite shocking: while unemployment in Spanish men fluctuated between 5.3% in the first quarter of 2008 to a maximum of 21.1% in the first quarter of 2013, non-EU foreigners started off with an employment figure that tripled that of Spanish nationals (15%) and ended up with a rate of over 50% by the first quarter of 2012. The situation in the last quarter of 2014 and the first quarter of 2015 seems to have stabilized for those with Spanish nationality, at a very high 17%, but the rate among the foreign-born non-EU population easily doubles this percentage, at 41.4%. The EU community (including Romanians, whose employment figures are much closer to the non-EU rate than that of EU nationals) is very much on the same level as that of Spanish nationals.

Figure 2.8. Evolution of unemployment rates by gender and nationality, Catalonia 2008-2015

These disparities, on a different scale, are repeated in the case of women’s unemployment: from an unemployment rate of 6.8% for Spanish women in the first quarter of 2008 (thus higher than the men’s rate), it reached a maximum of 20.6% in the first quarter of 2013. However, it is worth highlighting the fact that despite a drop in this percentage, in the last year this figure has ended up converging with the level of unemployment of Spanish men. The evolution of the figures for non-EU women has been
quite different: starting from a much higher rate (17% in the first quarter of 2008, higher than that of non-EU men), it reached a peak in the second quarter of 2013 with 42.2%. It is important to note that as time has passed in this period, the unemployment rate of non-EU women has always been lower than that of the men, with differences that can reach as much as 10%. The most recent data available for the first quarter of 2015 show that the unemployment rate of non-EU women is almost double that of Spanish women: 32.5% compared to 18.4% for Spanish women.

Looking at the evolution of unemployment just for the first three nationalities, compared to that of Spanish nationals (see figure 2.9) serves to highlight, on the one hand, the differences that can exist, regardless of numbers, between the different nationalities, and on the other the dramatic bias of the extremely high unemployment percentages towards immigrants from certain countries. In spite of the fact that there may have been mistakes in stated unemployment which has led to an overestimate of the number of unemployed people, and that possibly this unemployment does not actually signify the absence of income, there is no escaping the fact that levels of over half the population of working age are extremely worrying, even more so in the case of the Moroccans, which is the largest and most long-standing of all the communities resulting from international immigration.

**Figure 2.9. Evolution of unemployment rates in the population aged 16 to 64 in Catalonia, by main nationalities, 2004-2015**

Source: prepared by the CED based on the Labour Force Survey, using data from the INE.
2.2.2. The economic dimension

The vast majority of foreign immigrants join a labour market that has a significant duality. Once the crisis struck, this duality even further accentuated the disparities among the population of Catalonia as a result of nationality, which translates, as you can see in figure 2.10, to the differences in income between the Spanish population and the foreign population as a whole. Thus while in the former there was a slight drop in income from 2010, in the case of foreigners this income has always been much lower, fluctuating between 20% less in 2007 to almost 40% less in 2012.5

**Figure 2.10. Average annual income of the reference person by nationality, Catalonia, 2007-2012**

![Graph showing average annual income by nationality in Catalonia, 2007-2012.](image)

Source: prepared by the CED, based on the Living Conditions Survey, using data from IDESCAT.

This disparity and the downward trend have been accompanied, moreover, by a strong dualism marked by the growth in the lower income segments, which was particularly noteworthy in 2011 (figure 2.11). It should not surprise us, therefore, that the risk of poverty among the foreign population has shot up since 2011, reaching a figure of over 40% in contrast to the population with Spanish nationality (at around 15%) (figure 2.12).

Finally, there is the essential estimate from the perspective of the household. While individual unemployment is an essentially a labour issue, the lack of income in the family home is the manifestation of a very precarious situation that demands a very specific response, whether this is in relative or absolute figures. This fact is more than evident when referring to the Moroccan community, as almost 30% of households have nobody in work and nobody receiving any form of pension (figure 2.13), affecting 73,000 households and 270,000 people.

(See also expert note 5).

5. The fact that the registry changes in 2013 mean that the new series is not really comparable with the previous year led to the decision not to include this data.
2.2.3. The family and household dimension

The household structure of the immigrant population in general is affected by the migratory process itself. To be specific, and using data from the 2011 Census, it can be seen that migratory strategies and period of residence are possible reasons for the process of family desegregation due to selective returns caused by the economic crisis.

Figure 2.11. Households by net annual income and nationality, Catalonia, 2007-2012

![Households by net annual income and nationality](image)

Source: prepared by the CED, based on the Living Conditions Survey, using data from IDESCAT.

Figure 2.12. Population at risk of poverty, by nationality (aged 16+)

![Population at risk of poverty](image)

Source: prepared by the CED, based on the Living Conditions Survey, using data from IDESCAT.
The number of households with foreigners has increased at the same rate as the increase in the number of foreigners. Thus while in 2000 there were just 125,000 households with foreign members, representing just over 5.4% of the total households in Catalonia, by 2014 (according to the Continuous Household Survey) this number had tripled to 411,700 households, accounting for 14% of the total, and this was after reaching a peak in 2011 of 15.5% of all households (see figure 2.14). When compared to households in which there were no foreigners, the average number of people in the household was higher, at 3.25 in households with a foreigner compared to 2.41 in households with no foreigners; this difference, like other comparative data, is due more to the age structure of immigrant populations (younger) than birth figures or other peculiarities often attributed to the ‘culture’.

Indeed, the distribution by types of household does not differ in terms of the centrality of households comprising couples with or without children, which in the case of households with foreigners represents 36.3% and 20.1% respectively, while in the case of households without any foreigners these figures are 32.8% and 24.1%. The main differences can be found in the proportion of single-person households among the households of Spanish nationals, accounting for over one-quarter, while in households with foreigners these account for just 14.3%. As mentioned earlier, a large part of this difference can be attributed to elderly people who live alone. On the other hand, complex and multiple households with no core structure, which are a regular feature of migratory processes, are particularly over-represented in the foreign population.

How has the crisis affected the composition of households? The Continuous Household Survey of the INE allows us to make a comparison between the evolution of households in the last year, from 2013 to 2014, depending on whether the household contains foreigners.
Figure 2.14. Evolution in the number of households according to the presence of foreigners, Catalonia, 1996-2014


Figure 2.15. Breakdown of households according to type of family and presence of foreigners, Catalonia, 2011

Source: prepared by the CED, based on the Population and Housing Census of 2011 (INE).
or not (figure 2.15). The first realization is the drop in the number of households with foreigners, mainly due to their return and re-emigration and, in some cases, to naturalizations. This decline, from 36,200 households (8.8% of those in 2013), has affected nearly all the different types of household, the only exception being single-parent households, which grew by 5.8%, and can be interpreted as a product of selective emigration rather than the formation of new households. In contrast, and in spite of the crisis, in households without foreigners those formed by couples with or without children has continued to grow. While at one point, family regrouping represented a real challenge to the Catalan public administration, the case is now quite the opposite: an increase in households whose main characteristic is that they are the result of ‘de-grouping’ or family desegregation. Rather than the morphology per se, we need to be alert to the ratio of this reduced structure compared to previous years and the impact it might have on a worsening of the resources and living conditions of the immigrant population.

Figure 2.16. Evolution in the number of households according to type and presence of foreigners in absolute figures, Catalonia, 2013-2014

2.2.4. The educational dimension

The statistical records of young foreign students entail some serious problems. Disparate access to Spanish nationality causes the ‘disappearance’ of some students compared to others (a particularly important factor in certain nationalities, in which minors born in the country acquire Spanish nationality to avoid being left stateless), but it also makes it difficult to identify the up-and-coming second generation. This factor is becoming more and more notable as a large proportion of foreign students, especially the younger ones, were born in Catalonia.
After years of continuous growth in the number of foreign students, the economic crisis and the slowdown in new migratory flows and family regrouping processes has meant that this number stabilized and then subsequently dropped. The almost 160,000 students in the 2008-2009 academic years increased slightly to a maximum of 173,133 in 2012-2013, dropping to 163,139 in the most recent year, 2014-2015, a figure that would indicate that one in every eight students in Catalonia is foreign, a figure higher than the presence of foreigners in the country as a whole. The decline is due to various reasons that are difficult to quantify individually and affect different nationalities in different ways. On the one hand, children and young people of generations with more immigrants, those who arrived or regrouped during the migration boom, grow up and leave the compulsory education system due to their age. On the other, the low entry numbers due to migratory reasons do not make up for this drop in numbers. Finally, the crisis caused some students to return to their family’s country of origin, contributing to the drop in numbers. This dynamic is offset in the youngest age groups by the birth rates of certain communities.

**Figure 2.17. Evolution of foreign students in Catalonia by nationality groups in both general and special education from 2001-2002 to 2014-2015**

A large proportion of this drop is represented by students from South America (see figure 2.17), a figure that has declined continuously since the academic year of 2008-2009: over six years, students of these nationalities have declined by half, from around 60,000 to just over 30,000. This sharp drop is offset by the growth in the numbers of African and Asian students. Consequently, the composition of foreign students as a whole between the start of the crisis and the present has varied considerably: Latin American students have dropped from 40.9% to 24.4%, while Africans have risen from 30.2% to 40.9% and Asians from 8.6% to 14%.
Figure 2.18. Evolution of the proportion of foreign students according to educational level and category of school, 1999-2000 - 2014-2015

![Graph showing the evolution of the proportion of foreign students according to educational level and category of school from 1999-2000 to 2014-2015.]


Figure 2.19. Percentage of students who do not achieve a high school diploma in the final year of compulsory secondary education, 2012-2013 academic year

![Bar chart showing the percentage of students who do not achieve a high school diploma by region for the 2012-2013 academic year.]

Source: prepared by the CED, using data from the Ministry of Education of the Catalan Government.
This change in composition also depends on the stage reached in the education cycle, the youngest groups currently being the ones with the largest proportion of foreign students while these figures have dropped in other student groups. Thus a drop in foreign students in primary and secondary education has been observed while, in contrast, there has been a significant increase in pre-school education, the figures for other stages remaining more or less the same. This means that the proportion of foreign students according to educational stage is very diverse, ranging from 19.8% in special education to 14.3% in vocational training, 13.2% in compulsory secondary education, 13.1% in infant school and 11.6% in primary education. In this evolution it is noticeable how there has been a decline in the proportion of foreign students in compulsory secondary education (which had reached 18.1%) and in primary education (from 15.3%), while at the same time there has been consistent growth in their presence in infant education. These proportions experience strong variations when considering the type of school (figure 2.18), as the foreign student figures for public schools are ten percentage points higher in the early stages of the educational system.

The slowdown in new immigrant flows and the demographic dynamic of the foreign population also indicates strong growth in the number of foreign students who were born in Catalonia, especially among the youngest age groups. This percentage has tripled in compulsory secondary education (from 5.6% in 2008-2009 to 15% in 2014-15) and in primary education (from 16.2% to 55%), and accounts for a majority in infant schools (from 49% to 89%).

**Figure 2.20. Foreign population in Catalonia by age and level of knowledge of Catalan, 2011**

Source: prepared by the CED using data from the Population Census of 2011 (IDESCAT).
But apart from the actual numbers, what is a matter of concern is the educational success achieved by foreign students. Based on data from the 2012-2013 academic year on students who do not achieve a diploma in the final year of their compulsory secondary education, the rates for foreign students are three times higher than those of students with Spanish nationality (see figure 2.19). The differences between origins are also considerable, as Asian students do not achieve this diploma in 41.7% of cases, and Sub-Saharan students in 39.8% of cases. The percentages for North Africans and Latin Americans is around 30%, while the figure for Europeans is around 19%.

2.2.5. The linguistic dimension

The main factor in the level of knowledge of Catalan among the immigrant population is schooling: the language immersion system is the only way to guarantee knowledge of the Catalan language (although not necessarily its use). This factor can be appreciated easily in figure 2.20. Between the ages of 5 and 19, the percentage who understand the language is consistently over 90%, but this figure declines with age. This disparity in age groups increases in parallel to the degree of knowledge: thus, the claim of being able to read Catalan drops from 85% in the group aged 15-19 to 48.3% in the group aged 25-29, and the same thing happens with statements of knowing how to speak it or, to a much greater extent, being able to write it. This disparity goes from 80.4% to 28.4% for the same age groups in the first case,
and from 75.5% to 19.4% in the second. It should also be borne in mind that the source, the Population Census of 2011, which was based on self-declaration, may have overestimated the true levels of knowledge declared by the person surveyed.

If you look at the origins of the people surveyed, it can be seen that there are two complementary situations with regard to the importance of schooling (figure 2.21). Firstly, we need to consider the low proportion of knowledge of active forms of Catalan –i.e. knowing how to speak or write it, which are always below 50% - compared to the passive forms –i.e. understanding and being able to read it – which are always over 50%, the only exception being reading ability in the African and Asian populations. Secondly, we should highlight the situation of people of Asian origin, who are those who systematically have lower levels of knowledge in all the different forms of the language, very much below the rest, while almost half those surveyed said they do not understand Catalan.

Along with age and the type of residential settlement, the year of arrival plays a key role (figure 2.22). In this respect, it is worth noting firstly that the Catalan language knowledge of Spanish nationals who arrived during the first migratory wave (i.e. before the post-war years), apart from writing skills, is reasonably high. Secondly, it is worth mentioning once again the importance of the language normalization process of Catalan that was undertaken with the return to democracy, which raised the percentage of language knowledge of those who had arrived in the 1920s above that of the second migratory wave of the 1960s. Finally, with the post-1990 wave of immigrants – mainly international – these levels declined, though in this respect it must be noted that most international immigrants have arrived in the last 14 years.

Figure 2.22. Knowledge of Catalan according to year of arrival in Catalonia, 2011

Source: prepared by the CED using data from the Population Census of 2011 (IDESCAT).
Finally, in figure 2.23, we can see the evolution in three consecutive timescales corresponding to the start of the boom (2003), the peak period (2008), and the most recent period affected by the economic crisis (2014), with a lower number of new arrivals, as well as the departure of people who had spent considerable time in the country and some of their descendents who were born and schooled in Catalonia. All of this is distinguished by place of birth (born in Catalonia, in the rest of Spain or in the rest of the world). Interestingly, while among those born abroad the dropout levels between 2008 and 2014 consistently improved, there was a worsening in those born in the rest of Spain. Apart from the older generations, in which the active forms of Catalan knowledge decline, it is worth considering, on the one hand, that this group includes the children of Spaniards and the children of foreigners born in the rest of Spain who may not have been through the Catalan education system; and on the other, adults born in Spain who have only just arrived in Catalonia and do not yet use Catalan. The combination of these two circumstances would explain the backward step in knowledge of Catalan between 2008 and 2014 among those born in the rest of Spain, which might in principle appear to be counterintuitive.

Figure 2.23. Evolution of knowledge of Catalan according to place of birth, Catalonia, 2003-2008-2013


(See also expert note 7).
### 2.3. Territorial distribution

#### 2.3.1. The considerable diversity in the municipal dimension

The distribution of foreign residents in Catalan municipalities follows the general pattern of distribution for the country’s total population, with a particularly high concentration in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona, the coastal areas and the main county capitals. In the city of Barcelona, foreign residents account for around 273,000 people, very much higher than the next municipality on the list, l’Hospitalet de Llobregat, with 51,000 (figure 2.24), accounting for 25% of all the foreigners living in the country (and representing a higher figure than that of the population of Barcelona in Catalonia as a whole, which is 21.3%).

**Figure 2.24. Regional distribution of the foreign population in Catalonia, 2014**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Foreign population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Barcelona</td>
<td>273,121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Hospitalet de Llobregat, L'</td>
<td>51,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Badalona</td>
<td>29,437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Lleida</td>
<td>28,086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Terrassa</td>
<td>27,568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Santa Colona de Gramenet</td>
<td>24,434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Sabadell</td>
<td>22,968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Tarragona</td>
<td>22,379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Mataró</td>
<td>19,895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Girona</td>
<td>18,127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Reus</td>
<td>17,874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Lloret de Mar</td>
<td>14,785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Figueres</td>
<td>13,499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Cornellà de Llobregat</td>
<td>12,959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Manresa</td>
<td>12,542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Salt</td>
<td>12,185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Castelldefels</td>
<td>12,157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Sant Cugat del Valles</td>
<td>10,452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Vic</td>
<td>9,943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Granollers</td>
<td>9,217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Salou</td>
<td>9,172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Rubi</td>
<td>8,347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Sant Boi de Llobregat</td>
<td>7,860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Vilanova i la Geltrú</td>
<td>7,541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Cambrils</td>
<td>6,520</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: prepared by the CED based on the Ongoing Population Census of 2014, using data from IDESCAT.

This perspective varies quite considerably when considering their representation as part of the total inhabitants of a municipality. In this case, there are three areas with a representation higher than the average: the counties of the Empordà region, especially the coastal fringe; the plain of Lleida and, lastly, the municipalities of the Ebro Delta. In contrast, the counties of central Catalonia have the fewest foreign residents. In this context, the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona does not stand out above the Catalan average: even though the city of Barcelona and some of its neighbouring municipalities, such as l’Hospitalet de Llobregat and Santa Coloma de Gramenet, with 20.3% and 20.6% of foreign residents respectively, have percentages over the average, none of its municipalities number among the towns with the highest proportion of foreign residents.
in Catalonia (see figure 2.25). If, rather than considering the factor of nationality, as we have done so far (figure 2.25), we use the indicator of country of birth (table 2.1), the municipal percentages change: some municipalities, such as l’Hospitalet de Llobregat, grow significantly, given that although it has 20.3% of foreign residents, the number of immigrants comes to 26.2%. The reason for this is the high percentage of Latin Americans who have become naturalized and therefore do not appear on the records as foreigners. However, in other municipalities the use of the indicator of country of birth leads to a drop in numbers, this being the case of Guissona, for example (from 49.1% to 45.3%).

Figure 2.25. Proportion of foreign residents by municipality, Catalonia 2014

* This only considers towns with over 1,000 inhabitants.
Source: Prepared by the CED based on the Ongoing Population Census of 2014, using data from IDESCAT.

Table 2.1. Catalan municipalities with the biggest percentage of residents born abroad, 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Castelló d’Empúries</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>Sant Pere Pescador</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>Cadaqués</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>Figueres</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guissona</td>
<td>45.3</td>
<td>Jonquera, La</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>Escala, L’</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>Ampolla, L’</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lloret de Mar</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>Castell-Platja d’Aro</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>Perelló, El</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>Ulledecona</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salou</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>Ullà</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>Mont-roig del Camp</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>Mollerussa</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>Roses</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>Palau-saverdera</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>Torroella de Montgrí</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hospitalet de Llobregat, L’</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: prepared by the CED, based on the Ongoing Population Census of 2014, using data from IDESCAT.
Among the municipalities with the highest number of foreigners, diversity is at its maximum in terms of the main activity of the municipality, its geographical location and the composition of foreign residents. Guissona, in the county of Segarra, with a foreign population of 49.1%, is the Catalan town with the highest percentage of foreign residents. It is a municipality is dedicated to farming and is made up mainly by Romanians. The second municipality, Castelló d’Empúries in the county of Alt Empordà, has a foreign population of 48%, mainly Moroccans, and is increasingly dedicated to tourism. Salt, in the county of Gironès, with a foreign population of 40.5%, represents an urban municipality, primarily residential, with a high percentage of foreigners who have settled there because of its proximity to the city of Girona, mainly consisting of Moroccans.

Moroccans and Romanians, because of their wide regional dispersion, are among the nationalities with the highest presence in most Catalan municipalities (table 2.2). Even so, there is very considerable diversity in the six Catalan municipalities with the highest numbers of foreigners. Indeed, in these municipalities the biggest nationality group is not necessarily the same: in Barcelona it is Italians, in l’Hospitalet de Llobregat Bolivians, in Badalona Pakistanis, in Lleida Romanians, in Terrassa Moroccans and in Santa Coloma de Gramenet, Chinese. The economic activities of the municipality; whether it is urban or rural; the socioeconomic composition of foreign communities with the longest-standing residence, and migratory chains all go towards explaining the high diversity in municipalities witnessed in Catalonia.

The evolution in territorial distribution compared to that at the beginning of the economic crisis, during years when the overall number of foreign residents has hardly varied, points to the decline in the number of foreigners in a large number of municipalities in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona and the Catalan coast. However, there has been strong growth concentrated around Lleida, as well as in the municipalities of the county of La Selva and in some of Barcelona’s neighbouring towns, such Sant Cugat del Vallès, Santa Coloma de Gramenet and Badalona. The number of foreigners has grown in 399 municipalities, with 4,070 new foreign residents in Lleida, 2,206 in Figueres and 1,558 in Santa Coloma de Farners, these being the three municipalities with the highest absolute figures. At the other extreme, 481 municipalities have experienced a drop in numbers, most notably l’Hospitalet de Llobregat (-2,941), Reus (-2,752) and Granollers (-1,911). The reasons for this evolution can be found partly in the evolution of the different foreign populations and their irregular dispersal throughout the region. Naturalizations and selective returns of Latin Americans have caused a drop in their presence throughout the territory and are the main reason for the drop in the foreign population in most Catalan municipalities. On the other hand, Asian nationals have increased in a very localized way, not only in Barcelona and its neighbouring municipalities but also in Lleida. The number of Africans has also increased in Barcelona and its catchment area, the coastal towns of Tarragona and the Ebro Delta, and Lleida. Meanwhile, the number of European residents has grown in Barcelona and Sant Cugat del Vallès, in Lleida and its surrounding municipalities (in most cases these are EU nationals), as well as in Lloret de Mar (Russians), while their numbers have dropped in the Ebro Delta.
### Table 2.2: Ranking of the 35 Catalan municipalities with the most foreigners and the highest percentage of foreign population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Municipality</th>
<th>Foreign population</th>
<th>% foreigners</th>
<th>First nat.</th>
<th>Percentage foreigners</th>
<th>Foreign population</th>
<th>First nat.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Barcelona</td>
<td>273,121</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>3,350</td>
<td>Romania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Hospitalet de Llobregat, L’</td>
<td>51,410</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>5,503</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Badalona</td>
<td>29,437</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3,350</td>
<td>Romania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Lleida</td>
<td>28,086</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>12,185</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Tarrasa</td>
<td>27,568</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Santa Coloma de Gramenet</td>
<td>24,434</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>14,785</td>
<td>Russia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Guissona</td>
<td>3,350</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Castelló d’Empúries</td>
<td>5,503</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>9,172</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Salt</td>
<td>5,503</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>1,047</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Sant Pere Pescador</td>
<td>5,503</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>6,453</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Lloret de Mar</td>
<td>3,350</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>993</td>
<td>Romania</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>Salt</td>
<td>3,350</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>3,258</td>
<td>Russia</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Sant Pere Pescador</td>
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<td>Morocco</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>2,082</td>
<td>Romania</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>Salt</td>
<td>3,350</td>
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<td>Morocco</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>1,307</td>
<td>Romania</td>
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<td>38.3</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>13,499</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>Sant Pere Pescador</td>
<td>3,350</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>Germany</td>
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<td>17.</td>
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<td>38.3</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>2,701</td>
<td>Romania</td>
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<td>18.</td>
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<td>Morocco</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>3,540</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
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<td>19.</td>
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<td>38.3</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>999</td>
<td>Romania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Sant Pere Pescador</td>
<td>3,350</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>1,976</td>
<td>Romania</td>
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<td>21.</td>
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<td>38.3</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>Romania</td>
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<td>22.</td>
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<td>3,350</td>
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</table>

* Only municipalities with more than 1,000 inhabitants have been considered.

Source: prepared by the CED based on the Ongoing Population Census of 2014, using data from IDESCAT.
2.3.2. The infra-municipal perspective: the segregation of nationalities

On a more local scale, in relation to the census, the differences in distribution observed from the point of view of segregation (the irregular distribution of two population groups throughout the region), compared to the population of Spanish nationals and for the approximately 5,400 sections of the census into which Catalonia can be subdivided, are minimal when looking at foreigners as a whole. Between 2008 and 2014, the segregation value noted compared to the country as a whole barely varies (31.17 in 2008 and 30.43 in 2014), especially if we remember that between 2008 and 2009 it dropped to 30.49. Relative stability would be the best way of describing what has taken place in recent years (figure 2.26).

Figure 2.26. Evolution of the dissimilarity index for all the census sections of Catalonia, by continental groupings and by nationalities, 2008-2014

For continental groupings there has also been a decline which is particularly significant in the case of Asians (from 56.5 to 51.5). With regard to the levels observed, the maximum segregation can be found among the Asians, with little presence and a lot of concentration territorially, with figures over 50 on a scale of 0 to 100. The Africans consistently have figures of just under 50, being a more territorially-dispersed group as well as being more

6. The interpretation of this indicator, the dissimilarity index, indicates that around 50% of individuals would have to change their residence section in the census to make their distribution the same as the benchmark population.
numerous, although the inertia is towards a slow but constant dispersion. We then find the non-EU Europeans with figures of around 40, with a significant drop in levels of segregation in the last five years. EU Europeans and Americans are those with the lowest figures; in the former especially, due to the widespread dispersal of Romanians which offsets the greater metropolitan insertion of the other nationalities. In the latter case, a certain upswing in segregation can be observed, coinciding with the drop in numbers, but always remaining at very low levels, just above 30 on a scale of 0 to 100.

By nationality, the levels observed show a greater breadth in terms of results. The Pakistani community is the only one with high levels of segregation, despite a considerable drop of ten points (from 79 to 68.1), although there has also been a big drop in the Chinese population (from 56.6 to 50.5). With the exception of the Pakistanis, the other values move on a scale of between 45 and 55, with moderate segregation values that indicate, above all, the limited presence of certain nationalities in the territory. As a result of the crisis, but above all by the drop in the numbers of certain nationalities, some of these indicators have experienced a slight rise, not only for Latin American nationalities but especially in the population of EU nationals.

Table 2.3. Evolution of residential segregation in the 25 Catalan municipalities with the biggest populations, 2008-2014

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Source: prepared by the CED, based on the Ongoing Population Census of 2008 and 2014, using data from IDESCAT.
From a municipal perspective, most Catalan municipalities have experienced a drop in the figures obtained between 2008 and 2014 (table 2.3). This has occurred in figures that were already fairly low, usually below 40 and in many cases below 20, which indicates a very low segregation by nationality and, almost certainly, lower than other socioeconomic characteristics which might define the population. Badalona, with 39.6, is the city with the highest figures. In contrast, Castelldefels, with 15.9, is the municipality with the lowest figures. By continental groupings, Europeans, whether EU or non-EU, and Latin Americans tend to have very low segregation figures. On the other hand, these figures increase when it comes to Africans and Asians. The highest figures relate to Africans in Badalona, Tarragona and Mataró, while for Asians the highest figures are in Badalona and Santa Coloma de Gramenet. These maximums occur around 50 on a scale of 100 which, though significant in relation to other situations in Catalonia, are quite moderate when taken in a European context.

2.3.3. Territorial concentration

From the perspective of territorial concentration, the Catalan municipalities with an over-representation of foreigners are, as mentioned earlier, in the Empordà region, the Plain of Lleida and Terres de l’Ebre (figures 2.27 and 2.28). This distribution is the result of different settlements patterns by origin, with EU Europeans strongly present in the Empordà region and the county of La Selva (mainly French) as well as in the whole western area of the country, especially along the River Ebro, and in most of the counties in Lleida, due to the territorial dispersal of Romanians. Other Europeans follow a more widely dispersed pattern, with notable settlements of Russians in Salou and Lloret and their neighbouring towns, or Andorrans along the border with Andorra. In both cases, the city of Barcelona has percentages above the average.

In contrast to what we have seen, African residents stand out because they are the only group originating from a continent for which Barcelona has not become a municipality of concentration. Apart from their high territorial fragmentation, the areas of the highest concentration of African nationals are the counties of Tarragona and the Plain of Lleida. For their part, at a municipal level, Americans experience high levels of territorial concentration, contrasting with low levels of residential segregation in respect of the census. This distribution is the result of a strong concentration in the city of Barcelona and other metropolitan municipalities in addition to certain county capitals in the Pyrenees. Bolivians in La Cerdaña, Ecuadorians in Vallès Occidental and Colombians in Camp de Tarragona evince small differences in distribution with obvious over-representation in the city of Barcelona and in l’Hospitalet de Llobregat. Finally, Asian residents are particularly highly concentrated in the county of Barcelonès and only the cities of Tortosa and Olot and the odd isolated town have managed to reach high levels of concentration.
Figure 2.27. Location quotients of the foreign population in Catalonia, 2014, by continental aggregates

Source: prepared by the CED, Ongoing Population Census, 2014, using data from IDESCAT.
Figure 2.28. Location quotients of the foreign population in Catalonia, 2014, nationalities with the highest numbers

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<th>Between 0.95 and 1.05</th>
<th>Between 1.05 and 1.25</th>
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</table>

Source: prepared by the CED based on the Ongoing Population Census, 2014, using data from IDESCAT.

This concentration, however, is more visible in the centre of the big Catalan cities. Taking the four provincial capitals as a reference, in the case of Barcelona and its closest metropolitan municipalities (see figure 2.29), we can identify various areas of concentration. The first one to become established, and still the largest one, is in the historic quarter of Barcelona, particularly around the Raval neighbourhood. This concentration, which spread across the whole centre of Barcelona, gave rise to new areas of concentration in the neighbouring cities of l’Hospitalet de Llobregat (where we find Latin Americans and Africans) and Santa Coloma de Gramenet and Badalona, with a
majority of Asians. The districts of Les Planes, La Torrassa, Pubilla Cases, La Florida and Collblanc, in the case of the former, and those of Besòs, Fondo and La Salut, in the latter, are clear examples of this concentration.

**Figure 2.29. Location quotients of the foreign population in Barcelona and its neighbouring municipalities, 2013**

Source: prepared by the CED, Ongoing Population Census, 2013, using data from IDESCAT.

**Figure 2.30. Location quotients of the foreign population in Tarragona, Reus and their neighbouring municipalities, 2013**

Source: prepared by the CED, Ongoing Population Census, 2013, using data from IDESCAT.
Figure 2.31. Location quotients of the foreign population in Lleida and its neighbouring municipalities, 2013

Source: prepared by the CED, Ongoing Population Census, 2013, using data from IDESCAT.

Figure 2.32. Location quotients of the foreign population in Girona, Salt and neighbouring municipalities, 2013

Source: prepared by the CED, Ongoing Population Census, 2013, using data from IDESCAT.
In the metropolitan area of Tarragona-Reus (figure 2.30) we also find four cities with high numbers of foreign residents: Tarragona and Reus (16.9% and 17% of their populations respectively), plus the tourist municipalities of Salou (34%) and Cambrils (19.6%). In Tarragona, foreign immigrants do not occupy the city centre but rather the western neighbourhoods, along with the neighbourhood of Sant Salvador on the outskirts where there is a large concentration of Africans. In Reus, however, Romanians and Bulgarians have concentrated in the historic centre while the African community has not only settled in the centre but also in various other areas of the outskirts.

The city of Lleida, with 28,086 foreign residents making up 20.2% of its population, is the fourth biggest Catalan municipality in terms of the number of foreign residents. The neighbourhoods in the city centre have percentages way above the country’s average, especially the old historic quarter, with one of the biggest concentrations in Catalonia. In sections of the neighbourhoods of Ferran-Estació, Instituts-Templers and Universitat foreign residents make up over 40% of the population, with Moroccans, Romanians and Algerians being the main nationalities (figure 2.31).

Finally, in the case of Girona (figure 2.32), the figure of 18.6% of foreign residents compares with 40.5% in the neighbouring town of Salt, where international immigrants have concentrated. In some sections of the neighbourhood of Santa Eugènia, on the outskirts of Salt, the foreign resident population is over 40%, similar to that of Salt itself, which is the case in six of the 15 sections into which the municipality is divided. In these concentrations the most populous group is Moroccans, although compared to other Catalan towns there is also a strong representation of Sub-Saharans (mainly from Gambia and Mali) in Salt and Hondurans in Girona.

2.4. Conclusions

Before summing up the main features of the demographic context of the foreign population, it is worth reiterating the added uncertainty that unclear statistics bring to a situation that the crisis has already made difficult to interpret, especially with regard to future trends. This initial difficulty relates to the divergence between the statistical data on residential variations and the estimates made by the INE in its migration survey. The problem is further exacerbated by not having the same disaggregated information in both statistical sources, which forces us to use sources which, though essentially reflecting the same statistical registry, throw up a very disparate image. Apart from this initial discrepancy, it is necessary to note the serious shortcomings which in these times of crisis have had a profoundly negative impact on knowledge, such as the restrictions placed on territorial analysis which made the 2011 census a mere sampling exercise, or the non-availability of figures on intramunicipal movements, for example.

The diversity and mutability of structures by age and gender of the foreign population resident in Catalonia are phenomena that, from the outset, warn us of the risk of generalizing the results that may be found for the different dimensions considered in each nationality, or even the regions in which they should act. The discrepancies observed in the sociodemographic profiles by age and gender translate into specific demands and needs throughout the territory and in the networks of sociability and interaction with the native population, with the potential of being very varied.
While there has been a substantial improvement in the employment and economic indicators during the past year, the data available do not allow us to assume that this improvement has been extended to the foreign population resident in Catalonia. The duality of the labour market and the concentration of the foreign population in the sectors that have been most harshly affected by the crisis, characterized by blue-collar work, especially in the case of men, have defined the worrying evolution of unemployment figures. Even while accepting that the unemployment rate in the foreign population is more likely to be higher, especially in view of the additional effect of women declaring themselves as jobseekers, their convergence on the job market at younger ages than the native population, and their integration in the underground economy, the situation, especially in the case of certain nationalities, calls for special attention. This is particularly the case when these same nationalities are showing the worst results in other indicators used, such as the number of households in which every member of working age is unemployed and without any other form of income. The fact that it always seems to be the same nationalities with the worst labour and economic integration indicators makes us suspect that apart from the unequal human resources factors that undoubtedly have an effect, there may be a process of segmented integration that is worsened by the economic crisis. On the other hand, continuing with the household dimension, at times of crisis –which was also the case with the upward economic cycle – these structures are strongly determined by migratory strategies, starting with their reduction in size as a result of emigration and part of the common trend to concentrate—in the same way as native households—into structures dominated by couples with or without children.

In relation to the school dimension, the presence of foreign students is determined by the structure of the school-age population itself in terms of the birth rate and immigration in recent years as well as emigration during the years of the crisis. The fact of obtaining Spanish nationality, especially for students who were born in Spain, which ends up making them ‘invisible’ on statistical records—but not to classroom demands—and which is noticeable above all in the apparent drop in Latin American students—but without determining what proportion is due to naturalizations and what to emigration. What is of much more concern is the indirect effect on school drop-out figures shown by the percentage of students who failed to obtain their high school certificate for the 2012-2013 academic year. This result will almost certainly have knock-on consequences on the social and cultural integration of these children. Finally, the level of knowledge of Catalan depends entirely on the linguistic immersion system. Integration in the educational system is a guarantee of language knowledge. The spatial integration of the population will have a considerable effect on language knowledge if we consider the most negative results of those origins that are characterized by extreme segregation and concentration in both residential and occupational terms, such as, in general, the Asian community.

Finally, with regard territorial dimension, the levels of concentration and segregation of the foreign population in Catalonia is moderate — and tending to diminish— when compared both with other European situations as with the Spanish average. Far from the dramatic emphasis that the media and the popular imagination sometimes put on so-called ghettoization, the growth and dispersal of the foreign population in the territory during the period just before the economic crisis, and its emigration rates since that crisis, have tended to reduce the effect of any such
concentration for the vast majority of the nationalities in question. The territorial atomization of marginality, or what in terms of space we could call the territorial fragmentation of poverty crossed with the different nationalities, must be given special treatment.

The crisis, and with it the reduction in migratory flows, should not be viewed as a halt in the demographic and territorial dynamic of the foreign population in Catalonia, but quite the opposite. On the one hand, immigration, even though it has declined, along with selective and unequal emigration – people who are still immigrants are not the same as those who emigrate – together with the importance that could be attributed to vegetative growth and internal and intra-municipal mobility, could be reconfiguring the presence of the foreign population in the territory. On the other hand, changes in the distribution of the population by nationalities could give rise to processes of polarization and diversification that were once non-existent or at least had gone unnoticed.
In the last few years, the Directorate General for Immigration (DGI) has implemented, in coordination with the different Catalan governmental departments, a series of actions designed to strengthen and consolidate the policy directives of the Government of Catalonia on the subject of immigration. At the same time, work has been undertaken in partnership with local administrations and with social organizations, with the objective of strengthening coexistence throughout the entire Catalan territory. Within its current framework of competence, and given the importance of this subject, the Directorate General for Immigration (DGI) has made particular progress in its programmes for managing the integration of people of foreign origin who live in Catalonia.

According to the Statute of Autonomy of Catalonia, the powers of the Catalan Government on immigration were determined as covering the following aspects:

- exclusive powers over the initial reception process, including social, healthcare and guidance services;
- the development of an integration policy within the framework of its powers;
- the establishment and regulation of the measures necessary to facilitate the social and economic integration of immigrants and their social participation;
- the establishment of a legal framework of reference for immigrant reception and integration;
- the promotion and integration of returnees and the provision of assistance for them, and the promotion of policies and the relevant measures to facilitate their return to Catalonia;
- executive powers in relation to work permits for foreigners working in Catalonia;
- participation in State decisions on immigration that have a particular impact on Catalonia, particularly with regard to mandatory participation in determining the contingent of foreign workers.

And specifically, the Catalan Government shall intervene in the following procedures:

- family regrouping: reporting on the suitability of housing (inf01);
- social stability: determining the level of social integration of the foreign person (inf02);
- procedures to authorize residence permits or the renewal thereof: reporting, where necessary, on possible impacts on public order (inf03 on the integration effort and inf04 on the suitability of housing, both of which are associated with the renewal of residence permits);
• nationality by residence, given that the Catalan Government can issue reports accrediting the social integration of those seeking naturalization.

Without wishing to be exhaustive, the following list details the main actions undertaken by the DGI which form the basic core of immigration management in Catalonia.


One of the most important instruments available to the DGI is the Citizenship and Immigration Plan: horizon 2016 (PCM). This plan responds to the four-year schedule that the Catalan Government gives itself to develop the working tools (based on the National Immigration Plan) and instruments to develop its migration policy. The PCM is a continuation of the different plans which, since 1993, have allowed the Catalan Government to define its immigration policy within its framework of powers. It also provides a cross-cutting approach to the management of the immigration phenomenon, in which numerous departments in the Catalan Government are involved, and response to a determination for consensus that emerged with the National Pact for Immigration of 2008 and its Consensus Document of 2012.

The principles on which the PCM is based, in accordance with those detailed in the National Pact for Immigration, aims to provide a contextual framework for interventions in managing a phenomenon which, due to its characteristics, varies in relation to the socioeconomic, political and international context at any given time. Despite the fact that the immigration situation in Catalonia has changed over the last few years, the fundamental principles remain in place as a continuous thread which, furthermore, define the Catalan model of integration. The principles that determine the actions of the Catalan Government in relation to its immigration and integration policy are as follows:

• to guarantee respect for and the provision of human rights;
• to guarantee coexistence and social cohesion in Catalonia;
• to ensure that society as a whole enjoys equal rights and respect for duties;
• to guarantee a citizenship based on pluralism, equality and public spiritedness as a standard for coexistence;
• to promote autonomy and equal opportunities in order to foster effective equality, doing away with arbitrary conditions or circumstances;
• to universalize the right of access to services, this being understood as the access of every individual to a series of resources, facilities, projects and programmes;
• to standardize; in other words to avoid parallel structures that might lead to the segregation of the holders of the right to access these services;
• to accept different approaches or specialisms in these services in view of the heterogeneous nature of individuals according to the criteria of age, origin, gender,
skills or educational qualifications;
• to incorporate the gender perspective throughout the whole process, especially as a tool for analysis and planning;
• to incorporate the fight against racism and xenophobia in all the actions of signatories to the National Pact for Immigration;
• to adapt the proposed measures to the territorial heterogeneity of Catalonia;
• to guarantee the implementation of actions through the provision of resources;
• to monitor and evaluate them.

The PCM has thus become a road map for monitoring the development of the agreements in the National Pact for Immigration while at the same time articulating the relations of the Directorate General for Immigration with the other departments in the Catalan Government (Interdepartmental Committee on Immigration); local authorities (Mixed Government-Local Entities Council); and civil society organizations (Citizenship and Immigration Committee).

Cross-cutting, consensus, intergovernmental coordination, inter-administrative cooperation and dialogue with civil society have thus become consolidated as the main features of the Catalan Government’s immigration management. This management no longer focuses only on the initial reception of immigrants but now targets integration and participation in Catalan society as its key cornerstones.

3.2. Regulation of the Reception Law

Regulatory development entails structuring and detailing the different services and programmes covered by the Reception Law with the aim of promoting autonomy and equal opportunities among the country’s citizens irrespective of their national origins. The passing of the Reception Law in November 2014 regulated interventions in areas such as the knowledge of official languages, the modus operandi of the host society and its legal and labour framework.

With regard to the initial reception service, it sets out the content and methodology of the educational sessions offered to new immigrants. Based on three modules (basic Catalan and Spanish language skills; employment skills and knowledge of Catalan society and its legal framework), a training package was put together to facilitate the inclusion of immigrants of foreign origin into Catalan society. The Regulation also sets forth the specialist reception services, mainly those associated with temporary seasonal work in the agricultural sector and the return of emigrants.

In relation to the immigration reports issued by the DGI, the Regulation also describes their purpose and characteristics.

3.3. International Protection Plan of Catalonia

In early 2014, the Catalan Government approved the International Protection Plan for Catalonia, an initiative that sums up the Government’s position in relation to the right to asylum, shelter and subsidiary protection.
People who have international protection (asylum-seekers or those with asylum or subsidiary protection status) and live in Catalonia are already subject to special attention from the Catalan Government and especially the social organizations and local councils where they live.

The objective of this Plan is to define a strategic framework for action in the sphere of the right to asylum, shelter and subsidiary protection of people being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political views, membership of a certain social group, gender or sexual orientation. In the context of its powers, the Catalan Government, through this Plan, is committed to working in coordination with local organizations and authorities and to raising awareness in relation to the issues of asylum and shelter.

### 3.4. Plan for International Mobility

The Plan for International Mobility (PMI) aims to establish the strategic lines and coordinate the actions and programmes of the Catalan Government directed at emigrants. In a context of a growing number of Catalan citizens officially registered as living abroad, this is the first time that this key factor for developing a comprehensive migration policy that includes Catalan residents abroad has been addressed.

The Plan is based on five main cornerstones which range from access to information to promoting people’s return to Catalonia, including the coordination of services that might affect the emigrant population.

- Cornerstone 1. Promoting a legal framework on the subject of international mobility.
- Cornerstone 2. Facilitating information and guidance on international mobility.
- Cornerstone 3. Fostering and deepening ties abroad.
- Cornerstone 4. Promoting a return to Catalonia.
- Cornerstone 5. An informative and coordinated platform in support of mobility.

The Plan thus offers a complete overview of mobility in Catalonia and facilitates cross-cutting work between the different departments of the Catalan Government as well as between different social agents.

### 3.5. Other activities

The DGI has continued to develop and participate in various actions that seek to facilitate the autonomy and normalization of the living conditions of immigrants in different aspects. In this respect, it is important to note the consolidation over the last few years of programmes dedicated especially to the literacy of the adult population (Lletres per a tothom); to facilitating inclusion in the labour market of regrouped families and other people in a vulnerable situation; and providing support for the official approval of qualifications, amongst other actions.

Meanwhile, work has also continued within the framework protocol for actions to prevent female genital mutilation to promote information and awareness-raising and monitor high-risk cases. Finally, it should be noted that the DGI is continuing to roll out the Voluntary Returns Programme.
The combination of all these actions make up a framework of action on immigration that seeks to be comprehensive and works to strengthen a cross-cutting approach internally and cooperation and dialogue with other administrations and civil society organizations.

Expert Note 1

The legal framework of the Catalan Government’s policies on the integration of immigrants
Markus González Beilfuss, associate professor of Constitutional Law, University of Barcelona

Introduction

The Government of Catalonia has been rolling out policies for several years that aim to encourage the integration of immigrants. Most of these policies have entailed the promotion and subsidy of the actions of public administrations and private entities. But the government has also passed legislation (laws and regulations) whose express intent is to foster the integration of this collective in Catalan society. Some of the strategic plans passed in the last few years have even spoken of the ‘Catalan model of integration’. In the legal sphere, the most important instruments to have been passed thus far, as we all know, are the Reception Law and Regulation, the regulation of the different immigration reports, and access to the public health service for immigrants in an irregular situation. All these regulations have a direct impact on the integration of immigrants and highlight the aspects that the Government believes are most important to achieve this integration.

This note aims to offer a general evaluation of these regulations rather than a specific analysis of their content. Obviously this has been taken into consideration, but the emphasis is not on the details but rather the more general aspects of this legal framework in the context of the integration that forms their basis. Any evaluation of the Catalan laws passed in the last few years needs to begin with some preliminary considerations of the competences of the Catalan Government as well as the situation of other autonomous communities in Spain and the role that has been attributed to Catalan municipalities with regard to the integration of immigrants.

The framework of powers of the Catalan Government’s integration policies

The Catalan Government started developing integration policies from the moment the arrival of foreign immigrants became a reality. However, as we know, it was not until 2006 that the new Statute of Autonomy expressly assigned the government certain powers with regard to the integration of immigrants. In contrast to most of the other autonomous communities, which do not have recognized powers in this respect, the Catalan Government is, in effect, the competent authority for the initial reception, developing the immigrant integration policy, establishing and regulating the necessary measures for the social and economic integration of immigrants and establishing a framework of reference for their reception and integration (Article 138 EAC).

These powers have not been changed in recent years, nor have they been directly affected by the Constitutional Court Ruling of 2010 on the new Statute of Autonomy. Nevertheless, their specific scope and, above all, their demarcation with respect to the Spanish State’s
authority on immigration, aliens and asylum (Article 149.1.2 of the Spanish Constitution (CE)) remain undefined. This is also the case among the few autonomous communities (Valencian Community, Andalusia, Castile & Leon and Extremadura) that have assumed express powers in relation to the integration of immigrants. Moreover, in most cases the powers of these autonomous communities is limited to a general reference to the integration of immigrants without any specific details. Whatever the case, the first factor that needs to be highlighted in the legal framework of the Catalan Government’s integration policies is that there has never been a clear definition of what their responsibilities are in this sphere or which responsibilities are still in the hands of the State government.

The new Statute of Autonomy could have brought to bear some important changes on this issue. But the terms used in the new Article 138 EAC and the reference, in some cases, to the ‘framework of competences of the Catalan Government’ have essentially entailed few changes to the previous situation. In any event, it must be emphasized that the jurisprudence of the Constitutional Court in recent years has also failed to clarify the scope of the powers belonging to the Catalan Government and the Spanish State. Indeed, even though in two recent rulings (SSTC 227/2012 of 29 November 2012 and 26/2013 of 31 January 2013) this Court examined whether the State was duly empowered to issue State subsidies for innovative municipal programmes in the sphere of integration, and overruled them as infringing the competences of the Catalan Government, none of these rulings actually specified the competential scope of the initial reception and social integration of immigrants. Indeed, the Court considered that the Catalan Government’s powers had been infringed in the matter of social care, which had already been recognized by the Statute of 1979. Consequently, the lack of any defined powers still continues even 10 years on from the time the new Statute went into effect.

This fact does not, however, seem to have influenced the actions of either the Catalan Government nor the Spanish State. As in other spheres, the two territorial bodies have acted whenever they have deemed it opportune, without any kind of accurate analysis in advance of the scope of their respective powers. In the case of the Spanish State, their subsidy policies have not taken into account, in general, the limits on their competences deriving from the Constitutional Court’s case law. Meanwhile, the Catalan Government has also been quick to intervene in spheres where it has few acknowledged powers. This fact has, in some cases, led to instruments being passed with an actual content that is far less ambitious than what might have been assumed initially. Although it does not have any legislative effect, a good example of this is the International Protection Plan of Catalonia, which was passed in 2014. The novel nature of this Plan, and not just in Catalonia but in all the other autonomous communities, should not make us lose sight of the fact that the Catalan Government does not have any direct powers with regard to international protection. For this reason, the main purpose of the measures outlined in the Plan is to inform, educate and raise awareness about this phenomenon and promote the actions and measures that should be taken by the competent bodies at both a State and European Union level. In short, until the fourth additional provision of the Asylum and International Protection Law is enacted, it is difficult to believe that any strategic plan can envisage the specific measures that will have a direct influence on the integration of those seeking international protection.

With regard to the role of Catalan municipalities, it should be noted that the existence of express autonomous powers in relation to the social integration of immigrants has not impeded local bodies from acting in this sphere and exercising their own competences. Indeed, the greater proximity of local authorities to the reality of immigration has forced them to work on this issue right from the outset. However, with regard to the legal framework of integration, the key player has naturally always been the Government of Catalonia. Even so, the importance of the local factor has led the Catalan Government to seek the collaboration of its municipalities
The general features of legislation on the integration of immigrants

Leaving aside the subject of access to healthcare (which will be considered later), the legislation passed by the Catalan Government for the express purpose of promoting the integration of immigrants have been the Law and Decree on Reception1 and the instructions of the Directorate General for Immigration containing the general criteria for drawing up the foreigners’ reports envisaged in State Law.2 Although these are different legal instruments and refer to various issues (the initial reception in the first case, and the certification of various aspects associated with immigrant integration in the second), in the first it should be noted that its regulation attributes a crucial role to language learning in general and Catalan in particular. Indeed, the belief that language is an essential factor in social insertion and cohesion plays a clearly predominant role in this regulation, to the point that other important aspects for integration such as citizen participation, sharing democratic values and equal opportunities are relegated to a secondary position. In the legal sphere, the idea of integration in a common public culture as reflected in the National Pact for Immigration of 2008 has thus been primarily associated with learning languages to the detriment of other integration indicators.

Thus in the case of the initial reception of immigrants, from the age of compulsory education, the predominance of language learning over training in the world of work or learning about Catalan society is clear; not so much in terms of the length of time but because language learning must be accredited in terms of participation and results, something that is not the case with other types of training. In turn, as part of language learning it should be noted that Catalan is the only vehicular language of reception, and that only the Catalan models of teaching are used to partially transmit the teaching content on the world of work and knowledge about Catalan society. The Constitutional Court has not yet ruled on the appeal lodged by the Ombudsman in relation to the first matter, but in view of the most recent constitutional case law we cannot rule out the possibility of the appeal being upheld.

The predominance of language learning in the concept of social integration that inspired the regulation of the Catalan Government is also a feature of the regulation on foreigners’ reports. As in the case of the initial reception service, the concept of integration is based mainly on achieving certain language skills which must be accredited in different ways, and not so much on knowledge of and respect for certain values, which are assumed to be acquired by attending a series of courses and activities. Indeed, almost total lack of knowledge of the language is easily the main reason for unfavourable reports, as shown by the statistics for the reports on settlement and integration efforts.

A second aspect of the Catalan regulation on the social integration of immigrants that should be highlighted refers to the problems arising from a model based on education. Indeed, the difficulty of measuring integration in terms of results has led to both State and Catalan law
attributing a great deal of importance to the attendance of courses or training sessions, amongst other factors. In the cases of both the initial reception and foreigners’ reports, the experience of the last few years has underlined the need to come up with specific rules for people with special difficulties who are unable to attend or regularly follow these activities. As in the case of foreigners’ reports, the reality has highlighted the fact that integration models based on education throw up problems of implementation and accreditation which call for special solutions that in some cases can lead to absolute exceptions being accepted in the system; in other words, certain people are completely exonerated from this requirement. Whatever the case, it should be pointed out that the Catalan Government has recognized this issue and has made the original regulation more flexible to address this problem.

An analysis of the most important features of the Catalan law on the integration of immigrants should not conclude without making a brief reference to two issues that are not common to the regulation on initial reception and on foreigners’ reports, but which should be mentioned.

Firstly, with regard to the initial reception system, it should be noted that this is still at an early stage of being rolled out. Its progressive implementation, which in the case of the initial reception service should be completed by June 2016, and the fact that the Decree of 2014 leaves not a few questions open when it refers to the ‘progressive adaptation’, that it ‘may be possible’ or ‘necessary’ or, in some cases, ‘to budgetary availability’, underline the fact that the reception system is still incomplete even though this is an issue that was supposed to be prioritized in the new Statute of Autonomy that went into effect in 2006.

Secondly, with regard to the foreigners’ reports, it should be noted that the regulation of the criteria that should be used to issue all these reports may, in some cases, give rise to the problem of double corroboration. In some cases, indeed, the instructions of the Catalan Government indicate that local entities should issue unfavourable reports when certain requirements are not complied with when these should be evaluated by the State foreigners’ administration. This is the case, for example, with regard to permission to stay in Spanish territory, livelihood and family ties in the case of social integration, or the requirement to be able to request a housing suitability report in the case of family regrouping. At present, the high percentage of favourable reports issued by the Catalan Government seems to refute this double corroboration being a source of problems. Yet from a legislative point of view, it would be desirable to have a more appropriate regulation in place from a competential perspective which would rule out any possible disparity of criteria between the Catalan administrations and the State administration.

Access to healthcare by immigrants in an irregular situation

One last issue in the legislative framework of integration policies that needs to be examined is that of the healthcare of immigrants in an irregular situation. As we know, in 2012 the State government changed the concept of beneficiaries covered by the National Health System and excluded this particular collective from the right to free health care with certain exceptions: minors, emergency treatment due to serious illness or accident, pregnancy, labour and post-partum care, international asylum seekers and victims of human trafficking.

Given the circumstances, the Catalan Health Service quickly passed Instruction 10/2012, of 30 August 2012, to give access to public healthcare to foreigners registered with their local council in Catalonia but excluded from the National Health System. Very recently, the Catalan Health Service passed a new Instruction (8/2015, of 22 July 2015) which modified the levels of healthcare to which this collective was entitled. Whatever the case, the system designed by the Catalan Government is neither universal nor automatic, but entails
requesting access to healthcare whenever certain requirements are fulfilled: proof that the person is excluded from the National Health System, that they have been registered continuously and immediately before this request in Catalonia, and that their income is below the basic income for social inclusion and protection.

What has recently been modified are the levels of healthcare to which the person is entitled if they fulfil the abovementioned requirements. The Instruction of 2012 envisaged an initial level of healthcare to which the person is entitled if they have been registered with their local council for at least three years, which provided access to emergency care, health programmes of interest and primary healthcare. To get access to the second level of healthcare, which included specialist care, one year of registration on the census was required. Only exceptionally, and in extremely serious cases and imperative need, could direct access be granted to specialist care, with the approval of a series of committees. The complex nature of this procedure led to the reform of certain aspects in 2013. However, the recently-passed Instruction 8/2015 has made swingeing changes to the levels of healthcare. On the one hand, at present the person can get access to the first level of healthcare from the moment they are registered on the census, while to get access to the second level they need to have been on the census for three months. This means that access to the system has been greatly simplified and the process is almost automatic. However, the content of this healthcare is still not 100%; at the first level, the person has access to emergency care and health programmes of interest, while it is only at the second level that they have the right to primary healthcare, specialist care, psychiatric and mental healthcare, amongst others.

In short, although from a competential perspective the instructions of the Catalan Health Service are in conflict with State law (like those of many other autonomous communities), the measures adopted by the Catalan Government have counteracted the State government’s decision to exclude immigrants from access to healthcare. It is worth mentioning, however, that the system followed has not guaranteed universal healthcare to everyone excluded from the National Health System, nor is it exempt from certain implementation problems associated mainly with the accreditation of certain requirements and shortfalls in information and coordination. The recently-approved reform will facilitate access to the System while making the provision of healthcare more consistent and broader in scope. Nevertheless, there are still two levels of care and it does not avoid the problem of having to accredit a series of requirements in order to access the System. Whatever the case, as has been highlighted in the last few weeks, the problems of getting access to healthcare by immigrants in an irregular situation stems from a decision by the State government that has proved to be inefficient and negative in every aspect, and indeed the central government has announced that it intends to change it.

Conclusions

The lack of a proper definition of powers on the integration of immigrants continues to be quite notable and has caused, and will continue to cause, a high level of regional conflict and frequent legal challenges. But some of these issues should be clear: on the one hand, that the powers of the Catalan Government in this sphere are legislative and not just executive; on the other, that these are powers that do not displace the State’s powers in areas such as education, health and Social Security that the Constitution attributes to the State government; and finally, that the State’s exclusive competences in relation to immigration and foreigners (Article 149.1.2 CE) do not constitute sweeping powers that entitle it to act in every case apart from the entry and residence of foreigners.

In the future, it would be desirable to have clearer rules that would allow a safer and more
predictable exercise of powers, hence removing them from this constant conflict of competences. But until such time as we have constitutional or statutory reform, this task of clarification can only be carried out by the Constitutional Court which so far has avoided specifying the scope of Article 138 of the new Statute.

1. Law 10/2010, of 7 May 2010, on the reception of immigrants and returnees to Catalonia, and Decree 150/2014, of 18 November 2014, on reception services.
In Catalonia, integration has been defined using the guidelines laid out for the European area as a two-way process: ‘based on respect and the will of immigrants to adapt to the society that receives them, and of this society likewise to offer respect and the will to accept diversity’.  

The following chapter intends to approach the reality of integration in Catalonia using this dual dynamic. On the one hand, a population group that incorporates itself into a society with pre-established rules and regulations; and on the other, the same society adapting in response to the new realities shaping it. The indicators chosen, following the guidelines proposed by the European Commission and the Council of Europe, wish to explore how far pre-existing structures can absorb the new diversity of Catalonia’s resident population, and to what extent the patterns of incorporation of this new population of foreign extraction resemble that of the native population.

4.1. Some thoughts on integration

Managing diversity is one of the major challenges facing today’s democratic societies. For many countries, diversity has become one of the main issues on the political agenda linked to the phenomenon of migration. Although immigration is clearly a key factor in diversity, it is no less true that it is not the only one, and that the challenges of managing diversity cannot only be applied to the phenomenon of migration (amongst other reasons because linguistic diversity, for example, is a reality which predates immigration in many countries). This last statement might seem obvious, but is important to flag up the principles that shape the management of diversity, to be able not only to identify the correct objectives but also the right diagnostics and instruments for achieving them.

Integration is the concept used to describe the social, political, cultural and economic processes that result from immigrants arriving in a new society (Martiniello, 2006). It is a hotly debated concept in academic circles, where there is no consensus on the definition of integration. But integration is also a regulatory category insofar as it defines the situation in which immigrants should find themselves when arriving in a new country. On this point, once again, there is no consensus possible, because every member state has its own integration model, forged over the course of the years and their own migratory history.

The integration of the immigrant population has been, for many years, one of the key
issues for migratory policies, both in our case and for all other European countries. In many cases, and depending on the migratory history of each territory, concerns about integration are extended to people who are naturalized or nationals of foreign origin. The integration of immigrants has become a challenge for the whole of Europe and is also a priority of the European Union, because constructing cohesive and inclusive societies implies not allowing national origins to impact in any way upon the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of a territory’s resident population.

On the other hand, and although it may seem obvious, it needs to be understood exactly what is meant by the term integration and the target group for immigration policies. In this respect, and as outlined in the second chapter which refers to the conceptual framework and powers of the Catalan Government, it is important to note that not everybody coming from abroad belongs to the target group referred to when speaking about integration (for example, in general terms, it excludes residents with EC nationality), and on many occasions these actions are aimed at groups who have not migrated from abroad (sons and daughters of immigrants).

In this respect, measuring the impact of social phenomena on coexistence and social cohesion is always a complex task. This exercise is particularly complicated when it comes to evaluating the integration of immigrants into the host society, because it actually implies evaluating two social processes. On the one hand, that of the immigrant population and on the other that of the host society.

At the same time, the evaluation has to fit in with what is taking place in other European countries, with the aim of allowing not only self-assessment of one’s own public policies, but also guaranteeing a reference framework to permit longitudinal analysis of areas for improvement and best practices to share.

In the case of Catalonia, and as stated in the National Pact for Immigration, the integration process implies managing the access of the flow of immigrants onto the labour market, but above all, adapting public services to a diverse society and promoting integration as a common public culture. In fact, it is about managing a process of inclusion and equality that facilitates the transition in status from immigrant to citizen (Zapata, 2010). This process, based on the resident citizenry, means working to guarantee equality of rights, responsibilities and opportunities for all of its component parts regardless of national origin. This social and economic equality should run parallel to the strengthening of a common identity, which joins and unites all members of this group of citizens along with providing visibility and representation.

The aim of this chapter is to provide a series of indicators, which obviously are not unique nor aspire to give unequivocal and absolute answers, but which have been agreed within the framework of the European Union and the Council of Europe, as useful tools for assessing the integration of Europe’s immigrant population.

4.1.1. The indicators of the European Union

Ever since the European Council of Tampere in 1999, the European Union has been making progress in the construction of a common immigration and asylum policy, which makes the integration of immigrants one of the four key pillars that support this policy.

The lack of consensus in defining integration, be it in academic circles or in the
formulation of European public policies, has not been an impediment because the European Commission wanted to move forward with a shared definition that is not to do with the concept of immigration itself but rather with the basic common principles for defining integration policies within the framework of the European Union.

With the ratification of the Hague Programme in 2004, the importance of assessing integration policies has become a priority, reinforcing the need to ‘develop clear goals, indicators and assessment indicators in order to adjust policy and evaluate progress in respect of integration’.

This initiative is contained in the Stockholm Programme (2010-2014), which indicates that progress is needed in developing basic indicators for a limited number of relevant policies and areas (such as employment, education and social inclusion) in order to monitor the results of integration policies, also facilitating the comparability of experiences between member states and reinforcing the European learning process. In this respect, the Zaragoza Declaration was ratified in April 2010, which called on the Commission to

Figure 4.1. The common principles of integration in the European Union

make progress on a proposal of shared integration indicators. Thus, a pilot project was introduced to assess integration policies, including a review of the indicators and an analysis of their importance in different national contexts, the background of the migrant population and the development of different immigration and integration policies of member states. The pilot project also aimed to establish the availability and quality of harmonized data sources for obtaining these indicators.

The intention behind establishing these common indicators is for them to be used to monitor the level of integration of immigrant populations in member states and the results of integration policies. To achieve this, four areas of activity have been identified: employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship.

**Figure 4.2. Indicators for the integration of immigrant groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators of integration</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Employment rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Unemployment rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Activity rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Percentage of self-employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Maximum educational level achieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Percentage of 15-year-olds with low reading, mathematical and scientific skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Percentage of further education of people aged 30-34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Percentage of school dropouts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social inclusion</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• People at risk of social exclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Average income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Perceived state of health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• House ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Active citizenship</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Naturalization rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Percentage of long-term residents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Percentage of immigrants among elected representatives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It is clear, therefore, that the Commission proposes an integration model that talks about promoting basic rights, the absence of discrimination and equal opportunities as key elements. At the same time, it reiterates that integration involves an effective and responsible participation from the immigrant population in the labour market, where special mention needs to be made about gender issues.

It is important to understand that the measurement of the situation of immigrants in European societies is a different exercise from assessing the results of integration policies. The results of these policies cannot be measured by using integration indicators alone, because the real level of integration of the immigrant population is also affected by other public policies which are often introduced without considering the impact they might have on the immigrant population.

That said, integration indicators are, for the time being, a useful tool for making comparisons between European countries, and to share the knowledge that the different results represent, and also to make longitudinal comparison within a single country, highlighting areas for improvement and the strengths of the different public policies being developed to encourage integration and reinforce social cohesion. There is an open
debate on the need to continue expanding these indicators, but in this report, the aim is to allow for a first analysis of the situation in Catalonia in respect of the initial indicators defined following on from the Zaragoza Conference of 2010.

4.1.2. The indicators of the Council of Europe

In early 2015, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe approved a recommendation on intercultural integration, requiring member states to take note of the integration model being applied in a number of cities through the Council of Europe’s own Intercultural Cities project. It requested that member states disseminate this intercultural model and the tools developed within the framework of Intercultural Cities to the local and regional authorities of their own territories, as well as recommending taking this urban intercultural integration model into account when developing and reviewing national integration policies for immigrants. As indicated by the Council of Ministers, the focus of intercultural integration is based on the legal instruments and regulations that the Council of Europe has been developing with respect to cultural diversity, especially in fields such as the protection of minority cultures, intercultural competence, multilingualism, intercultural education, the fight against racism and xenophobia, the role of the media in promoting a culture of tolerance, interaction between immigrants and host societies and intercultural competence in social services.

One of the main working tools in the context of Intercultural Cities is the Intercultural Cities Index (ICC), the objective of which is not to make comparisons but rather to provide the different administrations with a useful instrument to determine the points worth pursuing in order to construct diverse and cohesive societies (Müller et al. 2011). The ICC index (see expert note 2) gathers together the progress of more than 70 European cities that have demonstrated their commitment to manage diversity and strengthen development and social cohesion in their territories. The Government of Catalonia has thus become the first regional government to take part in this index, with the desire to progressively incorporate this territorial aspect, which also plays a key role in the integration of immigrants in many countries of the European Union.

The objective of the ICC index is to analyse the extent to which administrations (mainly local ones) are making progress in achieving an intercultural focus in public governance by using questions and indicators that assess the development of those taking part in the project. The information extracted from the questionnaire not only includes demographic data (quantitative) but also data on results and impacts (qualitative), in order to provide the most complete picture possible of the territorial reality and the rolling out of intercultural policies (see Annex 3).

This is the way in which the ICC Index evaluates and reveals the performance of the participating administrations in respect of putting an intercultural focus on the integration of immigrant groups and minorities. Insofar as it permits relationships to be established that are both longitudinal (fulfilling the responsibilities of the administration itself over

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10. https://wcd.coe.int/ViewDoc.jsp?id=2282331
Shaping interculturality as a way of engaging in politics involves identifying key elements in this process. Examples of this are **leadership and political commitment**. Using nine indicators, an assessment is made of the existence of a public declaration of commitment to diversity, a strategy or a working plan to guide this action, a budget allocated and the communicative framework to explain all of this commitment.

Along with commitment, intercultural **governance** is essential for developing public policies which work to reinforce social cohesion and the integration of the foreign population. In this respect, using five indicators, an analysis is made of foreigners’ voting rights, their representation in terms of elected political positions and the representation of minorities in schools and public services.

**Intelligence and intercultural competence** seek to provide the resources for public agents to enable them when it comes to managing diversity. Three indicators are used to assess the collection and treatment of information and the competence of public employees to understand the context in which decisions are made.

An **international perspective and outlook** is a key factor for a territory when defining itself as attractive to talent, research and innovation, at the same time as strengthening its relationships with other European countries and other continents. There are six indicators designed to give special emphasis to international cooperation policy, financial provisions, work programmes, the capacity to attract foreign universities and the relationships with the countries of origin of immigrant groups.
On the subject of language, and using three indicators, an analysis is made of the investment in language teaching so that all of the immigrant population can converse in the local native languages, but which also allows members of the majority to learn or have an idea of the minority languages, as well as giving these languages a higher profile in the public sphere.

Moreover, regarding the media, four indicators are specified aimed at ascertaining if there is a joint strategy in place with press agencies and occasionally with journalism schools for them to present news in a manner that is responsible and respectful of diversity.

Induction policies include the series of initial actions provided by the authorities for newly arrived immigrants, with the objective of assimilating them into society. By means of four indicators, an assessment is made of how these policies work in response to the arrival of foreigners (structures, resources and services) and if knowledge and familiarization projects are undertaken across the region as well as giving them public recognition.

In the context of coexistence in diversity, the intercultural perspective involves recognizing the inevitability of conflict in mixed communities and developing the ability to mediate and resolve disagreements. For this reason, mediation actions are analysed by means of three indicators along with the services and situations in which they are developed.

Combating any form of discrimination is one of the key elements for democratic cities. For this, four indicators are used to assess anti-discriminatory actions, to establish which instruments and measures to introduce to monitor xenophobic behaviour and to turn public opinion against it.

To complement these actions, a review is needed of the management of diversity in other types of work sectors, using 30 indicators that evaluate six specific areas of action. Thus, special attention is given to education and schools. Equally, an analysis is carried out on actions taken in the neighbourhoods or, more generally, in the region, to understand the risk of exclusion that spatial ethnic segregation might generate. Public services, are also analysed to see if they provide prompt special attention to those in need of it, encouraging generality in the services, yet always open to incorporating the varying demands of a diverse citizenry. Regarding corporate policy and the labour market, there is an analysis of whether there is scope for encouraging participation from all collectives, including minority groups, in the economic activity of the country. In relation to the periods people allocate to free time (culture and leisure) the objective is to understand the existing opportunities for meeting and getting involved with other citizens from different cultures. Finally, an analysis is made of the extent to which public spaces are encouraged to be places for intercultural interaction, and if public spaces are defined with the participation of local residents, with the aim of promoting active and peaceful coexistence.

As previously mentioned, the logic behind these indicators originated in the context of a project linked to life at a local level. But the interaction of the different administrations in the integration of foreigners is obvious, and the opportunity to evaluate the actions and perspectives in the design of public policies by the Catalan Government is an added value that must not be wasted. The goal of the indicators put forward by the Intercultural Cities (ICC) project by the Council of Europe is to assess the development of public policies from
an intercultural perspective, in other words, their objective is to strengthen social cohesion in the context of diverse coexistence.

**Expert Note 2**

*Intercultural Cities Index: a tool for advocacy and policy change*

Irena Guidikova, *Intercultural cities* Programme Manager, Council of Europe

*Intercultural Cities* (ICC) is policy development and capacity-building programme based on the understanding that cultural diversity stemming from cross-border migration can represent an advantage rather than a hurdle for cities if it is managed in the right way. The diversity advantage concept at the heart of the programme implies that cities which embrace the intercultural integration\(^2\) approach to diversity management benefit from increased economic competitiveness, attractiveness and prosperity, as well as from social cohesion and therefore a better quality of life. The overall objective of the ICC Programme is that local city authorities develop and implement an intercultural strategy in line with the Diversity Advantage approach.

What urban policies contribute to Diversity advantage? What do the governance models, public services and spaces in an Intercultural city look like? These are complex questions which have been answered in an incremental, empirical manner throughout the programme’s development since 2008.

The Intercultural cities INDEX, developed in cooperation with BAK Basel – a Swiss research institute specialising in cities and regions, is one of the tools used within the context of the *Intercultural Cities* programme. Its indicators have been designed through an analysis of a range of legal instruments and principles in the field of diversity and integration adopted by the Council of Europe, and their translation into policies at the local level. It measures primarily policy inputs and in a limited way policy outputs.

A multi-purpose instrument, it serves several purposes:

- **Political pedagogy:** presenting in a succinct manner the key elements of the Intercultural integration approach, it offers an ‘intercultural integration at a glance’ access to the complex concept of the programme. The INDEX is appreciated by policy makers and other busy officials as a way of understanding the achievements of challenges of the city in a straightforward, analytical way.

- **Benchmarking:** it assesses the level of performance of cities according to the Intercultural integration principles and when done repeatedly, tracks the evolution of urban policies with reference to the intercultural standards (this evolution is usually progressive, occasionally digressive). Some cities, e.g. Copenhagen, Oslo and Reggio Emilia, have been using the INDEX as one of the official evaluation tools for their diversity and inclusion policies. The office of the High Commissioner for Migrations (ACM) in Portugal, is using the INDEX, in an adapted form, to assess the performance of cities hosting its integration centres.

- **Learning & motivation:** the narrative reports analysing each city’s performance on the INDEX provide references to leading examples in other cities and encourage peer learning and exchanges (which are a strong element of the *Intercultural cities* programme). The INDEX results are systematically used by policy-makers to highlight challenges and justify policy change.
Report on the integration of immigrants in Catalonia 2015

Note on methodology

Data comparison is always difficult because the disparity in the sources used, especially on an Europe-wide level, complicates an unequivocal reading of them. Most of the data used require methodological qualification (on the use of sources, limitations on the information provided, etc.) which can be found in the bibliographical references used to construct the different figures in this section. All of these technical considerations were ignored in relation to the following comparative tables to avoid difficulties in reading the text, but the bibliographical references make it easy to get
to the original source if, at any time, more in-depth information is required. On the other hand, as far as possible an attempt has been made to work with data sets that are as similar as possible (in seasonal periods or with specific population groups), to avoid increasing distortions. In any case, it seems opportune to note these considerations to achieve a more precise understanding of the information provided.

4.2. The integration of the immigrant population in Catalonia

To facilitate an approach to integration policies and compliance with them in Catalonia, it was decided to work jointly with different indicators despite them coming from different sources.

The convergence of different indicators proposed by both the European Commission and the Intercultural Cities project of the Council of Europe allows five major areas of dimensional analysis to be drawn up for this integration.

**Figure 4.4. The dimensions of integration in Catalonia**

First, the **institutional dimension**, which covers the perspective from which integration policies are designed and implemented. This involves analysing and understanding the discourse underlying the design of actions and instruments to promote integration or to manage diverse societies, and the way in which this discourse takes shape in different institutional settings, and in different forms. Included in this institutional dimension are indicators such as commitment, governance, intelligence and the international perspective in managing integration and diversity.

Second, the **public policy dimension**, which includes those public policies designed for the immigrant population, or those in which this population group plays a relevant role. This dimension includes indicators such as the reception process, mediation, the diversity perspective in public services and public spaces and anti-discrimination actions.

Third, the **employment dimension**, which has been flagged up as a key factor in guaranteeing successful integration. In this dimension, the indicators include employment
and unemployment rates, the activity rate and the intercultural perspective of the business and the labour market sectors.

Fourth, the educational dimension, which has also become a key factor in guaranteeing the success of integration processes. The indicators in this dimension cover the level of studies attained, school drop-out rates, student performance and the incorporation of the perspective of diversity into the education system.

Fifth and finally, is the sociocultural dimension, which aims to stress the need to construct common spaces in which the resident people of a region can interact, with equal rights and responsibilities, regardless of their original nationality. In this dimension, different indicators are analysed, including the political participation of immigrants, language, media channels and diversity in spaces for culture and leisure.

The indicators must be used to reflect, as far as possible, the diverse prisms of integration in Catalonia. But at the same time, inasmuch as these indicators have been used in a European context, they should also put into perspective the current situation of Catalonia within its immediate surroundings. In this respect, there should be a distinction between the areas of comparison of the different indicators, derived from the European Commission (EC). These are based on states which compare the current situation of the different member states of the European Union. On the other hand, the indicators of the Council of Europe (CoE) are based on a review of local policies, and the comparison is made based on 70 European cities. The comparison, however, has no other purpose but to correlate the various advances made through the actions of the Catalan Government, indicating areas of strength and areas for improvement.

In interpreting the results of the indicators, it seemed particularly appropriate to express them in relation to the integration dimension to which they refer. This way, a more complete perspective is achieved, based on quantitative and qualitative evidence from each of the dimensions.

4.2.1. The institutional dimension

As previously noted, the institutional dimension involves the perspective from which integration policies are designed and implemented. This is the dimension where it is possible to identify the integration model chosen, and whether it is an explicit option or one that remains implicit in the institutional discourse and in the design of the instruments and actions aimed at integration.

The selected indicators (commitment, governance, intelligence and competence and international perspective) allow us to get closer to defining a management model for diversity in Catalonia. It is a model that has not been explicitly defined as such, but which distils both institutional documents as well as certain departmental actions.

The indicators for the institutional dimension will serve to establish to what extent the actions of the Catalan Government can be defined as intercultural policy and, in general terms, how the Catalan Government approaches the management of diversity.
The logic of interculturality has to be understood as a way of establishing policy: a strategy that aims to manage, in a positive way, intercultural relations, encouraging contact, exchanges and initiatives to enhance relations between different cultures, promoting the proficiency of institutional bodies, public servants and organizations involved in managing diversity, and engendering a vision of diversity as being a resource for the region.

To achieve this, the authorities responsible need to demonstrate an unequivocal commitment to intercultural principles, based on the equality of rights and responsibilities, respect for diversity, interaction and non-discrimination. The ideal result for this indicator includes a formal declaration making this commitment absolutely clear, as well participating actively and persuading other key stakeholders to also make firm active commitments.

For the COMMITMENT indicator, the result in Catalonia is 53% whilst the ICC average is 77%.

The various strategic documents that make up the Catalan Government’s integration policy include intercultural elements but not in an explicit way, nor within a complete narrative framework. This conceptual imprecision could be seen as a weakness (as per the commitment indicator), but it must also be interpreted as an action that the Catalan Government has pending. The link to a specific model is complicated, especially as there is still an open debate in academic circles. Despite this, the main objectives featured in both the National Pact for Immigration and the Citizenship and Immigration Plan: horizon 2016 include key elements of the intercultural perspective as well as promoting integration and social cohesion.

For its part, the indicator for governance is essential for seeing which resources the Catalan Government can put in place to address and incorporate diversity into decision-making processes and democratic representation.

For the GOVERNANCE indicator, the achievement rate in Catalonia is 30% and the ICC average is 34%.

The difficulties over this point can be explained by the fact that limitations on favouring the participation of the foreign population in political life are at a national level, and voting rights for regional elections is limited to those with Spanish nationality who are resident in Catalonia.

It is true that the Catalan Government has bodies such as the Citizenship and Immigration Committee to encourage the participation of ethnic minorities in citizenship and immigration policies. Based on the logic of joint participation and joint responsibility, the Committee provides a space for dialogue and exchanging information on the subject
of immigration and citizenship policies between the Catalan Administration and local authorities, social organizations, economic agents and others.

At the same time, the difficulties that these legal constrictions present should be highlighted because the ethnic origins of elected politicians are ever more diverse. Currently, the reality in Catalonia is that the origin of the elected politicians does not reflect how the country’s population is made up. Whilst it is true that there has been a progressive increase at a municipal level and also in the electoral lists for elections to the Catalan Parliament, it is still insufficient.

In this respect, it is increasingly important to promote measures that facilitate the incorporation of diversity into the civic-political sphere. Official organizations which also need to work to continue incorporating diversity are, for example, the statutory bodies overseeing schools, public services, etc.

Governance also means encouraging transversality in the management of diversity, and collaboration between administrations, especially strengthening the link between the Catalan Government and local administrations.

The indicator for intelligence and competence seeks to discover the instruments available to public service managers to make competent decisions when it comes to managing diversity and the intercultural perspective.

For the INTELLIGENCE AND COMPETENCE indicator, the achievement rate in Catalonia is 36% and the ICC average is 63%.

The ideal public management of diversity involves knowing and understanding the nature of this diversity, and how citizens interact within it. It is therefore important to obtain information that sustains this knowledge. In this respect, it is vital to collect data on a regular and not an interim basis. The treatment of this information is also important, promoting applied research that corrects deficiencies in knowledge and specifically identifies new spheres of action in a prospective manner.

On the other hand, the training of civil servants is essential and, in this respect, the training on offer for diversity management is still too focused on those fields where there is a higher probability of working with people of foreign extraction. This is one of the dynamics that has to be broken in order to understand that diversity is transversal and that, to a greater or lesser extent, it affects the majority of the Catalan Administration’s spheres of action.

In this respect, the Catalan Government still needs to consolidate in the field of intelligence and competence by developing some specific actions. The most ambitious, in response to a measure which features in the National Pact for Immigration, is the creation of an Observatory for Migration:

Measure 43. Create an Observatory for Migration to monitor migratory phenomena, implement immigration policies, boost research into the field of migration and construct an information system which permits continuous monitoring of the main variables affecting the field of migrations. It should be led based on an agreement between the fields of political decision-making, research and the third sector.
Finally, the indicator for **international openness** is key for defining the region as being attractive to talent, research and innovation, at the same time as strengthening relationships with other European countries and other continents. In this respect, giving special attention to the countries of origin of immigrant groups provides an excellent opportunity to take advantage of the cultural, economic and social exchanges generated by these flows.

For the **INTERNATIONAL OPENNESS** indicator, the achievement rate in Catalonia is 67% and the ICC average is 71%.

Clearly, the result of this indicator should not be interpreted in terms of the international perspective of the Catalan Government but rather in the interrelationship between this outward action and diversity, understood to be not only related to the origin of foreign people resident in Catalonia, but as an opportunity. It is important that relations with the Catalan Cooperation Agency, for example, should go deeper into the role that can be played by communities from certain countries resident in Catalonia as a source of information, training and practical knowledge. At the same time, scenarios to attract talent should be designed, especially through further education, where diversity is seen as an added value.

In comparison with the ICC results, it is especially interesting to note that the Catalan Government’s figures are lower yet similar to those of the ICC’s with the exception of the international perspective. This is a repeated pattern in those regions that differentiate themselves from the rest through being ‘newer’ when it comes to managing immigration.

**Figure 4.5. Indicators for the institutional dimension**

Source: drawn up by the author.
4.2.2. The public policy dimension

The public policy dimension includes public policies designed for the immigrant population or those in which this population group plays a relevant role.

The indicators of this dimension include reception, mediation, the perspective of diversity in public services and public spaces, as well as anti-discrimination policy.

The indicator for reception analyses the instruments and actions developed by the Catalan Government to assist ‘new arrivals’ to the Catalan region. Although this is a competence also undertaken by local official bodies, there is an important task of coordination, information and implementation that falls to the Catalan Government.

For the RECEPTION indicator, the achievement rate in Catalonia is 100% while the ICC average is 54%.

This result demonstrates that, over recent years, the Catalan Government has designed successful reception policies and information tools for new arrivals as well as offering specialist services to those collectives who require them.

The work done in collaboration with local authorities and third sector organizations has been intensive, and the different products designed have contributed to a Catalan model of reception that achieves its fullest expression in the Reception Law. Without a doubt, the pending challenge is to institutionalize some kind of public recognition and welcome for newly arrived citizens, with the aim of not only reinforcing their overlap with Catalan society but also for them to become fully involved with the entire population.

With regard to the mediation indicator, it is necessary to start from the premise that, in a plural and diverse society, where people with different realities and backgrounds interact (and therefore do not live parallel to one another), conflict is inevitable. But precisely because it is predictable, conflict has to be managed and redirected to guarantee peaceful coexistence. Mediation and conflict resolution mechanisms are, therefore, necessary and indispensable in order to create spaces for dialogue, compromise and agreement.

For the MEDIATION indicator, the achievement rate in Catalonia is 93% and the ICC average is 67%.

As opposed to the first years of immigrants arriving in Catalonia, when the work of mediation fell mainly to teaching, healthcare and public service professionals who had direct experience of the foreign population, recent years have seen the consolidation of more permanent mediation mechanisms. This structuring, still far from being ideal, has been achieved mainly through promoting initiatives of dialogue and mediation by civil society bodies (for example, in the field of inter-religious dialogue).
Expert Note 3

The question of plurality: religious diversity in Catalonia
Jordi Moreras, University of Rovira i Virgili, Department of Anthropology, Philosophy and Social Work

Religious diversity in Catalonia

Religious diversity is a present and active reality in Catalan society yet it still needs to be consolidated from a social perspective. In other words, evidence of religious pluralism does not necessarily mean that we find ourselves in a situation of religious pluralism. Consolidating indices on plural forms of religious expression at the heart of Catalan society have still not found the way to resolve questions posed right from the start, and which come together under the question of how we are to interpret the presence of religion in our society. It has started to become understood that Catalan society, for all that it maintains its references to the Catholic tradition, incorporates other religious practices. Without Catholic symbols losing their centrality, our cities are witnessing the emergence of other religious symbols. We have become used to speaking in the plural when referring to the religions of Catalonia, but moving from plurality to pluralism is another thing altogether. It is not now so much a numerical dimension but rather a conceptual one, of a reality which is not only described but also interpreted, or needs to be interpreted as something exogenous and sedimentary, yet as a substantive and constitutive element of the current religious panorama of Catalonia.

Immigrant groups are to be found at the roots of diversity in religious practices in Catalonia, but not just them exclusively. Other religious traditions, in the minority compared to Catholicism, have experienced significant growth, greatly encouraged by the emergence of inter-religious dialogue initiatives and by a renewed interest in personal spirituality. Tracking the progress of this religious diversification over recent years demonstrates how the main religious traditions of Catalonia have acquired an internal heterogeneous density and a significant territorial reach.

Plurality is a constant source of new questions. The recognition of diversity, insofar as it implies assessing identity and differences, questions these same religious traditions, Catalan public opinion and public institutions. The method used to manage the different responses produced defines the way forward that, as a society, we are preparing in order to assume ownership of a reality that was barely visible less than half a century ago.

Diversity questions the unity upon which religious traditions constitute their doctrinal and institutional structure. Managing internal plurality reveals significantly different realities and circumstances across Catalonia’s religious groups: in the case of the Catholic Church, which is the region’s most deeply rooted tradition with the greatest level of internal heterogeneity in Catalonia’s religious panorama, expressions of this diversity are found to be regulated and steered in accordance with the organizational mechanisms of the Church itself. In the case of other minority religions, it is important to know how to deal with the factor of internal diversification in order to avoid tensions, but – due to the organizational fragility which still characterizes many of them – this has not always been possible to avert.

Religious diversity provokes contrasting opinions amongst Catalan public opinion. The official opinion poll on religion in Catalonia reveals that a significant proportion of people interviewed (53%) consider that religious diversity enriches Catalonia’s cultural life and does not pose a threat to their own lifestyle. In contrast with this opinion, nearly 40% state that they are not happy or strongly disagree with the fact that different groups can open new centres of worship throughout the country. And as a last piece of data that permits a triangulation of the arguments, 25% of those questioned declared themselves to be indifferent.
to the presence in Catalonia of believers in religions other than Catholicism. It seems that public opinion could be interpreted as being favourable to a general reaffirmation of diversity, yet more critical when this diversity manifests itself in a more immediate and everyday way, but which opts for a cautious indifference to a set of realities which is, as of today, still identified in a vague way.

Finally, diversity incorporates a whole set of challenges for the policies that need to be carried out by public institutions. Firstly, because religious diversity continues to be a new topic on the political agenda, with few positive experiences to use as inspiration. And secondly, because the starting point is the conviction that this is an especially sensitive area for the citizenry which has often led to tensions and conflicts which are difficult to manage and have an uncertain outcome.

The management of religious diversity in Catalonia

Despite this, it is demonstrable that Catalonia has established institutional instruments that have allowed it to draw up some policies of its own in respect of religion. The creation, in 2000, of the Secretariat for Religious Affairs (later changed to Directorate General) formed the basis for introducing a whole raft of policies, backed and consolidated by the different political leaders heading up the institution. Their general continuity is one of the most remarkable features of this collection of initiatives, despite the fact that the economic and political circumstances experienced by the country have relegated them to a discreet background, limiting their consolidation as a benchmark model, and without having ended up defining a relational framework between public administrations and religious groups to allow the presence of religion in the public sphere to be interpreted.

In addition to the proposals developed by the Catalan Government, the initiatives carried out by many Catalan local councils in order to manage religious plurality in their municipalities should also be highlighted. It is at a local level that the principles on which the policies were based and the proposed method of managing them have been put to the test. And this exercise has not been immune to contradictions and difficulties, as well as successes, where the specific place, the characteristics of the religious plurality, the role played by the media and the attitude of government teams and other social agencies have played a fundamental role.

There are four characteristic features of policies developed in Catalonia with regard to plural religion that should be mentioned in this note:

1. Policies based around religious diversity have always been interpreted within a double continuum: either in relation to religion in Catalonia and its spread or in relation to policies regarding the reception of immigration. This has led, to some extent, to devaluing the specificity of these policies, but it is the consequence of two perceptions that remain very prevalent: the component of structural certainty that the Catholic religious tradition continues to impose in the context of Catalonia’s religious panorama, and the fact of being able to identify certain religious expressions as a result of immigrant groups settling here.

2. One of the political decisions was to establish an initial description of the emergence of this religious pluralism. The City Council of Barcelona was the first, midway through the 1990s, to commission a report by the CIDOB Foundation on the city’s Muslim community.\(^3\) Later, another report was produced regarding the collection of non-Catholic traditions in Barcelona. This work inspired the then Secretary for Religious Affairs to commission a team from the Autonomous University of Barcelona, led by the lecturer Joan Estruch, to create a database of the main religious denominations in Catalonia. What we now call the Religious Map of Catalonia is the main tool at the
disposal of the Directorate General of Religious Affairs to be aware of and analyse the religious dynamics of Catalan society. It should be mentioned that keeping the data up-to-date has been made possible thanks to the effective support of the different religious communities, as well as the local councils that monitor these facts.

3. These policies have placed a great deal of importance on the aspect of awareness and sensitivity towards diversity in religious beliefs and practices. A significant part of the political capital invested in these policies is aimed at achieving a greater social acceptance of these realities. The proactive nature of these policies is reflected in the set of training initiatives and the production of documents with recommendations and informative material directed at the specific recognition of this diversity. The Directorate General of Religious Affairs has published a number of themed guides in support of religious convictions, which have served to inspire training initiatives aimed at public service workers.

4. Due to the fact that these policies are directed more towards raising awareness than actual management, they could be said to have remained in a pre-legislative phase, placing more relevance on monitoring religious diversity than developing new legal frameworks. The Directorate General of Religious Affairs has gradually acquired a budgetary capacity to be able to support initiatives in favour of understanding, development and dialogue between religious traditions. These sources of finance directed at religious communities have had a dual format: public meetings and collaboration agreements. After several years of a progressive increase in the amount of these provisions, they have now been severely restricted due to the economic crisis. Despite that, two years ago, the Directorate General of Religious Affairs opened a line of funding for research projects related to religious pluralism directed at university research teams. Legally speaking, the most significant event was the ratification by the Parliament of Catalonia, in 2009, of what was called the Law on Places of Worship. This law was required to provide an appropriate response following the controversies that had emerged over previous years to do with the opening of religious facilities, especially Muslim mosques. The law was introduced amidst a great many expectations that finally remained unfulfilled, especially those of minority religious communities when faced with the conditions for opening places of worship, the regulations governing their operation and the amendments incorporated in 2014.

One might think that this list should include the series of initiatives in favour of inter-religious dialogue in Catalonia. As they represent something noteworthy, but unattributable to any actions undertaken by public institutions, these initiatives need to be dealt with in a specific section. The merit for these dialogue initiatives between different religious traditions in Catalonia originates in proposals initiated in an ecumenical spirit by progressive sectors within the Catholic Church, that have evolved by involving representatives from non-Catholic faiths, as well as other organizations working in the sphere of social action. At a local level, many of these initiatives have served to make religious traditions more visible, which previously enjoyed only slight social and public recognition, empowering their religious authorities and organizing activities that actively contribute to improving and strengthening coexistence. From the perspective of public institutions, the tendency has been to give praise and place high value on initiatives for inter-religious dialogue, in a very similar way to the support given to those activities that fall within the framework of what is referred to as interculturality. In this respect, they have served to project a whole series of expectations on these initiatives (such as contributing to solving or preventing conflicts of coexistence), which probably cannot be achieved. It should be appreciated that initiatives relating to inter-religious dialogue can be converted into a tool that can contribute towards social transformation, so long as they form
part of an integrated framework of social action. Right now, against a background of cuts in the promotion of social harmony, it could be tempting to go back to placing responsibilities on inter-religious dialogue that cannot be fulfilled.

A critical point of view

This note must also mention two points worthy of criticism:

The lack of definition of a secular model

The concept of secularism has had an eventful history when it comes to defining policies relating to religion in Catalonia. After having been obliged to overcome the comparison with secularism as a political ideology, it was used as a term of reference that would come to define the collection of policies in this sphere. From affirming that, in Catalonia, policies relating to religion leant towards secularism, this became the basis for arguing that we already found ourselves, de facto, in a secular situation, to which it was necessary to attribute the condition of ‘positive secularism’, respectful of and attentive to religious plurality.

One of the most notable aspects of the 2009 Law on Places of Worship, despite society’s somewhat insipid reaction to it, was that for the first time a legal article in Catalan introduced the concept of secularism along with a minimal definition: ‘respect for all varieties of religion and religious thoughts and their values as a principle for integration and a common framework for coexistence’. In the final version of the law, despite maintaining the concept of ‘neutrality’ in public interventions (which in itself throws up a contradictory element in that no political action can be defined as neutral), it incorporates the principle of ‘collaboration’ between denominations and the Catalan Administration, which reaffirms the element of mutual collaboration and also represents a basic principle in the concept of secularism. Without doubt, this was one of the discreet victories won by this law, maintained in the final version despite opposition from various parties in the Catalan Parliament, which wanted the term to be substituted by the constitutional principle of secularity.

What was presented on more than one occasion as the ‘Catalan model of secularism’ was unable to resist the change of government in 2011; and once again the concept was relegated to some minimal references which in no way could be interpreted as a benchmark for defining how the presence of religion should be interpreted in the public sphere. In any case, using the term secularism now serves to define the cordial and attentive treatment of religious plurality, which obviously remains absent from the vocabulary used to guide institutional relations between Catalan public administrations and the Catholic Church.

Evidence of discrimination on religious grounds

Over the last decade, situations of conflict over coexistence have arisen in which religious factors have been seen to play a part. Essentially, they were disputes motivated by a backlash against the opening of places of worship (especially mosques and evangelical churches for the Roma and African communities), that testify to the existence of negative connotations in respect of specific collectives because of their social condition, rather than for religious reasons. The accumulation of these disputes (between 1990 and 2010, more than forty disputes were documented relating to the opening of mosques in Catalonia), their virulence, often stoked up by sensationalist media coverage, and their impact on the nature of coexistence in the neighbourhoods and population groups of Catalonia, led to the drawing up and approval of the Law on Places of Worship of 2009 in which, however, no kind of initiative was defined to prevent the spread of prejudice that could have a real effect on the exercise of religious
freedom. In this respect, the law was drawn up lacking any guidance on social or coexistence issues, leaving everything in the hands of municipal regulations and urban planning. One of the side effects of the limitations of this Law has been to see how, shamefully, many religious communities have been obliged to position their religious facilities in peripheral urban areas. The inappropriate location of these places of worship is detrimental to coexistence and is seen by some communities as a form of social exclusion.

With the passing of this Law, an opportunity was missed for making progress in recognizing religious freedoms and sending a clear message to the citizens of Catalonia that attitudes that go against this principle have no place within the social framework, and that it is necessary to work together to diminish prejudice in favour of coexistence.

Catalan society has, however, continued to see the emergence of new controversies where religious questions or moral principles have played an important role. Some of these controversies are to do with the still unresolved debate on the role of religion in the public sphere, which go back a long way: issues such as euthanasia, same-sex marriages, abortion and education continue to crop up periodically. There are, however, other types of controversies that Catalan society joins in with through the clear influence and/or contagion of what is happening in other European countries, and which are often formulated in the absolute terms of diametrically opposed values. In this respect, controversies based around the subject of Islam attract most public attention, as a consequence of the growing problemization of Muslim population groups which are permanently questioned on their ability and/or willingness to integrate into the framework of European societies. Catalonia is not exempt from the growth of anti-Muslim sentiments seen in other European countries. It is precisely because of this that it is so necessary for there to be initiatives led by public bodies to limit the spread and intensification of narratives of hate and discrimination.

In conclusion

The answers to a plurality that (still) questions us, cannot be formulated by Catalan public institutions exclusively; they also have to be created by civil society, by religious groups present in the region as well as any and every kind of contribution capable of generating public opinion. The following might represent some ideas to develop:

- The concept of secularism needs to be taken up again as a guarantee for citizen coexistence and as a proposal from political and social institutions in order to control the incorporation of a diversity of citizens’ moral, religious and philosophical opinions within a democratic society. To guarantee the freedom of conscience and religion, this incorporation has to be founded on the principle of a neutral state – neither belligerent nor indifferent – with respect to the plurality of the concepts of life and based on some common and shared values that make possible coexistence based on dialogue.
- Develop empowerment initiatives for minority religious communities to alleviate their organizational fragility and avoid this becoming a chronic condition. This implies acting from a qualitative perspective, providing them with practical instruments and not just subsidizing their activities economically.
- It is important to be decidedly combative against expressions of discrimination, formulating proactive policies to intervene in the social legitimization of prejudice. Trivializing acts of racism is completely the wrong way to eradicate them.
- If we use data provided by the Religious Map of Catalonia, and on the understanding that counting the numbers of places of worship should be left aside to concentrate on analysing the dynamics deriving from them, a forecasting exercise is required on which to base the construction of future scenarios in the religious panorama of Catalonia,
and to provide a long-term perspective with regard to defining policies for religious diversity.

- The Law on Places of Worship, approved in 2009, needs to be revitalized to make it into a tool at the service of local councils and the various religious communities for managing the opening of any future religious facilities in the correct way. For that reason, it is essential that its final wording should include proposals to encourage a firm response against any actions and arguments that go against the practice of religious freedom.

1. Refer to the website of the Religious Map of Catalonia of the Catalan Government’s Directorate General of Religious Affairs to check the most up-to-date information: http://governacio.gencat.cat/ca/pgov_ambits_d_actuacio/pgov_afers-religiosos/pgovserveis/pgov_mapa_religions/

2. Produced by the Opinion Study Centre at the request of the Directorate General of Religious Affairs. This is a survey based on a sample of 1,600 people interviewed with regard to aspects of their religiosity as well as their opinion about how religious plurality is being managed. The overall results can be referred to at: http://governacio.gencat.cat/ca/pgov_ambits_d_actuacio/pgov_afers-religiosos/pgov_publicacions_estudis/barometre-sobre-la-religiositat-i-sobre-la-gestio-de-la-seva-diversitat/


The indicator for public services explores to what extent there is an approach and a design for services dealing with collectives requiring occasional special attention within the general services framework. At the same time, it seeks to guarantee that public services adapt to new realities with a limited range of services directed at specific collectives in need of special attention (as in the case, for example, of minors). In short, it is all about committing to an innovative model for public services, open to new ideas and formats, in which the entire citizenry feels comfortable and cared for, regardless of their gender, age or country of origin.

For the PUBLIC SERVICES indicator, the achievement rate in Catalonia is 35% and the ICC average is 43%.

One of the great challenges for guaranteeing an optimum performance in providing public services that take into account the diversity of the population, is to ensure that the public sector is an ever more accurate reflection of that diversity. In general, this is a challenge for the majority of European countries, all of which have established a civil service system linked to nationality. Exploring options to encourage taking on people who are foreign or with a different background to the majority is vital for overcoming this reality.

Public services, and consequently the people who work in them and make them visible, are key to guaranteeing our welfare system. Incorporating diversity into these services is essential for the general public to be able to normalize a reality which, in any case, is already perceived as diverse in their everyday life. Incorporating immigrants at different levels of public administration is, in this sense, a key objective in order to give visibility to the normalization of diverse coexistence.

The indicator for public space explores the existence of geographical situations of public ownership and public use which are safe, respectful of diversity and seen as key to guaranteeing dynamic coexistence. The indicator also pays attention to the promotion of actions and instruments that view territory as a shared element, flagging up the risk of exclusion that spatial ethnic segregation can generate and encouraging interaction.
between the resident population, particularly in public spaces.

For the PUBLIC SPACE indicator, the achievement rate in Catalonia is 66% and the ICC average is 65%.

Currently, the territorial reality of Catalonia\(^\text{11}\) shows how the majority of municipalities continue to have a high percentage (over 80%) of residents of the same ethnic origin (mostly native). This reality does not, however, conceal the accumulation of people of immigrant origin in specific municipalities and neighbourhoods. It is also important to encourage measures that attempt to avoid ethnic concentration, not only to guarantee cohesive cities but also a Catalan society without divisions.

Public initiatives have been carried out to encourage interaction between population groups from different origins in public spaces such as parks, museums, libraries and public squares, but they need to be reinforced, working in conjunction with councils and social organizations.

At the same time, diversity must progressively be incorporated into the design of public spaces as an enriching element, which means having to rethink some spaces and to seek the opinion, wherever practical, of the people who use them.

Finally, the indicator for anti-discrimination analyses the actions undertaken to combat all forms of discrimination, on the assumption that its defeat is a key issue for democratic societies. Reinforcing anti-discriminatory actions involves guaranteeing the implementation of existing regional, state and European legislation and the correction of those situations which generate discrimination. Furthermore, it is important to combat xenophobic and racist narratives that provoke a clear deterioration in cohesion and coexistence in cities.

For the ANTI-DISCRIMINATION indicator, the achievement rate in Catalonia is 17% and the ICC average is 29%.

The fight against discrimination is a cross-cutting policy and includes a wide variety of reasons for discrimination. With regard to discrimination related to origin or nationality, one of the biggest challenges facing the Catalan Government is to understand the true extent and nature of this discrimination.

Today there is no governmental mechanism for being able to monitor data which, for example, could be collected by trade unions (to talk about discrimination in the workplace) or law enforcement and judicial bodies (to talk about hate crimes).

Despite this shortcoming, concern about xenophobic narratives can be seen in the actions of the Directorate for Immigration and its willingness to extend initiatives such as the ‘Barcelona Anti-Rumour Strategy’ to the whole of Catalonia. In 2013, the Catalan Government, the Barcelona Provincial Council, the Barcelona City Council, the Federation of Municipalities of Catalonia and the Catalan Association of Municipalities signed an agreement to collaborate on a strategy for the whole of Catalonia with the aim of putting a stop to the unfounded rumours surrounding diversity and to promote coexistence, equal treatment and non-discrimination between people.

\(^{11}\) For more information, refer to Section 3 of Chapter 2 of this report.
Introduction

The Constitution does not define powers in respect of the fight against discrimination that would establish it as a guiding principal for the legislators and planners of public policy. The lack of a mandate and establishment of a clear distribution of powers has resulted in it being difficult for analysts to explain anti-discriminatory policy at both a regional and national level. The upshot is that the fight against discrimination in Catalonia takes a rather more general approach across the different levels of government as well as through specific public policies where it is forms one of the subsidiary objectives.

The intention of this note is to review the strategy of the Catalan Government with regard to anti-discrimination, positioning the issue within the general framework of integration and reviewing areas of responsibility followed by a review of the main initiatives carried out in Catalonia. The lack of definition in powers and responsibilities, or even the transversality of this subject and the way it is shared with other issues, has not prevented the various governments of other multi-level countries from formulating, from different perspectives, a variety of strategies for fighting discrimination. In this respect, a brief review is made of cases which, through the nature of the countries included, are of interest to the Catalan situation, such as Belgium, Canada and the United Kingdom. Sweden is also included, which highlights the discrepancy between the legislations and current institutions for combating ethnic discrimination and the persistent problem of discrimination and inequality between immigrants and natives. This shows the importance of remembering that, as well as improving the issue of anti-discrimination in the political and institutional spheres, other dimensions need to be studied, such as ways of influencing people’s attitudes and values and their tolerance of diversity.

Integration and anti-discrimination: the state of the issue

The nature of immigration in Catalonia represents a challenge for policies on integration and anti-discrimination; in less than two decades its rapid growth has placed Catalonia amongst the European regions with highest immigration and with a wider diversity of profiles than at any time during the country’s history of immigration. Immigrant arrivals, often chaotic through lack of intergovernmental coordination, have in some cases been accompanied by tensions in the host society, and a certain degree of politicization in some municipalities. All this was made worse by the economic crisis. This uncertainty and the high rates of unemployment hamper the debate on, for example, ethnic discrimination in the workplace: the subject of the immigrant population’s life situation becomes a question of survival rather than demanding more rights.1

Immigration has grown extremely rapidly over the last decade and has become a structural social phenomenon for society. Looking at other multi-ethnic countries of Western Europe with long histories of immigration, even though the challenges and difficulties are significant and made worse by the economic crisis, Catalonia still has an opportunity to avoid committing some of the errors made by other receptor countries, such as residential segregation. The European experience demonstrates that the second generation is the key to laying down the
foundations for integration, and that discrimination based on national origin is potentially one of the biggest hurdles to overcome. Here it has to be said that countries such as France, the Netherlands, Belgium and Sweden, amongst others, have not managed to find a desirable process. Within the framework of integration it is, therefore, essential to formulate effective anti-discrimination policies and follow-up measures to guarantee their implementation and operation. This last element is definitely the one that represents the biggest challenge.

Non-discrimination exists as a goal and political principle in most legislative texts at an EC, Spanish and Catalan level, as highlighted in the Spanish Constitution and the Catalan Statute of Autonomy. It has also been the case that in the subsequent immigration plans produced by the Catalan Government, as well as in the National Pact on Immigration², this issue has appeared in a transversal way within the different subject areas. For example, the Citizenship and Migration Plan: horizon 2016 includes amongst its principles the promotion of equal opportunities and the fight against racism and xenophobia which can be interpreted as factors in the fight against discrimination. Nevertheless, it can be seen when reviewing anti-discrimination programmes and policies that there are no official bodies for implementation and monitoring able to carry out this legislation. The Catalan Government promotes awareness campaigns and, in general, the bulk of anti-discrimination work is to inform and educate, but what is missing are more concrete political and legal measures to combat discrimination efficiently when conciliation does not work.

Despite discrimination being present as a cross-cutting principle in most of the anticipated measures and programmes, a specific programme for fighting against discrimination is also included in Section III (Coexistence and Social Cohesion). This, which appears as number 19 in the section ‘Execution and evaluation’, outlined, for 2013, three specific actions: the anti-rumor strategy, the promotion of actions in favour of equal treatment, and the monitoring and control of declarations, manifestations or public actions that vindicate racism and xenophobia. These do not, however, come with a budget provision. With a lack of public information on this subject, it is impossible to know the degree to which these actions were executed, their progress and their current situation. In the same way, in the previous plan for 2009-2012, non-discrimination was approached in an inter-sectoral way, yet at the same time an in-depth reading demonstrates that the only specific measure foreseen regarding anti-discrimination was in the field of equal access in the labour market, in which a series of objectives were established for the Annual Action Plan of the Labour Inspectorate. These elements, both for this programme and the previous one, are included in the plan without any kind of budget provision. Despite the existence of a hate crimes and discrimination service as part of the Provincial Prosecutor’s Office, unlike what has been happening in the city of Barcelona since 1998, the Catalan Government does not have a non-discrimination office, which makes it difficult to observe discriminatory situations in Catalonia and therefore the possibility of making a complete diagnosis in order to formulate, as a consequence, a global strategy.

In the case of Catalonia, the most problematic point is the lack of anti-discrimination bodies in the Catalan Government that cooperate with other existing institutions to support victims and centralize information. This is offset by the major weight of the third sector, something that implies having to rely on volunteerism to carry out policies that should be implemented by public institutions, which means their execution is not guaranteed as matter of citizens’ rights.

**Anti-discrimination policies in other countries**

As we have already mentioned, anti-discrimination is, for Spain, a policy based more on a guiding principle rather than a solid strategy based on concrete plans and policies to achieve it.
We have seen, however, that some attempts have been made to tackle this challenge through, for example, the introduction of non-discrimination observatories that have appeared, particularly at a local level, in various parts of the country. Integration (and by extension anti-discrimination) policies have a marked multi-level nature. It is interesting, therefore, to know about the experiences other countries have in managing anti-discrimination policies where power is distributed territorially between different levels. A glance at other paradigmatic cases such as federal and/or multi-national states reveals the importance of these intergovernmental relationships in managing integration policies and therefore discrimination policies.

Unlike in the case of Spain, the Canadian Constitution does not take anti-discrimination into account, but Canada certainly has developed different instruments designed to fight and prevent discrimination against people of immigrant origin and visible minorities. Both at a central and provincial level they have developed framework laws and their own programmes with this objective, producing a certain amount of overlap in some cases. In 2008, the province of Quebec, strongly affected by what was known as the ‘Reasonable Accommodation Crisis’ established a policy called ‘Diversity: an added value. Government policy to promote participation of all in Quebec’s development’, which includes amongst its goals the fight against discrimination. The policy was rolled out using three lines of action based on the intercultural focus of the province: education and awareness, intercultural harmony, employment and the labour market. Despite these efforts, what is critical today is the lack of a global anti-discrimination policy which incorporates, amongst other things, data gathering, reviewing the possible institutional discrimination mechanisms within apparently neutral laws, expanding mechanisms for sanctions and establishing a permanent observatory at a provincial level.3

The case of the United Kingdom is characterized by having one of the most advanced legislations on this subject, beginning in 1965 with the Race Relations Act4, amended and updated periodically up until the end of 2000 when it was replaced by the Equality Act5 which obliged public authorities to monitor and eliminate any form of discrimination and to demonstrate the effectiveness of all their procedures designed to prevent discrimination on the grounds of origin. These measures also bind the Scottish Parliament and Government, as the issue is treated as a competence reserved for Westminster. Scotland, however, through the possibility of being able to legislate on matters of equality of opportunities, seems to have assisted. Most notably, the Scottish Parliament has an Equal Opportunities Committee, as well as a Mixed Commission (political parties and civil society) for Racial Equality whose objective is to provide a forum for identifying issues related to racism and discrimination and jointly to find solutions for discrimination. Since 2001, Scotland has continued to develop legislation directed at racism and discrimination, notably the ‘One Scotland’ programme whose goal is to promote equality (in an intersectional way). Finally, it should be noted that the Scottish Government works primarily by funding organizations and members of civil society to develop programmes and gather information on these issues, which include, as opposed to other contexts, a periodic review of the impact of the various public policies on equality.6

In Belgium, anti-discrimination is a shared competence, and is thus the responsibility of the different levels of public administration. The nature of this competence has given rise to a multiplicity of legislation on the issue approved by different regional and federal parliaments as well as at community level. It has to be said that this has, at certain times, caused difficulties in intergovernmental relations, especially between the Federal and Flemish Governments. In Belgium, therefore, there are different bodies (federal and regional) dedicated to monitoring discrimination. As of 2014, however, the Interfederal Centre for Equal Opportunities was created, which attempts to bring together the different levels of government to promote cooperation agreements in respect of anti-discrimination. The centre is currently occupied with centralizing information regarding racism and discrimination, producing reports and
advising the various bodies responsible for these issues at different levels of government as well as dealing with individual complaints.7

The cases of Belgium, Canada and the United Kingdom demonstrate that, despite the fight against discrimination not always being clearly defined either constitutionally or in the way that competence is apportioned, both central and regional governments have developed legislation to deal with it, including establishing mechanisms of cooperation and coordination.

Finally, the case of Sweden demonstrates an important aspect to bear in mind when implementing anti-discrimination measures: the discrepancy that may arise, and generally does arise, between legislation and what happens in practice. The country quickly incorporated the EU anti-discrimination directives into its national legislation, and created, for example, an anti-discrimination Ombudsman to help lodge complaints and claim economic compensation for victims of discrimination. Nevertheless, in practice, very few verdicts have been reached and both the Ombudsman and a great many social agencies point to the fact that the problem lies in the attitudes of many people and what is referred to as ‘everyday racism’.8 In conclusion, while it is necessary to have effective anti-discriminatory legislation that prohibits and sanctions discrimination, it is not enough in itself. Amongst other challenges, it is often very difficult to prove a case of discrimination judicially as there are normally no witnesses.

Policy recommendations

Given the lack of anti-discrimination policy in Catalonia and the challenges in the overall context of integration and the emergent second generation, as well as the comparison with other countries, we have formulated the following policies to move towards a Catalan anti-discrimination policy and its implementation:

1. Prevention
Legislation: the preparation of a cross-cutting law against discrimination (currently being drawn up by the Catalan Government) to serve as an umbrella for all of the policies, plans and actions regarding this issue. A thorough review could be undertaken of the different legislative and legal texts under development to make sure that no discrimination of an institutional nature occurs through not having reviewed the texts. Implementing specific prevention measures could be considered, such as standardizing anonymous job applications (which only mention the merits of the candidates, thus avoiding discrimination on the basis of origin, sex, age, etc.), even though they would start off by being recommendations rather than legal measures.

2. Detection
An Anti-Discrimination Agency could be set up at autonomous regional level to centralize complaints and channel them through to the appropriate bodies, offering advice to the victims where necessary and acting as a Discrimination Observatory, the aim of which is to collect data and information to produce annual reports on levels of discrimination in Catalonia.

3. Consequences
The types of consequence applied to discrimination depend on the nature of the case: whether it concerns a racist insult in a shop, a person not getting a job despite being the best qualified applicant, being prevented from renting an apartment on the grounds of ethnic origin, etc.

   a. Punishment
When enforcing a punishment in respect of discrimination, the first thing to make sure of is that the discriminatory action is in breach of the law. Then, part of the job of the Catalan Government is to inform the public on this matter, and the different punishments
applied for discrimination: furthermore, this will fulfil the function of raising public awareness of discrimination as something intolerable and illegal and not just a question of values or individual preferences. Generally, the most suitable punishment will consist of the offender providing the victim with financial compensation.

In the context of punishments, it should be remembered the difficulties we have already mentioned, for example, in demonstrating that a case of discrimination really has taken place, and improve ways of working on this aspect. It would definitely be more appropriate for the proposed anti-discrimination agency to take on this task and for it to develop and improve the necessary detection tools in order to be able to punish discrimination. Moreover, it is important to give sanctioning powers to the relevant bodies to be able to punish incidents of discrimination provoked by individuals and organizations.

b. Correction
As a complement to legal sanctions, or as the only consequence in some cases of milder discrimination, measures could be put forward such as the mediation currently being practised by the Barcelona Office for Non-Discrimination (successfully, according to the director (Pulido, interview 2014)). This is aimed, therefore, at making offenders aware that they have committed a crime by discriminating, with the goal of facilitating conciliation by mutual agreement between the offender and the victim. In the ideal scenario, the discriminatory incident can be corrected without having to take legal action. Another complementary method would be to run awareness courses for companies/HR departments, as well as giving advice on implementing new legislation, etc. This task can be delegated by the Catalan Government to social agencies and NGOs or carried out by the non-discrimination office itself.

4. Communication
a. Developing a communication strategy
Dissemination of the content of the law. Make it clear that the fight against discrimination is key to the actions of the Catalan Government.

   Publicize the annual reports of the agency in the media.

   Naming and shaming: show, through information provided by the Agency, which institutions receive most complaints for discrimination every year.

b. Coordination and cooperation
Set up a multi-level and multi-sectoral body to address discrimination in Catalonia with the participation of the different levels of the state government as well as those departments for which discrimination is a key issue (e.g. Employment, Education, Welfare), and civil society agents involved in the fight against discrimination.

1. Interviews: Bosch, Xavier, Director General for Immigration for the Government of Catalonia (interviewed by Zenia Hellgren on 20 March 2014); Pulido, Guadalupe, Head of the Non-Discrimination Office in Barcelona (interviewed by Zenia Hellgren on 9 October 2014); Rendón, Gloria, representative of the Service Centre for Immigrants in Barcelona (SAIER) (interviewed by Zenia Hellgren on 20 March 2014).
8. Swedish Ombudsman against discrimination: www.do.se
Comparing the results of the **public policies dimension** it is interesting to note that the Catalan Government’s results are quite close to the average. On the plus side, the points obtained for reception stand out, which testifies to the efforts made in this field over recent years. On the negative side, there is a need for further progress in the fight against discrimination, giving special attention to behaviour or approaches that display xenophobic or racist tendencies.

**Figure 4.6. Indicators for the public policy dimension**

![Graph showing public policies dimension](image)

Source: drawn up by the author.

### 4.2.3. The employment dimension

The **employment dimension** concentrates on two aspects: firstly, the indicators that show the performance of the foreign population compared to the native population in the labour market. To do this, a comparison is made between employment, unemployment and the activity of these groups in the context of a comparison with other European countries. Secondly, by looking at how diversity is incorporated into the sphere of public policies directed at the fields of business and the labour market.

Chapter 3 provides more detailed information on the reality of the employment situation of Catalonia’s foreign population, but exploring the employment dimension means relating these data not only to the native population but also to the comparison between countries of the European Union.

With regard to the indicator for **employment**, this is based on the working population, i.e. those who are 16 years old or more and working (be it for themselves or for someone else). The employment rate is calculated by dividing this employed population by the total population who are 16 years old and above.

Thus, the foreign population resident in Catalonia shows a higher rate of employment...
than the native population, amongst other reasons because these groups are, generally speaking, of working age. Compared with other European countries, the data on Catalonia are very similar to the total in Spain and Belgium, and in any case are at the lower end of the results from other EU countries.

With regard to the indicator for unemployment, this is based on the relationship between the active population and the unemployed population, made up of those people who are willing and able to work but who can’t find employment. The unemployment rate reflects this percentage of the active population who are without work.

**Figure 4.7. Employment rate in Catalonia according to nationality and gender**

![Employment rate in Catalonia according to nationality and gender](image)


**Figure 4.8. Employment rate according to origin and gender in the EU (by country)**

![Employment rate according to origin and gender in the EU (by country)](image)

Source: OECD (2015). *Indicators of Immigrant Integration 2015*. Data from IDESCAT.
The foreign population’s unemployment rate is much higher than that of the native population. In a Europe-wide comparison, Catalonia has a quite similar profile to Southern European countries such as Greece and Portugal. Between the native and foreign populations, there are substantial differences in the unemployment rates although these reduce a little in the case of the female population. This peculiarity seems to be a feature also shared with Southern European labour markets, while Eastern European figures show higher rates for female unemployment relative to overall unemployment.

With regard to the indicator for activity, it is included within the activity rate, which shows the population who are willing and able to work as a percentage of the total population.

**Figure 4.11. Economic activity rate in Catalonia by nationality and gender**

Once again, the foreign population shows a higher activity rate than the native population. Compared to EU countries, the result of the activity rate in Catalonia continues to display similarities to the labour markets of Southern Europe. The data on Catalonia demonstrate one of the most notable differences between the employment rate in native

**Figure 4.12. Activity rate according to origin and gender in the EU (by country)**

Source: OECD (2015). *Indicators of Immigrant Integration 2015*. Data from IDSCAT.
and foreign male populations, whilst in the case of the female population, both in terms of volume as well as the differences between groups, there are more similarities with mid-European and Eastern European countries.

Finally, the indicator for the **business and labour market** analyses the actions taken to encourage every collective, including the minority ones, to participate in the country’s economic activity. Encouraging creativity and innovation implies working with private stakeholders, but the public administration, insofar as it contracts people and provides services, has a key role to play in positioning and committing to the advantages of diversity.

For the **BUSINESS AND LABOUR MARKET** indicator, the achievement rate for Catalonia is 20% and the ICC average is 41%.

Concern over the performance of the foreign population in the labour market compared to the native one has left the Catalan Government with little scope for action when it comes to tackling policies for designing a labour market more accessible and receptive to diversity. In this respect, there is no mechanism to make it easier for an entrepreneur of foreign extraction to get into the labour market, and to ensure that no type of discrimination will take place.

The need to encourage space for the incubation of new companies committed to diversity is a key challenge, closely connected to new working methods.

Conversely, in the public procurement sphere, care has been taken to contract companies with a diversity strategy, focused especially on gender diversity. It is necessary to open up this conceptual framework, not only in response to an ever more diverse market, but also to comply as closely as possible with the amendments arising from the transposition of Directive 2014/24/EU of the European Parliament and Council, of 26 February 2014, on public procurement, scheduled for April 2016.

Within this dimension, and despite not being included in the initial package of indicators coming out of Zaragoza, there are other indicators that also serve to examine the quality of work. Indicators such as the percentage of part-time work; the number of workers of foreign origin with public functions or underemployment are amongst those being proposed as complementary indicators. There are also two more, being gross annual salary and self-employment, described below, with the aim of completing the labour aspect of integration.

**Gross annual salary** represents descriptive data that are intended to provide a certain margin for comparison between the income levels of foreign and native population groups. Interpreting these data is complex, as salary increases are usually related not only to positions occupied but also to length of service. And with differences in salary, as can be seen in the following graph, there are other factors in play, such as gender, which paint a picture of a labour market with numerous distinctions.

With regard to **self-employment**, its impact makes it possible to measure its contribution to creating employment. It is understood that when somebody creates their own workplace and joins the labour market, work can also be created for others. Nevertheless, the OECD itself recognizes that self-employment is not always synonymous with success in participating in the labour market, but could possibly be the only way of not being marginalized from it.
In the case of Catalonia, the foreign population registered as self-employed represents no more than 1.9% of the working population. But in relation to the total foreign population registered with Social Security, the self-employed represent 15.7%, a figure very similar to the 17.6% in the case of Catalonia’s native population. Compared with Europe, Catalonia’s figures show a higher level of working people registered as self-employed, and some very small variations in how these numbers relate to native and foreign population groups. In the majority of EU countries, the foreign population has a higher self-employment index than the native one, but the performance in most Mediterranean European countries reveals, as with Catalonia, higher percentages of self-employment in the native population, almost certainly explained by weakness in the labour markets.

Source: IDESCAT.
Thus all these data paint a picture of a labour market that is not very open to diversity, and therefore not able to deal with it and extract benefits from it. Furthermore, negative results are consolidated in the participation of foreign population groups in the labour market, particularly males. Only the active foreign population indicates, more crudely, the reality of the Catalan labour market. It is still important to reflect on this and work to correct it, to avoid a two-tier dualized labour market.

Expert Note 5

Immigration and employment in Catalonia: urgent issues and major challenges in a context of economic recovery
Sònia Parella Rubio, GEDIME/CER-Migrations research group, Autonomous University of Barcelona

The difficult legacy left by the crisis

In Catalonia we have been witnessing a major ‘job crisis’ since 2008, and although it was the result of a global crisis affecting many countries in a similar way, it manifested itself in clearly specific ways according to the nature of the productive structure and type of economic growth that preceded it.1 It is for this reason that its effects, as we well know, were more negative in Catalonia and the rest of Spain than in other European countries. Already in May 2009, Eurostat (2009) showed that Spain led the league table of countries with the highest unemployment in the EU of the twenty-seven (EU-27), with an unemployment rate of 18.7%, which concentrated together 20% of the total number of unemployed throughout the EU. At that time, few of us imagined that these alarming figures were still off their peak and that a long road ahead would lead to rates exceeding 24% in Catalonia throughout 2013 (27% in the case of Spain, based on data from the Labour Force Survey [EPA]).

Although an OECD report from more than a decade ago (2002) demonstrated, in general terms, that foreign workers are more vulnerable to cyclical recessions than natives or locals, it is important to be very conscious of the differences between countries when it comes to analysing the specific impacts of the crisis on the immigrant population.2 In-depth knowledge of these specifics is key to formulating the appropriate policies needed to redress this situation if we want to avoid social fractures along ethnic lines, causing the exclusion of certain social groups as we have seen in neighbouring countries -such as currently in France.

The comparative analyses of Papademetriou et al. (2010) for different countries of the OECD, show how economic recession has greatly affected the foreign population.3 The results in the case of Spain (extendible to Catalonia) confirm that whilst unemployment figures have shot up alarmingly for both native people as well as immigrants, on the whole the increase has been much more intense for the immigrant workforce. The main reasons lie in the high levels of economic activity and employment (compared with the native population) and their greater exposure to the most disadvantaged sectors of the labour market, labour intensive work, work subject to seasonality and jobs that are highly sensitive to the economic cycle (such as construction, agriculture and some spheres such as the hospitality industry or providing services to people).4 Throughout the first decade of the new millennium, there is no doubt that the immigrant population which had arrived previously was definitely the key element in the viability of the production model that characterized a period of economic expansion.

In contrast, in countries such as the United Kingdom and Germany, the increase in immigrant unemployment figures was much more moderate. However, while the gap between
foreigners and natives was hardly seen to alter with the advent of the crisis in those countries, it should be noted that neither was there a reduction in the persistent barriers to securing skilled jobs faced especially by immigrant workers coming from outside the EU-15.5

With regard to the Catalan and Spanish labour markets, it is true to say many were of the opinion that there were clear signs of saturation for entry to the labour market before the crisis began, especially for male immigrants.6 However, despite the assertion that our immigration model has been sustained by a clear dependence on offering precarious and low-level jobs (many of them in the submerged economy), it would be unfair to label the pre-crisis working careers of foreigners as stagnant in terms of upward mobility.

Studies such as the one by Aysa-Lastra and Cachón (2013),7 based on the National Immigration Survey (ENI-2007), showed that, just before the crisis, an immigrant’s educational level acted as a filter, along with other factors, when applying for non-manual jobs. At the same time, this same human capital was protected, over time, from downward mobility, especially in cases when foreign qualifications were approved or when the qualification had been obtained in Spain.

The fact that foreigners do not form a homogeneous block in the labour market and that job mobility processes throughout their careers are segmented, is clearly demonstrated in the report published by the ‘la Caixa’ Foundation and undertaken by the Centre for Sociological Studies of Daily Life and Work,8 called the Continuous Sample of Working Lives (MCVL) using data registered with the Social Security Office up to 2007 for the whole of Spain. One of the main findings was the tendency for native and immigrant career paths to converge, especially amongst highly qualified immigrants. Conversely, the main differences lie in the higher incidence of long-term unemployment and the greater likelihood of experiencing periods of unemployment.

A few years later came the report Crisis, employment and immigration in Spain. An analysis of the path of working lives, produced by the same authors,9 analysing the progress of the labour histories of immigrant workers compared with native ones over the most intensive period of job losses (2007-2011). The data confirm a general deterioration in working conditions for a large number of immigrant workers and setbacks in their career paths. This fact breaks with the slow convergence that the same authors had identified during the previous period and would indicate a certain degree of polarization.

Specifically, the main features highlighted by studies on the impacts of the crisis are:

- A greater incidence of general and long-term unemployment amongst the immigrant population, as well as the option to remain inactive or under-occupied.
- A greater vulnerability amongst immigrants who had found work in the years just before the crisis (many in irregular employment) or else were dependent on a work contract to be able to renew their resident’s permit (provoking a high risk of unanticipated irregularity scenarios).
- A backward step in terms of remuneration experienced by lower paid groups, amongst which the majority are of immigrant origin.
- Differences according to nationality. Whilst men from Morocco or Romania are the most vulnerable, the biggest concentration of workers in the primary sector (and those with the highest level of employment in the labour market) is found in workers from Peru and Argentina, in that order.
- Differences according to gender. Women suffered less from unemployment mainly due to horizontal segregation and their concentration in healthcare services; although it has to be said that they have seen a significant deterioration in their working conditions.
Where are we heading, with economic recovery on the horizon?

Once the diagnosis is made, we must ask ourselves what trends can be identified among the immigrant population from 2014 onwards, which is when signs of improvement start to show up in macroeconomic indicators that have been living with persistent long-term unemployment and a worrying link between wage disparity and falling incomes, especially at the lower end of the salary scale. This link, added to the tragedy of unemployment, is what adds to the poverty figures among the employed population. According to a 2012 report by the Economic, Social and Work Council of Catalonia (CTESC), 13.7% of employed people in Catalonia are at risk of poverty, a figure surpassed only by Greece and Romania which contrasts with the average figure of 8.5% for the EU-27 (2010). All this creates the impression amongst a large part of the population that the recovery is not reaching everybody.

With regard to unemployment, the differences between foreign and native populations remain quite noticeable through the fourth quarter of 2014, with differentials of more than 20 percentage points for men and women alike. Also, if we compare 2011 (in full crisis), with 2014, the distances would have narrowed between foreign men and women, due to the increase in the rate of female unemployment in both the foreign population and in non-EU foreigners. In comparative terms, while it is true that Catalonia presents unemployment rates slightly below those of Spain as a whole (including the sub-group with Spanish nationality) for the foreign population, conversely, we find a greater incidence of joblessness (more than five percentage points, for example, in non-EU male foreigners, according to data from 2011).

With regard to the migration phenomenon, there seems to be a strong consensus for changing the migratory model. This is one of the main conclusions that Josep Oliver (2015) arrives at in producing the 46th Edition of the Manpower Group Index, based on EPA (Labour Force Survey) data. In the introduction to the study, Oliver stresses that, with the economic recovery, Spain (and, by extension, Catalonia) will need, four or five years from now, young qualified immigrants to compensate for the demographic decline. However, this urgent necessity coexists with a large volume of jobless people difficult to employ through lack of training (over 55% of the unemployed, approximately), representing an entrenched group difficult to absorb. It is for this reason that the report warns that there is still a long way to go at the end of the employment crisis and concludes that without active policies to ‘aggressively’ create jobs, it will be really difficult to reverse this situation.

Within this group of long-term unemployed we find a high proportion of immigrant workers who had been employed in the construction sector. If there is a consensus that employment will grow mainly in sectors such as providing services to people, businesses and the environment, it will be necessary to provide workers coming from other sectors like construction with other skills, without which their reinsertion in the labour market will be complicated. To make progress towards creating more good quality employment, the policies need to be able to pursue two goals: improve the number of job positions and improve the qualifications of those who occupy them. According to Fausto Miguélez and Pedro López-Roldán (2014), when policies have to pick out a priority, they should focus on training—following the lead of the Scandinavian countries, amongst others—insofar as ‘if there are well trained human resources, companies will end up offering improved job positions, simply because it doesn’t involve them in any additional cost or generate any expectation of inefficiency, but instead offers better performance levels’.

Unfortunately, spending on active policies for training in both Catalonia and Spain remains insufficient in comparison with the EU. Although such actions are not cheap or easy to formulate, the successful experiences of many European countries demonstrate that committing to specific and in-depth types of training (at the expense of the type which is limited to general skills) and knowing how to focus on the groups that are more difficult to reinsert into the labour market, is highly effective in terms of improving levels of employability,
regardless of whatever the institutional and cyclical context might be.\textsuperscript{17}

At a time when the main stumbling block for integrating immigrants into the labour market is not so much to do with their legal status, as it was a decade ago (there are many that are now long-term residents or naturalized), what is crucial is the absence of mechanisms for maintaining and reviewing income.\textsuperscript{18} The urgent need to develop new employment policies needs to be focussed on groups such as the sons and daughters of immigrants, many of whom already enjoy full equal rights. Once again, only effective employment policies (both active and passive) will be able to redress the effects of work-related processes of exclusion and discrimination through ethnic indicators (mainly on entry), which include family origin, religion, language, etc.

The research \textit{Sons and daughters of immigrant families in Catalonia: intercultural management for social cohesion}, produced by CER-Migrations (2015) in response to a call for research papers from RECERCAIXA2011, demonstrates, using qualitative methodology, the complexity of the interrelated factors behind the career paths of these young people.\textsuperscript{19} Far from being able to speak about a homogeneous group, the research shows that, while a proportion of these young people have successful career paths and academic continuity within the parameters put forward by Pàmies \textit{et al.} (2013),\textsuperscript{20} there is an increasingly large group of sons and daughters of immigrants, who have left the education system early and are more at risk from workplace and social exclusion than their peers.

Many of the municipal technical experts interviewed agree in deploring the fact that what employment services offer is too homogenized and does not properly address the specific needs of these young people. They highlight the fact that reengaging these young people who have abandoned education requires being aware of the skills and habits they have lost and knowing how to encourage them to tackle the feelings of frustration that hold them back. These are the young people who have witnessed a ‘change in the model of production’, many of whom have no work experience whatsoever and who are unable to take advantage of the social capital of their parents’ generation who had gone into low-skilled sectors where there is now no work.

Employment discrimination, especially in access to jobs, emerges in the study. As is usual, this is concentrated in specific national groups, often interrelated with gender. In this case it is seen mainly to affect young men of Moroccan origin as per the findings of Alarcón \textit{et al.} (2010).\textsuperscript{21} The municipal technical experts that took part in the study agree in pointing out that the crisis accentuated this situation even further, and the frustration provoked by this perception of discrimination (experienced directly or related by friends and family) not only has a negative impact on their educational decisions but also distances them from the employment services and the chance to actively look for a job.

The study mentioned also includes a selection of best practices at a European level that could be useful in improving the employability of these young people. A good example is social and professional mentoring as an intervention tool, which offers individualized support to young people at risk of exclusion whose network and contacts are insufficient and who often come up against discrimination (for reasons of ethnicity, religion, etc.) when trying for a job. To improve the connection between employers and professional training and to better motivate young people, active participation by the business world is recommended in such a way that it becomes an important part of training.\textsuperscript{22} Undoubtedly, in the specific case of young people of immigrant extraction at greater risk of exclusion, the involvement of employers is vital to guaranteeing their subsequent insertion in the labour market, especially in overcoming the discrimination they may fall victim to during the selection processes.

Another of the challenges, in line with our ability to create employment and reconstruct a good proportion of our production model, will be the capacity to count on enough qualified people. This undoubtedly requires having training tools, as previously mentioned; but which are
also capable of mobilizing the full potential of the people already here. In this respect, without going any further, the over-qualification of the foreign population resident in Catalonia was already demonstrated in the comparison between IDESCAT’s Demographic Survey of 2007 and the occupational structure of the foreign population: 15.7% of foreign people resident in Catalonia for more than 10 years had higher education (by gender, the percentages varied between 18.8% of women and 13% of men). It is true that some of these people may have returned to their home countries with the arrival of the crisis; or maybe they chose to re-emigrate to other destinations in the search for better employment opportunities as have many qualified young Spanish people.

The potential that qualified migration might play in the context of ageing populations, like European ones, is one of the central issues concentrating the attention of institutions such as the European Commission and the OECD. Based on the key findings of recent studies by the IOM (2013) and the OECD-EC (2014), aimed at making better use of migrant people’s qualifications according to the needs of the labour market, measures are required committed to:

- Encouraging the evaluation of a broad range of qualifications and skills, by distinguishing between the formal, informal and non-formal training of those arriving and those already in the country.
- Putting immigrants in more direct contact with employers and getting employers actively involved in qualification recognition processes to make sure the procedures respond to the real needs of labour market.
- Favouring the most rapid way possible of getting qualifications recognized, even if it is before the people arrive (as in the case of Germany), or else through initial programmes (as in the case of France, Sweden and the Netherlands).
- Increasing the availability of information to be able to get foreign people's qualifications recognized.
- Making sure that immigrants have access to the most efficient and flexible active employment policies.
- Providing immigrants with linguistic skills, adapted to their qualifications.
- Reinforcing integration and anti-discriminatory policies, to the extent that official recognition of qualifications and skills may not be enough to avoid discrimination (especially in accessing jobs), especially with regard to mid-level qualifications and the categories of foreigners arriving from non-EU countries.

Meanwhile, the debate on where our immigration model is heading will be ever more unavoidable, as the crisis is gradually left behind. The only certainties we face in Catalonia are: that our starting point is a demographic deficit which represents an alarming reduction in the active population over the coming years; that it will be difficult to return to the previous economic model and that the migrant flows that continue to arrive, the ‘new’ immigration, will have, on average, a higher level of education. The rest is still unknown.

Therefore, there is still a lot to be said on the subject of how to manage migratory flows over the coming years and how they will evolve. But the most pressing of all (and this is something we already know because the data have clearly and insistently said so), is that a large proportion of Catalonia’s population urgently needs action to prevent patterns of social and workplace exclusion becoming chronic. Projections for the future do not foresee (not should it be especially desirable) the demand for employment for people with a poor level of education will increase substantially over the coming years. Therefore, we are faced, on the one hand, with the difficult challenge of managing the reallocation of people with major deficiencies in work training and skills; and on the other hand, to make progress along the
Report on the integration of immigrants in Catalonia 2015

lines of what other European countries around us are doing, towards improving qualification accreditation systems for those that have them (many of them foreigners who gained their qualifications during the period of economic growth in Spain).

2. OECD. 2002.
5. Papademetriou, D.G. et al. (op. cit.)
11. It should be noted that, in 2011, the difference between male and female unemployment rates in the non-EU foreign population reached 9.5% in favour of women.
17. Ibid.
22. This is what is known as a dual training model, in which centres and companies share training responsibilities.
23. IOM. 2013.
25. As an example, the recent Federal Recognition Act approved in Germany permits assessments of the practical experience acquired by foreigners before they get to the country, in those cases where their credentials are insufficient to be recognized officially.

4.2.4. The educational dimension

The educational dimension has also become consolidated as a key element in guaranteeing integration processes. Education, and in a unique way the school itself, has a powerful influence on society and is, at the same time, a good reflection of it. Education policies must aspire to teach with quality and rigour, working on the basis of equality and respect. In this respect, the area of education is crucial for guiding and reinforcing the democratic values that shape us as a society, encouraging the formation of an active and conscious citizenry to fully develop the national project.

The educational dimension also needs reviewing from two different aspects: first, indicators that show the performance of the school community in respect of its origins. To achieve this, the indicators taken into account are the level of studies achieved, school drop-out rates and student performance. Secondly, a study is made of how far diversity has become incorporated into the field of education.
**Figure 4.15.** Level of studies achieved by the foreign population (15-64 years old and no longer in education) in Catalonia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Native nationality</th>
<th>Native nationality and one other</th>
<th>Foreign nationality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low level</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium level</td>
<td>72.6</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High level</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Figure 4.16.** Level of studies achieved by the foreign population (15-64 years old and no longer in education) in the EU (by country)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Level of education achieved</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low level</td>
<td>Medium level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAT</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus1,2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovak Republic</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EU total (28)</strong></td>
<td><strong>36</strong></td>
<td><strong>38</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to the indicator for level of studies achieved, its importance lies in the fact that it provides an analysis of the capacities of the human resources at the disposal of the country as well as the challenges to be faced in educating the adult population. It is important to bear in mind that these data present a current analysis according to nationality, but this table does not take into account how many years people have spent in the country, which explains why it might be interpreted that a large proportion of this foreign population spent their school years in their country of origin.

When it comes to data that can be used for comparisons in the realm of European indicators, special attention is given to the level of education achieved by the foreign population, and the gaps that need to be corrected in relation to the native population.

With regard to the indicator for early school leaving, it looks into the proportion of young people, between 15 and 24 years old, who do not attend either school or formal training courses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native nationality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native nationality and one other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign nationality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


With regard to student performance, the indicators used come from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), which correlates the proficiency of 15 year-olds in mathematics, science and reading comprehension. The data, taken from the PISA 2012 report, allows results to be compared.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proficiency in mathematics</th>
<th>Proficiency in reading comprehension</th>
<th>Proficiency in science</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-native</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Evaluation Council of the Education System.

PISA data also facilitate the comparison of results with OECD countries in the sphere of education (only European Union countries are selected here), distinguishing between the origin of the students. With regard to the integration of the immigrant population, the crossover with PISA is only in respect of reading comprehension, which reveals a worrying situation for Catalonia shared with all of Mediterranean Europe, where the results of non-native students are clearly weaker than native ones.

Finally, the indicator for the education system explores actions to promote diversity in schools, giving attention not only to the extent that schools reflect the plural nature of society but also how to incorporate the issue of diversity of origin by working towards
Figure 4.19. Mean results for proficiency in reading comprehension according to origin

![Graph showing proficiency in reading comprehension by origin across different countries](image)


respecting differences. School should be the natural place for promoting interaction between people from different cultures and origins (students and also parents) and to build a social environment in which everybody feels at ease, accepted and integrated.

Figure 4.20. Trends in foreign students’ school attendance. 2003-2013

![Graph showing trends in foreign students’ school attendance](image)

Source: IDESCAT.
For the EDUCATION SYSTEM indicator the achievement rate in Catalonia is 55% and the ICC average is 66%.

School attendance by foreign students grew steadily during the decade following the year 2000 and has stabilized in recent years.

This school attendance has largely taken place in public schools and education centres, an issue to be borne in mind in order to avoid the existence of ‘educational ghettos’ or the ‘white flight’ of the native population who do not accept the reality of the region.

Figure 4.21. Trends in foreign students’ school attendance according to who runs the centre. 2004-2013

On the other hand, it is important to incorporate diversity into the training received by the teachers as well as the composition of the collective itself. Equally, involving the parents of foreign students in school life is an important factor in encouraging a sense of belonging and interaction, not only amongst students but also families. The visualization of diversity is also important in activities and actions carried out in educational centres and, in this respect, a good job has been done in Catalonia through its educational plans.\textsuperscript{12} The plans represent an educational proposal aimed at meeting society’s different needs and challenges, offering an integrated community response to students’ educational requirements whilst relating them to other educational actions in other areas of their reality.

\textsuperscript{12} More information at http://xtec.gencat.cat/ca/comunitat/entorn_pee/
Access of foreign students to pre- and post-compulsory education: lights and shadows
Miquel Àngel Alegre Canosa, analyst, IVÀLUA – the Catalan Institute for the Evaluation of Public Policies

Presentation

It is commonly understood that educational inequalities manifest themselves in three key areas of the schooling process: access to different levels of education (differences in the probability of taking part in the different stages of education); educational conditions (differences in the probability of being able to enjoy a certain minimum quality of educational environments and resources); and educational results (the differences in the probabilities of achieving a specified level of learning and qualifications). All three types of inequalities are mutually conditional. For example, the possibility of access to high quality education at primary school age determines educational results at later stages of study, which in turn determine access to post-compulsory education.

Fully aware of the bias of its focus, this note chooses to concentrate its attention on the first of these aspects, that of access, a dimension in which inequalities between foreign and native students is still evident. It focuses equally on the manifestations and implications of this inequality in both the pre- and post-compulsory stages of education.

Education from 0 to 3 years old

In Catalonia, second cycle infant education, from three to six years old, is considered as a non-compulsory age group for school attendance but is universally available; i.e. every child is guaranteed a free place paid by public funds. In practice, over the last decade, school attendance rates for this age group have increased to a level of virtually 100%. The situation for educating 0 to 3 year-olds is very different, and is not recognized either as compulsory or universal. Here we find an overall school attendance rate of 0 to 2 year-olds which in the 2013-2014 academic year reached 36%, with major disparities between the different infant population groups.

The under-representation of certain groups (amongst them, as will be seen later, foreign infants) in first cycle infant education is especially problematic when considering the benefits that this educational cycle can generate in terms of educational opportunities (Ombudsman, 2015). It is in the first years of life that a person’s cognitive and non-cognitive skills experience their most significant development; it is also the time when these skills are at their most malleable; educational intervention can help to boost this development; the success of subsequent interventions in later years and stages in an individual’s education cycle will depend on the success of this first educational intervention. The literature also concurs in noting that it is the infants from more socioeconomically and culturally vulnerable families who usually benefit most from attending school from an early age. This would very often be the case with families and infants of foreign extraction, a population group which, in Catalonia, has traditionally found itself under-represented in first cycle infant education.

The comparison between school attendance rates between natives and foreigners from 0 to 2 years old at this stage of education demonstrates this. As shown in Graph 1, the school attendance rate of foreign infants has stayed at around 7% over the last academic years, well below the equivalent rate for native Spanish infants, also quite stable and always in excess of 40%.
Graph 1. School attendance rate for 0 to 2 year-olds. 
Academic years 2010/2011 to 2013/2015. Catalonia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Normalization index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010/2011</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/2012</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/2013</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/2014</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This inequality in the access to education of 0 to 3 year-olds is reflected in the normalization index for the presence of foreign infants at this stage (Table 1). This index measures the degree to which the presence of this population group in 0 to 3 year-old education corresponds to the group’s demographic weight across all of the theoretical benchmark ages. From the academic year 2010-2011, this parameter always maintained a level of 0.2, well below the level of 1 which would indicate the presence of a normalized foreign population in first cycle infant schooling. The situation described by these data is worrying, especially when recalling the benefits that research attributes to early schooling, especially for infants from more vulnerable families.

Post-compulsory secondary education

Here we consider a period of schooling that is neither compulsory nor universal, unlike second cycle infant education (universal though not compulsory), primary education and secondary education (ESO) (both compulsory and universal). This means that the Public Administration is not obliged to guarantee a free public grant for places to all of those students who decide they want to continue in formal education beyond the compulsory period. At the same time, the
Administration is obliged to give students an incentive to go into post-compulsory secondary education (academic or professional) by generating conditions that make it possible (i.e., both in terms of publicly funded places as well as their availability throughout the whole region).

Indeed, accessing post-compulsory secondary education and completing it successfully significantly improves a young person’s opportunities in their transition towards adulthood, thanks mainly to the improvements in their job prospects. The relationship between the level of education and employment prospects (access to jobs and working conditions) has been repeatedly reinforced both in Catalonia⁵ and on an international level.⁶

Given that the first requisite for completing non-compulsory secondary education is having access to it, it is therefore vitally important to give young people from all population groups a fair chance of participating in this stage of education. On this point it is worth mentioning that the existing inequalities between young native and foreign people have reduced over recent academic years.

This issue is a factor in the comparison between gross enrolment rates in secondary education and professional training (CFGM and PQPI) by natives and foreigners.⁷ As Graph 2 shows, school attendance rates of young foreign people at this stage of education have experienced a much larger increase over recent years than those of young native people. Specifically, between the academic years 2006-2007 and 2013-2014, this index went from 28.5% to 61.7% amongst young foreigners and from 66% to 77.3% for Spanish nationals; that means, the inequality between the level of participation of each of these population groups in post-compulsory secondary studies decreased by almost 60% between 2006-2007 and 2013-2014. This situation is reflected in the way normalization figures have progressed with the presence of foreign students in these studies, rising from 0.47 to 0.82 between the two academic years taken as a reference (table 2).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Normalization index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2006/2007</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/2008</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008/2009</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009/2010</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010/2011</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/2012</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/2013</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/2014</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is difficult to know to what extent the increase in the participation of young foreigners in post-compulsory education is due to: a) a change in the sociodemographic composition of this group (new less vulnerable or more integrated foreign cohorts); b) the contraction in the labour market provoked by the crisis (especially in low-skilled sectors that just a few years ago attracted young people in a more vulnerable academic situation); c) the implementation of specific policies and educational practices aimed at improving the educational perspectives of these young people.

Whatever the case, the data put forward indicate a positive trend, a trend that needs to be reaffirmed by fighting against inequalities in both the performance and results between native and foreign students that take place at all stages of compulsory education, as well as disparities in the patterns of continuity beyond the ESO stage which, given equal results, can arise between one population group and another.

Conclusions

This note has concentrated on the participation of foreign students in two key periods within the educational cycle: in the education of 0 to 3 year-olds and in compulsory post-secondary education. As has been pointed out, going through both of these educational stages has been shown to be crucial for the present and future opportunities of new generations. For this reason, if the aim is to significantly reduce the educational and social vulnerabilities experienced by foreign infants and young people, it would seem indispensable to promote and encourage their participation in the two educational stages in question.

It has been shown that the situation is especially problematic in the case of the education of 0 to 3 year-olds, an age group in which foreign infants are significantly under-represented. Here is not the place to discuss which formulas and mechanisms could be used to give fairer access to this educational cycle for the different populations groups. Some studies have, for example, taken a positive stance on progressively increasing the availability of nursery school places and expanding a system of social pricing related to family income. Others also comment on the need for a balanced roll-out from a territorial point of view. Whatever the case, it does seem that we are faced with the need to make a key decision for equalizing educational opportunities for foreign students (and not only for foreigners).

On the other hand, the situation regarding access to post-compulsory secondary education is quite different. In this area, the participation of young foreigners has grown increasingly over recent years, a trend that has led to the progressive reduction in their under-representation in this study area. As mentioned, the tendency is positive. To reinforce it implies
a double challenge. On the one hand, it is vital to design and develop measures and means that serve diversity and which are able to improve the academic perspectives of foreign students in the compulsory stages of education. Catalonia has introduced a range of such alternatives over recent years. Some have been of a specific nature (induction plans, educational welcome centres, classes on induction and integration), others have included assistance for foreign students within the framework of standardized strategies for managing diversity (curricular diversification, flexible groupings, collaborative groups), while others have gone beyond the educational sphere and been directed at the fight against segregation in schools. While it is true that a great many of these alternatives have been rigorously assessed in other countries and the results collected in various information banks, in our case their introduction has not taken this accumulated knowledge into account, and also there have been very few serious studies done to evaluate their impact. It is therefore necessary to plot these initiatives based on the appropriate empirical foundations and to have them assessed effectively.

On the other hand, it is also necessary to improve the mechanisms of guidance and tutoring in compulsory secondary education, so that all the different student collectives are equally disposed to continue studying once compulsory schooling is completed. Some authors have pointed out the shortcomings in the current standard guidance system towards secondary education, and have opted for more integrated guidance models over longer periods of time. In the case of foreign students, there is the added challenge of determining to which point guidance mechanisms need to be translated into specific procedures to assist them, differentiated from standard support procedures. Also on this subject, advances should be made in using the accumulated knowledge about the effectiveness of the various strategies introduced and providing conditions that can generate new evidence.

4. Even though we do not go into details here, it should be noted that the benefits of primary age schooling are also evident in terms of mothers entering the labour market, especially younger and more qualified mothers. See Blasco, J. (2015).
7. This indicator tells us about the relationship between the total student body enrolled for a particular stage of education and the total number of the population theoretically of an age to study it. In the case of post-compulsory secondary studies, we limit the theoretical benchmark age to between 16 and 18 years old.
10. See, for example, Bonal, X. (Ed.). (2012).
11. See, for example, the platform What Works Clearinghouse (http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/), promoted since 2002 by the Institute of Education Sciences of the US Federal Government, or the repository of the Education Endowment Foundation (https://educationendowmentfoundation.org.uk/), a foundation set up in the United Kingdom in 2011.
13. The rethinking of the model for induction classes scheduled to come into operation from the academic year 2015-2016 and which will mainly affect secondary education intends, specifically, to strengthen its functions of social integration and professional guidance (http://goo.gl/ecQ5RP).
4.2.5. The sociocultural dimension

The sociocultural dimension is a compilation of all the indicators that deal with the participation and interaction of native and foreign people in society. The indicators of this dimension consider different aspects: on the one hand, the indicators of active citizenship include the percentage of foreign nationals who have obtained nationality and those who have long-term residence permits. The percentage of immigrants who figure amongst elected representatives have not been taken into account, because current legislation makes foreigners ineligible, with some specific exceptions in local elections, and the data either do not exist or are not available.

Also included as indicators are the rate of social exclusion (poverty) and home ownership, but it was not possible to incorporate information on self-perceived health status, as the data in Catalonia are not broken down by origin or nationality.

On the other hand, the indicators of a social and cultural nature permit an analysis of how far diversity is present in cultural and social life in places of leisure and in the media. Language as an integration vector is also a key indicator for this dimension.

With regard to indicators for naturalization, it is interesting to note that the majority of people resident in Catalonia who obtain Spanish nationality, do so after only two years of residence, being mainly the population born in Latin America. The proportion of people born in the country who acquire nationality is the third reason for obtaining residency while the proportion that obtains it for reasons of marriage is still small.

Table 4.1. Granting of Spanish nationality through residence (2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>2 years residence</th>
<th>10 years residence</th>
<th>Born ESP</th>
<th>Married ESP</th>
<th>Child/grandchild ESP</th>
<th>Others/NS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Catalonia</td>
<td>21,658</td>
<td>10,322</td>
<td>5,577</td>
<td>4,250</td>
<td>1,322</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Permanent Observatory on Immigration: Concession of Spanish nationality by residence. 2014.

In relation to the indicator for residence, based on the number of permanent residence authorizations in effect, this confirms that most of the non-EU community that lives in Catalonia already has this type of permit.

Table 4.2. Non-EU residents with a long-term residence permit/authorization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Long-term residency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Catalonia</td>
<td>594,408</td>
<td>481,638</td>
<td>80.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In relation to the indicator of social exclusion, or the poverty rate, this reflects the proportion of people who live beneath the poverty threshold, which according to Eurostat is 60% of a country’s average disposable per capita income.

The indicator shows a significant disparity between the native and foreign population at risk of social exclusion. While the former represents 16% of the population of reference, the latter is 50.5%.
Table 4.3. People at risk of social exclusion (poverty rate) by origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>People</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native</td>
<td>880.8</td>
<td>74.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>304.5</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,185.4</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IDESCAT based on data from the INE Survey on Living Conditions (Based on 2013).

Figure 4.22. Rate of people at risk of social exclusion according to origin (2012)


The indicator of **home ownership** offers a means of measuring to what extent the behaviour of the immigrant population reflects that of the native population in the model of their usual residence.

In the case of Catalonia, most of the foreign population lives in rented accommodation, which is diametrically opposed to the native population, most of whom live in owned accommodation.
Table 4.4. Type of housing (in percentages) according to origin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Native</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Owned</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rented</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Granted free of charge</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IDESCAT based on data from the INE Survey on Living Conditions (Based on 2013).

When compared with Europe, the difference in the type of housing ownership is high in every case, with the exception of Germany where a very high percentage of the native population also live in rented accommodation. Once again, the most notable differences between the native and foreign populations in relationship to home ownership are found in the countries of southern Europe.

Figure 4.23. Percentage of home ownership by nationality (2012)

In relation to the indicator of the media, this indicator analyses to what extent there are strategies of coordinated action with the media for them to address diversity and present information in a responsible way.

For the MEDIA indicator, the rate of achievement for Catalonia is 38% while the ICC average is 46%.

Specific actions aimed at the media to inform them about the reality of diversity in Catalonia should become structural, especially because the media have been regarded by a large proportion of the people interviewed as one of the areas where there is a need to strengthen the discourse on the reality of immigration and integration in Catalonia. Specialized training, given directly or in collaboration with the Journalists’ Association of
Catalonia (an institution which has signed up to the National Pact for Immigration) is still necessary, as is monitoring the way diversity is treated in the media, especially to avoid simplified images of immigration which are also very much associated with the period of the first arrivals and no longer corresponds to the Catalan situation. The Diverscat agenda is, for example, a useful instrument which has resulted from collaboration among various institutions, including the Directorate General for Immigration, and needs to be more strongly promoted.

In relation to the indicator for culture and leisure, this indicator aims to analyse to what extent diversity is incorporated in the different fields of action, and how it is fostered in exchanges and interactions between citizens from different cultures. The public administration can be influential here through its own activities and by the way in which it distributes resources to cultural and civil society organizations.

In the CULTURE AND LEISURE indicator, the rate of achievement of Catalonia is 81% while the ICC average is 78%.

The Directorate General for Immigration takes diversity into account as a criterion when it comes to providing grants or subsidies to associations and other entities. However, there is a need to extend this criterion to other areas. The cultural and associative life of immigrant communities is a rich one and enjoys the support of the Catalan administration, but it is necessary to continue consolidating more general spaces in which everyone, regardless of their origin, takes part, but without this being the central focus for get-togethers. In this respect, the cultural activities already consolidated in Catalonia are essential spaces in which to incorporate diversity, without changing the objectives of cultural expression of these same activities.

In relation to the indicator for language, this indicator is key to understanding that it is not just about investing in teaching languages so that the whole immigrant population can converse in the native languages, but also about allowing the majority to learn or at least have a notion of the minority languages and give them more visibility in the public sphere. Languages are the wealth of a country from a social, cultural and economic perspective, and thus their promotion and protection is a key factor. A successful multilingual territory is one that takes advantage of its linguistic plurality in favour of its own native language and its own interests.

In the LANGUAGE indicator, the achievement rate of Catalonia is 59% while the average for the ICC is 50%.

The reality of a traditionally bilingual society such as Catalonia has entailed a huge investment in teaching Spanish and, especially, Catalan, so that the foreign non-school-age population in Catalonia can become competent in both languages as soon as possible. In this respect, and in relation to Catalan, these efforts have produced relatively positive results, especially in relation to reading and understanding, though much less so when it comes to writing. Most immigrants living in Catalonia understand and are able to read Catalan, while just over half can speak it and just one-third of this collective are able to write it. In relation to Spanish, the data on oral comprehension and expression skills and reading comprehension are almost 100%, with a small drop in the number able to write it.
The linguistic integration of immigrants in Catalonia

Vicent Climent-Ferrando, advisor on language policy and migration, European Network to Promote Linguistic Diversity (NPLD)

The integration policies of a territory are closely associated with its linguistic policy. Beyond their symbolic and identifying character, languages are a key factor for participation in the host society, in the feeling of belonging and being rooted in a society. Knowledge of the four linguistic skills – understanding, reading, speaking and writing – make immigrants independent by helping them to understand the reality of their situation and putting them on an equal linguistic playing field as everyone else. Languages are thus an essential element of social cohesion, mobility and job opportunities.

The arrival in Catalonia of more than one million people of foreign origin in less than a decade, taking a population that was around 6.3 million inhabitants at the start of the century to over 7.5 million, has also had demolinguistic repercussions. In a bilingual society such as the Catalan one – and trilingual in Vall d’Aran – it is important that immigrants have equal access to learning both languages to ensure the full and genuine realization of their participation, job opportunities and social cohesion. However, the data have demonstrated the balance of power between the different official languages. Immigrants, many of whom are unaware of the sociolinguistic situation of the country, with its own language – Catalan – tend to adopt the language that is socially and economically stronger.

The most recent data from the Survey on Language Use of the Population (EULP 2013) show the current discrepancies between knowledge levels of the two languages: while knowledge of Spanish reaches almost 100% in the four communication skills, the figures for Catalan vary considerably and range from relatively high comprehension (94.3% in 2013) to a substantially lower figure for writing (60.4% in 2013), as shown in Table 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Understand Can speak</th>
<th>Can read</th>
<th>Can write</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cat</td>
<td>Spa</td>
<td>Cat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>94.6%</td>
<td>99.9%</td>
<td>78.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>94.3%</td>
<td>99.8%</td>
<td>80.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: EULP 2013. Population aged 15 or over.

The most exhaustive analysis of Catalan language by levels, illustrated in Graph 1, offers a more accurate demolinguistic analysis of Catalan knowledge of society as a whole: in Catalonia, 48.1% of the population has a high level of Catalan in all language skills (2,963,000 people), while 17.5% have no problem speaking it but only a basic
level of reading and writing (1,080,000) and 7.8% (483,000) can understand and read it but still have difficulties speaking and writing it. One in every four citizens aged 15 or over (26.6%) has shortcomings (1,634,000), as they either do not know the language or have only a very basic knowledge, or have a low level in every skill (10.5%) or don’t understand other people or only understand very little (11.1%).

According to the EULP 2013, there is still a large proportion of the population with only basic knowledge of Catalan despite the incorporation of new and better-educated generations and the progressive loss of generations with less education in the Catalan language; indeed, there was stagnation in the situation in 2008, which supports the claim that in Catalonia, even though most Catalans say they have language abilities in all the skills (understanding, speaking, reading and writing), these do not approach the almost total knowledge of Spanish. Even though people believe they have mastery of the language in one or more of the skills areas, the fact is that when it comes to declaring the level of knowledge, a significant number of people admit to difficulties even in understanding Catalan.

Graph 1. Knowledge of Catalan by levels. 2013

Given this demolinguistic analysis, the promotion of the Catalan language in integration policies has always been one of the priority objectives of the different Catalan governments. With this in mind, since 2005 various public political structures have been either created or modified to take account of this new situation. Thus in 2005 the decree regulating the Social Council of the Catalan Language was amended¹ to include, for the first time, members who had arrived as immigrants, getting them involved in the country’s language policy. Likewise, in 2008 the Citizen and Immigration Committee was set up² to replace the former Advisory Council on Immigration, with the aim of establishing a platform and a channel for the participation of immigrants in the Catalan Government’s immigration policies.

These structural modifications to encourage the participation of immigrants were supplemented by systematic consultation in drawing up the Catalan Government’s different Citizen and Immigration plans, which strengthened Catalan as the common language through the National Pact for Immigration in 2008, and Catalan as the reception language in the Reception Law of 2010. In 2014, the government approved the decree regulating the reception services of immigrants and returnees to Catalonia with the aim of promoting the autonomy and equality of opportunity of these collectives through knowledge of the official languages, the operating systems of the host society and its legal and occupational framework. All these policies geared towards making immigrants more familiar with the languages enjoyed a high degree of consensus among the different parliamentary parties.

This political approach to the linguistic integration of immigrants materialized in a series of specific measures aimed at familiarizing the immigrant population with the Catalan language, promoted by the Directorate General for Language Policy and, more specifically, by the Consortium of Language Normalization (CPNL): a significant increase in the range of Catalan courses available through the CPNL; resources for language hosting in Catalonia, and
the language pairs programme known as ‘Voluntaris per la Llengua’ (Language Volunteers), amongst many other initiatives.

The aim of familiarizing immigrants with the language is not just a top-down political objective, i.e. from institutions to society, but enjoys the support and consensus of the whole Catalan associative network. The Census of Organizations that Foster the Catalan Language, which encompasses foundations and associations that organize activities to foster the Catalan language amongst a variety of collectives, have increased to the point where there were 171 association in 2015, 20% more than in 2014, and the highest figure since the creation of the Census in 2002. We can therefore state that the linguistic integration policy in Catalonia has entailed a double strategy – both top-down and bottom-up.

In spite of the migratory intensity of the first decade of the century, and despite the number of people who still have difficulties with the Catalan language, the figures for enrolments on Catalan courses demonstrate the high level of interest of the foreign-born population in familiarizing themselves with the Catalan language. Of the total number of enrolments for CPNL courses, over 60% are of foreign origin, figures that may have dropped slightly in the last few years due to the change in migratory trends, but are still high, as you can see in Table 2.

### Table 2. Number of enrolments for CPNL Catalan courses by origin (2012-2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total no. of enrolments</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th>Rest of Spain</th>
<th>Catalonia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>67,475</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>78,790</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>98,329</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: drawn up by the authors based on data from the CNPL Annual Report (2012-2014).

The figures also point to a positive trend in terms of interest in learning Catalan. As you can see in Graph 2, it is the immigrant community that has expressed the greatest determination and expectations when it comes to learning Catalan. Thus more than 44% of immigrants, some 475,000 people, say they have never done a Catalan course but would like to do one, while 26.4%, some 275,000 people, say they have already done a Catalan course and would like to continue learning the language. In total, around 750,000 foreign-born individuals are interested in actively learning the Catalan language.

### Graph 2. Interest in learning Catalan, by place of birth (2013)

Source: EULP 2013.
While knowledge of Catalan is very good given the context of huge migratory pressure in a very short space of time, there are still elements that point to the need to take more active action in teaching Catalan to the immigrant population in order to reach the same level of skills that they have in Spanish and ensure their full participation in Catalan society. Thus 61.5% of foreigners in Catalonia either have little or no knowledge of Catalan. If we compare the data on the different linguistic skills in Catalan and Spanish, it can be seen that the percentages in Spanish fluctuate between 80% and 100% in the foreign-born population, and not just in the community of Latin American origin (most of whom speak Spanish as their native language) but also among non-Spanish-speaking foreigners, as shown in Graph 3 based on data from the EULP 2013.

**Graph 3. Knowledge of Spanish by place of birth**

![Graph showing knowledge levels of Spanish by place of birth](image)

Source: EULP 2013.

In contrast, the pull of Catalan, even among people who do not come from Spanish-speaking countries, is significantly lower, as shown by the data from EULP 2013 in Graph 4, which drops to 30% with regard to writing skills.

These data indicate that Spanish has a greater power of attraction and is more widespread than Catalan, even among the population for whom Spanish is not their first language. There are evidently two trends that need to be taken into account. On the one hand, as stated in the EULP 2013, Catalan as a language of identification (people who regard it as their own language, even if it was not their first or native language) has led more than 750,000 people (12.1% of the population aged over 15) to declare that they identify themselves with Catalan even though they have other linguistic origins, a very considerable number. On the other hand, it is worth emphasizing that this origin is predominantly Spanish and that the volume of speakers of other languages who identify with Catalan is significantly smaller. In July 2015, the report entitled *The Situation of the Catalan Language* (2014) was published, and its coordinator and director of the CRUSCAT Network of the IED clearly admitted that despite the advances achieved in recent years, ‘Catalan still has a lot of difficulty attracting speakers among the population of new arrivals, which hinders the objective of making Catalan the language of social cohesion’.4
In November 2014, the Government approved the decree regulating the reception services for immigrants and returnees to Catalonia to promote autonomy and equality of opportunity through the official languages. The text duly laid out the Reception Law of 2010, in compliance with the provisions established in Article 138.1 of the Statute of Autonomy of Catalonia and establishing the need for accreditations in knowledge of Catalan and Spanish. To obtain a reception certificate, a legally valid document for immigration formalities, the decree established the need for accreditation of knowledge of Catalan and Spanish, or education in both languages by means of formal courses of 90 hours.

These new powers of the Catalan Government should be seen as a positive move as they bring immigrants in contact with both languages through language teaching with the goal of providing them with autonomy and equal opportunities to progress and develop in Catalan society. It is essential, however, that this linguistic obligation is not perceived as a simple administrative process but that it is used as a gateway to the linguistic reality of the country. A reality which, as confirmed by an analysis of the survey, is not very polarized, structured mainly upon the basis of both languages, Catalan and Spanish, which dominate public life with an average use of 41% and 53% respectively, added to which are the languages of immigration which are becoming more and more evident in the labour market.

It is worth noting, therefore, that despite the need to know both languages in order to obtain a reception certificate, this obligation might potentially cause a sense of animosity towards the language precisely because of this compulsory nature. A more exhaustive analysis of the data on the origin of those enrolled for Catalan courses by level (see table 3) indicates that while those who were born abroad make up the bulk of students on the basic and elementary courses (an average of 85% and 60% respectively) —which are the courses that serve to obtain the reception certificate— these percentages drop significantly down to 2.5% when it comes to advanced courses in the language; in other words, courses taken to serve the individual’s interest.

Source: EULP 2013.
Table 3. Enrolled in CPNL Catalan courses (2012-2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Catalonia</th>
<th>Rest of Spain</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial and basic</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
<td>45.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>61.4%</td>
<td>61.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>90.1%</td>
<td>89.8%</td>
<td>89.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complementary or specific</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>51.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: prepared by the authors based on data from the CPNL (2012-2014).

These data might indicate that while interest in learning basic Catalan is very high among foreigners, their willingness to continue learning into the intermediate and higher levels—which would give them the appropriate language knowledge for full linguistic integration—drops off considerably. We therefore need to avoid the situation of this initial interest only responding to the compulsory nature of language learning in order to get a reception certificate, and encourage the more than 750,000 people who, as mentioned earlier, have shown an interest in gaining a more extensive knowledge of Catalan.

**Recommendations**

The requirement for a minimum compulsory level of Catalan and Spanish is a first useful and necessary step to understanding the linguistic reality of Catalonia, but it is not a guarantee of the full linguistic integration of immigrants. Real knowledge of a language comes about through its continuous use. It is therefore not a pre-existing condition of integration but rather the result of participating in Catalan society. The results shown above demonstrate that this participation is primarily done in Spanish.

In order for a language to be used, there has to be a need. While in societies with one official language the need to learn the host language is real simply due to the fact that there is only one and there is consequently no choice, in more complex linguistic societies, like ours, with Catalan as the native language (and Aranese in Vall d’Aran) and Spanish as an official language, the focus of linguistic integration measures must be necessity be diverse, geared towards raising the awareness of the immigrant population of the linguistic reality of Catalonia and the importance of knowing both languages for full integration and participation in Catalan society. Some of the measures applied to the Catalan context could be as follows:

1. The compulsory language learning for the first reception certificate should be accompanied by a large component of contextual knowledge about the Catalan linguistic situation. Very often, many immigrants are completely unaware of the existence of our native language when they reach Catalonia for the first time, and can develop a certain reticence towards the Catalan language and the fact of being obliged to learn it to obtain a reception certificate. It is therefore extremely important that teachers work actively to dispel any negative attitudes, to improve empathy towards the Catalan reality and to be able to make the immigrant population understand that the host society is also their society, and that in order to fully participate in it they need to learn both languages, Catalan and Spanish. In this respect, the interview held with the management of the Consortium for Language Normalization indicates that it is already working along these lines.
2. As confirmed by the analysis of the EULP 2013, the scarce incorporation of the use of Catalan by these collectives is firstly due to the little objective need that they have had to use the language during this last decade of arrival and settlement. It is therefore necessary that the language policy directed at the integration of immigrants continues to work determinedly, as it has up to now, with society in general and the labour market in particular to encourage the use of the Catalan language in social and work situations, offering immigrants the opportunity to put their knowledge of Catalan to use in real social situations.

3. It is highly advisable that a holistic and advanced language policy which addresses the linguistic realities of immigration also takes into account, in an active rather than a discursive way, the languages of immigration. In Catalonia there are currently 662,300 people with a different native language from Catalan or Spanish, broken down as follows: Arabic (151,700); Romanian (56,100), Amazigh (41,800), French (38,800), Galician (33,200), Russian (31,900), Italian (29,200), Portuguese (26,500) and English (26,500). Similarly, in the 2013-2014 academic year there were 164,877 foreign students in Catalan schools, accounting for 12.1% of all schoolchildren.5

In view of the current economic and social situation, with very high mobility figures among both the immigrant and native populations, an advanced language policy would need to bear in mind the social and linguistic capital of the multilingualism of its population. Apart from Catalan and Spanish as the essential tools for full integration into Catalan society, and the specific support measure for Catalan to reach every member of the immigrant population, maintaining immigrants’ languages in second generations and the children of mixed-language couples – an increasingly common fact in our society – could become the keys to professional development and mobility and, in short, to their integration not only in Catalonia but in an increasingly globalized world.

These languages represent personal, social and economic enrichment for Catalonia: personal, because the children of immigrants or mixed-language couples see how the host country – Catalonia – has taken their languages into account, allowing them to avoid an intergenerational linguistic rupture; social, because it makes the host society more open, plural, rich and diverse; and economic because many of these immigrants’ languages are those of countries with which we have commercial and economic relations, and this can make Catalonia a more dynamic and competitive society.

In short, we need a dynamic and open vision of what linguistic integration means in a society such as Catalonia’s with our social, political and economic characteristics. It needs to be a vision removed from static viewpoints and impositions; it needs to be focused on the Catalan language, the native language of Catalonia, which still displays levels of knowledge that are remarkably inferior to those of the Spanish language, which is known by almost the entire immigrant population. It would be advisable to continue with a language policy that is centred on constantly raising awareness, empathy and esteem for the host society. We need a cohesive society that avoids the fragmentation and social tensions that result from a lack of linguistic integration.

It is important to insist, as did the EULP 2013, on the vital importance of the Catalan educational system as a guarantee of the full knowledge of both languages. As stated in the EULP 2013, today the General Directorate for Language Policy is the only social institution that guarantees knowledge of both Catalan and Spanish in the entire Catalan population, regardless of their origin.

Given the high level of politicization of the role of Catalan as the vehicular language of the educational system through constant political questioning, which argues against the lack of freedom of choice of the vehicular language in Catalan schools, we need to reiterate, time
and again, that true choice lies in full knowledge of both languages. You can only choose a language when you know it. And the system that guarantees full knowledge of both official languages – Catalan and Spanish – is the immersive educational system. The current Catalan educational system guarantees full knowledge of both languages, it establishes equal linguistic conditions for all students, regardless of their origin, and it explains the absence of fragmentation, discrimination or social tension due to a lack of language knowledge.

The linguistic integration policies in bilingual contexts cannot reproduce the conception and logic of State immigration policies, which are based on monolingualism, whereby the immigrant has no other option or choice, and which are often conceived more as a mechanism of controlling immigrants than as a step towards their integration. It is therefore necessary to continue working to bring immigration closer to the reality of our language – of our languages – through a sense of empathy and esteem for the host society, a society that is increasingly multilingual; a society that is for all of us.


**Figure 4.24. Some indicators of the sociocultural dimension**

Without a doubt, the sociocultural dimension is one of the areas where it is most evident that, above and beyond the first immigrant reception actions, there is a need to consolidate a diverse society that allows people to feel comfortable irrespective of their origins, but without losing either its unity or its identity.

The sum of these elements is one of the great challenges that faces us today in most European nations, and in this respect Catalonia is still immersed in a process that started later in this direction. Social cohesion, respect for diversity and peaceful and participative coexistence are the basic elements when talking about social integration and, indeed, the construction of an integrated and inclusive Catalan society.
Main Conclusions and Recommendations

Throughout this report, we have tried to provide an accurate analysis of the reality of the immigrant population in Catalonia as well as the public policies that need to be designed to deal with the inclusion of this new population in the social reality of Catalonia. The objective of this series of policies is none other than to manage the journey from the status of immigrant to that of citizen, based on equal rights, social equality and economic equality (Zapata 2010).

The logic is based in what already appears in The Citizenship and Immigration Plan 2005 which advocates the promotion of a ‘concept of citizenship that includes the non-native population of Catalonia’. The National Pact for Immigration strengthens this idea and, indeed, has become the cornerstone of a series of public actions aimed at consolidating this equality of citizenship based on residence in Catalonia, in an attempt to mitigate any imbalances and inequalities that might arise for reasons of origin or nationality.

But up to what point can we consider that these objectives have been consolidated over the last few years? The data and indicators analysed confirm that significant advances have been made in this direction, but this task is not completely finished.

‘A lot of work has been done but there is still a lot to do, and we need to be aware of this’.

Interview with an educational institution

In relation to the institutional dimension, we can state that despite having a conceptual framework that already points to the need to overcome the logic of reception when talking about immigration in Catalonia, this fact has still not been truly taken on board in the way we think about and manage integration in Catalonia. Crossing the bridge of immigration to talk about diverse citizenship is also a matter of narrative.

‘We need to build a narrative to educate people on what Catalan society is like.’

Political party

It is not about, or at least it is not only about, defining clearly which is Catalonia’s model of integration in relation to the integration models put forward by the academic sector over the years. It is more about strengthening the basic principles on which this
model of integration should be based, and making them commonplace and shared through political and social consensus. Indeed, the principles of equality, interaction and participation, social cohesion, transversality and respect for diversity that are already enshrined in the National Pact for Immigration are clearly characteristic features of an intercultural model. But above and beyond this classification, the challenge lies in the fact that these are key elements in (re)thinking all public policy in Catalonia. To the same extent that gender is a key issue in guiding public actions to avoid discrimination, so diversity of origin should also be incorporated in this logic. Building policies that address diversity is the best way of guaranteeing that nobody is excluded from Catalan society, and that this coexistence in diversity is the best guarantee for social cohesion.

‘The great challenge is achieving the participation [of immigrant communities] in the public spaces of citizen decision-making.’

Social organization

This need to review the conceptualization of diversity can be clearly seen in the public policy dimension. We can state that the reception processes have been conducted reasonably well and that the relevant services and instruments have worked correctly. However, we need to move forward in addressing certain actions and working areas where diversity has not been incorporated clearly enough, which could lead to problems of social conflict. A good measure towards achieving this would be the consolidation of the creation of the Catalan Migration Agency and changing the hierarchical structure so it reports to the Ministry of Presidency instead of the DGI.

In relation to public services, most of the people interviewed to draw up this report noted that access to services and resources has become a key factor in facilitating the initial reception of newly-arrived immigrants. This access to public services in a standardized and generalized way is a practice that has been highly rated as a vector for social cohesion, but it is feared that the impact of the economic crisis on the provision of services may leave certain communities at the side of the road towards full citizenship.

‘There are still first, second and third class citizens’.

Social organization

There is a lack of visibility of the immigration population in the public sphere and on many occasions it is difficult for minority cultural or religious expressions to be conducted normally.

On the other hand, it is essential to move forward with an antidiscrimination policy in Catalonia. Above and beyond one-off awareness-raising actions, training and information that go hand-in-hand with the arrival of foreigners in Catalonia, which have been carried out with considerable success, what we now need is to effectively execute the policy against discrimination that already exists in Catalan law. The need to gather information on discriminatory actions and measures, to establish preventive and corrective measures and sanctions is a major challenge if we are to guarantee the optimum operation of a society based on the Rule of Law. Rather than make mission statements, we need to roll
up our sleeves and construct a policy with the instruments and resources to fight against the hate crimes which threaten peaceful coexistence in Catalonia.

It is obvious that the analysis of the integration of the immigrant population in Catalonia in the last few years cannot be considered separately from the major economic crisis that Europe as a whole has endured, which has had a particularly strong impact on the countries of southern Europe. As mentioned in Chapter Three, while there has been a substantial improvement in the labour and economic indicators in the last year, the data available do not allow us to assume that this improvement has extended to the foreign population resident in Catalonia.

In relation to the employment dimension, we are finding a dualism in the labour market and a concentration of the foreign-born population in the jobs that have been most severely affected by the crisis, characterized by those that do not require many qualifications, especially in the case of men who have a worrying unemployment rate. It is of particular concern that it is always the same nationalities that obtain the worst labour integration indicators, which could indicate that there is a segmented process of integration that leaves certain collectives outside the optimal route to integration.

In addition, the instruments and mechanisms of the labour market do not seem to be designed to address an increasingly diverse reality. This factor indicates a significant loss of human capital and explains the difficulties that many immigrants come across when trying to normalize their situation in the labour market. Understanding diversity as an asset that brings innovation, transformation and competitive advantages is still a challenge to be overcome. In this respect, specific measures such as the standardization of qualifications and skills still form one of the main obstacles for many immigrants in the Catalan labour market. Their progressive incorporation in public institutions (which is very limited due to the public service law) must be effected by means of new recruitment formulas which start by making diversity more visible in our public administrations too. This visibility also needs to be encouraged in trade union structures and, to a much greater extent, in the business structures of our country.

“We are a diverse society but we have yet to assimilate this fact, and this is something that needs to be addressed”.

Social organization

In relation to the school dimension, the over-representation of the immigrant population in early drop-outs of the educational system is of particular concern, or its indirect effect on school failure. There are two key stages to which we need to pay particular attention: On the one hand, infant education up to the age of three, where foreign children are very under-represented, and on the other post-compulsory education. Although it is worth noting the positive fact of the growing participation of young foreigners in this latter educational stage, which has gradually reduced their under-representation, consolidating this trend is a key challenge in order to guarantee equal opportunities in adulthood.

At the same time, and impacting on what has been noted previously, it is necessary to commit to comprehensive and ambitious studies to evaluate the impact of the different measures that have been taken in the last few years. Although there is a lot of academic
literature in this field, it is necessary to take note of some of the evaluation initiatives carried out in neighbouring countries which allows for a more rigorous and cumulative knowledge of the evidence they contain.

The presence of young immigrants in the collective of young people who are neither studying nor working is particularly worrying because, as we have noted in neighbouring countries with a longer tradition of immigration, this is one of the keys to explaining the failure to adapt or processes of social exclusion at a later age. Overcoming this situation, however complex it may be, is the key to guaranteeing a cohesive Catalan society in the medium and long term.

At the same time, it is important to avoid the creation of a parallel education system which favours private and semi-private schools being used for teaching native students while foreigners or those of foreign origin are pushed into public schools. This possibility, which needs to be very much borne in mind, is definitely one of the clearest risks when talking about a diverse and cohesive society in the medium and long term.

In relation to the sociocultural dimension, once again, there is a need to realize that we are not experiencing a period of the arrival and reception of immigrant collectives but rather the incorporation of diversity in Catalan society. It is important that this is reflected in the public sphere, in cultural expressions, in diversity in the media and in language policies.

‘It is important to normalize the presence of people of immigrant origin in public television programmes: this will help to demolish many barriers and stereotypes’.

Social organization

In relation to language, it is necessary to understand that the requirement for a minimum mandatory level of knowledge of Catalan and Spanish is the first necessary and useful step to understanding the linguistic reality of Catalonia, but it is not a guarantee of the full linguistic integration of immigrants. Real knowledge of a language comes about through its continuous use. To the extent that knowledge of a language is the result of participation in society, it seems obvious that the results tell us that this participation, in Catalonia, is done mainly in Spanish. But the data also confirm that there is a need to continue with a language policy focused on constantly raising awareness, empathy and esteem for the host society, for whom Catalan is their native language.

On the other hand, it is also important, in a bilingual context (and trilingual in the case of Vall d’Aran) not to fall into the logic of monolingualism but, wherever possible, to adopt models that also uphold the languages of immigrants as part of the cultural capital of Catalan society. In this way, as well as making immigrants aware of the existence of the official languages, it also gives greater visibility and respect for the languages of immigrants, helping to build an increasingly multilingual society; a society that belongs to everyone.

‘There is a lack of recognition of diversity, and this is very obvious when we talk about languages’.

Public administration
Though by no means exhaustive, we have given below some ideas that may serve as suggestions for continuing to move forward in different areas of strengths and to improve the integration policies in Catalonia.

- It is important to construct a clearer and more committed public approach which does not put an emphasis on immigration but rather the diversity of Catalan society. It is also necessary that this approach is shared and used, wherever possible, by public representatives, the Catalan administration and local administrations as well as social and economic stakeholders. Diversity is part of the cultural capital of Catalonia and this needs to be highlighted.

- To make the actions, instruments and policies aimed at managing immigration, coexistence and diversity more consistent and cross-cutting requires a solid political and institutional foundation. In this respect, incorporating an administrative body to manage these aspects (which is currently performed by the Directorate for Immigration) into the Ministry of the Presidency would help to strengthen this cross-cutting nature and the correct transposition of priorities to all the other ministries in the Government of Catalonia.

- Paying attention to diversity entails redirecting the conceptualization of certain policies and public services, not just those that were originally designed to deal with foreigners. It is vital to promote the participation of every citizen, paying particular attention to those collectives which, for reasons of gender, age or origin, may have more difficulties, and above all to demonstrate that they are a normal part of Catalan society. It is also important to guarantee the resources to make this possible.

- Training the people who work in public administration is essential in order to tackle the management of a diverse society. This training should not be limited to the people who are directly involved in everyday dealings with immigrants but at every level. On many occasions, when designing a policy action, not enough thought is given to the fact that it is geared towards a diverse citizenship, and any impact it may cause can be difficult to correct.

- Incorporating diversity as the guiding thread to explain social cohesion and harmonious coexistence is something that Catalan schools have incorporated progressively. Advances need to be made in other areas too, such as the labour market, urban planning and the media, amongst others. This needs to be done without the folklorization of different cultural expressions. Visibility and recognition are keys to fostering a feeling of belonging.

- Awareness-raising must be a constant feature of a society that is undergoing transformation. Introducing initiatives that encourage areas of interaction and demolish stereotypes are crucial in this respect.

- There is a need to defend the experience of Catalonia in reception policies. The Catalan reception model is a good example (though still in need of improvement) of inter-administrative cooperation and collaboration with civil society, and could be a good experience to share with other countries that are immersed in early immigration processes.

- In a linguistically complex society such as ours, with Catalan as the native language (and Aranese in Vall d’Aran) and Spanish as an official language, the measures for
linguistic integration need to have two basic objectives: on the one hand, emphasising the importance of knowing both languages for full integration and participation in Catalan society, and on the other, upholding linguistic diversity, raising the whole population’s awareness about the linguistic reality of Catalonia and the personal, social and economic enrichment that these languages entail.

- The need for more robust statistical data with which to work. We need to move forward in designing a form of gathering statistics that includes more information itemized by nationality and origin which will allow us to make a better analysis of the information and facilitate comparisons. In gathering data based on origin, the tendency has been to focus on the realities or policies that are considered as basic to understanding the phenomenon of immigration. However, it is becoming increasingly evident that focusing attention on the nationality or origin of people has an impact on areas beyond the traditional ones such as the labour market or education. We also need to be focusing on origin as a separate issue from nationality, because the risk in processes of settlement that end up with naturalizations is that of losing key information for understanding the performance of future generations that spring from immigrant origins. At the same time, we need to improve the compilation of statistics so that these data on people’s origin can also be cross-referenced with gender. In much of the data we currently have available, this cross-referenced information is not always taken into account. Finally, it is necessary to facilitate access to and dissemination of these data as far as possible in order to strengthen public actions of different departments in the various Catalan administrations and to facilitate research and investigation in this subject matter.

- There is a need to make diversity in Catalonia more visible, and this entails moving forward with the presence of immigrants or people of immigrant origin in public institutions and spaces of public or political representation. Wherever possible, we need to examine what explicit or implicit factors hinder this visibility from happening naturally (without public intervention).

- We need to understand that inequality and discrimination are the natural enemies of diverse societies. While public policies and the social services need to fight to eradicate inequalities and guarantee equal opportunities, discrimination also needs to be addressed by public action. There is a need to define an independent structure that gathers information on discriminatory acts, xenophobia, racism and hate crimes, and which works to prevent them, where necessary in collaboration with the legal system and the police forces, with the capacity to punish these attitudes.

- The Observatory on Immigration in Catalonia, a proposal that already features in the National Pact for Immigration, could be the answer to many of the issues brought up in this section. This is not about putting forward the optimum way of materializing this entity (or even if it needs to be an independent body), but rather upholding the logic of an initiative which would facilitate the compilation of data and information, research and applied analysis and the evaluation of public policies in a more holistic way than that offered by the current system. Bringing together the numerous initiatives that already exist in different spheres, this proposal would need to have a clear vocation for integration, inclusion and complementarity and, above all, for advising on the design of public actions to manage a diverse society.
As reflected in the National Pact for Immigration, the incorporation of these new citizens calls for the resizing of public services in order to guarantee universal access. Today, it is necessary to add that this challenge also entails incorporating the rationale of diversity in all these public services. The Pact also spoke of a common public culture based on fostering participation in public life; making Catalan the common language of public use; coexisting within a plurality of beliefs; guaranteeing equal opportunities between men and women; including the gender perspective, and strengthening policies directed at children, young people, the elderly and families. These principles continue to guide integration policies in Catalonia. We need to continue moving forward along these lines, but in a more effective and efficient way, which means paying more attention when it comes to gathering information, training and the conceptualization of the different instruments and actions that need to be implemented as well as their evaluation. It would also be worthwhile putting these actions and instruments at the disposal of other European spaces in order to participate dynamically in the transfer of knowledge and lifelong learning. Strengthening social cohesion is not just about improving coexistence and social participation but also about being part of the project for the country and making it happen.


Annexes

Annex 1. Summary of surveys and interviews

The main objective of this document is to provide a summary of the fieldwork carried out in July, September, October and November 2015. This involved around twenty online surveys and 37 interviews with different entities, collectives and professionals in the educational, sociocultural, business and political spheres across Catalonia in order to gather their views about the state of the integration of immigrants in the areas of responsibility and employment in which they work.

The information in this section aims to provide a general overview along with certain key facts on the situation of immigration in Catalonia. This has allowed us to see some of the snapshots that coexist in Catalonia, as well as the different approaches and the concerns that crop up in the daily work of these organizations with the immigrant population.

About the situation of immigration

Most of the people interviewed put an emphasis on the qualitative and quantitative leap that the demographic shift at the beginning of the century in Catalonia has entailed, with the arrival of thousands of people of non-EU origin. It is as a result of this fact that divergence arose among the people interviewed when it came to evaluating the immigrant reception work carried out during these years.

‘We’ve done what we could with limited resources and, even more importantly, very little knowledge about other situations’.

Social organization

‘We’re still suffering the consequences of not being able to tackle such a massive shift. Our reactions were too slow’.

Public administration

‘A lot of work has been done but there is still a lot to do, and we need to be aware of this’.

Educational institution
The arrival of this volume of people had a direct impact on two of the cornerstones of the welfare state – the educational and healthcare systems – which were forced to adapt to a new situation, often without the adequate tools and resources to do so and with an objective that was frequently repeated by the people interviewed: working to include the whole newly-arrived population. This was essential in order to alleviate the impact of these changes in many Catalan towns and cities. Access to the services and resources provided by the public administration was a key factor in moving forward in the integration of newly-arrived immigrants. Most of the people interviewed gave this task a positive rating, further noting that it was the network of social entities implementing the reception policies with the support of the public administrations, which were overwhelmed by the situation. The administrations were very much at the tail end of this process. A lot of work was done on reception, but very little on integration in a more holistic sense. This is the phase in which many of the social, economic and educational organizations interviewed are currently immersed in. Even so, there is a concern that was expressed by nearly all the social and educational entities, and that is that the process has not been handled well enough and that this could lead to ghettos that will need to be addressed in a carefully planned, consensual and participative way.

‘There are still first, second and third class citizens. We’re seeing this in the cities’.

Social organization

Running parallel to this diagnosis, we found a line of argument representing the majority of people’s perception of the current state of integration of immigrants among all the organizations interviewed. It is true that we cannot say that in Catalonia there is a serious issue of conflicts arising from racism or xenophobia, but there are certain one-off issues in relation to problems of coexistence, especially in terms of religious practices. This lack of conflict was seen in a positive light by most of the people interviewed. However, there are still challenges pending which make some of the organizations interviewed feel that we need to be on the alert, especially in certain cities where the relationship between the native and foreign populations is practically non-existent, or at least, according to one civil society organization: ‘there is a parallel relationship whereby we ignore each other’.

One of the consequences of the current economic crisis that Catalonia has suffered has been the slowdown in the number of new arrivals in the country in the last few years, which has allowed some organizations to start evaluating their reception policies without the added pressure of having to continue hosting a large number of immigrants, and to start designing new intervention methods in the neighbourhoods where there is a high percentage of immigrants in the population. This diagnosis has enabled them to corroborate that this same crisis has very directly and significantly affected the immigrant community. Certain collectives have started leaving, either to return to their countries of origin or other European countries in search of a better future. Those who have remained in Catalonia, like other Catalans, have weathered the current storm as best they can. One of the main concerns revealed during these interviews is that the impact of the economic crisis ends up affecting the process of integration that many citizens of foreign origin had already started.
About perceptions in the symbolic communication of diversity

The visibility in the city’s public life of symbols and festivities is still defined by local and national traditions where the incorporation of symbolic communication associated with these new citizens continues to be in the minority or non-existent. Anything that does take place is mainly associated with specific festivities held in large cities. These are generally of a recreational nature and related to a broader awareness-raising programme rather than purely for recreational purposes or as recognition of diversity.

One of the strongest criticisms voiced, especially by social organizations, is that this visibility of the social reality of Catalonia is barely reflected in public symbology. Curiously, traditional symbolic representation has not served either, as a general rule, to attract the immigrant population or encourage their participation. With the exception of certain specific communities, the immigrant population generally remains on the sidelines of recreational festivities or activities held in their local areas. When this participation is achieved, it must be noted that these festivities have served as a nexus between neighbourhood associations and between neighbourhoods themselves. In certain areas, this has facilitated coexistence.

‘Life in the neighbourhoods is tough. People need to know what it’s really like’.

Social organization

Local administrations, apart from promoting recreational activities to raise awareness about the other realities visible in our cities, have not managed to implement or promote activities in which diversity is properly reflected in terms of symbolic communication. Whether this is due to a lack of information or unawareness of the reality they want to portray, it still arouses a lot of prejudice, especially with regard to symbols and festivities associated with the Muslim community.

‘It causes a lot of prejudice, despite arousing a lot of curiosity and interest at the same time’.

Social organization

On the relationship with diversity

Generally speaking, the people interviewed or surveyed do not see diversity as a problem for coexistence. The economic crisis has had a direct effect on this perception given that, as mentioned in some of the interviews, the crisis has managed to put immigrants on the same footing as the native population. The difficulties experienced by both collectives are the same, especially in districts with very high unemployment rates and growing inequalities, and this has strengthened the social and neighbourhood networks that have been established.

However, this perception does not necessarily mean that there are no coexistence issues: they exist and they were acknowledged by all the institutions questioned. However,
these are not associated with the problem of rejection of or confrontation with neighbours of foreign origin but rather with what people view as antisocial behaviour.

In neighbourhoods where anti-rumour programmes have been implemented these have been very highly rated. They have helped to deal preventively with potential coexistence problems, addressing the stereotypes associated with certain collectives, with successful results, despite the fact that there is still a long way to go in this respect.

‘We know how to handle different types of people (…) and this helps us to resolve coexistence problems and dismantle rumours. Acting preventively is essential’.

Social organization

Everyone agreed in stressing that in Catalonia there is no generalized racism problem, but that there are coexistence issues related directly to the crisis and the lack of opportunities, not necessarily to diversity.

‘Catalan society is a society made up of immigrants and in this respect it’s a very mature society’.

Civil society entity

‘The history of migration always repeats itself. People have their references, especially in a society like the Catalan one with such a recent history of big migrations. This should help towards facilitating coexistence’.

Social organization

One general observation is the lack of visibility of this diversity in certain areas of public representation. Two of the most widely-mentioned examples were the media and political parties. In the case of the former, those interviewed coincided in wondering why public broadcasters do not reflect the true diversity of the country. Even adverts on the radio and television and in the press keep to the traditional stereotypes. When it comes to political parties, the presence of people of non-EU origin as active members of governmental structures, on town councils or in Parliament itself is still purely anecdotal.

‘We need to build a narrative to educate people on what Catalan society is like.’

Political party

On the other hand, it is worth noting the progressive influence that social organizations are assuming in demonstrating diversity within their own structures. Three examples of where this visibility is most evident are the PAH (Mortgage Platform), human tower building associations and trade unions.
With regard to public spaces

In general terms, everyone interviewed believed that in a large proportion of Catalan cities, public spaces do not reflect the country’s diversity. In some cases they even pointed out that different communities live in parallel universes, and it is therefore difficult to turn certain urban areas into revitalized spaces that facilitate communications between citizens, regardless of their origin.

‘There are a large number of invisible neighbourhoods that no-one knows about because communications [with the neighbourhood] are non-existent. They need to connect with the outside world’.

Public administration

There is a shared concern about the non-incorporation of neighbourhood dynamics of the immigrant population, and this is a clear example of the lack of integration in certain neighbourhoods.

Public spaces are also the setting for public festivities and social activities. Unfortunately, when these are promoted for the immigrant population, they are almost always held in private and not in public. Consequently, the public space is essentially occupied by traditional residents with little or no interaction with the new residents. There has been some resistance from the public administration, which does not encourage or promote the occupation of public spaces for holding activities that foster integration between residents regardless of their origin. They promote initiatives, but these are still perceived as being for minorities and in some cases have a marked folkloric character.

‘We have gone from spatial segregation to sharing certain spaces’.

Social organization

‘Coexistence has meant that every day residents are sharing spaces and problems’.

Social organization

One of the few areas where the full reality of diversity in neighbourhoods and cities can be seen is in schools, which have become centres of dynamism and, according to some of those interviewed, are taking on a role that is not sufficiently recognized by the public authorities. Part of their success lies in becoming centres where out-of-school activities are held, which are usually promoted by the social organizations in the local area.

In relation to urban planning policies, it is believed that these are a key factor in facilitating the integration of immigrants in cities. The impact of the Neighbourhood Law, for example, was a good instrument for identifying urban weak points in certain cities and the correction of these weaknesses has strengthened coexistence. However, the economic crisis has not allowed this Law to be developed sufficiently, which means that some urban planning challenges that have an impact on coexistence have not yet been addressed.
On the language

Two questions have been raised which have been addressed in general terms in relation to the importance that we, in Catalonia, give to the current situation of linguistic diversity and the situation of Catalan in relation to the immigrant population.

On the first point, many opinions have been gathered about the importance given to the linguistic wealth of Catalonia as the result of its incorporation of a foreign population. In the educational sphere, some interlocutors have openly put forward the opportunity that could be offered by incorporating some of the languages already spoken by a significant proportion of the resident population in school syllabuses. This demand is also rated highly by the labour and economic spheres, as in an increasingly globalized and interconnected world, Catalonia could offer added value associated with its linguistic diversity.

‘There is a lack of recognition of diversity, and this is very obvious when we talk about languages’.

Public administration

‘The educational system needs to take advantage of the number of languages stemming from diversity, it’s a great opportunity’.

Educational institution

In relation to the second question, the role of Catalan in the process of receiving and integrating new arrivals seems to have coincided on two major points. On the one hand, there is still a long way to go in the process of normalizing the use of Catalan across the whole country; and on the other, there is the undeniable value of Catalan as a driving force for social promotion.

‘We still haven’t managed to convince every citizen in Catalonia that Catalan is also their language, because it is the host language’.

Public administration

In certain interviews there was an emphasis on the fact that the current model promoted by educational centres dependent upon the public administration is not the best, because the immigrant population sees learning Catalan as an obligation rather than a language of communication that will facilitate their personal independence.

‘To achieve personal autonomy it’s essential to understand the language, whether Catalan or Spanish, and this is still not the case in Catalonia’.

Social organization
On the other hand, a large number of interviewees pointed to the role of the ‘second generations’ in promoting the use of Catalan in the family home. This source of internal and family-related motivation is regarded as very important in helping adult immigrants to learn Catalan and, in some cases, Spanish as well. It would be useful, therefore, to examine whether there are any innovative formulas for incentivizing and facilitating these mechanisms for transferring knowledge.

On culture, the arts and sport

There are two main points on this subject that were gathered from the different interviews which may be interesting to highlight here. On the one hand, sport is seen as a factor in the interrelation and communications between people that has hugely facilitated the integration of younger immigrants either at school or in shared recreational facilities in the neighbourhood. This association with sport has also strengthened the feeling of belonging amongst these young people and at the same time helps to break down barriers, indirectly, among the adult population, who realize that their children and grandchildren have found in sport an opportunity to establish relationships with other young people in their milieu. On the other hand, in the case of sport in the adult population, it is seen as serving to help strengthen their own social networks, which are normally associated with a specific collective, but not as being very useful when it comes to establishing relationships with other collectives.

Meanwhile, culture and the arts were also rated highly by some of the interviewees as a factor for integration, but only within the educational sphere and, to a lesser degree, in recreational activities held in the neighbourhoods where these communities live. It was agreed, for example, that the visibility of other artistic and cultural situations tend to be one-off events and associated with awareness-raising activities rather than designed specifically as a cultural event in itself.

On the business world and the economy

Most considerations in this sphere referred to the impact of the crisis on the immigrant population and especially on their participation in the labour market. People remarked upon the administrative difficulties in maintaining/renewing residence and work permits as one of the elements with the most negative impact on immigrants. The official approval of educational qualifications is still regarded as an unresolved issue, this being mentioned by social and economic organizations (employers’ associations and trade unions), which makes it difficult for qualified immigrants to enter the labour market. There is concern not just about the impact on individuals but also its effect on the competitiveness of the labour market. Access to public sector jobs was also regarded as a crucial matter, and one on which the organizations interviewed feel much more effort needs to be made.

Although the non-EU immigrant community makes up a large proportion of the Catalan demographic, they are not adequately represented on the government bodies of business associations. Their visibility is reduced to small and medium sized enterprises, in relation to which some of the people interviewed highlighted their role as a driving force of the Catalan economy, especially during these years of the crisis, and in trade unions.
On immigrant associations

In the last few years there has been an evolution which some interviewees described as ‘logical, natural and healthy’ in relation to the role that immigrant associations play in Catalonia, along with their relations with the Catalan associative network and the public authorities. Initially, in the early immigration processes, the public authorities themselves turned immigrants’ associations into key factors for information, knowledge and mediation. They played a key intermediary role, especially in the towns and cities that absorbed a larger number of immigrants.

Today, this role has been superseded by other factors. Firstly is the fact that the public administrations and the local association network have gradually incorporated their own instruments to tackle the realities of immigration (translation services, mediation services, etc.). Secondly, there has been a change in the needs of the immigrant population –especially the so-called second generations – which has forced a change in the mission and vision of immigrant collectives.

‘Previously, the questions of newly-arrived immigrants were always about paperwork or the language’.

Social organization

Thirdly, the crisis has had a direct impact on the organizational structures of immigrant collectives. Financial difficulties have forced many of these entities, which emerged at the start of the decade of immigration, to close down due to lack of financial resources. On the positive side, this precarious situation has forced the merger of certain organizations that had virtually the same mission and vision and were working with the same communities. In some cases, it has also helped to professionalize their structures and working dynamics.

For most people interviewed, there are two key questions when it comes to talking about immigrant associations. Firstly, they highlight the lack of a proper role for women in them. The lack of women at a decision-making and representative level, which was recognized by these same associations that were interviewed, is something that needs to be tackled.

Secondly, practically everyone interviewed agreed that there is a need to incorporate immigrant collectives into the decision-making levels and associations of cities. This is an essential requirement to facilitate the process of integration of immigrants and avoid creating a parallel associative world. Generally speaking, they also agreed in saying that this is not taking place fast enough, except in the case of certain specific institutional committees in some cities (which, however, may be regarded as representative but are not particularly executive).

‘The big challenge facing cities is to achieve participation [of the immigrant community] in citizens’ public decision-making bodies’.

Social organization

A key factor in facilitating interaction and relations with these communities are neighbourhood associations and social organizations.
On the role of the media

Almost everyone interviewed agreed on the negative role that the media have played when talking about immigration in Catalonia in the last few years. In general, these criticisms are levelled at their inappropriate use of terminology and the inaccuracy of the information they transmit, generating a distorted view of the demographic and social reality of Catalonia. It is believed that the media stigmatize the immigrant community, almost always associating them with negative concepts; or viewing immigration as a problem, whether this is one of coexistence in neighbourhoods and cities or competition in the labour market.

Many of the social organizations and public administrations have got involved, to a greater or lesser extent, in responses to deconstruct these kinds of messages through advocacy programmes or actions or messages.

Despite this negative aspect of the role of the media, everyone interviewed agreed in assigning them a decisive role in the public image of the immigrant community. They also agreed that there is still a lot of work to do with the media in this respect.

‘The information they transmit is very often over-simplified and they give clichéd versions without any proper investigation’.

Social organization

All the organizations consulted believe that there would be a significant advance in the vision that Catalan society has of immigration if they could see the true situation of Catalonia in the audiovisual media, with the incorporation of broadcast professionals of foreign origins at the forefront of the main television channels, especially the public ones.

‘It is important to normalize the presence of people of immigrant origin on public television which would help to break down a lot of barriers and clichés’.

Social organization

On the current and future challenges of managing immigration and diversity

In the course of this fieldwork, some of the organizations and institutions interviewed wanted to sum up some of the current and future challenges which, in their view, need to be addressed when it comes to talking about managing integration and diversity. To summarize, these are some of their shared reflections:

- Application of the Reception Law with sufficient resources to be able to implement it fully. In cases where the reception stage has already passed, new policies need to be promoted whose cornerstone is integration and the recognition of diversity.
’If you want to implement a law, you’ve got to have a budget to support it, and not assume that social organizations will take this on’.

Social organization

• The right to vote for the immigrant population. This is a necessary step to allow immigrants to participate in the politics of the country in which they live.

• Management of diversity, especially in the neighbourhoods where there is a very high percentage of immigrant population. A particular emphasis should be put on the educational world, where there is a process of segregation that is not being corrected. This can stigmatize certain neighbourhoods and, more importantly, primary and secondary school students.

‘We are a diverse society but we have yet to assimilate this fact, and this is something that needs to be addressed’.

Social organization

‘There is a lot of talk about equality, but we need to move forward in recognizing diversity’.

Social organization

• Seeking formulas to increase the participation of immigrants in all decision-making spheres. Genuine participation in decision-making processes in neighbourhoods and cities, with the real participation of all residents, paying particular attention to communities of difficult access.

• A special emphasis must be put on the participation of women who, in certain groups, are even more invisible to the community in which they live. The gender factor must be a cross-cutting feature of all public policies.

‘The gender perspective must be incorporated in the intercultural perspective’.

Public administration

• There is a sector of the population that is on the edges of the system (immigrants that are in an irregular administrative situation) and this goes strongly against any kind of integration policy.
Annex 2. List of interviews

We would like to thank everyone who took part in the interviews for their time, collaboration and willingness to share their knowledge and experiences with us. Their participation does not necessarily mean they endorse the content expressed in this report. Any successes are shared; any mistakes are ours alone. Thank you very much.

ACRS – Catalan Association of Senegalese Residents
Barcelona City Council
Lleida City Council
Salt Town Council
Tarragona City Council
Vic Town Council
ASAJA – Lleida Association of Agricultural Employers
Association of Chinese Citizens from Fujian – Association of Retailers of EIX Fort Pienc
Salt Residents’ Neighbourhood Association
ATIMCA – Association of Immigrant Workers in Catalonia
Càritas Catalunya
Casal Infants del Raval (Cultural Centre for the Children of the Ravel)
CC OO - CITE
CDC – Convergència Democràtica de Catalunya (Democratic Convergence of Catalonia; political party) – New Catalans Foundation
CEIP (Infant and Primary School) Feliu i Vegués – Badalona
CEIP (Infant and Primary School) Germanes Bartomeu – Mataró
CEIP (Infant and Primary School) Saavedra – Tarragona
Ciutadans (Citizens; political party)
Federation of Neighbourhood Associations of Catalonia (CONFAVC)
Council of School Sport of Barcelona
CUP – Candidatura d’Unitat Popular (Popular Unity Candidacy; political party)
Ministry of Health – Government of Catalonia
ERC – Esquerra Republicana de Catalunya (Republican Left of Catalonia; political party)
FAPAC - Catalonia Federation of Student Parents’ Associations
FEDELATINA – Federation of Latin-American Associations in Catalonia
Federation of Residents’ Associations of Tarragona
Casal l’Amic Foundation
ICV – Iniciativa per Catalunya Verds (Initiative for Catalonia Greens; political party)
Institut Santa Eugènia - Girona
Mossos d’Esquadra (Catalan police force)
PIMEC (Association for Micro, Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises of Catalonia)
PSC – Partit Socialista de Catalunya (Socialist Party of Catalonia; political party)
SOC – Catalonia Occupation Service
Table of the Third Sector Catalonia
UGT (General Union of Workers; trade union) – AMIC Association (Association of Mutual Assistance for Immigrants to Catalonia)
Unió de Pagesos (Farmers’ Union)
Xarxa d’Associacions 9 Barris Acull (Neighbourhood Associations Network)
Annex 3. ICC Questionnaire– Intercultural Cities

INTERCULTURAL CITIES: GOVERNANCE AND POLICIES FOR DIVERSE COMMUNITIES
Joint pilot action of the Council of Europe and the European Commission

THE INTERCULTURAL CITY INDEX AND BENCHMARKING TOOL

The Intercultural cities INDEX and benchmarking tool consists of a number of indicators which will allow

- to illustrate what intercultural integration means in practice and how it is implemented in specific cities
- to assess where the city stands in the different policy and governance areas and assess progress over time
- to realize where efforts should be concentrated in the future and identify ‘good practice’ cities and city learning clusters
- to learn from other cities about sources of good practices in these particular areas
- to test different hypotheses about the relationship between intercultural policy and specific policy outcomes such as economic performance and safety

The benchmarking tool illustrates the city profiles ‘visually’, highlighting

- the level of achievement of each city
- progress over time
- comparison with other cities or the network as a whole

The tool involves a combination of

- facts: demographic data in particular (primarily quantitative)
- inputs: policies, structures (primarily qualitative)
- impacts: attitudes and behaviours (primarily qualitative)

Data is collected through a questionnaire to be completed by city officials. Answers are accompanied with examples and references for possible cross-checking. For a comprehensive assessment of city’s policy and its results, a questionnaire for the public has also been designed.

The questionnaire has been developed on the basis of the Policy assessment grid which has emerged from the assessment of city practice across Europe and has been validated by the 11 cities involved in the pilot.

The INDEX interactive graphs and analytical reports per city can be found here http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/cultureheritage/culture/Cities/Index/default_en.asp

The graphs below illustrate the output of the index.
ICC-Index - Mediation and conflict resolution - City sample (inhabitants < 200,000)

Commitment

Intercultural lens

Mediation

Language

Media

Intelligence/Competence

International outlook

Welcoming

Governance

Oslo

City sample

Neukölln

City sample
Questionnaire Intercultural Cities Index

Purpose
The Intercultural Cities joint action of the Council of Europe and the European Commission seeks to explore the potential of and intercultural approach to the integration in communities with culturally diverse population. The intercultural approach is regarded as complementary to other integration approaches, in particular multiculturalism, and is hoped to mitigate some of their weaknesses, especially ethnic/cultural segregation which endangers social cohesion and inclusion and does not adequately prevent cultural conflict.

The cities participating in the programme are reviewing their governance, policies, discourse and practices from an intercultural point of view. This review has taken the form of narrative reports and city profiles – a form which is very rich in content and detail but is relatively weak as a tool to monitor progress and communicate.

It is therefore necessary to develop a tool capable of illustrating visually level of achievement of each city, progress over time, and enabling comparison with other cities or the network as a whole. This tool will contain a limited number of strong indicators which will make it easier to identify and communicate to others what intercultural integration means in practice, where the city stands in the different policy and governance areas, where effort should be focused in the future and which other cities could be a source of good practice in these particular areas.

The process of building this benchmarking tool is a part of the Intercultural cities pilot and will be a key learning and development instrument for pilot cities as well as for cities participating in the future phases of the programme. Therefore your support and active participation in its development and testing is essential.

The definition of an Intercultural City
The intercultural city has people with different nationality, origin, language or religion/belief. Political leaders and most citizens regard diversity positively, as a resource. The city actively combats discrimination and adapts its governance, institutions and services to the needs of a diverse population. The city has a strategy and tools to deal with diversity and cultural conflict. It encourages greater mixing and interaction between diverse groups in the public space.

The definition of majority ethnic group

The majority ethnic group is the biggest ethnic group in the city. Usually this is the group of autochthonous people (e.g. Italians in Italy) but in some cities the biggest group may be different from the autochthonous population.
Questionnaire to be completed by city officials

The following questions are formulated within the 10 key points of the Intercultural Cities Analytical Grid. Each section has a short introduction to explain the theoretical background of the questions. Please read these introductions before answering the questions.

A. General (Background information)
Please give us some background information about your city, district or other administrative unit. This information is necessary to compare and analyse how intercultural different cities are.

1. City and Size

1a) For which city (or district or other administrative unit) do you reply to the questionnaire?

1b) What is the population size of your city (or district or other administrative unit relevant for this survey)?

2. Ethnic composition

2a) There are different ways in which foreigners and migrants are counted statistically in different countries. In order to be able to compare cities, please provide some background information about these statistics your country, e.g. what categories are used to identify people of migrant/minority background.

2b) What is the majority ethnic group in the city and what percentage of the city population does it represent?

2c) What is the percentage of non-nationals resident in the city (if such data is available)?

2d) What is the percentage of foreign-born nationals resident in the city (if such data is available)?
2e) What is the percentage of people who are second or third generation migrants (if such data is available)?

2f) What are the most important minority groups in your city (representing more than 5% of the overall population)?
Please give the origin of the groups and their size in % of the population (or alternatively absolute number)

If data is unavailable on the questions above, please provide any relevant data you can find

3. Economic performance

3) What is the GDP per capita in your city?

Is there a city department with leading responsibility for intercultural integration and which one?

B Information on intercultural policies, structures and actions

Please note that this questionnaire deals with the efforts cities make to encourage intercultural interaction and mixing (policy input), but does not seek to identify how effective these efforts are (policy result). This will be the object of other ways of measurement.

I. How have the city authorities demonstrated their commitment to being an intercultural city?

A city may contain many examples of interculturality but these may remain isolated or hidden from the general awareness of the general population or the outside world. An optimum Intercultural City would be one which has taken a self-conscious decision to seek out, identify and acknowledge such cases, as well as to establish a policy objective of consolidating and building upon them; as well as a developmental strategy which has appropriate resources to support it. The city authorities would also have made a formal statement sending an unambiguous public message of its commitment to intercultural principles and would be actively engaged in persuading other key stakeholders in the city to do likewise.
4. Has the city formally adopted a public statement that it is an Intercultural City?
Please mark the appropriate box with an ‘x’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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</table>

5. Has the city adopted an intercultural integration strategy or a diversity/inclusion strategy?

**Definition of an intercultural integration strategy:** a strategy giving responsibility to each city department and service to contribute to the support, inclusion and opportunities for newcomers and people of migrant background. Specific objectives of the strategy are to manage positively inter-cultural relations, to encourage inter-cultural contacts, mixing and initiatives, to increase the cultural competence of institutions, organisations and officials, and promote a vision of diversity as a resource for the city.

Please mark the appropriate box with an ‘x’

| Yes, an intercultural strategy |   |
| An integration strategy with intercultural elements |   |
| An integration strategy that is not based on an intercultural concept |   |
| NO |   |

Please add a link or enclose a document so that your answer could be validated

6. Has the city adopted an intercultural action plan?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Only an integration action plan which is not intercultural</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Please add a link or enclose a document so that your answer could be validated

7. Has the city allocated a budget for the implementation of the intercultural strategy and/or action plan?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
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<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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Please add a link or enclose a document so that your answer could be validated
8. Is there an evaluation process for the intercultural strategy/action plan? [if you don't have an intercultural strategy but only an integration strategy, please reply No]

| YES | NO |

Please add a link or enclose a document so that your answer could be validated

9. Do official speeches and communications by the city make clear reference to the city’s intercultural commitment?

| Often | Rarely | Never |

10. Does the city have an official webpage that communicates its intercultural statement, strategy, and/or action plan?

| YES | NO |

If ‘yes’, please provide a link:

11. Does your city have a dedicated body or a cross-departmental co-ordination structure responsible for the intercultural strategy or intercultural integration?

| YES | NO |

Please add a link or enclose a document so that your answer could be validated [eg. meeting report, the name of the structure, formal mandate of the structure, web site listing members ...]

12. Does the city provide any means of acknowledging or honouring local citizens or organisations that have done exceptional things to encourage interculturalism in the local community [a prize, an official ceremony/celebration, a certificate]?

| YES | NO | Sometimes |

Please give an example and a proof
II. The city through an intercultural lens
At the heart of the Intercultural City thesis is the notion of taking the important – but often mundane – functions of the city and re-conceiving and re-configuring them in an intercultural way in order to make sure that they provide adequate service to citizens regardless of their cultural background. The city should ask itself the question ‘if optimising the potential for cross-cultural co-operation is a high priority for the city, how might we do things differently?’

a) How intercultural is the education system?
Attitudes about culture and race can be formed at an early age. School has a powerful influence here and has the potential to either reinforce or challenge prejudices in a number of ways: through the social environment that it creates, the guidance it provides and the values and knowledge it instils. The following questions are designed to find out the extent to which your city’s schools provide an opportunity for children of different cultures to encounter each other:

13. Are almost all children in primary schools of the same ethnic background (including the majority ethnic background)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes, in all schools</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, in most schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, in some schools</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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</table>

14. Does the ethnic background of teachers in schools reflect the composition of the cities population?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Often</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. Are there schools which make strong efforts to involve parents from ethnic minority/migrant backgrounds in school life?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes, most schools</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Only very few schools</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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</table>

Please give an example so that your answer could be validated:
16. Do schools carry out intercultural projects [such as exchanges with schools with different ethnic composition, intercultural education projects, projects about different cultures and religions, intercultural festivals, acknowledging the cultural backgrounds of different pupils through the school decoration]?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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Please give an example so that your answer could be validated

17. Does your city have a policy to increase ethnic/cultural mixing in schools (avoiding ‘white flight’ and ghettoisation?)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>A policy is being prepared</th>
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Please give an example so that your answer could be validated

b) How intercultural are residential neighbourhoods?¹³

There is a great variation across European cities in the extent to which patterns of residential settlement are connected to culture and ethnicity and there are also varying opinions on whether the state should intervene to encourage greater socio-cultural mixing and encourage community dynamics in the neighbourhoods or if the market and personal choice should be the prime determinants. An optimum Intercultural City does not require a ‘perfect’ statistical mix of people and recognises the value of ethnic enclaves, so long as they do not act as barriers to the free flow of people, ideas and opportunities both inward and outward.

18. What is the percentage of neighbourhoods in which the vast majority (80% or over) of residents are of the same ethnic background (including the majority background)?

¹³ By neighbourhood we understand a unit within the city which has a certain level of administrative autonomy (or sometimes also certain political governance structures) and is considered as a unit with regard to city planning. In larger cities districts (boroughs) have several neighbourhoods. The statistical definition of a ‘neighbourhood’ varies from one country to another. Generally, it includes groups of population between 5,000 and 20,000 people.
19. What is the percentage of neighbourhoods in which people from minority ethnic groups constitute majority of the residents?

- A few neighbourhoods
- One or two neighbourhoods
- NO

20. Does the city encourage actions where residents of one neighbourhood meet and interact people with a different ethnic/cultural background from other neighbourhoods?

- YES
- NO
- We don’t need such actions because there are no ethnically segregated neighbourhoods

Please give an example so that your answer could be validated

21. Does your city have a policy to increase the diversity of residents in the neighbourhoods (avoid ethnic concentration)?

- YES
  - A policy is being prepared
  - There are only occasional matters
- NO

Please give an example so that your answer could be validated:

22. Does your city have a policy to encourage people from different ethnic backgrounds to meet and interact in the neighbourhood (interaction within neighbourhoods)?

- YES
  - A policy is being prepared
  - There are only occasional matters
- NO

Please give an example so that your answer could be validated:
c) How intercultural are the public services?
An optimum intercultural city would see an equal reflection of the population in the ethnic/cultural background of public employees – at all levels of seniority. More than this however, it would recognise that as the population changes, the very nature of the public service must be reviewed and possibly revised. It must be open to the possibility of new ideas and innovation brought by minority groups rather than imposing a ‘one size fits all’ approach to public services and actions.

23. Does the ethnic background of public employees reflect the composition of the cities population?

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, at all hierarchical levels</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes but only at the lower levels</td>
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<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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</table>

24. Does the city have a recruitment plan to ensure this?

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<th>Choice</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YES and it aims specifically to increase mi-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grant/minority representation at the higher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hierarchical levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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</table>

Please give evidence to validate your answer:

25. Can people who are not citizens of your country can be employed in public administration?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On certain positions only (and/or EU citizens only)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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26. Does the city take action to encourage intercultural mixing and competence in private sector enterprises [e.g. city support for a Charter against discrimination in enterprises, enterprise diversity charter, intercultural training for company managers]?

<table>
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<th>Choice</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
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<td>NO</td>
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</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:
27. **Does the city provide the following services appropriate to the ethnic/cultural background of all citizens?**

(Multiple answers possible)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Funeral/burial</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>School meals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women-only sections or times in sport facilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

d) **How intercultural is business and the labour market?**

Large parts of the economy and the labour market may be beyond the remit and control of the city authority, but they may still fall within its sphere of influence. Because of nationally-imposed restrictions on access to the public sector labour market, the private sector may provide an easier route for minorities to engage in economic activity. In turn, such activity (e.g. shops, clubs, restaurants but also high-skill industry and research) may provide a valuable interface between different cultures of the city. While barriers for entry usually concern migrant/minority groups, in some cases it could be the other way round. Research has proved, however, that it is the cultural mix that fosters creativity and innovation, not homogeneity.

28. **Is there a business umbrella organisation which has among its objectives to promote diversity and non-discrimination in employment?**

| YES | NO |

29. **Does the city have a charter or another binding document against ethnic discrimination in its own administration and services?**

| YES | NO |

Please give an example to validate your answer:
30. Does the city take action to encourage businesses from ethnic minorities to move beyond ethnic economies and enter the mainstream economy and higher value-added sectors [help small and medium ethnic enterprises to grow, diversify their products and reach out to new markets – help with business planning, banking, mentoring]?  

**YES**

**NO**

Please give an example to validate your answer:

31. Has the city taken action to encourage ‘business districts/incubators’ in which different cultures could more easily mix? [definition: a business incubator is a structure which hosts and supports start-up enterprises, in this case the question is whether such incubators take targeted measures to encourage contacts and joint ventures between entrepreneurs from different backgrounds]

**YES**

**NO**

Please give an example to validate your answer:

32. In its procurement of goods and services does the city council give priority to companies with a diversity strategy?

**YES**

**NO**

Please give an example to validate your answer:

e) How intercultural is cultural and civil life?  
The time which people allocate to their leisure may often be the best opportunity for them to encounter and engage with people of another culture. Equally however, if patterns of leisure are structured along ethnic lines (e. g. a football league of teams from only one culture) it may be a powerful reinforcer of separation. The city can influence this through its own direct activities and through the way it distributes resources to other organisations.
33. Does the city Council use interculturalism as a criterion when allocating grants to associations and initiatives?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please give evidence to validate your answer:

34. If yes how much of all grants to associations and initiatives are granted based on the criterion interculturalism (in %)?

35. Does the city organise events and activities in the fields of arts, culture and sport aimed at encouraging people from different ethnic groups to mix?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regularly</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

36. Does the city encourage cultural organisations to deal with diversity and intercultural relations in their productions (through specific grants or special regulations for instance)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

37. Does the city organise public debates or campaigns on the subject of cultural diversity and living together?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes, regularly</th>
<th>Yes, occasionally</th>
<th>It has happened once or twice</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
f) How intercultural is public space?
Public spaces and facilities are important for several reasons. They are places which most citizens are obliged to use from time to time therefore raising the possibility for chance meetings between strangers. They may also reinforce cross-cultural solidarity. For example in cases of aroused public interest around the proposed development or closure of a facility. Well managed and animated spaces can become beacons of the city’s intercultural intentions. Conversely badly-managed spaces can become places of suspicion and fear of the stranger.

38. Does the city take action to encourage intercultural mixing in
(Multiple answers possible)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Public libraries</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playgrounds</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Squares</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

39. Does city take into account the population diversity in the design and management of new public buildings or spaces?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes, always</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, some buildings or places</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

40. When the city authorities decide to reconstruct an area, do they propose different methods and places for consultation to involve people with different ethnic/cultural backgrounds?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:
41. Are there spaces or areas in the city which seem to be dominated by one ethnic group (majority or minority) and where other people feel unwelcome?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes, several</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, one or two</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

42. Are there areas in the city which are reputed as ‘dangerous’?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Mediation and conflict resolution

It is a basic tenet of the Intercultural Cities programme that where groups of different cultural background and of social and economic status are present in close proximity, there is always the potential for conflict over values, behaviour or resources. This is natural – what is unnatural would be for city authorities to seek to deny or ignore it. The process of anticipating, identifying, addressing and resolving conflicts is a fundamental process of living together in a dynamic and communicative community. Indeed the optimum Intercultural City sees the opportunity for innovation and greater cohesion emerging from the very process of conflict mediation and resolution.

43. Does the city and/or public service organisations provide a professional service for mediation of intercultural communication and/or conflict?

*Multiple answers possible*

- A municipal mediation service devoted to intercultural issues only
- A generalist municipal mediation service which also deals with cultural conflicts
- An intercultural mediation service run by a civil society organisation
- A state-run mediation service
- Others (please specify)

44. Is there an organisation in the city dealing specifically with inter-religious relations?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:
45. Is intercultural mediation provided?
(multiple answers possible)

| In specialised institutions such as hospitals, police, youth clubs, mediation centres, retirement homes |
| In the city administration for general purposes |
| In the neighbourhoods, on the streets, actively seeking to meet residents and discuss problems |
| Others (please specify) |

Please give an example to validate your answer:

**IV. Language**

The learning of the language of the host country by migrants is key issue for integration. However there are other considerations in an intercultural approach to language. For example in cities where there are one or more national minorities (or indeed where there is indeed no clear majority group) there is significance in the extent to which there is mutual learning across language divides. Even in cities where recent migrations or trade connections have brought entirely new languages into the city, there is significance in the extent to which the majority are prepared to adopt these languages.

46. Does the city provide any of the following?
(Multiple answers possible)

| Specific language training in the official language(s) for hard-to-reach groups (non-working mothers, unemployed, retired people etc.) |
| Learning migrant/minority languages as part of the regular curriculum at schools |
| Learning migrant/minority languages as a mother tongue course for migrant/minority kids only |
| Learning migrant/minority languages as a regular language option available to everyone |
| Support for private/civil sector institutions providing language training in migrant/minority languages |
| Others (please specify) |

Please give an example to validate your answer:
47. Does the city give financial support to local:
(Multiple answers possible)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minority newspapers/journals</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minority radio programmes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV programmes in (a) minority language(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

48. Is the city supporting projects seeking to give positive image of migrant/minority languages (for instance day of migrant languages, readings, poetry evenings, multilingual cultural events etc.)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

V. Relations with the local media

The media has a powerful influence on the attitudes to cultural relations and upon the reputations of particular minority and majority groups. Much of this media is nationally or internationally generated and therefore beyond the influence of city authorities. Nevertheless there is still much the city authorities can do to influence and partner with local media agencies to achieve a climate of public opinion more conducive to intercultural relations.

49. Does the city have a media strategy to improve the visibility of migrants/minorities in the media (for instance special columns in the press, TV or radio campaigns; targeted media briefings, joint public events with media, lists of specialists on different subjects who are of minority background for media to use as sources etc.)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are occasional actions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:
50. Is the city’s communication (PR) department instructed to highlight diversity as an advantage regularly and in various types of communications?

| YES | NO |

51. Does the city provide support for advocacy / media training / mentorship for journalists with minority background?

| YES | NO |

52. Does the city monitor the way in which media portray minorities?

| Yes, the city itself does it | Yes, by an external body | NO |

VI. An open and international outlook
An optimal intercultural city would be a place which actively sought to make connections with other places for trade, exchange of knowledge, tourism etc. It would be a place which the stranger (whether business person, tourist or new migrant) found legible, friendly and accessible, with opportunities for entering into business, professional and social networks.

53. Does the city have an explicit policy to encourage international co-operation: not simply twinning but sustained scientific, economic, cultural and other projects?

| YES | NO |

54. Is there a specific financial provision for this policy?

| YES | NO |

55. Is there an agency with a specific responsibility for monitoring and developing the city’s openness to international connections?

| YES | NO |
56. Does the city support encourage universities to attract foreign students, if applicable (eg involve universities in official foreign visits or various international projects, organise promotion events abroad)?

| YES | NO |

57. Does the city take measures to encourage foreign students to participate in the life of the city and remain after graduation? (eg. fairs and events where foreign students could meet local people, support with job and housing after graduation etc.)?

| YES | NO |

58. Does the city have projects or policies for economic relations (co-development) with countries of origin of its migrant groups?

| YES | NO |

VII/VIII. Intercultural intelligence and competence

A city cannot be intercultural if it is ignorant of its citizens, their diversity and lifestyles and how they interact with each other. An intercultural observatory takes existing data and interrogates it from an intercultural perspective. It also identifies gaps in the city’s knowledge base and where necessary devises new kinds of data and analysis to add depth and clarity to the ‘intercultural picture’.

Very few people can be expected to be experts in more than a few of the languages and cultures of the many groups who live in a city. This is understandable. However, the competent public official in an optimal intercultural city should be able to detect, and respond to, the presence of cultural difference, and modulate their approach accordingly; rather than to seek to impose one mode of behaviour upon all situations. Such sensitivity and self-confidence in unfamiliar situations is not commonly-seen but it is a skill which can be acquired through expert training, and must become as important to the officials as their specific profession and technical skills.

59. Is information about diversity and intercultural relations mainstreamed to inform the city government / council’s process of policy formulation?

| YES | NO | Sometimes |

Please give an example to validate your answer:
60. Does the city (directly or through an external body) carry out surveys including questions about the public perception of migrants/minorities?

| YES | NO |

61. Does the city promote the intercultural competence of its officials and staff (both in administration, and public services), for example through (Multiple answers possible)

| Interdisciplinary seminars and networks | Training courses | Others, please specify |

Please give an example:

IX. Welcoming new arrivals

People arriving in the city for an extended stay (whatever their circumstance) are likely find themselves disorientated and in need of multiple forms of support. The degree to which these various support measures can be co-ordinated and delivered effectively will have a major impact upon how the person settles and integrates. What is often overlooked, but which has a powerful impact on intercultural relations, is whether those from the host community have been given any prior preparations or, on the contrary, might they feel surprised or alarmed by the new arrival.

62. Does the city have a designated agency or office to welcome newcomers?

| YES | NO |

63. Does the city have a comprehensive city-specific package of information and support to newly-arrived residents from abroad?

| YES | NO |

14. All categories of people who intend to establish themselves in the city are covered by the term new arrivals: spouses, workers, refugees. This section does not include specific welcoming activities of universities, companies etc. but only programmes offered by the city itself to welcome people in their capacity as residents and citizens.
64. Does different city services and agencies provide welcome support for
(Multiple answers possible)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family members</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refugees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migrant workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (please specify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

65. Does the city have a special public ceremony to greet newcomers in the presence of officials (we do not mean official ceremony for newly naturalised citizens but for people arriving to live in the city regardless of nationality)?

| YES |   |
| NO  |   |

Please give details:

X. Governance, leadership and citizenship
Perhaps the most powerful and far-reaching actions which a city can take in making a city more intercultural are the processes of democratic representation and decision-making. Clearly some of these may be determined nationally, but there is much that a city council can do to influence the way in which diverse groups interact and co-operate around the allocation of power and resources.

66. When can foreign nationals (excluding EU nationals or other nationals with special regimes (eg. Nordic, Commonwealth etc.) vote in local elections?

| After three years of residence or less |   |
| After five years of residence or more |   |
| Only when they obtain the nationality  |   |

67. Does the ethnic background of elected politicians reflect the composition of the cities population?

| YES |   |
| Partly |   |
| NO  |   |
68. Does the city have a political body (council or similar) to represent ethnic minorities/migrants and/or to deal with diversity and integration matters and which is independent of the local authority and has an advisory function?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES, we have an advisory body representing migrants/minorities and their organisations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, we have an advisory body involving migrants/minorities as well as relevant public institutions, organisations and experts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

69. Is there a standard for the representation of migrants/minorities in mandatory boards supervising schools and/or public services?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

70. Do you have initiatives to encourage migrants/minorities to engage in political life?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regularly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

XI Anti-discrimination

71. Does the city regularly monitor/research the extent and the character of discrimination in the city?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

72. Does the city have a specific service that advices and supports victims of discrimination or does it provide grants to civil society organisations that play this role?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
73. Does the city run anti-discrimination campaigns or raise awareness in other ways?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regularly</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please give an example to validate your answer:

C. Information about the questionnaire

74. Which sources of data have been used in the questionnaire? (please fill in the main sources if possible)

75. By whom were the questions answered?

76. Do you have any remarks on the questionnaire?

Thank you for taking part in this survey!
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Report on the integration of immigrants in Catalonia 2015

In collaboration with:

Generalitat de Catalunya
Departament de Treball, Afers Socials i Famílies