Towards the Actor Coordination Model

A Case of Unaccompanied Minor Migrants in Transition to Adulthood

Edited by

VALERIJ DERMOL

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Introduction

Chapter One

About the CiSoTRA Project

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Project Background

Europe is currently faced with a surge in migration from third countries, which is considered by some as a migration 'crisis.' Differences in attitude and general political outlook brought to the surface by this surge are hard to reconcile. While it is obvious that the situation in the countries of origin of refugees, namely Afghanistan, Iraq, Syria, Eritrea, Mali, and others is desperate, the legal system in most European countries admits third country nationals only in cases of individual or collective prosecution. All refugees, except the few admitted under the legal framework, are in a situation of limbo, facing long periods of insecurity regarding their status of residence and having only limited access to both the educational system and the labour market. Among them, young refugees are most numerous by far, as, due to the current mostly illegal ways of getting to Europe, young healthy and dynamic males have the best chance of making it. These young people carry with them the hope of friends and family that they will be safe from the direct consequences of war and conflict, as they are most often conscripted into the army or into cruel and illegal militias, but also the hope that they will be able to get to and stay in Europe to support their families from there.

Among these young refugees, unaccompanied minors are a significant group and although most of them are close to adult age, they enter the distinct systems of youth protection which exist in all European countries. Therefore, in all European countries and in the CiSoTRA project partner countries, the topic of young refugees is a complex one in many respects:

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- Political controversy about the legitimacy of third country immigration for reasons of
- Conflict and hopelessness.
- Complex psychological and legal situation of the youth: insecure status of residence,
- Pressures from host country law enforcement, societal attitudes, often unrealistic own and
- Family expectations.
- Educational, legal and youth protection systems which are generally not designed for such a
- Situation and therefore has to be reshaped and repurposed under the pressure of high
- Numbers of migrating youth and limited human and sometimes financial resources and a
- Limited systemic adaptability of systems.

Although minors (youth under 18 years of age) are a special group, the general rules, and policies of the European Union on migrants apply. They are particularly relevant for young migrants, as they are the largest group. Unaccompanied minors are subject to several international treaties and conventions, which put them in a privileged position as being particularly vulnerable and therefore entitled to comprehensive protection.

All partner countries are part of these treaties, among them the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child: Article 22 regulates that 'States parties shall take appropriate measures to ensure that a child who is seeking refugee status [...] shall, whether unaccompanied or accompanied by his or her parents or by any other person, receive appropriate protection and humanitarian assistance in the enjoyment of applicable rights set forth in the present Convention and in other international human rights or humanitarian instruments to which the said States are Parties.'

The Aim of the Project

The aim of the CISOTRA project was to develop and apply innovative methodology to foster social inclusion (including inclusion through education) of unaccompanied minor migrants in transition to early adulthood through holistic support networks, which would facilitate the

transition from the youth support and education system to the adult education and employment system. This was supposed to be achieved mainly through:

- Identifying current good practices, based on mapping various pathways for migrants from the arrival to the 'end' (integration in the country – further education or/and the labour market, transition to the country of origin or another country) and identification of shortcomings, gaps, and traps on that pathway.
- Personal capacity building of key professionals (professionals from: educational institutions, labour market, social care, local/regional/national authorities) – identification of needs and competences required for effective work in the field.
- Identifying the needs of unaccompanied minors and young adults (needs analysis through workshops including empowerment activities).
- Institutional capacity building.
- Improving cooperation of institutions/organisations in the region/country and development of a model for better social inclusion.

Project Target Groups

- Professionals who work with unaccompanied minors and/or young adults – professionals from educational institutions, the labour market, social care, local/regional/national authorities, etc.
- Unaccompanied minors and/or young adults.
- Stakeholders: ministries, researchers, academics, officers from local/regional authorities, human rights ombudsman, other NGOS, or public entities that work on the issue of migrants, professionals who work with unaccompanied minors, and young adults.

Key Project Activities

Initial study. Collection of relevant insights from international and national literatures and good practices. Reviews of the current states of the art in partner countries and validations of good practices are needed to successfully perform all the following steps of the project. Data collection methodologies include document analysis, interviews and focus groups.

National seminars for different stakeholders. During the lifetime of the project, one national seminar was organised each year in all project countries. 50 stakeholders were expected to attend each seminar, to discuss the most demanding issues on social inclusion of unaccompanied minors and young adults. The topics of the seminar were adopted according to the current needs of each country.

General training sessions at basic and advanced level). The project aimed to train those key professionals who had been working with unaccompanied minors or young adults. Training consisted of two courses (at the basic and advanced level), each equivalent to 6 ECTS, implemented in a combination of face-to-face tuition (3 days per course) and on-line activities. The topics included:

- Non-discrimination and intercultural dialogue; multicultural society; ethics of key professionals.
- Human rights; international and national legislation and protocols on the care and support of migrant children and young migrants; national migration procedures; harmonising the protection of unaccompanied minors in Europe.
- Migrants and the right to education; young migrants in the labour market.
- Vulnerability of young migrants: socio-psychological aspects; techniques for interviewing migrant children and young migrants.

Specialised training. The project wanted to equip key professionals with specialised knowledge and skills. Four courses were developed, and specialised training sessions offered, each equivalent to 6 ECTS, with the following topics:

- Reception, service standards and health standards for unaccompanied minors.
- Harmonising the protection of unaccompanied minors in Europe.
- Migrants' right to education and work.
- Social inclusion as a dynamic two-way process.

Workshops for unaccompanied minor migrants (up to 18 years). These workshops were attended by minors' guardians and professionals who work with minors. The main purposes of these workshop were:

- getting feedback on the needs of minors and their guardians (satisfaction with services offered, and possible gaps detected).
- carrying out capacity building activities for minors to inspire them to 'follow' their own life projects.

Workshops for young adult migrants (in transition from minors; 18–25 years). These workshops were also attended by professionals working with young adults. Their main purposes were:

- Getting feedback on the needs of young adults (satisfaction with services offered, and possible gaps detected).
- Carrying out capacity building activities for young adults, to empower/inspire them to 'follow' their own life projects.

Dissemination of the project. The project results were being disseminated during the project lifetime and beyond. The main dissemination activities were:

- Dissemination via the CiSOTRA website, social media, leaflet, newsletters, and other dissemination channels.
- Members of the consortium presented results and activities at conferences in countries outside the consortium.
- International conference organised in October 2020 in Istanbul.

Impact Achieved and Sustainability

The main achievements of the CiSOTRA project are the following:

- CiSOTRA declaration, together with policy recommendations summarises project outcomes and results and provides partners' commitment for further use of project achievements.
- The project has produced a lot of high-quality material, available in an e-learning platform, including 4 ECTS courses for professionals, and 16 short training courses.
- In CiSOTRA events, complex and demanding issues on the transition of UAM to adulthood were discussed, as well as the role of civil society. Stakeholders were able to get better insights into the needs of UAM and young adults.
- One of the most important achievements of the project was the development of the CiSOTRA model of coordination of actors for better social inclusion of migrants in transition to adulthood.

- CISOTRA project and similar projects can contribute to improved knowledge and skills of professionals who work with UAM in transition to adulthood.

About CISOTRA Model

The CISOTRA model is a model of cooperation and co-dependency between organisations that deal with unaccompanied migrant minors and young adults, and their interrelations in terms of supporting minors in the system. The model explains what various organisations could expect from each other, as well as what each organisation in the network should change in its functioning, to improve its work. The model is an innovative and inclusive approach to supporting the UAM in transition to adulthood and to strengthening the links between different interfaces, i.e., organisations involved in the support for young migrants forming learning communities, i.e., networks of different actors. However, the role of a coordinator, that is often neglected, could contribute to a more integrative community leading to a higher level of cohesion in a society.

The model of intervention used in the CISOTRA builds on and extends the work done as a part of the initial study identification of the main problems resulting from the current situation in partner countries, current policies on a policy level, professional training and NGO activity, and existing best practices in addressing these issues. The model is based on a structured 'Theory of Change' planning process, which has involved all partners to:

- Identify key issues or reasons for shortcomings.
- Prioritise key issues for the project intervention methodology.
- Specify expected outcomes because of the application (testing) of the project methodology.
- Discuss activities that can achieve these outcomes based on evidence from literature.
- Present stakeholder involvement, best practices, and professional experience of partners.
- Agree on mechanisms of change linking the key issues, activities, and expected outcomes.

Overall, the CISOTRA model of intervention specifies:

- the target group – the characteristics of professionals in UAM and young adult refugee support and UAM and young refugees to be involved in the pilot projects,
- the guiding principles and main contents of the training,
- expected outcomes – the short, medium, and longer-term outcomes the methodology is expected to achieve among teacher and volunteers,
- the elements of the intervention.

Part Two

Social Inclusion and Transition to Adulthood

Chapter Two

The Role of Inclusive Education in Social Inclusion of Refugees

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Introduction

Increasing cross-border movements and global migration challenge traditional citizenship and national education approaches. Global migration, both of labourers and migrants, unaccompanied minors and asylum seekers displaced by war or political and economic instability produced new transnational communities and culturally diverse societies (Osler & Starkey, 2003). Consequences of these movements are particularly visible in many European countries, where distinct communities of migrants have become part of the cultural landscape. However, migrants and refugees globally access education at lower rates than other children. According to UNHCR statistics, 'in 2016, only 61 per cent of refugee children accessed primary school, compared to 91 per cent of all children globally; at the secondary level, 23 per cent of refugee children accessed education, whereas 84 per cent of young people did globally' (Dryden-Peterson et al., 2018, p. 6). All these developments demonstrate an urgent need to re-conceptualise education in the face of newly emerging transnational communities, increasing diversity and global migration (Osler & Starkey, 2005; Soysal, 1994; Schiffauer et al., 2004).

Inclusive education has recently become a dominant policy concept on a global scale to address the needs of different groups and promote social cohesion. It has emerged as a field of educational research, lifelong education and teacher education. Ensuring inclusive education is the fourth Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) set by the United Nations as part of its 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Several international bodies such as UNESCO and UNICEF regularly publish guidelines for inclusive education (UNESCO, 2005, 2017, 2020) and col-

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laborate on international projects with member states for transforming their educational systems on inclusive principles. In addition, there is an increasing amount of funds and government budgets on inclusive education and a growing number of conferences and academic publications (Slee, 2018). As a specific case, for instance, the term 'inclusive education' has become widely used and turned into a national education policy in Turkey since 2016, directed mainly to address the needs of refugees ('population under temporary protection' with their official status) from Syria. Turkey has been the top refugee-hosting country globally as of 2021. The number of Syrian children between 5–17 years old is 1,197,124 and 64% of them are registered in schools as of June, 2021 (Millî Eğitim Bakanliği, 2021). To address the educational needs of this population, Turkey has, in collaboration with UNICEF, launched Inclusive Education Projects in 2016 (Toker, 2021). Since then, the term inclusive education has been understood (sometimes with a negative attitude) by many teachers as an effort to include Syrian students.

Can inclusive education be an effective strategy for including refugees in host societies? To what extent are the policy recommendations, proposed actions and strategies of international bodies in the field of inclusive education effective in different national contexts? We need to review the concept and key features of inclusive education to clarify these questions.

What is Inclusive Education?

The term inclusive education originates from the field of Special Education. Until the 1970s, education of children with disabilities had been carried out separately from general education in many countries. However, beginning from the 1970s, disability activists, academicians, and several NGOS have been challenging this spatial and educational segregation and demanding inclusion based on human rights. As a result, several countries moved from segregation to inclusion of special education into regular schooling (UNESCO, 2005, 2020). Since then, inclusive education has been equated with including children with disabilities in general education.

However, within years, inclusive education has taken on a broader meaning, covering learners other than those with special needs. The Salamanca Statement, signed by 92 countries in 1994 is considered to be a turning point for the transformation of the concept. It has been noted in the Statement that 'every child has unique characteristics, in-

terests, abilities and learning needs' and so 'must be allowed to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning in regular schools, with additional support in the context of the regular curriculum' (UNESCO, 2020, p. 3). These principles were adopted and promoted by the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000, which underlined the need to include working children, nomads, ethnic and linguistic minorities, and other marginalised groups. UNESCO guideline in 2005 defined inclusion (UNESCO, 2005. p. 13):

> as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education. It involves changes and modifications in content, approaches, structures and strategies, with a shared vision that covers all children of the appropriate age range and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all children.

This definition opens up spaces for the inclusion of refugees in national contexts. It also points out the role of several key actors in achieving inclusive education, which we will be discussing in the next section. For the moment, it is important to point out the ground on which inclusive education has been justified. In UNESCO guidelines and background papers, it is noted that inclusive education can be justified on educational, social and economic grounds. These are outlined as follows (UNESCO, 2019, p. 5):

> An educational justification: the requirement for schools to educate all children together means that they have to develop ways of teaching that respond to individual differences and that therefore benefit all children;
> A social justification: inclusive schools are intended to change attitudes to difference by educating all children together and form the basis for a just and non-discriminatory society; and
> An economic justification: it is likely to be less costly to establish and maintain schools that educate all children together than to set up a complex system of different types of schools specializing in particular groups of children.

Studies show that until recently, refugees were frequently educated in separate schools, separate from the nationals (Dryden-Peterson et

al., 2018). In Turkey, for instance, a great majority of Syrian students had received education in Temporary Education Centres, where a revised Syrian curriculum was followed with some extra Turkish lessons until 2017. However, refugee-only schools are unsustainable from a financial perspective. Moreover, they do not contribute to practices of living together with the nationals; instead, they maintain segregation. Therefore, the above-mentioned justifications are important for the nation-states to come to terms with the necessity of an inclusive education approach. They are also used for justifying the importance of inclusive education for teachers and different stakeholders in educational processes. Educational, social and economic justifications of inclusive education underline the fact that such approach is vital for the educational well-being of all children, for social cohesion of societies and financial rationality. Justifying the inclusive education approach on paper is relatively easy. Yet inclusive education involves dealing with prejudices, challenging dominant norms and settled educational practices. Genuine inclusive education therefore faces many challenges in national contexts. The following section will briefly review these challenges.

Key Features and Challenges in the Implementation of Inclusive Education

Inclusive education is sometimes understood as a technical phenomenon that can be achieved when followed by specific pedagogical approaches. It involves a particular pedagogy, yet an effective inclusive education should be based on a philosophy that requires addressing the problems of social cohesion, social exclusion and existing inequalities, and challenging dominant national norms and practices. Graham and Slee (2008, p. 278) argue that the term inclusion 'implies a bringing in that it presupposes a whole into which something (or someone) can be incorporated [...] [thus] there is an implicit centredness to the term inclusion, for it discursively privileges notions of the pre-existing by seeking to include the Other into a prefabricated, naturalised space.' So, if the inclusion of refugees means integrating them into existing Turkish, German, Italian, Greek or Slovenian cultures, this does little to address the issue of social cohesion and exclusionary practices in these societies.

UNESCO stresses that inclusion should be understood as 'a dynamic approach to responding positively to pupil diversity and seeing indi-

vidual differences not as problems, but as opportunities for enriching learning' (UNESCO, 2005, p. 12). This is an important statement regarding the philosophy of inclusive education. However, how can we make teachers and national students see refugee children as a richness for learning environments in the face of structural impediments and negative stereotypes of refugees in many contexts? The reason behind negative perception towards refugees is mostly an essentialised and naturalised notion of national cultures and norms. Such a notion of culture forms the centre. Thus, as Mac Ruarirc (2013, p. 12) puts it, what is required is 'making visible and a deconstruction of the centre from which different forms of exclusion and exclusionary practices derive.'

The way inclusive education is carried out to include Syrian children into national education in Turkey can illustrate this point. The Ministry of National Education (MONE) published a Teacher's Guide on Inclusive Education for those teachers who have refugee students in their classes (Aktekin, 2017). This guide has been developed as part of a project the MONE carried out in collaboration with UNICEF, and it is the first comprehensive work by the MONE on inclusive education. The Guide offers inclusive education as a strategy for including refugees by giving reference to several passages from UNICEF and UNESCO manuals. It underlines, for instance, that based on an inclusive educational approach, not students but schools should adapt to the social, cultural and emotional needs of students (Aktekin, 2017, p. 16). However, national education in Turkey has been organised on the bases of monocultural (Sunni Muslim and Turkish culture) and mono-linguistic principles. So how a genuine inclusive education could be achieved without questioning this dominant norm or the centre? Without challenging these prevailing norms, if I refer to Mac Ruarirc's words again, 'following a nominally inclusive policy trajectory alone may always privilege the centre' (2013, p. 16). In other words, refugee students may attend Turkish public schools. The MONE may promote an inclusive educational approach, but this does not reduce negative attitudes towards refugee children; it does not lead refugee students to develop a positive self-image and a sense of belonging.

This analysis can be further detailed with two terms, structural integration and relational integration, employed by Dryden-Peterson et al. (2018) in their analysis of fourteen different national cases regarding inclusion of refugee students. According to them, structural integration refers to the ability to access services like education. On the

other hand, relational integration is a socio-cultural process that includes an 'individual-level sense of belonging, or connectedness as well as group-level social cohesion' (Dryden-Peterson et al., 2018, p. 10). The study shows a critical gap between structural and relational integration. Countries may claim that they follow inclusive educational policies. Yet, they cannot develop a sense of belonging in refugee children and positive social contact between refugee and national students in order to achieve social cohesion. Representing and using the home languages of refugee students are both crucial to developing a sense of belonging and legitimising their cultural presence in national schools. Dryden-Peterson et al. note that the language is not limited to spoken, verbal language. Non-verbal and socio-cultural scripts also convey explicit and implicit messages to students about dominant norms (2018, p. 14). And this message in many countries – although they claim to implement inclusive policies – reproduces power relations and prevailing norms. It does not empower teachers and students for building cohesive social ties. Within the mono-lingual organisation of the Turkish education system, teachers cannot include Arabic or Kurdish as the home languages of Syrian refugees in their educational practices. Thus, while the Ministry of Education presents its initiative as inclusive education, studies demonstrate that public schools push Syrian pupils out of school. Refugee parents in this mono-lingual environment cannot monitor their children, and students often feel alienated and excluded (Çelik & İçduygu, 2019). In sum, although the Turkish education system closed refugee-only temporary education centres, led public schools to register refugee students and claimed to adopt inclusive educational practices, it is still far from achieving relational integration and genuine inclusion.

Educational actors sometimes blamed refugee families and students for not making enough effort to be part of the system. An effective inclusive educational approach, on the other hand, requires recognising the fact that refugee students' difficulties arise from the education system. Besides challenging the centre or the dominant social and educational norms, several factors can facilitate or inhibit inclusive practices such as 'teacher skills and attitudes, infrastructure, pedagogical strategies and the curriculum' (UNESCO, 2017). First, teachers enact inclusive education at a local level. Therefore, they need to be continuously supported for developing skills for inclusive approaches and pedagogical strategies. Educational infrastructure is also crucial for in-

clusive education. If physical and social infrastructure is not accessible for refugee students, inclusive policies cannot be implemented effectively. And lastly, inclusive education requires questioning the curriculum and textbooks. Textbooks have traditionally been designed to raise loyal citizens and create a homogenous society with a distinct national identity. In many contexts, national curriculum and textbooks relay, as Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) note, a specific cultural capital through which dominant groups recreate their own position of superiority. In a school where cultural capital, language and practices of refugee students are not represented and are seen as worthless, there is little chance of speaking about effective inclusive education. In other words, inclusive education does not only involve a technical or organisational change. It also entails a clear philosophy that challenges power relations and traditional national identities, and promotes a vision of living together with our differences.

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Chapter Three

The Best of Both Worlds: Use of Information-Communication Technologies among Teenage Migrants in Slovenia

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Introduction

Information-communication technologies (ICTS) are of great importance in people's everyday lives in Western societies today, and teenagers are no exception. The popularity of ICTS use among teenagers has not gone unnoticed in recent studies (Ito et al., 2010; boyd, 2014; López et al., 2021), arguing that these technologies play a crucial role in youth culture. Yet, little is known about youth migrants' relationships with ICTS and their experiences with them. On the one hand, this population is an integral part of migrants, and on the other hand, teenagers are among the most frequent ICTS users. How teenage migrants perceive and use these technologies can significantly influence their integration process and intercultural communication experiences.

Against this background, the chapter aims to analyse the everyday use of ICTS among teenage migrants in Slovenia. The rationale behind this topic is also in the fact that although a growing body of literature studying youth ICTS practices exists, we are still at the early stages of researching the everyday use of these technologies among migrant youth.

What follows is a general and brief account of the role that ICTS have in allowing the time-space independent action of individuals, which is a key feature of contemporary (network) society. In doing so, we focus

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on migrants and their relations with the home country and the host society. The next part presents our field study, implemented among teenage migrants in Slovenia, where we take a closer look at their experience and purpose of ICTS use in everyday lives. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion on the possible future research areas in this field in order to provide further insights into the use of ICTS among youth migrants.

Information-Communication Technologies in the Context of Contemporary Migration Process

Contemporary society is obviously a changing society, which seriously challenges the established or traditional social forms. In comparison with the previous social forms, the specificity of today's relationships and processes lies in the fact that they take place in physical space and cyberspace as well. Namely, individuals' everyday lives show that cyberspace can no longer be treated as a temporary space of social experimenting, strictly separated from physical space (which had been the case approximately two decades ago) but rather as an equivalent of physical space. Metaphorically speaking, there are no two worlds; it is only one.[1] Meaning that physical and cyberspace intertwine and supplement each other.

In this chapter, we are mainly interested in the time-space-independent action of individuals, which is a key feature of contemporary (network) society. At the experiential level, such action enables the world to be perceived as smaller and manageable, which means that actors can interconnect and integrate in new spatial-temporal combinations that transcend territorial and national borders and allow ubiquity, so that certain entities can exist anywhere and at any time. This results in the integration of activities among individuals that are no longer sensitive to (physical) distance from each other. Consequently, despite high levels of physical movement in constant connection with members of their networks, they carry their entire social networks with them at all times. This means that wherever individuals go, emotionally and socially, they never leave their homes. The latter is also one of the main reasons why concepts related to migration processes, such as borders,

[1] At the end of the nineties, a Slovenian internet company advertised its services with the slogan: 'There is no one world, there are two worlds.' Today this slogan would change into: 'There are no two worlds, there is only one world.'

fixedness, presence and distance, have taken on a different meaning than they had two decades ago.

Among other things, the situation presented led to an increased frequency of interactions between family members, relatives, and friends. Castells (2004) refers to this as mobile network society, thus emphasising diffusion of network logic (Castells, 1996) to all areas of social life with the help of wireless (and potentially time-space unlimited) technology.

This condition implies strengthening the social structure conceptualised as a network society (Castells, 1996) through new wireless communication technologies. Therefore, a mutual connection is not (anymore) dependent on temporal-spatial obstacles but available communication technologies. The latter is vital in the contemporary migration processes, where ICTS, their accessibility and different communication services led many migrants to communicate more easily and regularly with people in their home countries, thereby maintaining the so-called transnational networks of support.

Furthermore, as evident from the literature (Baldassar & Laura, 2014; Nedelcu, 2012), these networks provide important resources for emotional and moral, practical, personal, and financial support to migrants, allowing them to maintain cultural traditions, consume various tangible and intangible elements of the original culture, etc. In this way, individuals who are physically distant from the home country remain connected to it. In a sense, ICTS act as a 'social glue' that connects migrants to their home culture, family and friends.

Likewise, ICTS are an important factor in the process of migrant integration into host societies (Lenarčič & Dežan, 2020). Namely, this technology is a valuable tool that allows them to learn about their new social environment (e.g., language, civil rights, cultural traditions, social norms, legal rules, etc.), to form and extend social networks with individuals and groups in the host society, to find employment opportunities, etc. The potential that ICTS have for integration and inclusion for migrants into host societies is also recognised by the EU, which in the *Action plan on Integration and Inclusion 2021–2027* (European Commission, 2020) reinforces the use of these technologies by stating that they open up new opportunities to modernise and facilitate access to integration.

Based on what has been presented above, ICTS allow migrants to interweave social dynamics from two or more physically and cultur-

ally distant places at the same time, somewhat positioning them neither in the host country nor in the home country, but in both places at the same time, which creates a strong sense of 'in-betweenness.' This situation has dramatically changed the overall migrant experience. As Diminescu (2008) argues, this is a transition from rooted to connected migrant because ICTS allow contemporary migrants almost unlimited simultaneous presence in two cultural contexts, explicitly in a physically distant homeland, as well as in a country where they actually live.

As emphasised in the introduction, the focus of this study is on the everyday use of ICTS among teenage migrants in Slovenia. This research interest stems from various reasons, explicitly: among all ICTS users, teenagers are the most frequent (International Telecommunication Union, 2020), ICTS play a crucial role in the lives of teenagers by providing them with a space to hang out and maintain contact with friends (boyd, 2014) and academic literature about this topic is scarce. Therefore, what follows is the presentation of results obtained in the field research implemented among teenage migrants in Slovenia.

Teenage Migrants and Use of Information-Communication Technologies: The Slovenian Context

Slovenia is characterised primarly by the economic immigration flow from the republics of the once common state of Yugoslavia. It attracts migrants from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Croatia, Kosovo, Montenegro, which is also reflected in the teenage population within our research. According to the existing data, the number of foreign-born children under 15 years of age has increased over the past decade, particularly the number of children from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo and North Macedonia that are the most prominent groups of foreign-born children in Slovenia. According to the Slovenian Statistical Office, in 2018, one in eight residents in Slovenia was an immigrant. 250,226 (12.1%) residents of Slovenia are foreign-born, meaning that they immigrated to Slovenia at some point in their lives. There is, however, a lack of data on migrant children and youth in Slovenia, particularly on children in the field of education, where only data on foreign citizenship are available. In the school year 2018/2019, 5.5% of pupils in primary education and 7.4% in secondary education had foreign citizenship.[2]

[2] https://pxweb.stat.si.

Methodological Explanations

Our discussion on ICTS use among migrant teenagers is based on the data from the MICREATE project – Migrant Children and Communities in a Transforming Europe, funded by the Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Action. The research among the teenager migrants was conducted in secondary schools from January to October 2020, including four secondary schools from different parts of Slovenia that were selected according to the ethnic diversity of pupils attending these schools.

The overall aim of the research was to explore teenagers' subjective understandings and perspectives about their own lives and experiences with migration, life transitions, integration and general well-being (Mayeza, 2017), following the child-centred approach that puts young people in the centre of the research. The participatory observation method (Fine & Sandstrom, 1999) and the collection of autobiographical life stories (Bertaux, 1981; Skinner, 2012) were used to capture their views. For the purposes of this chapter, 30 were analysed in-depth – those of first, second or third-generation migrant children aged between 15 and 19. They were mainly economic migrants who moved to Slovenia with their families from the republics of a former common state Yugoslavia: Croatia, Bosnia, Serbia, Macedonia, Montenegro and Kosovo. While the scope of the research was broader and not explicitly focused on ICTS, for the purposes of this chapter, the role of ICTS in their lives will be explored as identified through the interviews with migrant children. The interviews were non-structured, but the theme of ICTS appeared in children's narratives as they play a significant role in their lives. The nature of this study is exploratory. The aim of the presented results is thus not an in-depth analysis of the use of the ICTS among migrant youth, but the identification of the key areas of ICTS use, as represented in the narratives of children.

Results

In one of the few studies on the use and the role of ICTS in child and youth migration, Raftree et al. (2013) identify three groups of reasons how and why migrant children and young people use ICTS in their everyday lives: for communicating and connecting with family and friends, for accessing information and for accessing services. In our research with migrant youth, two perspectives emerged as particularly relevant concerning the ICTS use, namely, their use to connect with

family and friends and to maintain cultural ties in the country of origin, as well as to connect with family and friends in the country of arrival and thus facilitate the integration in the new environment. This aspect has also been highlighted by Raftree et al. (2013, p. 21), who state: 'In addition to keeping in touch with families and friends back home, children and youth are using ICTS, especially mobiles and online social networks, to keep their support networks intact and to facilitate their own integration into their destination countries.' ICTS thus play an essential role in the bonding and bridging processes of young migrants.

Connecting in the Country of Arrival

It is often reported that technology plays an important role in the lives of young people, as also stated by the 17-year-old girl from Macedonia, who explains the role of ICTS in her life:

> Central [laughter]. For me, central. [...] I spend a lot of time with my phone, my computer. I find it interesting.

Like many young people, migrant children reported spending a significant amount of time using smartphones, computers, browsing the internet, listening to music, playing games or communicating. However, ICTS also play a vital role in facilitating integration in the country of arrival and significantly impacts overall well-being (Abujarour & Krasnova, 2017).

For young people, friendships are one of the most important elements of well-being (Ben-Aryeh et al., 2014). Social networks provide an important platform for building new connections in the country of arrival. Teenage migrants expand and maintain social networks by building personal networks through participation on different social network sites (e.g., Facebook, Messenger, TikTok, Viber, Instagram, etc.), online games, etc., in the country of arrival. A migrant who moved to Slovenia six years ago explains that she met most of her friends through social networks (girl, 16 y.o.):

> Then I have friends I met through social networks, and we went out together to meet, and it turned out they are also great friends, and they can be trusted. You have to have time to go out and get to know each other. Then I have another friend here. I hang out with her, and we talk to each other and everything. I met her also through social networks [...] Now we are best friends.

However, the narratives of migrant teenagers also frequently highlighted the importance of face-to-face contact and dedicated time. For example, a girl from Bosnia, who has been living in Slovenia for ten years, was critical (girl, 18 y.o.):

> Now young people are very obsessed with these phones and games and all that. But sometimes I voluntarily leave the phone alone, for about two days. [...] If it weren't for the phones, I don't think people would even know how to talk to each other. Really, because if you go out with someone, you talk for ten, fifteen minutes and the rest is on the phone. I mean, I lost my interest in going out with this person because I went out intending to talk to you live, not over the phone because I can do it from home. I mean the phones; they're for help, but it does not have such an important role that I couldn't be without a phone.

According to different studies, social networks are associated with better quality of social relationships among migrants, both offline and online (Ogan & Ozakca, 2010; Damian & Van Ingen, 2014). As evident from the quotes, social networks present a place to meet and connect, but face-to-face activities are also important in establishing long-term friendships.

Generally, social networks are integral parts of everyday lives of (migrant) youth related to different domains, such as school and leisure activities. For example, a girl who recently moved to Slovenia describes her daily routine with a group of school friends, which includes chatting and sharing content with friends (girl, 15 y.o.):

> Usually, after school, we go out, get together, work together, help each other – we also hear each other over the phone every day. [Do you have a group?] Yes, always. [...] Yes, Messenger. But also through Instagram, or we send each other funny videos; we share everything.

Social network groups with friends from class, where they share information about the school and communicate, are also an important part of everyday life (girl, 17 y.o.):

> Yes, we have two groups, one on Messenger and one on Snapchat [...] but basically, we're all included in these groups, and we really talk every day both, about school and just stuff in general.

Practical support for migrant children, such as help with homework and other school-related tasks, is thus made possible through the use of ICTS. According to the young people interviewed, these groups also played a significant role during the Covid-19 school closure and online learning, when they shared school tasks and maintained contact with friends. Through everyday communication, peer learning, help with homework and the like, ICTS play a supportive role, easing youth's integration into a new community (Raftree et al., 2013).

Additionally, friendly relationships maintained through ICTS also provide emotional support in cases of distress (girl, 17 y.o., Bosnia):

> We have a group – D., R., A., A. and me. And I wrote to them that my grandmother had died and then they all called me immediately. So, then it was better.

Friends, like family, play an important, emotionally supportive role in the lives of migrant youth.

Staying in Touch with Family and Friends in the Country of Origin and Maintaining Cultural Ties

Transnational relationships with peers, relatives and friends maintained through ICTS are often overlooked as providers of a significant support network and social capital for migrant youth (Ogden & Mazzucato, 2021). ICTS are thus used to stay in touch and maintain connections with family and friends in the country of origin, to maintain cultural ties and stay in touch with the culture of origin. This was also the case for migrant youth within our research.

Connections with friends and family in the country of origin were often one of the first things mentioned in the narratives of teenagers, like in the case of the 15 years old girl from Bosnia:

> I am 15 years old. I came to Slovenia from Bosnia 4 years ago. I am from XX [city]. [...] I miss friends and family from there. We hear each other regularly, over Snapchat and Instagram.

Social network sites enable keeping transnational connections, as reported by a girl who moved from Bosnia 2 years ago (girl, 16 y.o.):

> Yes, we bought my grandma a phone so she can use Viber because she had the old phone without Viber.

Similarly, when asked what the worst thing in her life was, a girl from Macedonia responded that Covid-19 prevented her from visiting her grandparents; however, they maintained contact via the phone (girl, 17 y.o.):

> The worst thing is that I have a grandfather and grandmother in Macedonia. We could not visit them because of Covid-19. I would like them to be here. I have a lot of a family that is not here. [And do you hear each other on the phone?] Yes, on the phone. Regularly.

Family ties are reported to play an important role in the lives of migrant children. Informants expressed that they missed their family and friends and stressed the importance of keeping the family connections active (girl, 16 y.o.):

> I have a brother in Bosnia, I have [...] his wife and their daughter, and I miss them a lot. And the rest of the family is there, too. Here, there is only my mother, my father and my younger brother. The rest are in Bosnia.

Similarly, a girl from Bosnia emphasised the importance of ICTS in maintaining supportive contacts with extended family members (girl, 17 y.o.):

> I haven't been there since New Year's. I would so love to go there, rest, and visit my family [...] I miss them all. [Are you in contact with them?] Yes, every day. [...] I don't know what I would do if there were no social networks. [Who are you in contact with?] Grandfather, grandmother – we hear each other every day. And cousins, aunts – every day, too. We have a group, and we are all part of it, and then we all talk to each other.

As can be seen from the above quotes, maintaining emotional connections with family and friends from the country of origin is particularly important for migrant children. 'Staying in touch' helps them to keep 'mutually supportive relationships across time and space' Baldassar (2007, p. 406). For many migrant teenagers, members of the extended family and friends who live in the country of origin present important anchors (Grzymala-Kazlowska, 2017). Many reported that they still have regular contact and communication with them even after several years in Slovenia. As in the case of this 18-year-old Serbian boy who

has been living in Slovenia for ten years and who regularly communicates with friends and family in Serbia via social media (boy, 18 y.o.):

> We hear each other like twice a week, with cousins and friends there. We have one group, all together.

Teenagers emphasised connecting with transnational family members, which also contributed to forming additional transnational friendships. However, these are related to recurrent visits to the country of origin, as Haikkola (2011) noted. A boy who reported having regular ICT contacts with a group of family and friends in the country of origin also reported visiting them frequently, thus maintaining face-to-face contacts (boy, 18 y.o.):

> I have friends there. I also have cousins, and when we go there, we meet with these old friends. [How often do you go there?] About twice a year. For holidays when we have a new year's break or so.

Regular visits to his country of origin help maintain connections with the members of extended family and friends. In her article on the second generation migrant children and youth, Haikkola (2011) examined transnational social relations. They found that other types of networks often span multiple countries in addition to networks that span places of origin and destination. This is also true for some of the informants in our study who often reported maintaining contacts with friends and family from different countries (girl, 16 y.o.):

> I am 16 years old, soon to be 17. [...] In my free time, I love to spend time on my phone, where I communicate with friends and family in Macedonia or Croatia.

Despite the ICTS connections, friendships are fluid. Some migrant children reported that ties with friends from their country of origin loosened over time. For example, one of the migrants explained (girl, 16 y.o.):

> It is not the same as seeing each other live [...] at first, we were connected, but over time, these connections were lost.

Conclusion

ICTS play a central role for youth, especially for teenagers, who use them to connect to both worlds, the one they attained in the country

of arrival and the one left behind in the country of origin. Maintaining contacts with family and friends in the country of origin and establishing and connecting with new friends in the country of arrival is realised through ICTS. In this context, it is essential to highlight that these technologies have established an always-on lifestyle (boyd, 2012), resulting in, among other things, an increased frequency of interactions between family members, relatives, and friends. Such constant co-presence (Zhao, 2003) of physically distant individuals is the basis for developing a transnational lifestyle of migrants (Lenarčič, 2020), which includes stable ties and interactions between individuals and their original culture, meaning that it is based on a cultural rather than a geographical/territorial dimension. Additionally, this technology plays an important role in connecting to the new culture and maintaining the culture of origin of migrant children, connecting with the two and sometimes more countries and cultures. One of the exciting aspects for a more in-depth exploring is the idea that this in-between cultural position of migrant teenagers, maintained through the ICTS, is a ground for hybrid and transcultural identities (Bhabha, 1990; Welsch, 1999; Sedmak & Zadel, 2015).

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Chapter Four

Crucial Role of Language Skills in Ensuring Access of Unaccompanied Minors and Young Adult Migrants to Basic Services: Challenges and Effective Approaches

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Introduction

Language learning is a key aspect that promotes the inclusion of unaccompanied minors to the host society and their access to basic services. However, as it is mentioned in the UNESCO paper 'Language and Literacy Programs for Migrants and Refugees' (Hanemann, 2018, p. 57), the usual policy of the governments to promote language learning is to subsidise formal language courses and to have a system of sanctions for those that are not following them. This usually leads to one-size-fits-all solutions that usually do not motivate the migrants and do not support their learning since formal language learning typically assumes confident literacy and study skills which many migrants, due to several reasons, do not have (lack of confidence, limited contact with speakers of a language, limited literacy, lack of time/money, lack of learning support, lack of effective personal learning strategies, lack of motivation to persist with language learning activities, difficult personal situation).

As a result, many immigrants reach level A2 of the Common European Framework (CEFR), but far fewer reach level B1, which is considered the minimum level needed for full access to services. Moreover,

Dermol, V. (Ed.) (2021). *Towards the actor coordination model* (pp. 41–48). ToKnowPress. https://doi.org/10.53615/978-83-65020-35-2/41-48

as it is mentioned in the article 'What Measures Are in Place to Ensure the Long-Term Integration of Migrants and Refugees in Europe?,' published on the European Website on Integration (2020), the offer of public funded free courses for migrants and refugees decreases significantly as the level increases. The need to develop low-cost educational offers for immigrants and refugees at intermediate and advanced levels that will not depend on the availability of public funding is therefore evident.

Furthermore, as mentioned in the recommendations of the Council of Europe (2014), which were made in the framework of the Linguistic Integration of Adult Migrants (LIAM) project,[1] we learn a new language primarily by interacting in it and consequently, communication in real-life situations is extremely important. It is therefore very important to promote non-formal and informal language learning methods which are going to be flexible and consider the heterogeneity between the learner profiles. Recent research has also highlighted the connection between language learning and other forms of literacy, such as digital literacy and financial literacy, to ensure the access of unaccompanied minors and young adult migrants to basic services. This is particularly important in the Covid era with the increasing digitalisation of all services and social interactions and represents another aspect that is not considered in most of the formal language courses. However, language teachers alone cannot have all the knowledge and skills necessary to facilitate access to a wide and differentiated range of services. Non-formal and informal learning requires the cooperation between different actors to achieve the best possible result. For this reason, it is especially important to promote networking and cooperation between various actors (language teachers, employers, public services, communities etc.) that would eventually lead to ensure better access to services.

The Limitations of the Formal Education Model

The provision and subsidising of formal language courses are the main strategy that most governments follow to develop the language skills of the migrants they host. The formal education model usually follows a 'one size fits all' approach which is often ineffective. In formal education, learners from different countries, of different ages, and with

[1] https://www.coe.int/en/web/lang-migrants.

different linguistic needs follow a standardised language learning programme which usually leads to a formal qualification. This system has many limitations and makes the linguistic inclusion of the migrants more difficult.

First, this system does not consider the linguistic biographies of the learners. Some of the migrants speak several languages, they have lived in multilingual environments and therefore they have a greater capacity of language acquisition from others that know only their mother tongue.

Second, this system does not consider the specific needs of the migrants related to language acquisition. Some migrants need more skills related to language learning in the workplace and work-related vocabulary, others have more needs in relation to dealing with public administration etc.

Third and most important, formal language learning typically assumes confident literacy and study skills which many migrants do not have, due to several reasons:

- *Limited contact with speakers of a language.* Migrants, especially newly arrived, often tend to have contacts only with other migrants coming from their country of origin. This leads to a ghettoisation and reduces the times where these migrants would need to use the language of the host country.
- *Low literacy.* Frequently, migrants that arrive to Europe have a low general level of literacy as they had limited schooling in their country of origin. This means that they also have low study skills, and they would need special support to be able to cope with formal learning approaches.
- *Lack of time/money.* The lack of time and money is an important constraint, especially for young adult migrants that need to work. Formal education needs more dedication in terms of time and many times, since they cannot combine both, many migrants drop the language courses or are unsuccessful in them.
- *Lack of motivation.* Formal language learning requires great motivation. When migrants consider their host country as a transition country, as for example is the case with the majority of the migrants coming to Greece, or if their political status is uncertain, a lack of motivation is frequently observed.
- *Lack of confidence.* As it was demonstrated by Yeşim Sevinç and Ad

Backus (2017), language anxiety is a particularly important issue in the context of migration. Many times, migrants avoid using the language of the host country because they do not feel confident in it. This leads to further problems in terms of language proficiency, and the migrants may feel trapped in a vicious circle.

Connection between Language Learning and Digital Literacy

Language learning is of key importance for migrants in order to be included in the society of their host country in an independent way. The good knowledge of the language of the host country is important in order to gain access to basic services, including access to employment, health care, education, and housing without depending on the availability or not of relevant support services. However, with the increase of the digital technologies as well as with the impact of Covid-19 pandemic, the access to services increasingly requires digital skills. The development of digital skills goes hand in hand with the development of language and literacy skills in order for the access to the services to be effective. Even if most of the migrants have basic digital skills and are able to use smart phones for connecting to social networks and communicating with their families, they are not familiar with using digital skills for learning or for accessing services. This was particularly evident and also led to a worsening of the situation of migrants during the pandemic.

Non-Formal and Informal Language Learning for Migrants

The above limitations and considerations make the development of non-formal and informal language learning for migrants particularly important. Non-formal and informal learning consists of a series of approaches that promote tailor-made and flexible solutions that could allow the language learning acquisition in a non-formal context in cooperation with native speakers of the language (language partners). In this way, several of the above-mentioned limitations can be overcome. Morice (2016) has proved that non-formal and informal learning methods not only develop the language skills of the migrants better but also allow them to better understand the culture of the country in which they live and have more contacts with people from the mainstream community.

There are many methods that are used in order to develop the language skills of the migrants in a non-formal or informal way. These

methods include organising language cafés for migrants or the promotion of Tandem exchange in couples or in groups. While in traditional Tandem exchanges two people exchange their language skills, in the case of migrants, language skills can be exchanged with cultural knowledge that migrants bring with them. In the framework of formal and informal language learning in relation with the issue of the access to basic services, the following areas have been identified as of particular importance.

Work

- Searching for a job in the newspaper
- Calling to ask information about a new post
- Giving information about one's profession
- Undertaking a work interview
- Writing a personal CV
- Addressing a cover letter to an employer
- Asking for information at work in the office/consultancy office
- Giving information on one's work-related qualifications
- Understanding an employment contract
- Understanding employment laws and regulations
- Asking about work ethics, rights, and professional rights
- Filling in and signing an employment contract
- Selling a product
- Giving orders, directions, and guidelines to a colleague
- Narrating to a friend how the work is going
- Reporting to the boss how the work is going

Public Services

- Asking for information at the tax office
- Understanding an official form at the tax office
- Declaring tax refund
- Giving and asking for information at the immigration office
- Asking about recognition of professional qualifications
- Sending and receiving a letter/a parcel at the post office
- Declaring a loss at the police station
- Registering with the Municipality asking for a visa

- Arranging permit formalities
- Applying for a driver's license
- Paying driving fines
- Dealing with funeral arrangements and inheritance

Health

- Calling a hospital or a private doctor to ask for or change an appointment
- Asking a doctor information about the results of a health test
- Asking a doctor about rehabilitation issues
- Narrating to a third person because someone is in hospital
- Describing the health system/the conditions in a hospital
- Talking about alternative medicine
- Asking questions about the health issues of a pregnant woman
- Giving information to a doctor on one's pain(s), symptoms, and psychological problems
- Registering in the health system

Housing

- Searching for a new house to rent or to buy
- Asking for information about a new house to rent or buy
- Describing a house
- Signing a contract for a house to rent or to buy
- Understanding conditions and regulations relevant to living in an apartment building
- Understanding a house insurance document
- Understanding house bills
- Complaining about damages in a house
- Arranging moving to a new house
- Negotiating with a roommate

ICT and the Media

- Asking about ICT services
- Understanding the interface of a PC in the host country's language
- Explaining problems about technology
- Communicating through e-mail in the L2

- Complaining about a TV programme
- Surfing the internet
- Understanding a news report/broadcasting

Financial Issues and Services

- Opening a new bank account
- Asking about different bank products
- Understanding a bank report
- Understanding insurance needs, policies and making claims
- Understanding about payment of pensions, and investments

These skills are usually offered to migrants up to A2 level. However, it is particularly important to offer the skills at least at B1 level because this is the minimum level required for the access to services to be effective.

Conclusion

The provision of formal language learning is the usual and the easiest choice for migrants to develop the language skills and allows them independent access to basic services. However, this approach has many limitations and is ineffective for many migrants. Non-formal and informal language approaches are not very frequent but have proved to be highly effective. It is especially important to promote the provision of informal and non-formal language learning opportunities at least at the B1 level to allow them to improve their access to training but also develop their networks and become better included in the host society of the country in which they live.

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Chapter Five

Work-Based Learning and the Inclusion Pathway into the Labour Market

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As worldwide conflicts and economic inequality persist, and climate change endangers the livelihood of large populations, migration is to some degree a fact to stay (Khanna, 2021). Migration within the European Union already necessitates a substantial change in the systems of education and employment, and the social state as a whole (CISOTRA, 2018), taking account of a large number of non-native speakers within the system of education and initial and further training.

Refugee migration adds a distinct and quite complex element to that megatrend. The countries of Europe are all confronted with a degree of involuntary migration, ranging from escape from individual prosecution to economic and social despair. As Chapter 2 of this book demonstrates, the countries of Europe have committed to the protection of migrants. Trying to fence Europe in would contradict core European values, bear unacceptable human costs and delay the unavoidable adaptation to modern transcultural society. Whether we like it or not – we have to learn to deal with such a society. On the positive side, there is ample evidence that an open and diverse society has better prerequisites for striving in a rapidly changing world (Florida, 2005). Not being the target of migration or the source of migration is an indicator of economic, educational and social failure that should be highly concerning to policymakers in such countries. There is also no denying that such change means tension and conflict.

Based on the research within the CISOTRA project (CISOTRA, 2019, 2021) we can clearly see that in all of the partner countries, the situation implies substantial challenges. In Turkey, a large Syrian population is trying to settle down as an early return to their home country

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becomes ever more improbable, phenomena like child labour are being reported, while many refugees aim at further migration to the northern countries of Europe. In Greece, a large population of refugees lives in a situation of permanent transition, without substantial efforts for inclusion in the host society. In contrast, the agreed processes of organised transition are slow to be implemented.

Italy, despite substantial efforts of parts of the state and institutions at better societal and labour market inclusion, is characterised by phenomena of illegal labour and societal disintegration. At the same time, individual transition plans to northern Europe are counter-productive for societal inclusion. In Slovenia, the low number of young refugees profit from a dedicated community of supporters. Still, a growing political controversy on migration challenges the foundations of such support and the ability of the country to be an active player in European schemes to meet the challenge. Finally, in Germany, the final destination for many refugees, the high hopes of young refugees, in particular for security, opportunities for education, employment and ability to support families at home meet a society in transition to digitalised, high-tech, highly educated, culturally diverse and dynamic society and economy, which challenges the adaptability of large segments of the residents (OECD, 2019).

In all partner countries, the research analysis and studies make it very clear that unaccompanied minors and young refugees are youth on the move. They are a particularly 'transnational' group, as they have often been on the run for a long time, are away from family and traditional ties, frequently have travelled through various countries, worked and suffered there and are often not sure about their future in the countries of their present residence.

In some countries with less economic opportunity, unaccompanied minors and your refugees primarily seek to move on to the northern countries. But, unfortunately, in the northern countries they get involved in a legal process that often leads to deportation or an illegal status, or one that does not encourage societal or economic integration.

Young refugees, therefore, are a very particular group to be distinguished from 'migration from country A to country B' youth. In stark contrast to voluntary migration, unaccompanied minors are primarily involuntary migrants, partly forced to escape from individual prosecution, war and terror, partially sent away out of such situations as the

bearers of high hopes of whole families, somewhat being wholly displaced in the process of disintegration of home countries, and having long histories of escape through several inhospitable transit countries (CiSOTRA, 2021).

The solution to the challenge seems to be obvious. Admit the relatively young refugees to the demographically challenged countries of northern Europe, teach them the country's language, educate them and organise a well-coordinated system of transition to work. However, this seemingly straightforward solution appears to be much more complex on closer analysis. As the countries of northern Europe (in the partnership of CiSOTRA represented by Germany) are the target country for many young refugees, we will, in the paragraphs to follow, discuss the topic of transition to education and employment primarily from the experience of Germany, however on a level of abstraction that makes the insights potentially useful for similar countries as well.

The chapters of this volume on the current situation in the respective partner countries include additional aspects of the situation of education and employment of young refugees in these countries, most prominent among these the prevention of child labour and other forms of illegal or otherwise unacceptable forms of treating minors and youth. In addition, the chapter details the work-based learning related to aspects of the wider 'model' of transition of UAM to adulthood.

The low level of youth unemployment in countries that use quality work-based learning schemes has not gone unnoticed. Consequently, the European Commission has for quite some time recommended work-based learning as a means to fighting youth unemployment (European Commission, 2012). Integration to work through work-based learning is a recipe easily prescribed but hard to implement.

The interests of the host countries and the desires and aspirations of young refugees seem to be in perfect harmony: security from prosecution and war and work in a prosperous country on the one side and a new generation of keen new citizens able and willing to fill the positions in work-based apprenticeship and work in crafts and industry, which have been left open by shrinking numbers of younger generations in the target countries on the other side. However, this perfect harmony is based on several assumptions that have to be tested and conditions that have to be produced and managed carefully.

Several assumptions have to be made on the side of the refugees: a willingness to take on the challenges of a situation of extreme insecu-

rity as long as the status of residence is unclear while having to be increasingly functional in a complex system of education and care; acceptance of the partly strange and unfamiliar habits and motivations of the enthusiastically welcoming volunteers in a free and individualistic society; forming a rational mental model of opportunities and challenges to be faced with persistent effort and resilience in the face of disappointment. They have to get to grips with defeats and sometimes even phenomena of racism and well-meaning but sometimes paternalistic support. These elements are factors of stabilisation and orientation, which have to be mastered from both sides (Pietsch & Steiner, 2019).

On the side of the resident society (of which large parts have a migrant background of their own nowadays), challenges include the intercultural opening of the education and employment system, sincere openness and willingness to reform, and the necessary investments and determination to make the system work. Success in these aspects is required to deliver on the claim so famously made by the German chancellor Angela Merkel in 2015 'Wir schaffen das!' (Together we will succeed in this!).

On the side of the refugees, a tremendous effort must be made to cope not only with the usual challenges of adolescence but also with insecurity, change of the cultural environment, language, societal rules and habits, religion and expectations of host country actors, home country families, and peers. Young refugees face a multi-faceted challenge of practical coping with the necessities of such change and successful identity building (Wiesinger, 2018).

The core of the challenge is that young refugees are required to be included in a highly differentiated working society (Bundesministerium für Arbeit und Soziales, 2017). Individual identity and societal position are determined by one's position in the world of work. This is quite a stark contrast to societies more determined by family, religion, and position in a hierarchical political system of clientelism or other forms of societal organisation (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012).

We claim that work and the formative power of work are key to a successful orientation and inclusion in the receiving societies. The labour system in the receiving countries is based on a high-quality work-based education, based on the dual system of company-based initial training and corresponding vocational schools form the backbone of education and initial training in the most successful industrial countries, in-

cluding Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Denmark. Training providing companies are the core to inclusion while being more or less alien to the education and training systems of most other countries, which have focused on following family traditions and businesses or academic education as the sole source of individual success and which share an understanding of vocational education as being inferior and outright stigmatising.

As this different understanding can be a fundamental source of misunderstanding, if not a feeling of being discriminated against, if work-based education is being recommended to young refugees, it might be useful to remind some of the arguments in favour of the work-based education, according to the common understanding in the core target countries of migration.[1]

- *Work as the source of identity.* In countries like Germany, people usually identify themselves as 'being' a certain professional, like a carpenter, mechanic, public servant, etc. There are more than 300 certified vocational degrees in addition to academic and other professional profiles.[2] 'Being' assumes the professional identity being part of one's own overall identity and overall personal formation, not to be confused with doing a random 'job' for a living.
- *Work as a place of societal encounter.* The place of work is the place of encounter between people from all origins. Here people are primarily colleagues with a common task and common duties rather than being defined by culture and origin.
- *Therefore, work is a place of societal acceptance.* Being a good colleague, proving one's value to the team, fitting in is the ticket to societal acceptance, if not full immersion.
- *Work as a source of role models.* The workplace is the place where successful role models can be met, among them many with a migration background on their own. The workplace is the alternative to being stuck in societally unintegrated peer groups and parallel societies.
- *Work as a source of income and self-consciousness.* In contrast to

[1] For a general presentation of the dual vocational training system and its benefits, see https://www.govet.international/en/54879.php.

[2] See the Federal Institute for Vocational Education and Training website, https://www.bibb.de/en/39.php.

other forms of society, the work-based societies of northern Europe imply a strong expectation that each individual provides for itself. This has been strongly influenced by the sweeping reform of the social state, e.g., in Germany in the scope of the 'Hartz reforms' (Wietschorke, 2019; Walwei, 2019). Also, not all income is equally accepted. Of course, not even being rich is a ticket to society, but societal respect depends on the income being earned legitimately and transparently.

- *Therefore, there is a standard model of acceptable 'well-qualified' work as a source of sustainable income as the almost exclusive form of existence in the labour society.* This implies quite long pathways of education and professional training, which amount to 3–4 years for a typical apprenticeship, plus potential further training, plus the substantial additional time for educational and pre-vocational preparation for newcomers to the country, which can amount to ten years of education and training until final integration to work and a full income.
- *Finally, work as a source of self-efficacy* (Bandura, 1997). As all facets of society are centred around paid labour, access to qualified work is the almost exclusive source of legitimate self-consciousness and feeling of self-efficacy through success in 'making' something to the highest standards or providing services with excellent customer feedback. However, just doing a 'job' as a source of income is not the way to societal respect and individual satisfaction in labour societies.

This obviously implies several conflict points, which are being experienced by practitioners when consulting with young refugees (Burkert, 2021).

On the side of refugees, the most important are

- Unrealistic expectations: most refugees perceive Germany as a 'rich' country. The overall level of wealth is being identified with individual success. Only over time, a more differentiated perception of a highly differentiated society sinks in. Social differences are rising, and large segments of the resident population are in a more or less precarious situation, struggle to make ends meet and face multiple mechanisms of competition, exclusion and discrimination. Therefore, success in such a society cannot be taken for

granted and is highly dependent on individual social, economic, and educational resources.

- Therefore, ambition is required, while over-ambition, the expectation of immediate access to pathways of education like the stereotypical ambition 'to become a doctor, lawyer or pharmacist,' which only very few of the resident population can achieve and which depend on high resources and academic achievement in the top 0,5% of an age cohort, can be a recipe for disaster.
- This fact creates tension within individuals, such as pressure from families in home countries to achieve success. But, on the other hand, the inability to achieve such success and generate an income that can support far away families implies shame and blame, even the necessity to break up with one's own familial roots.
- Finally, as newcomers to the resident society cannot be expected to be fully aware of the mechanisms of the host society, there is a substantial danger of interpreting usual conflicts of socialisation to the labour market as racism. Many practitioners describe the experience of young refugees as one of tremendous individual freedom. However, this has been reconciled with the basic fact that work-based training systems along the dual system are based on the necessity of being accepted by a training employer. This acceptance cannot be enforced but is a matter of an individual encounter and reconciliation. External control in authoritarian and culturally conformist societies is replaced with a system of quite non-transparent, implicit and intricate codes of conduct and habitual expectations. Freedom implies the competence of self-control, which is an exercise in trial and error even for youth born in these countries and who benefit from familial acculturation.

On the side of the education and labour system, these conflict points are reinforced by overall unpreparedness for the new phenomenon of relatively high-volume refugee immigration. The understanding of labour migration is largely being shaped by the experience of the inflow of 'guest worker' migration during the sixties and seventies, which was characterised by migration in the then large sectors of unqualified mass production factory work. Climbing the social ladder and integration into the host societies during this period was partly not expected by either migrants or the host society and has largely been left to the

market forces and empirically required multiple generations and is still not finished (Bade & Oltmer, 2004). On the other end of the spectrum, a degree of migration of highly qualified experts proved to be largely unproblematic. However, the immigration of refugees who have no place to go back to in the case of failure and expect to be successful in a short period is a new phenomenon. Therefore, several assumptions are being made, which are only partly realistic on the side of educators and training companies and potential employers.

- Expectation to be fully functional: schools are designed to serve a resident population socialised according to the basic rules and habits of the country. They are not intended to socialise students from scratch. Consequently, they are relatively short on resources and they leave such socialisation to the social support systems in families and social groups. On the other hand, employers are profit-making companies that depend on the almost full productivity of their trainees and employees. This can be the case but is dependent on a far above average effort on the side of the migrant trainee vs resident students.
- Knowing the size of the challenge, educators and employers expect a very linear effort on the side of the refugees, which conflicts with the challenges of normal adolescence, and even more with coping with individual traumatisation, poverty in resources and ambition to live freely in security and develop an own identity. While the resources for dealing with such challenges are mostly quite limited, the expectations that young refugees compensate for disadvantages and individual gaps are even higher, adding to the stress and feeling of tension and conflict on the side of the refugees.
- Therefore, the expectation of high obedience and conformity, resilience, and tolerance to disappointment conflicts with the promise of freedom, success, and non-discrimination.
- Such legitimate but somewhat naive expectations reflect a minimal transcultural awareness and intercultural opening of businesses. Formed by previous experiences, most companies have limited awareness of young refugees' special needs, resources, and conflicts. On the one hand, this is legitimate, as such awareness and intercultural sensitivity is not their core business. However, on the other hand, the currently quite limited efforts to im-

prove systematic inclusion are counter-productive in the face of high demand for trainees in many sectors, such as the crafts and SME industries (Fachkräftesicherung für kleine und mittlere Unternehmen, 2021). Therefore, a high degree of individual openness of company owners and a more professional approach are required.

What Can Be Done? Prerequisites of Making Work-Based Learning Work

Despite the tensions and conflicts that have been described above, the practice of immigration of UAM in transition to adulthood currently can be described as a fragile success. None of the apocalyptic visions of the vociferous enemies protecting refugee UAM and young refugees have come true (Brückner et al., 2020). On the large, young refugees have profited from a welcoming attitude of the large majority of the host societies, real economic opportunities in societies with a substantial demand for labour and flexibility and adaptability of institutions and arrangements which have been, while not being without frictions and dysfunctionalities, unprecedented. Moreover, these efforts could build on the capacities of a solid and flexible, if underfunded, educational system, youth support system, including a large pool of highly professional social work professionals, overall open and experienced training companies, and a large and energetic civil society, namely substantial volunteer engagement (Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend, 2017).

These elements have created a large pool of good practices of inclusion into education and training, which could be synthesised by the CISOTRA project into a general model of transition from the status of a protected unaccompanied minor to societally and economically fully included and immersed young adult.[3]

Elements of this model include outreach and engagement to youth, stabilisation, orientation, smooth transition through 'chains of education' into work-based and, in some cases, academic training and sustainable inclusion in the regular employment system. The main elements of this model, which are all backed up by good practices documented in the working papers of the CISOTRA project, will be ex-

[3] The paragraphs to follow are detailed in CISOTRA (2021); the model is explained in detail in Chapter 4, documentation of good practices is to be found in Chapter 7.

plained in brief before we finally point to the key areas that need expansion and improvement.

On the level of social inclusion, there is a broad consensus among the partners about the risk factors for refugee youth to drop out of society permanently out of frustration, denied opportunities, lack of building social relations and mental illness.

Many actors see the danger of forming an alienated 'parallel society' of individuals who are not deported but also not an integrated part of the society. They are in danger of joining the ranks of other equally alienated groups that have dropped out of the system at some point (CISOTRA, 2019, p. 92).

While the status of UAM is relatively straightforward and secure, the status of adulthood brings the challenge of freedom. Therefore, all elements described below, stabilisation, orientation, and progressing through education, need to be addressed professionally at a minor age already. Capable professional structures and proper training of guardians is vital in this area. However, as most young refugees are in the later stages of the juvenile hood, this period is comparatively short. Therefore, the focus of attention is the delicate phase of transition to adulthood of young refugees.

At the point of reaching adulthood, young refugees are no longer obliged to be in contact with custodians and are free to act based on their own deliberations. While this is normal for youth who have often managed their own escape and have acquired a level of 'street smartness,' the experienced young refugees decide upon continuation of supportive contacts with custodians and other institutions. Therefore, it cannot be taken for granted that refugee youth remain in contact with relevant institutions, seek information actively, use media in which institutions communicate, remain registered in the various systems, live in a social environment that encourages constructive education or work ethics or are physically and mentally capable of reacting to input.

'Engaging,' therefore, describes activities to reach out to these 'hard to reach.' This often includes proactive ways of reaching out to these youth and persistence in patiently contacting them in various formats. The key here is organising a smooth transition. Awareness of educators in schools, guardians and supporters of the potential and risk factors of dropout, low-level access support and attractive offers. Hands-on learning is key to avoiding dropouts. Further pathway, the existence of realistic opportunities, encouragement of high ambitions while chan-

nelling ambition to realistic 'first steps' are key features that need to be considered before reaching adulthood (CISOTRA, 2021, Chapter 7).

Such stabilisation during the transition period should include support in clearing the status of residence, a screening of resources and opportunities, and the status of mental and physical health, social embeddedness and perception of well-being. Connecting minors to relevant actors outside of their basic support bubble, increasing their 'social capital,' through exposing them to accessible representatives of relevant institutions and organisations, such as further education, support organisations, sports clubs, youth organisations, young women's groups, and the like is of critical importance. Most important is the exposure to role models of success in the German education and training system, namely migrants with similar experiences who have 'made it' in the host country training system. These can empathise with the minor migrants, are credible in their eyes and can effectively communicate opportunities and conditions of success. These efforts need to be reinforced close to adult age. Support needs to include orientation at all stages since minors frequently have to leave the system without having a range of trustworthy people to turn to for support and orientation.

'Orienting' describes all methodologies to realise opportunities and options, to decide about one's own aims and life strategies ('life projects'), build relevant competencies, trust, confidence and motivation to become able and willing to access the host country education training and employment system despite potential initial irritation, misunderstandings and frustrations. The factors of social un-integration point to the fact that many refugee youths lack the orientation in at least two dimensions: lack of orientation vs reasonable and meaningful goals for themselves: What do they want to achieve? Who do they want to be? Here a readjustment of initial 'dreams' and ambitions to the actual conditions of the host country is the main challenge.

A lack of orientation vs the means to achieve these goals: 'What are the opportunities, the pathways, whom to talk to, what to do?' Here the highly fragmented and even for experts quite confusing multitude of institutions, organisations, opportunities and challenges needs to be reflected, which in all cases requires qualified support.

Without adequate room to form such orientations, without a partner to discuss perspectives and possibilities to reverse former decisions and re-orient, there is a danger of frustration due to a lack of alternative plans. Interventions that aim at qualification or employment only,

without supporting the forming of such orientations and without an element of building the competence to form such orientation, must therefore be regarded as inadequate for sustainable integration. Peer role models are particularly important in this respect. Increasingly, the self-organisation of refugee and migrant youth will play a greater role in providing orientation. Also, exposure to representatives of the 'final destination' for youth, of the world of employment, i.e. craftspeople, qualified workers with migration backgrounds, entrepreneurs, young engineers and academics, in particular professional women, must be a real presence for young refugees in addition to the representatives of volunteer refugee support organisations.

This longer process of orientation also has to include opportunities for experimentation and reflected experience, which provides for various kinds of work-based learning experiences, if possible, in real-world environments. They already need to be organised during the stage of regular school education, as foreseen to at least a modest extent within the German system, given the larger needs of the orientation of refugees.

Practices, such as shorter or longer internships, but also a whole year of voluntary service in the social sector (as in the case of the German youth voluntary social service[4]) are examples of such orientation.

The aspect of 'stabilising' acknowledges that overall stabilisation is a multi-factorial and long-term process rather than a momentary phenomenon. Progress and setbacks need to be expected and balanced. The much-discussed article by one of the most experienced professionals in the field, Irmela Wiesinger, on identity building of young refugees, points to the several phases of migration. Often the high need for guidance does not become apparent until two to three years after arrival, before which many youth function under the 'facade of functioning normally.' 'Honeymoon phases' interchange with phases of conflict and tension. The preparation phase and the actual act of migrating are usually followed by a phase of overcompensation characterised by a high level of conformity, which leads to a phase of 'decompensation,' traditionally marked by tension and conflict and an increased risk of dropout and counter-productive behaviour. Finally, if

[4] See https://www.bundes-freiwilligendienst.de/fsj-freiwilliges-soziales-jahr/ and https://www.caritas.de/fuerprofis/fachthemen/caritas/caritas-als-arbeitgeber-fuer-fluechtlinge/freiwilligendienst-fuer-fluechtlinge.

the systems of orienting and stabilising work properly, the phase of understanding finalises the inclusion process (Wiesinger, 2018). Details of this discussion are described in a lecture within the E-Learning portal of CiSOTRA.[5]

Inserting. In all of the partner countries, on a conceptual level, but also more and more in practice, the actors are working to integrate social work, education and training. There is a high level of insight that social work alone is not enough, that youth must be educated, trained and integrated into work. On the one hand, this is a consequence of the insight that these youths will stay in high numbers and not return to their 'home' countries soon.

Suppose they are not to be an alienated part of the host societies permanently. In that case, ways must be found to educate, train, and insert them into the general education and training system. This is a huge challenge in all countries for several reasons. First, the national reports in the scope of the CiSOTRA Project mention significant heterogeneity of educational prerequisites, individual aspirations, language skills, and cultural background (CiSOTRA, 2019). Also, most of the youth arrives at an age at which the host country youth mostly finalise their educational career while refugee youth are about to begin it.

Therefore, serious efforts to include these youth require a major reform of the educational, social support, training and insertion systems in all partner countries. Basically, all countries are more and more transforming to 'migration societies' in general. Therefore, they have to adapt their systems to this fact to make their overall systems diversity-friendly. At the very least, all countries must face the challenge of developing complementary systems for the particular group of young refugees from individual measure/project level to system level.

Like their native counterparts, refugee youth need to move along a 'chain of education.' These 'chains' include various stages of primary and secondary education, compensatory measures in preparation for an apprenticeship or job, with the final target of sustainable integration in qualified work. The effectiveness of this chain depends on a smooth transition between the individual elements of that chain in educational systems, which can be quite fragmented, as is the case in Germany. Therefore, actors in the system have to ensure that each step is appropriate for the status of the youth and that proper care is taken for the

[5] https://elearning.CiSoTRA.eu/.

links in the chain to fit together. Moreover, the transition from one part of the chain to another often requires specific support.

For refugees, this 'chain' is quite specific, as they usually enter the system late (at the age of 16 or later) with sometimes very basic educational prerequisites or even no school experience at all.

Therefore, a very specific 'chain of education' has emerged, which is highly specific in each partner country. The principle will be illustrated by an example from Germany, more specifically, the strategic partner of the city of Munich.

An overall characteristic of the system are offers of consultancy and support, such as youth migration services, school social work, and support provided by volunteer organisations.

After having cleared individual prerequisites, learning the host country's language is the next stage, which enables the refugee to obtain a basic school degree as the first step to further education.

One specific form of schooling is vocational integration classes, which combine language learning with initial work-based learning experiences in a range of subjects and related specific language learning. These newly developed classes are considered a good practice, described in more detail in the working papers of the CiSOTRA project (CiSOTRA, 2021, p. 92).

The educational efforts aim to insert into the dual system of initial training, i.e., obtaining an apprenticeship with a regular training company. In addition, as described more closely below, such apprenticeships are now often supported by additional measures, such as 'assisted apprenticeships.'

In the dual system of training, apprenticeships provide high-quality training, leading to a highly appreciated certification of professional competence, which opens the door to qualified employees and entitles accessing higher education, e.g., at universities of applied sciences. Apprenticeships are therefore by no means excluded from quality education, but represent a portal to such education. Most of the owners of SMES in Germany and Switzerland and leaders of companies such as BMW, Siemens, Continental, and others take pride in having started their career with an apprenticeship in the dual system (Schlittler, 2014).

Students with appropriate educational prerequisites are free to attend upper secondary school and obtain the relevant degree to access the university directly or directly access the university in case of having exams from the home country recognised.

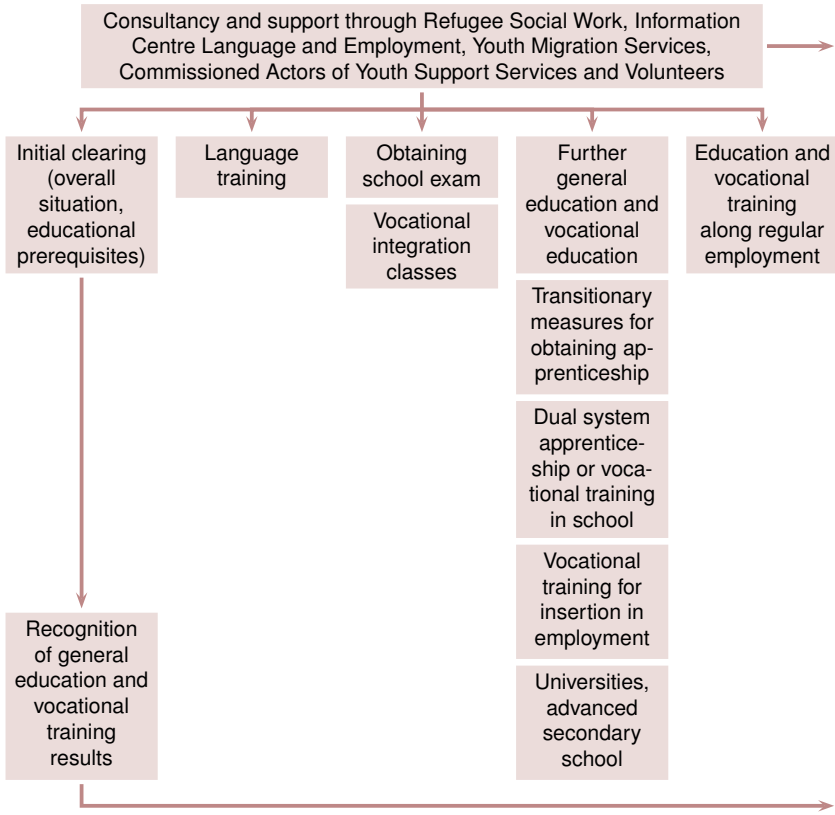

FIGURE 5.1 Chain of Education for Young Refugees, City of Munich, Germany (adapted fom Landeshauptstadt München, 2018, p. 63)

While apprenticeships in the dual system are still considered the 'standard' form of training, all persons with legal residence are free to enter the general labour market, i.e., taking on a 'job.' More usual and common among these are jobs at fast-food restaurants, delivery services or unqualified work in production or services. However, while these are typical, such jobs are not encouraged. This is because the low level of income obtained there will usually not suffice to lead a fully independent life, support a family or even support families in the home country (Bundeszentrale für Politische Bildung, 2020). In general, therefore, there are efforts to organise such work into regular qualifications and encourage young refugees to obtain a fully sustainable qualification that bears much higher chances of independent non-precarious living in primarily high-cost environments.

One recent focus of reform of support for all youth struggling with integration into mainstream education and training has been (e.g., in the case of Germany) recognising the long-term character of social stabilisation, which requires assistance for the individual also after initial insertion into education, training and employment. The GP (DE 7) 'assisted apprenticeship' (CISOTRA, 2021, p. 101). reflects that such assistance by social work can only be phased out gradually, as the training itself and later on the income and socialisation in a regular team of coworkers and company provide a dependable structure for the individual.

Typically, therefore, stabilising an alienated and socially unintegrated individual is one of the areas in which spatial/community coordination and the maintenance of a close network of actors are particularly important. In addition, many activities that do not directly aim at qualification or professional insertion, such as sports activities, becoming part of an association or club, cultural activities and volunteerism can contribute much to the stabilisation of individuals.

Here the closer community, the neighbourhood and the municipal community have to develop and maintain an attitude of openness and a 'welcoming culture,' not only within initiatives and organisations which are dedicated to refugee support but in all parts of the civil society as well as in all parts of the public administration and institutions.

Coordination of education and training of refugees has therefore been the topic of federal programmes which have supported municipal 'coordinators for refugee schooling,' a function that many municipalities have recently adopted as a regular part of their institutional framework, e.g., the CISOTRA associated partner City Hall of Regensburg (Bräu, 2018). Within this framework for work-based training and insertion to employment, three actors require a more detailed mentioning: schools, employers and NGOS.

The Role of Schools (Vocational Schools)

Schools must be the focal point of such efforts of work-based inclusion. As schools, due to universal obligatory school attendance for children, are a universal contact point to state and societal organisations as a whole, they in many respects represent the host society. Therefore, they can potentially be a hub for such holistic approaches or at least be an important part of them. Traditionally, schools could count on the socialising function of families and the general society; they now serve

a large segment of students who are newcomers and whose families cannot socialise them into the host society. In some cases, families connected by virtual communication from the home country or traditionally oriented families who hold unrealistic expectations and are misinformed by native language media can even hold back such socialisation. The ability of families to assist with socialisation is absent in the case of unaccompanied minors. Schools must replace such socialising structures.

While the reports from all partner countries indicate the factual importance of what schools do or not do, a conscious adoption of such a role is reported only in some best practices.

Being able to play such a role presupposes the insight into the desirability and necessity of such a role as well as the willingness to develop a matching role profile and appropriate training of teachers and the new additional elements of 'whole schools'[6] such as social workers, community developers, employment consultants, psychologists, associated sports instructors from sports clubs, etc.

Schools are traditionally only responsible for learners at obligatory school age, while many young refugees are beyond this age, starting their educational pathway at a time at which their resident peers conclude it. However, older youth can profit from school-type resources concerning educational prerequisites and personal development level. Moreover, school-based vocational training also blurs the line between initial school education and adult learning. Therefore, transforming schools into more comprehensive training and learning centres is an important point for development.

Teaching, social work and consultancy for transitioning to the general training and employment system are even more integrated into such schools. However, institutional separation among the various professions involved in supporting, educating and administering refugee youth is still a fact, as is the separation of training of these professionals, their professional communities and professional learning.

For all of this, insight into the basic concepts of diversity, interculturality and inclusiveness as a mission for schools is necessary. Unfortu-

[6] Cf. Conclusions of the Council and the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, on Inclusion in Diversity to achieve a High-Quality Education for All (2017). For an overall discussion of the role of schools in migrant children education cf. ROMigsC (2019).

nately, all partner countries struggle to make progress on this, as good practices exist but are slow to be universally adopted.

The literature shows conceptual insights in all partner countries and reports examples of activities in this direction. Elements like the consultancy PUR at vocational school centre in associated partner City Hall of Regensburg are examples of such new elements (CISOTRA, 2021, p. 97; Pietsch, 2018).

The Role of Companies

Companies are the core actors of inclusion. Companies are free to choose their trainees and employers, and all employees are dependent on their mutual acceptance if a productive work environment is to be achieved. In this sense, there is the right to *seek* employment in work of one's own liking (freedom of choosing work). Still, there is no legally enforceable entitlement either to work or even to receive in-company training (Deutscher Bundestag, 2016).

Therefore, training with an employer depends on matching the demand for qualified and productive labour on the side of companies and the individual aspirations and competencies of young would-be trainees. In most cases, this is a win-win situation, as companies take pride in providing excellent training opportunities in the company, which they regard as a batch of quality for the company excellence and an element of social responsibility.

Therefore, companies are prepared to invest heavily in such training (Pfeifer et al., 2020). These investments are often only recovered after several years of employment following the initial training. This is why companies are highly motivated to take on their apprentices after the initial training.

Companies mostly feel a high degree of responsibility and commitment to their apprentices and are prepared to support them in all aspects of life and professional development. In exchange, they expect commitment, willingness to learn, fitting into the team, and a focus on the apprenticeship, i.e., they expect that the candidate puts the success of the apprenticeship in place as one of the individual priorities. As a result, apprentices are mostly not trained within isolated bubbles within the companies, but primarily by experienced expert workers.

Accepting the apprentice by his or her colleagues is not an unfair demand towards foreigners. Still, a pretty typical feature of the dual system, as evident from a comprehensive and intensive discussion on

the trainability of the resident young generation already long before refugee migration became a factor. Work teams are susceptible to the willingness and team competence of candidates, as a regular rate of 25% of dropouts from apprenticeships clearly demonstrates. Extensive support systems that have been set up for decades to avoid such dropouts now have to be adapted to the specific needs of refugee youth. The refugee youth profit from high demand for apprentices in many segments of crafts and industry, in particular in more peripheral regions, due to demographic change, which is a fundamental shift from the situation a few years ago, when only 'the best and the brightest' were able to obtain an attractive apprenticeship placement.

Companies and institutions like chambers of crafts have developed several projects to advise and support their members on how to be more interculturally open and capable of supporting their apprentices. As a result, such intercultural competencies and attitudes are more and more part of the training of trainers (Handwerkskammer Niederbayern-Oberpfalz, 2018). Overall, the integration of refugees into the dual training system has been a remarkable success, as the most recent study of the Federal Institute for Vocational Training demonstrates. Moreover, integration in of refugee youth the training is even higher than that of resident youth with migration backgrounds, which depends on the high level of engagement for this group from all sides, including companies (Eberhard & Schuß, 2021).

To avoid the experience of work-based learning as a 'reality shock' of being confronted with partners whose job and identity is not constituted by supporting refugees in distress but by getting quality work done and making a profit, all support structures need to be focused on preparing for this standard situation of inclusion. Civil society plays a critical role here.

The Role of Civil Society

NGOS and civil society are a 'live laboratory' to develop and test such constructive and viable orientations and identities in the host society. In all partner countries, NGOS play a vital and positive role.

While in some countries there is a strong tradition of partly faith-based (e.g., Caritas and other catholic organisations and their protestant counterparts) and volunteer engagement in social care as a whole, new initiatives in all of the partner countries add to the traditional ones.

Almost everywhere, partners assess that the formal state system would be insufficient to cope with the challenges and that volunteer work prevents the system from collapsing. Many initiatives point to innovation that also needs to be adopted by the regular system, such as expanded language learning opportunities, communication and social learning, general social work and community organisation.

A particular focus is on civil society engagement. In all of the partner countries, there is a broad consensus that the surge in the number of refugee youth could not have been managed without the engagement of non-governmental organisations. The same is true for the ongoing support and integration of young refugees.

While access to institutions is a legal right for those with a legal title of protection, integration or inclusion is a societal matter, where the 'struggle for acceptance' (Honneth, 2003) is a complex two-way process in which the mutual acceptance of the host country civil society actors and young refugees is the prerequisite for sustainable civic engagement.

The volunteers in NGOS play an indispensable role in providing the almost unconditional offer of emotional welcoming and support to migrants, opening the hearts and doors where actors who are more restricted by their core professional missions have a hard time doing so (Han-Broich, 2012).

Millions of volunteers have helped overcome the frictions of the surge of migrants and continue doing so in an impressive number. In the meantime, many have grown into substantial organisations that are quick to fill any gap identified in the refugee support system.

Such gaps include sufficient opportunities for in-depth language learning, extra lessons and individual support for apprentices, encouraging the particular needs of young refugee women, upholding the support structures also during the Covid-19 pandemic, which often implied moving the support to virtual spaces.

NGOS and the multiple spaces which they provide for individual and peer reflection of the multiple challenges that young refugees face, the time donated to young refugees to provide them with opportunities for meeting young residents and giving them a launchpad for developing forms of self-organisation in groups and associations of their own liking and preferences is a prerequisite without which inclusion into the system of education and employment would be bound to failure.

On the other hand, NGOS must also keep an eye on the final goal

of such inclusion in the 'real world' context of work and making a sustainable living. Therefore, the organisational development of such organisations has to focus on supporting inclusion into environments where they are confronted with people who may not be fully enthusiastic about the fact of migration, ignorant or indifferent about the distress and plight of young refugees and demanding ambition, functioning and resilience also vs negative experiences.

NGOS can do young refugees an excellent service by not shielding them from such attitudes and expectations but by being a place to discuss these in a protected space of peers and professionals. Here a differentiation of experiences is the key and a shortcut from negative experiences to narratives of self-victimisation and assumed racism, which must be balanced by exposing young refugees to the success stories of migrants who have 'made it.'

Their experiences and coping strategies cannot be replaced by the experiences and perspectives of well-meaning, primarily middle class, liberal volunteers, which form the most significant part of refugee supporters. These are challenged to exercise self-restraint and limit themselves to a kind of process accompaniment, which opens up spaces for self-organisation and self-reflection of young refugees. The best of NGOS have clearly identified this challenge and aim to quickly transfer the management of their organisations to young people with refugee experiences, as is the case with the NGO 'Campus Asylum.'[7]

Conclusion

The transition to a society that is characterised by more migration, among which a large number of young, frequently traumatised, displaced and distressed young unaccompanied refugees requires full engagement and management and even a fundamental reform of education and employment systems – tolerance and goodwill are not enough.

All efforts must have the apparent target of sustainable inclusion into modern labour societies.

Professionals and volunteers have to complement an ethical, client-centred approach with a realistic view of expectations of a labour centred society and conditions for success therein:

There is no social inclusion in modern labour societies without in-

[7] See https://www.campus-asyl.de/leichtes-deutsch-other-languages/englisch/ and https://www.campus-asyl.de/verein/.

tegration into the legal labour market. To support such inclusion, the education systems in the target countries of migration has to adapt to:

- more non-native speakers,
- older learners,
- learners with multiple and persistent needs of psycho-social stabilisation, orientation and identity building.

The needs of such 'new' learners are not that different from the needs of ever-larger segments of the working population in a rapidly changing economy (digitalisation, globalisation, adaptation to climate change).

Therefore, the resident population can profit from improved flexible, modular life-long learning systems. The CiSoTRA project has documented a wide range of good practices that show elements of such systems, such as vocational school centres, which have been expanded to centres of lifelong learning and comprehensive support, better coordination of all actors, including NGOs, particularly those that encourage the self-organisation of young refugees and working with companies, in particular SMEs, to provide a wide range of training opportunities in a more flexible, modular and accessible mode. Flexible stubbornness is needed.

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Chapter Six

Intercultural Pedagogy and Globalised Society: The Encounter with the Other – The Migrant

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Pedagogy and Globalised Society

Underlying any pedagogical concept, which over time has seen a continuous adjustment of the educational activity by avoiding the application of standardised procedures, lies the notion of the 'human being,' whose intellectual and human formation today can only be developed through a constant process, covering the whole of a lifetime and based on individual responses to more or less concrete stimuli, aimed at formal and informal learning (Melillo, 2015).

The socio-economic changes of the last decades – known as globalisation[1] have changed the pattern that characterised education and pedagogy in the West until modern times. The extension of social, economic and political activities beyond national and continental borders, the mutual dependence of countries even thousands of kilometres apart, together with the progressive increase in commercial, financial, cultural and migratory phenomena and flows, the acceleration in goods production and transportations, the influence of geographically

[1] Beyond the numerous definitions of the term globalisation that have followed one another over the last twenty years, it is possible to summarise the issue with that 'process (or set of processes) consisting of a transformation in the spatial organisation of social relations and transactions, which produces transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction and power' (Held et al., 1999, pp. 7–8).

Dermol, V. (Ed.) (2021). *Towards the actor coordination model* (pp. 73–91). ToKnowPress. https://doi.org/10.53615/978-83-65020-35-2/73-91

distant events capable of modifying economies and lifestyles on another continent, have all strongly marked the growth of the global village by sharpening both the increasing deregulation and privatisation of identity formation processes and the weakening of authority, associated with value messages and the fragmentation of life (Bauman, 2002, p. 162).

While moving increasingly towards a progressive 'institutionalisation of individualisation' which generates insecurity and precariousness (Beck, 2000, p. 16) pedagogy has lost its usual references, and education has lost its effectiveness. There are no more decompositions from the complex to the simple and conversions from chaos to order but, on the contrary, there is the ability to relate to complexity and context in a multidimensional and global manner (Morin, 2001, p. 38). Meanwhile, Portera (2003b, p. 55) argues that the new challenge for pedagogy lies in accepting change without locking oneself uncritically in the past (proposing methods, strategies and objectives that events have overtaken) and embracing all the current trends without criticism.

Based on a new recognition of the intrinsic value of culture and education, it is increasingly necessary to develop the knowledge of choice, seen as the *ability to choose,* select and synthesise, learn to learn, whilst mastering and adopting tools properly and developing critical abilities to understand the complex reality around us, rethinking and renewing pedagogy, making it a driving force for a positive change (Portera, 2003b).

Intercultural pedagogy can provide an opportunity to transform the concepts of identity and culture from a static level to a dynamic and constantly evolving one at the centre of which is, once again, a man in his entirety, without any linguistic, cultural, social or religious affiliations (Secco, 1999; Portera, 2003b). Such pedagogical revolution is an opportunity for individual and collective enrichment and growth, giving the encounter with 'the other,' with 'the different,' the possibility of comparison and reflection for deep, global and transcultural learning. In this situation of encounter, an area of contact takes shape, a so-called *Drittter Ort* (third place) (Wierlacher, 2003, pp. 257–264) where synthesis between two positions is replaced by an inclusive and collaborative synergy based on dialogue.

Thus, according to Sirna (1997, p. 14), intercultural pedagogy is that which renounces generalising and moralising visions. These discourses

reify the other, and instead, it looks at the relationships between subjects, contexts, processes and relational dynamics, striving to promote an educational practice that interacts constructively with the political-institutional and economic-social contexts. An intercultural pedagogy is a pedagogy that 'moves towards the universal' respecting the 'specificities' and the 'singularity' of people, which captures and values cultural diversity, the 'identical' that it is in the very structure of man and makes him so, but which does not coincide with any of his real determinations.

Integration Policies and Intercultural Pedagogical Approach

One of the fundamental questions that pedagogy has to answer undoubtedly concerns the interaction between people and between groups of people: Being a human being-in-the-world means being-together-with-others in a rapid and continuous interaction (Dusi, 2006). A coexistence is worthy of being investigated for a correct pedagogical reflection.

As Portera (2003b, p. 65) points out, several models of coexistence have been used. Still, they have all proved more or less unsuccessful: from the assumption of diversity as a threat, a model based on the elimination of the weakest has been formulated; from the myth of the good savage, primitive and backward, unilateral assimilation has been attempted or, conversely, total segregation from the dominant group without any possibility of interaction with the outside world; from the idea of the melting pot as the fusion of all cultural differences into a single culture to its failure in the self-segregation of the 'salad bowl'; from the universalism of communist regimes, which takes little account of differences, to the multiculturalism proposed by international organisations (UN and UNESCO) in which different cultures and religions coexist following the rules, at the risk of leading to separation.

The increasingly frequent migration processes have contributed to the need to analyse this issue under the impetus that the various immigration countries have received from the directives of international bodies. In the United States, following the failure of the idea mentioned earlier of the melting pot, the concept of multicultural education began to be introduced. As early as the 1970s, Canada and Australia formulated the first pedagogical responses to the phenomenon of immigration. In Europe, this phenomenon was initially limited to subjects coming from former colonies whose destination was mainly the former

homelands such as Belgium, England, France and the Netherlands. After that, we saw the second wave of subjects coming from countries of the Mediterranean basin towards the wealthy North of Europe. In recent years we have witnessed an increasing influx of migrants from third world countries, from war zones or from areas affected by international terrorism, which has had to be coped with those quota entries; many countries have introduced quota entries, tightening reception measures and security policies and worsening living conditions in the destination countries.

After many EU leaders criticised the concept of multiculturalism[2] from the pedagogical point of view, there has been a shift, especially in Europe, from a multicultural attitude to an intercultural dimension. At first, there was the problem of reducing difficulties linked to linguistic aspects using incentives for second-language learning and multicultural projects; subsequently, through interventions of an intercultural nature – solutions that value diversity with a relative approach or minimise it on a universal basis. In Italy, however, possibly owing to its past as a country of emigration, an intercultural approach became widespread from the advent of the very first migratory phenomena in the early 1980s. According to Santerini (2003, p. 61) the intercultural pedagogical approach[3] 'lies between universalism and relativism, but goes beyond them in a new synthesis.' Interculturality refers to a project, to the will to compare and to the search for constructive dialogue; as Camilleri (1993, p. 34) points out, where societies are multicultural, educational actions must be intercultural with an interaction that derives from a direct comparison with the other, from listening and from the predisposition to be constructive (Cambi, 2001, pp. 107–108).

The approach of intercultural pedagogy, contrary to the others, represents a real Copernican revolution: otherness, emigration and life in

[2] In Europe, Angela Merkel (speech at the CDU conference, 17 October 2010) stated that multiculturalism had 'completely failed'; in 2011 David Cameron said that multiculturalism was a 'failed' policy of the past that weakened collective identity and encouraged different cultures to live separate lives; in 2011 Nicolas Sarkozy stated that multiculturalism had been 'a failure' because institutions were too concerned with safeguarding the cultures of immigrant citizens and not attentive enough to the identity of the host country. See Portera (2019).

[3] To better understand interculturality, it is worth clarifying the meanings of metaculture, transculture and multiculture.

a complex and multicultural society are not considered as risks of discomfort or illness, but as opportunities for personal and collective enrichment and growth; the encounter with the foreigner, with the ethnically and culturally different subject, represents a challenge, a possibility of confrontation and reflection on the level of values, rules and behaviour (Portera, 2003a, p. 6).

The relationship with the other, who is different, brings personal identity into play and represents an opportunity for individual and collective enrichment and growth.

Intercultural pedagogy, in this way, expressly rejects stativity and hierarchy and may be understood in the sense of the possibility of dialogue, of equal confrontation, without forcing the subjects involved to renounce *a priori* significant parts of their own cultural identity (Portera, 2019).

Moreover, the prefix 'inter' to the term 'culture' presupposes the relationship, interaction, and exchange among people. In this sense, the intercultural approach promotes contact, encounter, dialogue and confrontation (that is, being able to handle differences of opinion, disagreements and conflicts). In the light of these developments, there is a need to think about the appropriate forms of communication and dialogue in the present time to deal with increasing globalisation, interdependence and global cosmopolitanism. There is, therefore, a growing need for intercultural competencies (Portera, 2019, p. 5).

Attempts to define intercultural competence and its components are innumerable and come mainly from the Anglo-Saxon world; common to all definitions is the reference to the ability to use a broad spectrum of knowledge, skills and attitudes that allow the person who masters them to satisfy communication needs and to interact successfully with interlocutors from other cultures. However, in recent years, based on a dynamic concept of culture, a new way of understanding intercultural competence has also been emerging (Risager, 2009, p. 16):

> The concept of intercultural competence is best seen from a global perspective. As human beings, we are citizens of a world that are connected in so many ways. Intercultural competence is very much the competence of navigating in the world, both at the micro-level of social interaction in culturally complex settings and at the macro-levels through transnational networks like diasporas and media communications.

Intercultural competence is the ability to orient oneself in a world characterised by cultural complexity. There are no national, ethnic identities but transnational cultural processes and practices, determined by migratory movements and the spread of mass media.

Alterity, Identity and Culture

In the field of intercultural pedagogy, it is obviously impossible to ignore the concept of culture itself. This theme has been the subject of a wide-ranging anthropological reflection that began with a divisive vision.[4] during the 19th century and that from the second half of the 20th century, has evolved towards the concept of fusion, according to which culture is the result of exchanges and crossovers (Santerini, 2003, pp. 19–20).

Thanks to scholars such as Geertz,[5] Hannerz[6] and Benhabib,[7] the concept of culture in the field of intercultural pedagogy becomes a notion that identifies frayed, borderless realities that are difficult to define, constantly changing and subject to a continuous process of mutual influence (Giusti, 2004, p. 13).

Every culture is dynamic and permeable, subject to reciprocal influences and cannot be acquired passively or unilaterally; its dynamism lies in its capacity to evolve, adapt and readapt based on the different influences it has undergone and is undergoing, according to a mechanistic principle of reaction to situations, contingencies and events. According to Abdallah-Pretceille (2006, pp. 109), the concept of culture should be replaced by *culturality,* emphasising the instrumental func-

[4] This vision ascribed to each local group and/or nation a certain culture linked to the territory itself (Geertz, 1999, p. 61; Amselle, 1999, p. 41).

[5] According to Geertz's (1998) interpretive-hermeneutic approach, culture is 'a set of historically transmitted meanings embodied in symbolic forms, including actions, discourses and objects of various kinds, through which individuals communicate with each other and share their experiences, conceptions and beliefs.'

[6] In Hannerz's (2001) relational perspective, 'as collective systems of meaning, cultures belong first and foremost to social relations and the networks of those relations. They belong to places only indirectly and without logical necessity.'

[7] The aspect of negotiability is, on the other hand, proposed by Benhabib (2005), according to whom 'Culture has become a synonym of identity, a marker and a differentiator of identity. Of course, culture has always been a marker of social distinction. What is new is that the groups that now form around these identity markers demand legal recognition and resource allocation from the state and its agencies to preserve and protect their cultural specificities. Identity politics drags the state into culture wars.'

tion of culture instead of its ontological function. Culturality shows that cultures are always on the move, unstable, varied, honeycombed. It can reconcile complex thoughts taking into account small details, interstices and diagonals of communication and culture.

However, culture should not be used as a diversion to conceal profound social inequalities: cultural and social spheres must always be related and integrated, never separated; the cultural difference must not merge with differences in social class, wealth or even gender; otherwise, the 'cultural' would risk becoming a factor of division and not of inclusion and comparison, as it should be. According to Abdallah-Pretceille (2006, p. 114) it would be useful to include the concept of otherness and of diversity in intercultural education: the keystone must be differences (rather than cultural similarities), the respect for the complexities of the encounter between two or more cultures and their contradictions. Therefore, the very concept of identity must take on a relational and dynamic meaning that could reflect countless social exchanges in building an open and continuous relationship with the other (Barth, 1995, p. 8). Intercultural pedagogy must put in place all the necessary strategies to ensure that others are recognisable for their differences: recognisable first and foremost as persons, a recognition that entails an unavoidable co-responsibility (Giusti, 2004, p. 42).

The aim of intercultural pedagogy is also to promote encounters with the other in search of shared meanings, comparing feelings, behaviours and worldviews; a prerequisite is a mutual willingness to question one's own point of view in an equal dialogue relationship, also through the role of communication. It is not a question of superimposing a new discipline, as an inter-culture, on disciplines that already exist, but instead of promoting different ways of reasoning and making inferences, looking at traditional disciplinary topics from different perspectives. It is a question of overcoming the divisions between the various fields of knowledge to emphasise the reciprocal interactions, urging teachers to implement an integrated teaching method, working on interdisciplinary projects on specific contents, on affinities between disciplines and thematic modules (Tassitari, 2002, pp. 19–20).

The Future and New Challenges of Intercultural Education

Considering the various papers analysed so far, it is clear that interculturality can and must play a key role within the pedagogical discipline. Having overcome compensatory educational strategies, the in-

tercultural approach has made it possible to become aware of the dynamic nature of individual cultures and identities, considering the foreigner, the change and life in pluralistic and multicultural societies in terms of a resource, an opportunity for personal and collective enrichment and growth. The intercultural approach taking effectively into account the advantages and risks of global society – founded on dialogue, confrontation and interaction – could give new vigour to all pedagogy (Portera, 2019, p. 13).

A pedagogy that, on the one hand, will have to open up to the potential of scientific research, more based on reliable and assessable scientific evidence and, on the other, it will have to draw on the legacy of the past, developing teaching models able to put the human being at the centre aiming at stimulating the activity and autonomy of children by introducing into their training intercultural models the search for dialogue, interaction with the others and with what is different, as well as the development of individual critical thinking that recognises and appreciates all forms of intelligence, according to Gardner (1993) and his multiple intelligences.

Moreover, according to Giusti (2017, p. 12) intercultural pedagogy should improve and facilitate the creation of educational systems inspired by the ideas of interculturality to assimilate ideas and ways of becoming young adults and then adults suitable for new societies in transformation and not closed to them.

Suppose the first task of intercultural pedagogy is to transmit a positive vision of migration, to educate the young generations in concrete and plural relationships, where ambiguities are possibilities and challenges to be exploited and mutually understood through interpersonal communication. In that case, the ultimate goal must be constructing an idea of 'open culture.' A culture that holds diversity together in respect of different specific needs and in the strength of the similarities that unite human beings.

In this way, the activities proposed in methodological and didactic-educational pathways may also have a positive impact on the family and social background of the students (Giusti, 2017, p. 172) and spill over into positive behaviour outside the school itself (p. 11).

Intercultural Learning and Foreign Languages

Successful communication between members of different cultures depends on the appropriate code used as the usual means of communi-

cation between different interlocutors. Sharing a common code does not only mean using the same language – the internationalisation of English as a *lingua franca* (shared language) does not *a priori* guarantee communication free of intercultural misunderstandings – but a minimum sharing of certain communicative intentions. Therefore, foreign languages have a decisive role in the communication process aimed at mutual understanding between different cultures, overcoming linguistic borders and cultural barriers. Nevertheless, foreign languages should not only be seen as a means of transmitting information on other cultures. Since the teaching and learning of foreign languages is one of the most important political instruments in the contemporary world, the teaching of foreign languages is also vested with new requirements and aims. The concept of the foreign language as a system of lexical, grammatical and phonetic notions is now obsolete. It is essential to supplement modern foreign language teaching with a communicative ability to perform linguistic acts and intercultural competence, thus creating an intercultural communication competence. Modern didactics has long been calling for the teaching of culture through language, thus leading to culture being considered a fifth skill alongside the traditional skills of reading comprehension/speaking and writing/speaking. Contemporary didactics even aims at transforming civilisation studies into more extensively cultural studies that identify their objective of learning in the target culture, considering its specific, not generic contents, and analysing its role concerning its own reality (Altmayer, 1997, pp. 86–112).

Interculturality in the field of language teaching seems almost a tautology: it is impossible to separate the learning of a foreign language from knowledge of the reference civilisation, although this approach has led to intercultural learning coinciding with that of knowledge, traditionally falling within the sphere of 'civilisation,' and transforming it into a transmission of data and facts.[8]

This contrasting approach has proved to be particularly suitable for dealing with cultural differences, allowing linguistic and cultural phenomena to be compared, thus highlighting different forms and functions in the mother tongue and the foreign language, or in one's own

[8] Kramsch (1995, pp. 51–66) called this approach 'colonialist' in that it is based on an interest in a particular country and its culture without regard to its intercultural multiplicity and cross-cultural intersections.

culture and that of another nationality. Intercultural learning must focus on the learner, his interests and needs, personal experiences in life and the learning process. The language is always immersed in a sociocultural context, it is never isolated, and must also be presented to the learner in a contextual form, preferably through authentic texts, which represent the entire social reality and therefore also implicit aspects of the target culture, whilst requiring also an adequate competence in critical reception (Roche, 2001). Thus, intercultural teaching/learning aims to induce learners to develop empathy, critical tolerance and the ability to overcome conflict situations caused by intercultural misunderstandings whilst positioning themselves between the source and target cultures, allowing them to discover a new culture and, at the same time, to learn to perceive their own from a different perspective. With the decrease of monolingual classes and an increasing presence of international students or immigrants, the need to provide the student with a solid intercultural competence is fundamental and eliminate the use of unshared codes of behaviour and interactive structures.

Foreign language lessons, in fact, 'oblige' all the students to come into contact with diversity, to feel *alien, 'fremd,'* strangers to the language they study. Diversities recognised in the group as the dominant class beyond language lessons are annulled, certainties given by the mother tongue are questioned, and, at the same time, the ability to manage intercultural differences is developed. The language itself is no longer a means of transmitting information, a means of communication: it becomes a cultural expression, the basis and foundation of intercultural learning (Bleyhl, 1994, pp. 9–20).

It is, therefore, possible to identify the specific objectives of intercultural language learning:

- combining the knowledge of one's own culture with that of other cultures;
- developing open and proactive attitudes towards the other;
- promoting a critical spirit to reflect on conflicting attitudes;
- recognising the other as a subject of equal values and dignity
- recognising human rights.

In this way, through the teaching of foreign languages, it will be possible to achieve intercultural competence as an instrument of education for peace and civil coexistence (Diehr, 2007, pp. 169–176).

Interculturality in Teaching Practice

Intercultural education through teaching methodologies and techniques advances the goals of intercultural education, which, according to Bennet (1993, pp. 21–71) is achieved through five stages:

1. ethnocentrism – inability to understand differences and use of stereotypes;
2. recognition of differences;
3. respect;
4. assimilation;
5. integration and internalisation of differences.

It is, therefore, necessary to move away from the logic of culture and civilisation as a presentation of what characterises one people in relation to another and aim closer towards a perspective of intercultural communication in which the point of view is that of the interlocutor, according to whose perspective everyone is different (Caon, 2016, pp. 95–116).

The path towards intercultural learning must be to broaden the horizons and the individual dimension of the learner to enable interaction in situations of potential discomfort and conflict by highlighting feelings. According to Witte (2009, pp. 49–66) this path goes from ignorance to the relativisation of one's own interpretative models, passing through initial contact with the foreign language and then introducing moments of connection with real life and culture of the foreign country that may, in turn, conversely lead to an awareness of stereotypes, to a moment of metacognition in which one reflects on one's own way of thinking and acting. In this sense, the intercultural lesson is not only aimed at the acquisition of a new communicative competence but also the development of cognitive, metacognitive and relational knowledge.

Concerning the choice of contents to be proposed, it would be necessary to refer to universal experiences, independent of the culture to which one belongs, so that such may constitute a bridge on which to base the intercultural exchange. In this way, the subject – also through role-play and dramatisation – may arrive at a communicative exchange. Therefore, Metacognitive reflection will be based not only on a linguistic-cultural reflection but also on semantics and pragmatics. These aspects are not only reflected in the didactics of foreign

languages and civilisation but also in the didactics of literature, when the literary text becomes a tool for intercultural analysis.

From Foreign Culture and Civilisation to Intercultural Communication

Assuming an intercultural perspective in language teaching requires revising the teaching method to present a model to observe cultural differences and similarities, inducing students to create their own intercultural communication manual (through various cultural stimuli: films, documentaries, exchange projects) whilst assuming a lifelong learning logic. Moreover, this cultural dimension is based on the communicative approach since teaching aims to develop communication competencies and since this competence in L2 necessarily implies the presence of two interlocutors with different mental and cultural backgrounds. In the light of the preceding, the intercultural dimension may become a subject for teaching (Caon, 2016): language skills will no longer be only receptive and productive ones but also relational ones in terms of interculturality.

The concept of communicative competence, developed by the American anthropologist and sociolinguist Dell Hymes (1971) in the 1960s, is adopted in the communicative approach and has recently evolved into Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC). Balboni and Caon (2015) offer their own model of CCI, and it integrates the mastering of relational competencies, the possession of fundamental skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking, interaction) and the ability to 'make language'; the perfect balance of these components allows the learner to act effectively in intercultural communicative events, i.e. in situations involving interaction not only between speakers of different languages but also between active and aware members of different cultures.

However, unlike linguistic-communicative competence, ICC is not entirely teachable or measurable but rather a sensibility that the L2 learner must refine with the help of a guide. The teacher can, in fact, train learners so that they may experience a positive, open and willing approach to the most diverse cultural factors. To this end, the teacher guides the learners in the non-critical observation of socio-cultural phenomena, and proposes, in the form of input, the different declinations in the world of the same cultural model, so that they become accustomed to an evaluation free of any form of prejudice. An interesting model of intercultural communicative competence is the follow-

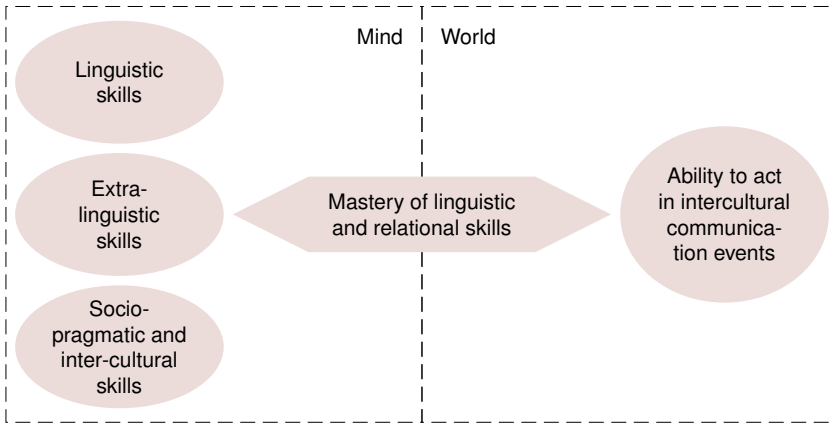

FIGURE 6.1 Intercultural Communication Competence Model (adapted from Balboni & Caon, 2015)

ing, proposed by Balboni and Caon (2015) themselves (Figure 6.1). As is clearly shown in this model, the development of an adequate intercultural communicative competence requires the development of specific relational skills: being able to observe, decentralise and distance oneself (removing the impact of previous experiences and stereotypes), being able to defer judgement (in cases of potential intercultural crisis) and to relativize (awareness of the partiality of one's own point of view), to listen actively (overcoming dichotomies based on the awareness as mentioned earlier), to understand emotionally (based on empathy – the ability to participate in the emotional state of the interlocutor actively – and exotopia – the ability to recognise one's own and others' differences); ultimately to negotiate meanings (highlighting the purposes of an expression or gesture) (Balboni, 2015, pp. 1–20).

Sharing Caon's (2016) assumption that intercultural communication – being a complex and dynamic phenomenon – cannot be taught for both qualitative and quantitative reasons, it is instead possible, thanks to an intercultural approach, to stimulate learners to build up an in-progress manual they can integrate, autonomously, the different information derived from the observation of the cultural reality of the other in a wide-ranging perspective (e.g., with films, readings, direct experiences, etc.). Obviously, it will be necessary for a teaching approach to differentiate between the two areas of English as a lingua franca and other languages. In the first case, such teaching opens the way to interculturality without, however, treating it in a systematic and spe-

cific way, but working on creating an attitude of intercultural availability aimed at facilitating communication itself. On the other hand, on the methodological level relating to the intercultural dimension, in the teaching of languages other than ELF, the aim is to teach how to observe and classify, becoming autonomous, first of all, towards one's own culture.

Classes with Differentiated Linguistic Abilities

A brief analysis of CAD (Classes of Differentiated Language Abilities) may be engaging in the context of the present work since it regards classes with students differing in language level, cultural background, learning styles, attitude towards language, mother tongue, intelligence, world knowledge, learning experience, knowledge of other languages, age or maturity, gender, personality, self-confidence, motivation, interests, self-discipline and level of education (Ur, 1996, p. 304).

These classes – an ordinary reality in European countries that are increasingly subject to migratory phenomena should not be seen as a simple summation of different and diverse people but rather as a dynamic system that depends on the nature and contribution of each person constituting it and acts within it. CAD presents itself as an open system in which the parameters of 'difference,' which may be recorded in several aspects and on several levels, are the key to the effective management of language learning (Caon & Tonioli, 2016, p. 140).

Caon and Tonioli (2016, p. 145) consider language learning as the first step towards a broader training in which the specificity of social mediation methods (such as Cooperative Learning) aims to simultaneously enhance linguistic-communicative, social and relational, cultural and intercultural, metacognitive and meta-emotional skills. In this sense, preference would be given to the use of L2, the integration of linguistic and non-linguistic codes (especially with low-level students), the comprehension of the input, the interaction by all students, the use of varied resources, socialisation and interpersonal relations (through cooperative activities), interdisciplinary abilities, the integration of multimedia and hypermedia materials, the use of metacognitive teaching, the request for feedback, the evaluation of progress.

Teaching Italian to Migrants

As already highlighted, the massive migratory phenomena that have affected Europe in the 21st century have often seen Italy as the country

of first landing and reception, imposing mandatory management of migrants arriving on the peninsula sometimes considered a bridge to other European countries and sometimes the final destination of long journeys. They all share a significant socio-cultural and personal past. The first and second level reception centres have guaranteed Italian language courses open to all guests but creating highly heterogeneous (Diadori, 2015) groups from many points of view and multicultural and multi-level classes. The typology of the learners – mainly adults and young adults – in these cases, is just as varied: although they fall into what is more generically defined as the immigrant profile, they are mainly asylum seekers and refugees, who often have less solid or shorter-term plans; some even already know they want to stay in Italy for a minimal time, which will negatively affect their motivation, at least the extrinsic one, to learn Italian.

Moreover, since the arrival in the reception centres, especially in those of second reception[9] may occur in different phases of the migrant's period of stay. It is very common to find learners in the same group who have been living in Italy for several years together with others who have arrived only a few months before. It usually implies (although not necessarily) the former has a more profound knowledge of the L2 compared to the latter, where it is not rare to find learners coming from a background of very little or no schooling (Galli, 2017). Understanding the learners' linguistic background and having at least a general idea of the characteristics of the languages already acquired helps to understand some features of interlanguages better[10] and particularly to identify or predict transfer phenomena – linguistic behaviour dictated by the influence of previous linguistic knowledge.

Motivation is undoubtedly an element that influences learning and which, in the case of migrants, may be decisive to acquire the L2 of the country of arrival. In such cases, teachers can rely on both instrumental and integrative motivations. According to Vedovelli (2010) it is possible to consider the domains in which the migrant is mainly immersed daily, and it can be the starting point to reach his objectives and to satisfy his most immediate needs, taking into account the length of

[9] Former SPRAR – Central Service of the Protection System for Asylum Seekers and Refugees (https://www.siproimi.it/la-storia).

[10] According to Selinker (1972), who was the first to coin the term and develop the concept, interlanguage is that self-contained language system that results from the learner's attempts to reproduce the target language.

time of the learner's stay, his experience and his plans for the future. However, the integrative motivation of learners wishing to assimilate the target language and culture to actively and positively integrate into the host society and territory is essential and obviously more prevalent among migrants intending a long-term stay.[11] If some type of motivation is present, the teacher's task will be undoubtedly simplified, but it will be essential to meet all these needs and base teaching on them, first of all with the choice of materials to be used.

In reception centres for migrants, learning a language is a fundamental part of the integration project in the host territory and social fabric, as it is clearly a goal of primary importance.

Therefore, it is clear how the Italian course fits into a complex and constantly changing reality and how it must be able to adapt to it, welcoming external aspects and managing to export something outside the classroom. It is therefore essential not to create a clear and enforced separation between the didactic and extra-didactic contexts so that the former does not become an aseptic place where only abstract notions are learned (Mamusa, 2020).

The input to be provided will also be linked to the local and cultural reality, without sanctioning any interference between commonly used or dialectal expressions and standard Italian since this highlights the migrant's readiness to learn the language. The direct experience of the student can become an opportunity to introduce cultural issues in a perspective of comparison with their own uses and origins, considering the classroom as an intercultural place, where one may learn to make the best use of linguistic resources to relate and to integrate into the host's contextual environment (Celentin, 2017).

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[11] Researches carried out in the 1970s by a group of German scholars (Meisel et al., 1981) analyse these elements' importance how some characteristics in the interlanguage used by migrant learners depend on their attitude toward the host group. In Italy, the developed model has been integrated into Giotto-Kit.

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Chapter Seven

Human Rights, European Regulatory Frameworks and Resettlement Policies: The Linguistic Integration Plan

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Human Rights, Regulatory Details, Asylum

In 2019, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) estimated that more than 70 million people worldwide were fleeing persecution, other serious human rights violations or war conflicts, returning to their homes after exile or having been stateless (UNHCR, 2019).

In 2020, almost 50,000 refugees and migrants (25 per cent under the age of 18) arrived in Europe (UNICEF, 2021). After fleeing, the numbers of those who managed to seek or find asylum in another country have decreased. Contrary to that, many others still live in the country of their persecutors, where they are referred to as internally displaced persons.

For migrant people, the principle that human rights pertain to all human beings often seems a myth in practice. Although national laws and circumstances vary considerably worldwide, migrants regularly face mistreatment by state or private entities, detention in precarious conditions, denial of their rights at work, and inadequate access to housing, health and other social services.

Human rights, guaranteed by national and international law, play an essential role in protecting migrants as victims of these strong social dynamics. It should be remembered that the fundamental rights of all persons, regardless of their legal status as migrants, are (*Universal Declaration of Human Rights,* 1948):

Dermol, V. (Ed.) (2021). *Towards the actor coordination model* (pp. 93–124). ToKnowPress. https://doi.org/10.53615/978-83-65020-35-2/93-124

- The right to life, liberty and security of person, to be free from arbitrary arrest or detention, and the right to seek and enjoy asylum from persecution;
- The right to be free from discrimination based on race, sex, language, religion, social or national origin, or another status;
- The right to be protected from abuse and exploitation, to be free from slavery and involuntary servitude, and to be free from torture and cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment and punishment;
- The right to a fair trial and legal remedies;
- The right to protection of economic, social and cultural rights, including the right to health, an adequate standard of living, social security, housing, education, and fair working conditions;
- Other human rights guaranteed by international human rights instruments to which the state is party and by customary international law.

All these rights are recognised as human rights, which all people are entitled to without exception. People do not acquire them because they are citizens, workers, or based on a particular status. No one can be deprived of their human rights because they have entered or remained in a country in contravention of national immigration law or because they are women or children.

Often, the principle of the universality of human rights is limited for migrants. Moreover, it is often the case that national legislation either does not provide the means of protection or puts many obstacles in their way, such as the threat of deportation.

In this world, migrants are entitled to rights but have no or just minimal opportunities to make use of them or to demand their observation (United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 2017).

International law – and, in particular, international human rights and refugee law – can answer the problem, albeit incomplete for international migration. International migration is affecting more and more unaccompanied minors, who are increasingly migrating in search of shelter, survival, safety, education or simply protection. It is essential to remind those responsible for migration policies that especially given the status of unaccompanied minors, these subjects are at risk of suffering human rights violations such as discrimination and exploitation. When policies ignore the human beings that constitute migration flows, they contribute to inequality, injustice and inconsistent policy responses. Moreover, regular channels for migration and policies that

aim to reduce irregularity – including punitive measures for irregular entry and stay – are limited, as is access to rights and services in countries of destination, putting young migrants at further risk of human rights abuses and limiting the opportunities and benefits of migration. Despite an international framework designed to protect and promote the human rights of all individuals – with specific provisions protecting children under the age of 18 – adolescents and young people suffer numerous human rights violations in the context of migration (UNICEF, 2014). Restrictions on regular migration impact the way parents and families migrate, thus increasing the likelihood that children will be left behind in their countries of origin and the possibility of them being returned to their home countries, the countries of origin, with reduced access to rights and subsequently attempting irregular migration. In addition, many migrants – particularly those with irregular migration status – have limited access to fundamental rights and services in transit and destination countries due to laws, policies and practices.

At the origin of the migration, experience is both push-back factors – conflict, war, generalised poverty, social instability, a negative outlook on the future that creates a premature perception of responsibility for children, etc. and pull-factors. Many minors are fleeing from countries facing crises, some of them lasting for years. For example, with the conflict in Syria in its tenth year, half of its eight million children have known nothing but war.

Before moving on to the normative excursus of the European measures adopted to face and regulate migratory flows, it is good to clarify what is meant by the terms 'migrant' and 'refugee' both in the European and international context as the two concepts are increasingly inflated and abused so much so that they have become almost synonymous in common perception.

The European Union considers refugees as forced migrants, whereby a migrant is any person who moves from the territory of his or her country, whatever the cause, voluntary or involuntary, and whatever the means, regular or irregular, which is used to migrate. The concept of migrant thus includes refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants and persons moving for other reasons, including family reunification. The Council of Europe uses the term 'migrant' to refer to those who have migrated, including asylum seekers, those who have been granted refugee status or similar protection, and so-called 'economic' migrants. The International Organisation for Migration (IOM) defines a 'migrant' as anyone who moves or has moved across an international border or

within a state away from their habitual residence, regardless of that person's legal status. On the other hand, the concept of a refugee has a distinctive feature: the movement due to a justified fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, citizenship, political opinion, or membership of *a particular social group* (Ayers, 2015) – *with a specific reference to the fear of persecution* that is also found in Italian legislation (*Immigrazione,* n. d.) – *migrant* and *refugee* are instead coordinated concepts, therefore mutually exclusive (UNHCR, 2015):

> Migrants choose to move not because of a direct threat of persecution or death, but primarily to improve their lives through work, or in some cases for education, to reunite with their families, or for other reasons. Unlike refugees who cannot return home without risk, migrants do not have this kind of obstacle to their return. If they choose to return home, they will continue to receive protection from their government.

In commonly used terms, widespread and reinforced by the media, the migrant is the desperate person who tries to reach Europe on boats (or by land through the Balkans). The media often use *refugees* and *migrants synonymously,* whereas some political parties even label them as illegals.

It would be appropriate, therefore, to return to the original definition proposed by Article 1A of the *Geneva Convention* in 1951, according to which a refugee is one

> who rightly feared being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or because of political opinions are outside the country of which he is a citizen and cannot or does not wish, because of this fear, to avail himself of the protection of this country; or who, not having citizenship and being outside the country in which he was habitually resident as a result of these events, is unable or unwilling to return to it because of the fear as mentioned earlier.

The Rules for Non-EU Citizens: Migrants and Refugees

Articles 79 and 80 of the Consolidated Version of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (2012) dictate the common rules for European migration policy, aiming to address, with a balanced approach, both regular and irregular immigration. In fact, the EU is re-

sponsible for defining the conditions for entry and residence of third-country nationals who enter and reside legally in one of the Member States, which retain, however, the power to determine the volumes of admission[1] related to the persons from third countries seeking employment. At the same time, the Union is obliged to prevent and reduce irregular immigration, mainly through an effective return policy, while respecting fundamental rights.

On May 13 2015, the Commission published *A European Agenda on Migration* (European Commission, 2015a) which proposes immediate measures to address the crisis prevailing in the Mediterranean and outlines initiatives to be launched in the years to come to manage migration more effectively in all its aspects. In the medium to long term, the Commission proposes guidelines in four policy areas: reducing incentives for irregular migration; border management – saving lives and securing external borders; developing a stronger common asylum policy; and implementing a new policy on legal migration by modernising and reviewing the 'blue card' system, setting new priorities on the integration policy front and maximising the benefits of migration policy for the individuals and countries of origin concerned.

Based on the agenda of April 6 2016, the Commission published its position paper on legal migration and asylum (European Commission, 2016c). Four main areas of action on regular migration policies are foreseen: revising the Blue Card Directive, attracting innovative entrepreneurs to the EU, having a more coherent and effective model for managing regular migration and strengthening cooperation with key countries of origin to ensure legal pathways for entry while improving returns of irregular migrants. In October 2019, the Commission published a report on the state of implementation of the European Migration Agenda (European Commission, 2019a), reviewing the progress made – increased communication with member states through *hotspots* and European agencies, increased cooperation with third countries – and the existing gaps in the implementation of the agenda with the need for further immediate initiatives and measures in strategic areas in the Mediterranean area, as well as search and res-

[1] The proper management of migration flows ensures fair treatment of third-country nationals who reside legally in the Member States, reinforcing measures to combat irregular immigration, including trafficking and smuggling, and promoting enhanced cooperation with third countries in all areas.

cue activities. Indeed, migrants and refugees seeking to reach Europe undertake journeys that risk their lives, with traffickers resorting to increasingly dangerous tactics to cross the Mediterranean. Since 2015, more than 12,677 people have been killed or missing in the Mediterranean Sea while trying to reach Europe. To date, there are three EU operations in the Mediterranean to save lives at risk and combat migrant smuggling. Thanks to these efforts, more than 528,653 lives have been saved since 2015. In 2016, the EU established the European Centre against Smuggling of Migrants to help the Member States deter the odious practice (www.frontex.europa.eu).

Following the escalation of the migration crisis since 2015, the EU has implemented measures aimed at greater control of external borders and migration flows, which have led to a reduction of more than 90% of irregular arrivals in the EU. This migration policy has been, especially in recent years, at the centre of national and EU political debates, so much so that European leaders have also identified in the Strategic Agenda 2019–2024 the request for further development of a fully functioning comprehensive migration policy (Consiglio europeo, 2019c):

> We will continue to deepen cooperation with countries of origin and transit to combat illegal migration and trafficking of human beings and to ensure effective returns. Regarding the internal dimension, we need to reach an agreement on an effective migration and asylum policy. Furthermore, we need to find a consensus on the Dublin Regulation to reform it based on a balance between responsibility and solidarity, taking into account people who have disembarked due to search and rescue operations.

The issue was also the subject of reflection at the October 2019 Justice and Home Affairs Council (Consiglio europeo, 2019b) where ministers discussed the state of affairs regarding migration, taking the opportunity to draw a general overview of the migration situation in the EU along all routes, with particular attention to the increase in arrivals in the Eastern Mediterranean and the recent declaration by France, Germany, Italy and Malta on temporary disembarkation arrangements. Discussion on the subject also ensued in December 2019 (Consiglio europeo, 2019a) when ministers addressed migration and asylum issues based on a report prepared by the Finnish Presidency, welcoming the Commission's intention to present a new Pact on Migration and Asy-

lum, thereby confirming the need for a comprehensive approach to migration covering the whole administration, and taking into account the entire route.

The EU has adopted various laws and frameworks to manage legal migration flows for asylum seekers, highly skilled workers, students and researchers, seasonal workers and family reunification. In addition, 20 million third-country nationals live in the EU, which represents 4% of the total population. The relocation and resettlement measures taken in response to the refugee and migrant crisis have highlighted the need to support the Member States with less integration experience. Therefore, in June 2016 the Commission presented an Action Plan to support Member States in the integration of third-country nationals and their economic and social contribution to the EU (European Commission, 2016a) and, in December 2016 the Council and the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States adopted conclusions on the integration of third-country nationals legally residing in the European Union (Council of the European Union, 2016). Hereupon the Member States are invited to:

- Exchange best practices on the integration of third-country nationals;
- Improve monitoring and evaluation of integration;
- Address the issue of recognition of qualifications and competencies of third-country nationals.

Legal Background on the Topic of Legal Migration

Following the difficulties encountered in adopting a general provision covering the whole area of labour immigration in the EU, the approach has been to adopt sectoral legislation, by categories of migrants, to establish a legal immigration policy at the EU level. Thus, since 2008, several important immigration directives have been adopted, and many others revised.

Council Directive 2009/50/EC of May 25, 2009, on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of highly qualified employment (2009) introduced the so-called 'EU Blue Card,' a fast-track procedure for issuing a special residence and work permit under more attractive conditions for third-country workers to take up highly qualified employment in the Member States. However, the first report, published in May 2014, concerning the implementation

of the Directive mentioned above, identified numerous shortcomings, and in June 2016 the Commission proposed a revision of the system.[2] Including less stringent admission criteria, a minimum salary threshold and minimum duration of the work contract, better provisions for family reunification, and the elimination of parallel national schemes.

The Single Permit Directive (Directive 2011/98/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of December 13, 2011, on a single application procedure for a single permit for third-country nationals to reside and work in the territory of a Member State and on a common set of rights for third-country workers legally residing in a Member State, 2011) sets out a common and simplified procedure for third-country nationals applying for a residence and work permit in a Member State and establishes a common set of rights for legal immigrants. The latest implementation report (European Commission, 2019b) adopted in March 2019 found that third-country nationals lacking information about their rights hinder the directive's objective to promote integration and non-discrimination.

Directive 2014/36/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of February 26, 2014, on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of employment as seasonal workers (2014) adopted in February 2014 regulates the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purpose of employment as seasonal workers who may reside legally and temporarily in the Union for a maximum period of between five and nine months (depending on the Member State) to pursue an activity subject to the trends of the seasons, while retaining their principal residence in a third country.

Directive 2014/66/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of May 15 2014, on conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals in the framework of an intra-corporate transfer (2014) adopted on May 15 2014 lays down the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals in the context of intra-corporate transfers. This Directive allows multinational companies and corporations to simplify the temporary posting of their managers, specialists and trainees to subsidiaries and branches located in the European Union.

[2] Work on this review is ongoing in Parliament and the Council. However, progress in the Council has recently stalled, particularly on the inclusion of skills and the recognition of work experience equivalent to educational qualifications and the possibility of maintaining parallel national schemes.

Directive (EU) 2016/801 of the European Parliament and of the Council of May 11 2016, on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of research, study, placement, voluntary service, pupil exchange schemes or educational projects, and au pair placement (2016) on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of research, study, placement, voluntary service, pupil exchange schemes or educational projects, and au pair placement was adopted on May 11, 2016. Member states should have transposed it by May 23, 2018. It replaces the previous instruments on students and researchers, broadening their scope and simplifying their application.

Finally, the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents in the EU is still governed by Council Directive 2003/109/EC of November 25, 2003, concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents (2003) as amended in 2011 to extend the scope to refugees and other beneficiaries of international protection. The March 2019 implementation report (European Commission, 2019c) found that, rather than actively promoting European long-term resident status, Member States mainly issue national long-term resident permits. As a result, only a limited number of third-country nationals use the right to move to another Member State. Therefore, as noted in the Commission's Adequacy Review of Legal Migration published in March 2019, categories of legal migration not yet covered by EU legislation include workers who are not highly skilled and who come for periods of more than nine months as investors and self-employed third-country nationals.

Legal Background on the Topic of Irregular Immigration

The European Union has adopted several key pieces of legislation to combat irregular immigration:

- The so-called 'aiding and abetting package' includes Council Directive 2002/90/EC of November 28, 2002, defining the facilitation of unauthorised entry, transit and residence (2002) and Council Framework Decision of November 28 2002, on the strengthening of the penal framework to prevent the facilitation of unauthorised entry, transit and residence (2002) establishing criminal sanctions for such conduct. Directive 2011/36/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of April 5, 2011, on preventing and

combating trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2002/629/JHA) (2011) addresses the issue of trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims. The package is completed by Council Directive 2004/81/EC of April 29, 2004, on the residence permit issued to third-country nationals who are victims of trafficking in human beings or who have been the subject of an action to facilitate illegal immigration, who cooperate with the competent authorities (2004) which provides for the issuance of a residence permit to persons who are victims of trafficking or smuggling of human beings and who cooperate with the competent authorities. In May 2015, the Commission adopted the EU Action Plan against Smuggling of Migrants (2015–2020) (European Commission, 2015b) and, in line with the Action Plan, carried out a REFIT assessment (European Commission, 2017c) on the application of the existing legal framework. The Commission found that, at that time, there was insufficient evidence of effective and continuous prosecution of individuals or organisations for humanitarian assistance and concluded that the EU legal framework for combating migrant smuggling remained, in the current context, essential. It also noted that the revision of the facilitators' package would not bring any added value with respect to its effective and full implementation, whilst, on the other hand, there was a general agreement concerning the adoption of non-legislative measures to support Member States' authorities, civil society organisations or other stakeholders, including cooperation with third countries, would bring. In its resolution of July 2018 (Guidelines for Member States to prevent the criminalisation of humanitarian assistance European Parliament resolution of July 5, 2018, on guidelines for the Member States to prevent the criminalisation of humanitarian assistance (2018/2769(RSP)), 2018) the Parliament called on the Commission to develop guidelines for the Member States to avoid criminalisation of humanitarian assistance and a hearing on the subject was held in September 2018.

- The 'Return Directive' (Directive 2008/115/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of December 16, 2008, on common standards and procedures in the Member States for returning illegally staying third-country nationals, 2008) sets out common EU standards and procedures applicable in the Member States for returning third-country nationals found staying illegally. The first

report on the application of this Directive was adopted in March 2014; in September 2015, the Commission published an EU Return Action Plan (European Commission, 2015c) followed by the adoption of Council Conclusions on the future of the return policy in October of the same year. In March 2017, the Commission complemented the Action Plan with a Communication (European Commission, 2017b) and the Commission recommendation (EU) 2017/432 of 7 March 2017 on making returns more effective when implementing the Directive 2008/115/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council (2017). In September 2017, it published an updated version of its 'Return Handbook' (European Commission, 2017a) intended for national authorities in charge of return-related tasks, which guides the exercise of these tasks. Furthermore, in 2016, the Parliament and the Council adopted Regulation (EU) 2016/1953 of the European Parliament and of the Council of October 26, 2016, on the establishment of a European travel document for the return of illegally staying third-country nationals, and repealing Council Recommendation of November 30 1994 (2016) on the establishment of a European travel document for the return of illegally staying third-country nationals. With its recent relaunching and reinforcement, the European Border and Coast Guard Agency (Frontex) frequently assists the Member States in return-related activities. In September 2018, the Commission proposed a targeted review (European Commission, 2018) of the Return Directive, including a new border procedure for asylum seekers, clearer procedures and standards to prevent abuse, efficient voluntary return programmes to be set up in the Member States and more transparent rules on detention. An impact assessment by the Parliament (European Parliament, 2019) found that the proposal would entail high costs for the Member States through increased enforcement of detention: there is no clear evidence that the proposal would lead to more effective returns, but it is likely to result in violations of the fundamental rights of irregular migrants. Although negotiations in Parliament and Council are ongoing, no specific agreement on the border procedure has been reached.

- Directive 2009/52/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of June 18, 2009 providing for minimum standards on sanctions and measures against employers of illegally staying third-country nationals (2009) specifies the sanctions and measures to be applied by the Member States against employers of

illegally staying third-country nationals. The first report concerning the implementation of this Directive was submitted on May 22, 2014.

- Since 2001, Member States mutually recognise each other's expulsion decisions (Council Directive 2001/40/EC of May 28, 2001 on the mutual recognition of decisions on the expulsion of third-country nationals, 2001), according to which the decision of a Member State to expel a third-country national present in another Member State is respected.

At the same time, the EU is negotiating and concluding readmission agreements with countries of origin and transit to return irregular migrants and cooperate in the fight against trafficking in human beings. As foreseen in the readmission agreements, the Joint Readmission Committees monitor their implementation. These agreements are linked to the visa facilitation agreements, which aim to provide the necessary incentives for readmission negotiations in the third country concerned without generating an increase in irregular migration. The Commission has also recently concluded informal return and readmission agreements (currently in force with five countries of origin located in Africa), which have been strongly criticised by the Parliament as not being subject to its scrutiny, thus raising questions about accountability and transparency (Corleto & Fronzoni, 2021).

Asylum and Resettlement Programmes

To manage legal migration flows concerning asylum seekers, highly skilled workers,[3] students and researchers,[4] as well as seasonal work-

[3] The EU Blue Card Directive was adopted in 2009 (Council directive 2009/50/EC of 25 May 2009 on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of highly qualified employment, 2009) to facilitate the migration of highly skilled workers from third countries to a Member State to address labour and skills shortages by attracting highly skilled workers. However, the current Directive has proven insufficient, with only a limited number of permits being issued for this type of worker. In June 2016, the Commission proposed to reform the Blue Card Directive (European Commission, 2016b) by amending some rules (a lower salary threshold for admission, faster procedures, the possibility to undertake parallel professional activities, more flexibility in professional mobility between the Member States). Negotiations are currently ongoing.

[4] In 2016, the Council and Parliament adopted a Directive laying down the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of research, study,

ers[5] and family reunification,[6] the EU has activated resettlement programmes, including the 2015 European Resettlement Programme, still currently in force, the 2016 Resettlement Programme for Syrian Refugees in Turkey, and the 2017 European Commission Recommendation.

The European Resettlement Programme was launched in July 2015, following the agreement reached by EU leaders to resettle 22,504 refugees over two years[7] through conclusions adopted by the Council setting out the details of such resettlement (Council of the European Union, 2015). The resettlement programme for Syrian refugees in Turkey was established following the March 2016 agreement between the EU and Turkey whereby every Syrian was sent back to Turkey from Greece. One Syrian would be resettled from Turkey in the EU. As of March 2019, almost 21,000 Syrians had been resettled under this programme. In July 2016, the Commission proposed establishing a permanent EU resettlement framework with common procedures and criteria across the EU, replacing the two current resettlement programmes. In September 2017, the Commission also adopted a Recommendation calling on the Member States to offer resettlement places for the admission of 50,000 persons by October 31, 2019, and in November 2017 negotiations on

placement, volunteering, pupil exchange programmes or educational projects and au pair placement. EU and African leaders have agreed to promote the mobility of students, researchers and entrepreneurs between the two continents. This commitment was made at the summit held in Valletta in November 2015. The leaders agreed to double the number of scholarships for students and academic staff in 2016 through the Erasmus+ programme (Consiglio europeo, 2015).

5 Faced with growing labour shortages, the EU economy depends on many seasonal workers from third countries. In 2014, the Council and Parliament adopted the Seasonal Workers Directive, which defines the conditions under which third-country nationals can enter and reside in the EU as seasonal workers. The envisaged rules help to harmonise and simplify admission rules between Member States, protect third-country seasonal workers from exploitation and poor working conditions, address the problem of third-country seasonal workers staying illegally in the EU (Directive 2014/36/EU).

6 Family reunification allows those legally residing in the EU to be joined by family members, contributing to better integrating third-country nationals into society. The relevant rules are set out in the Directive on the right to family reunification, which lays down common rules for exercising the right to family reunification in the EU (except for the United Kingdom, Ireland and Denmark).

7 According to Frontex sources, as of March 2019, more than 24 000 people had been relocated (https://frontex.europa.eu/).

the draft rules for the new framework were initiated in the European Parliament and are still ongoing (Consiglio europeo, 2017c).

Regarding non-legal migration flows, the Common European Asylum System (CEAS) sets out minimum standards for the treatment of all applicants and claims across the EU (European Commission, 2014), as the migration crisis has highlighted the need to reform EU asylum rules. Under the current rules, both because applicants are not treated equally across the EU and because the rate of positive asylum decisions varies greatly, asylum seekers travel across Europe and apply for asylum in countries where they feel they have the best chance of receiving international protection. The Council is currently examining seven legislative proposals to improve EU asylum rules to make the system more efficient and more resilient to migratory pressure, eliminate pull factors and secondary movements, combat abuse, and provide greater support to the most affected member states. The seven legislative proposals tabled by the Commission aim at:

1. Reforming the Dublin system[8] to better distribute asylum applications among the Member States and to ensure the expedient processing of these applications;
2. Strengthening the Eurodac[9] regulation to improve the EU fingerprint database for asylum seekers;

[8] The purpose of the Dublin system, established in 1990 and updated in 2003 and 2013, is to identify a single EU Member State responsible for processing an asylum application. The procedure is based on various criteria, including the first country of entry, effectively limiting the number of member states accountable for processing most asylum claims. However, the migration crisis has highlighted the limitations of the current system, which places a burden on those Member States that are in the front line (such as Italy and Greece). Therefore, the legislative proposal for reform, currently under discussion in the Council, aims to improve the Dublin Regulation to identify a single Member State responsible for examining an asylum application and ensure a fair sharing of responsibilities between the Member States.

[9] The Eurodac database contains the fingerprints of all irregular migrants and asylum seekers who have been registered in EU member states and associated countries. This database, which contributes to the implementation of the Dublin regulation, makes it possible to check whether an applicant has previously lodged an asylum application in another member state, to check whether an applicant has once been apprehended when illegally entering the European territory and to determine which member states are responsible for examining an asylum application. The proposal to reform the Eurodac Regulation aims to improve the system by collecting additional data (facial images), extending its scope to include data on third-country nationals illegally staying in the EU. They have not applied for asylum and simplified access for law enforcement authorities (Consiglio europeo, 2016).

3. Establishing a fully-fledged asylum agency;[10]
4. Replacing the Asylum Procedures Directive[11] with a Regulation to harmonise EU procedures and reduce differences in recognition rates between the Member States;
5. Replacing the Qualification Directive with a Regulation[12] to harmonise the levels of protection and rights of asylum seekers;
6. Reforming the Reception Conditions Directive[13] to ensure that

[10] This proposal aims to transform the current European Asylum Support Office (EASO) into a fully-fledged EU asylum agency responsible for ensuring that assessments of applications for international protection are convergent and providing operational and technical assistance to the Member States. In June 2017, the Council and Parliament reached a broad political agreement and referendum on all twelve chapters of the Regulation on the EU Asylum Agency (Consiglio europeo, 2017a). Technical work on the proposal was completed by the end of 2017. Adoption of the proposal was suspended pending progress on the rest of the CEAS package. In September 2018, the Commission proposed amendments to its proposal for an EU Asylum Agency. The proposed changes include expanding the operational and technical assistance that the agency can provide to the Member States.

[11] The Asylum Procedures Directive defines the procedures to be followed by the EU Member States in granting and withdrawing international protection status. The legislative proposal aims to replace this directive with a regulation establishing a common procedure for international protection, which will help remove the incentives for seeking the most advantageous asylum. The draft rules will replace the various procedures applied in the Member States with a more straightforward procedure, improve the protection of the rights of applicants and the protection of vulnerable persons, introduce stricter rules to prevent abuse, and establish a more rapid examination of applications when certain conditions are met. The Commission proposal is currently under discussion in the Council.

[12] The legislative proposal ensures that uniform standards are applied to all asylum seekers in the different member states. The draft rules define the common criteria for identifying persons who are genuinely in need of international protection, the common rights for such persons in all member states. In July 2017, ambassadors to the EU agreed on a negotiation mandate on the draft standards for qualifying asylum seekers. They harmonised the rights and benefits of beneficiaries of international protection across the EU. Negotiations with the Parliament are at an advanced stage (Consiglio europeo, 2017d).

[13] The first objective of the legislative proposal is to ensure standard reception conditions for all asylum seekers. This will ensure that asylum seekers benefit from better and similar living conditions throughout the EU. The proposed rules establish a common definition of reception conditions for all asylum seekers, the right to work for asylum seekers within nine months of lodging their application, the right to education for minors and the need to appoint a guardian for unaccompanied minors. The second objective of the draft directive is to reduce secondary movements of asylum seekers by defining geographical limits. The draft rules aim to limit access to reception conditions to the Member State responsible for their asylum application, limit the provi-

asylum seekers benefit from harmonised and dignified reception standards;

7. Creating a permanent framework for resettlement.[14]

As mentioned, the European policy for managing both legal and non-legal flows include mechanisms for temporary relocation of migrants arriving in the countries of arrival in copious numbers (see Italy[15] and Greece), registration and fingerprinting in the so-called *hotspots* (of which 5 in Greece and 4 in Italy – Lampedusa, Trapani, Pozzallo and Taranto), return policies and readmission agreements with third countries.

The Linguistic Integration Plan

Language Learning, an Essential Element of Inclusion

The Council of Europe has been a pioneer in promoting the integration of migrants in its Member States. Given the values and principles that inspire its work, it places human rights and social cohesion at the heart of migration policies, defining integration as a two-way process

sion of travel documents unless there are serious humanitarian reasons, and allow the Member States to restrict the applicant's presence to a specific geographical area. In November 2017, ambassadors to the EU agreed on a mandate for negotiations on the draft rules. Negotiations with Parliament are at an advanced stage (Consiglio europeo, 2017b).

[14] The Commission has proposed establishing a permanent EU resettlement framework that would replace the existing ad hoc resettlement schemes. The resettlement framework aims to provide safe and legal routes to the EU and to reduce the risk of large-scale irregular arrivals in the longer term, to provide common standards for humanitarian admission and resettlement, to contribute to global resettlement and humanitarian admission initiatives, and to support third countries which host large numbers of persons in need of international protection. Under the new framework, the Council will adopt a two-year EU plan for resettlement and humanitarian admission based on a proposal from the Commission. The plan will include the maximum total number of persons to be admitted, member states' contributions to that number and overall geographical priorities. In November 2017, the Council agreed on a mandate to open negotiations with the Parliament on draft legislation establishing an EU framework for resettlement. Negotiations with the Parliament are at an advanced stage (Consiglio europeo, 2017c).

[15] The Italian government has used the so-called 'closed ports policy' to negotiate, through the 'stipulation' of informal and ad hoc agreements between European governments, the 'redistribution' of rescued people to States other than the one of arrival. A series of highly mediatised landings have been managed through such procedures, first of all, the case of the Diciotti ship and then the rescues operated by NGOs.

in which migrants must show investment in their migration project – for example, by learning the language of the host country – but the host country also has responsibilities towards them – such as allowing access to the labour market and avoiding discrimination. 'Living together in diversity' is not just a slogan. It is a vital principle for any democracy based on peace (Council of Europe, 2000). Although learning the host country's language is not a prerequisite for integration, it is undoubtedly an essential element.

The integration of newcomers is a process that involves a transversal but specific dimension in linguistic integration in addition to social inclusion. This aspect is often underestimated or even absent from reception programmes and integration indicators. For migrants, it is crucial to feel integrated into the host society in terms of linguistic communication. This will depend on how integration is conceived, which may differ and vary from one individual to another. From a migrant's point of view, linguistic integration does not necessarily guarantee full integration: a migrant may be proficient in the language of the host society without being able to benefit from equal access to employment with native speakers of that language if he or she does not adopt some behaviours commonly accepted by the host society. However, acquiring skills in the majority language may facilitate integration. It is clear that language plays a vital role in achieving social cohesion through intercultural dialogue.

The language policies that the Member States ordain for adult migrants must first adapt to the objectives and principles of reception to which they are subject by first recognising their specific responsibilities concerning the provision of language training for target audience. The linguistic support must have objectives that ensure, in particular, the level of competence in oral communication, a crucial element of social life, especially in the workplace (professional domain). However, the same support should also generate a sense of belonging to the new social environment (public domain) because this sense is related to the type of migration project (e.g., permanent or temporary settlement). A successful integration policy cannot fail to include appropriate interventions to contain fears and remove ambiguities that the visible presence of newcomers may trigger in the host society. The language or languages of the host society into which migrants are trying to integrate and those already part of their particular repertoire form the identity of the active and democratic citizen. Therefore, a multilingual and inter-

cultural approach ensures that languages become instruments of integration, uniting rather than isolating.

Based on these values, the bodies responsible for language policies are invited by the Council to consider how to:

- Implement language training programmes that provide an apparent response to the needs of migrants, with particular reference to the personal, social and employment domains;[16]
- Ensure that programmes are sufficiently open to accommodate the diversity of migrants as a highly heterogeneous population;[17]
- Support migrants in developing independent learning skills;[18]
- Monitor language and civic culture courses to ensure that they meet internationally agreed quality assurance standards;[19]
- Define the levels of competence required realistically and flexibly to reflect the real needs and abilities of migrants;[20]

[16] Under this aspect, the identification of needs is a priority, both in the short and medium-long term. These will have to be contemplated and reflected in the communicative objectives, which in turn can be defined by adapting the scales of the 'Common European Framework of Reference for Languages' (CEFR) (for example: talking to one's children's teachers, talking to one's neighbours, writing a CV for a job, etc.).

[17] In fact, there is no standard model: migrants can differ considerably in terms of personal situation, needs, skills, previous educational background, level of schooling, literacy profile, time and availability for language learning, migration project related to the host country, years of stay in the same country (Pulinx, n. d.).

[18] At the end of the course, users will need to manage their learning, e.g. by acquiring the skills required in the workplace, building social networks, etc. The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is designed to support the development of these skills and can therefore be used by migrants to relate their progress to CEFR competence levels. The European Language Portfolio (ELP) has been designed to support the development of these skills and can be used by migrants to relate their progress to the CEFR competence levels.

[19] The experience of bespoke courses, designed, created and delivered by suitably trained professionals, can be more expensive but provides value for money in terms of quality-price, greater involvement, more frequent attendance, motivation and, consequently, learning outcomes (Rossner, n. d.).

[20] Given that the CEFR can be used to define inhomogeneous 'profiles,' when adapting the Framework for official purposes (such as residence or citizenship), it is important to look at realistic levels and sustainable profiles, bearing in mind that in most societies and for most native speakers it is not necessary to perform the tasks envisaged by the higher rungs of the CEFR scale; the requirement to demonstrate a 'sufficient' or 'good' level in L2 is not only too vague as an assumption of principle to be useful but is based on the unproven assumption that effective integration depends on a given level of language proficiency (Little, 2012)

- Ensure that formal tests, if used, meet quality standards and are not used to exclude migrants from society;[21]
- Develop effective incentives rather than ineffective sanctions, and tangible rewards linked to language learning, such as accelerating access to the labour market or *welfare,* thus providing stronger motivation;[22]
- Value migrants' languages of origin and their unique, multilingual and pluricultural identity.[23]

The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is a personal document designed by the Council of Europe to promote lifelong language learning and to foster the development of learner autonomy by enhancing awareness of intercultural experiences and multilingualism. It is also a complementary tool to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). It is linked both in terms of the Council of Europe's core values and the levels of competence defined in the CEFR itself. Three features of the ELP make it particularly relevant for use with adult immigrants: first, the emphasis on the need to 'learn to learn' helps to raise immigrants' awareness of language and language learning by making them aware that, consciously or unconsciously, they will continue to develop their own process of learning the host country's language throughout their lives; secondly, the process of goal-setting and self-assessment allows them to continuously analyse their communication skills and encourages them to stay focused on their im-

[21] Where tests are administered for official purposes, they must be prepared by professional bodies to ensure that they are impartial, reliable and fair. However, there is no stable relationship between passing a language test and effective integration: migrants can be integrated even with limited language skills. Language proficiency develops through use over time and in everyday life: it is therefore not a precondition but rather the result of participation in social life. Alternative forms of assessment, such as the ELP, provide evidence of what a learner can do through language and could therefore complement or perhaps replace a test linked to the CEFR (Rossner, n. d.; Balch, n. d.).

[22] Sanctions that attempt to force migrants to learn can result in less effective learning and negative attitudes towards integration: disproportionate measures can be discriminatory and violate migrants' human rights (Beacco et al., 2017).

[23] Languages of origin play a crucial role in the integration process; a multilingual and intercultural approach, on the one hand, shows that these languages are considered necessary, and on the other encourages migrants to pass them on to their children, highlighting their value as markers of identity and a resource for the whole society. Indeed, languages are essential for building intercultural competence and social cohesion (Beacco et al., 2017).

mediate learning needs, thus strengthening their motivation; finally, by highlighting the efforts made in learning the language and the results achieved, it avoids the risk that their skills may be underestimated. The Council of Europe's Working Group on the Language Integration of Adult Immigrants has developed a 'generic' ELP model for adult immigrants, adaptable to the needs corresponding to particular contexts based on the Milestone[24] project model and comprising (Little, 2012):

- A Language Passport of only five pages to include personal information about the owner of the passport, his or her educational background and language identity, a table for cumulative self-assessment of skills in six languages, the self-assessment grid and a page where the owner can list the certificates and diplomas he or she has obtained;
- A Language Biography divided into two parts covering both the current level of language competence in the language of the host community, the experience of language learning and contacts with other cultures, life path and aspirations for the future, skills, abilities and interests and how they can help integration in the host country as well as current language learning-expectations, cultural differences, 'learning to learn';
- A Dossier, consisting of four sections: the training programme currently followed, examples of work carried out, a progress log, and diplomas and certificates obtained;
- Checklists, including descriptions relevant to the communication needs of all adult immigrants in all language activities (listening, reading, spoken interaction, oral production and written production) at A1, A2, B1 and B2 CEFR levels.

A very useful tool for reflection on the topic is the survey, conducted in 2018 by the Council of Europe & ALTE on 'language and civic knowledge policies in the context of migration' (Council of Europe, 2018). It highlights how, in the last decade, an increasing number of Council of Europe member states have formally introduced, within their immigration and integration policies, language and/or civic knowledge-related requirements for residence or entry purposes (Lloyd & Perlmann-

[24] This is project 37.2002-Milestone, one of the models specifically designed for adult immigrants to learn the language of the host country (developed in a joint project between Finland, Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands and Sweden and funded by the EU).

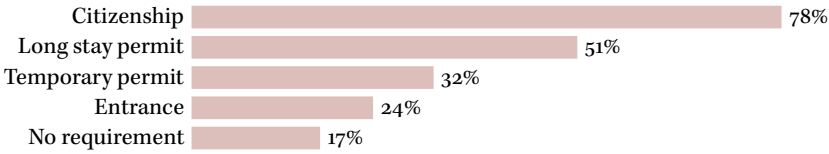

FIGURE 7.1 Requirements of Council of Europe Member States (Council of Europe, 2018)

Balme, 2017) with considerable differences concerning the specific levels of competence required, often without considering vulnerable groups (minors, refugees, weakly educated) who are rarely exempted from taking the tests. It should be noted that although almost all Member States offer language learning opportunities to migrants, these are often characterised by an insufficient number of hours (only up to 250 hours of free instruction), especially for vulnerable groups.

Forms of Linguistic Integration

Given that the integration of migrants is a multifaceted and complex process to analyse, as is reiterated by the Council of Europe (Beacco et al., 2017), many indicators[25] have been developed over the years to investigate the process of adaptation in another society, often without including criteria directly related to languages. However, it is assumed that L2 learning remains a crucial aspect, especially in cases of long-term settlement. Proper integration of migrants into the new society reflects a welcoming effort beyond the specific norms adopted; moreover, acceptance of new forms of social behaviour, provided they do not violate the fundamental values of democracy, presupposes that society is open to others and tolerant towards change. This collective involvement must be complemented by educational measures for the benefit of everyone throughout the world (Council of Europe, 2008).

Using the term 'linguistic integration' is possible as long as there is full awareness of its specificities: languages, in fact, should not be seen only as a mere means of communication, or just tools that must simply be acquired, but should instead also be considered as a vehicle for the construction of cultural, individual and group identities. In this way, the learning and use of a new language – the language of the host so-

[25] These include broad areas, such as social integration and health or more specific indicators (income, employment, housing, education, participation in social life, etc.), such as those developed by Eurostat (Gazzola, 2017, pp. 297–302).

ciety – or the use of other languages that the migrant already knows but which are unknown to the resident population, is not only a practical matter but may also trigger processes that imply a redefinition of identities. The linguistic integration of migrants in the receiving society is not, as already pointed out, a symmetrical process. In the receiving society, the visible presence of new languages may supposedly trigger anxiety or fear for national identity. This identity sometimes appears surrounded by attacks on linguistic unity or destitution of the dominant language for migrants. In that case, the immediate problems have implications linked to the way of approaching the L2, the knowledge of which can be seen as a form of enrichment of their identity but can conversely also be perceived as something that makes them vulnerable. L2 learning can cause suffering and frustration (linked, for example, to the inability to express oneself) to compromise the existing identity with the loss of the sense of belonging to the community of origin.

The resident population may conceive the very idea of linguistic integration as a duty of the newcomers, which often translates into considering situations in which migrants do not stand out from other speakers, passing linguistically unnoticed compared to the native speakers to be positive. This is an outward interpretation of integration that also requires adult migrants to reach out and show a high level of knowledge of the official language, perceived as a demonstration of their loyalty and faithfulness to the host country. A sort of curiosity can compensate for these expectations of assimilationism for unknown languages, a desire to learn them, a greater tolerance towards unintentional mistakes made by migrants or towards the difficulties they have in expressing themselves and accepting the use of other languages in public or the media. Such positive attitudes, which should be encouraged by all forms of intercultural education, may depend on the degree of legitimacy attached to languages and, to a large extent, on the degree of acceptance of diversity.

However, the Council of Europe's position is not consistent either with the real needs of the host society or with the expectations of migrants and the rights that should be guaranteed to them. Integration, in other words, should not be defined exclusively concerning the acquisition of the dominant language, but also in relation to the linguistic repertoire of each individual so that it is seen as the adaptation to the (new) communicative environment, i.e., as a re-arrangement of their individual repertoires.

Various forms of language integration are therefore possible, reflecting the goals and needs of migrants:

- *Low level of language integration within the repertoire:* the linguistic resources available in the individual's repertoire are deficient because the skills in L2 are not adequate to deal effectively with communicative situations without effort. In such cases, the success of the communication often depends mainly on the linguistic goodwill of the other speakers, leading to a sort of social self-censorship. Migrants do not participate in some activities or even avoid doing so because they are perceived as linguistically too demanding[26] and L1 maintains a strong identity connotation;
- *Functional integration of languages within the repertoire:* resources in L2 are sufficient to ensure successful verbal communicative exchanges. In this case, the language of origin does not necessarily have a prominent identity function;
- *Integration of languages within the repertoire:* migrants actively reorganise their repertoires by incorporating the host society's language alongside the L1 and any other languages they already master. The repertoire is used naturally, with speakers interchanging languages depending on the social situation; in this case, the language of origin can maintain the status of common identity together with the L2.

It is up to migrants to decide for themselves and their families which linguistic strategies are best suited to their goals in daily life and the management of their identity. Within this framework, the role of language training is crucial to inform migrants about the consequences of the positions taken, explaining in particular that migration necessarily involves a process of identity adjustment that must be managed with plurality and a mental willingness to integrate, rather than with a 'nostalgic inflexibility' to fusion. When delivering training, the user could be asked to reflect on how to manage the 'variable code' essentially at two levels: 'micro-changes' – in the same communicative situation, de-

[26] Migrants may find their repertoire ineffective and therefore a source of frustration and may be 'excluded' by native speakers. However, where native speakers attribute a role to the migrant's L1 and a purely practical role to the L2, migrants may still be accepted by the host society. This is because their language of origin may retain a strong identity function.

pending on the participants – and 'macro changes' – tolerance of linguistic diversity and distribution of two or more languages in all social exchanges. In any case, the fact that migrants can choose between different types of adaptation implies that the Training Pact must be endorsed by actually listening to their point of view, which is a *sine qua non* to design and manage tailor-made courses (van Avermaet & Gysen, 2008).

The Council of Europe Project 'Linguistic Integration of Adult Migrants' (ILMA – LIAM)

The main purpose of the Council of Europe, as highlighted, is to create an area of common democratic legality that respects human rights according to the regulations in force. To achieve this goal, the Council's actions are based on the principles of social inclusion and cohesion and the respect of diversity and, therefore, give great importance to the linguistic integration of adult migrants. The effective respect of these fundamental principles requires a coordinated approach across the different fields of integration policies (social, employment), starting from awareness of the mutual rights and duties of migrants and the host society. Over the last fifty years, the adopted policies have contributed to the spread of language teaching and learning at the European level by supporting the Member States in developing coherent and effective policies and revising existing national policies to adapt them to shared values and principles. In recent years, these actions have also aimed to identify and share good practices and promote transparency and equity following internationally accepted codes of practice for language testing, where compulsory. In addition, the Council of Europe has developed standard-setting tools and recommendations that establish good practice in the migration context. These tools and recommendations complement language policy guidelines and *tools* designed to support their effective implementation and enforcement, following an inclusive approach based on shared values.

In 2006, a large-scale initiative was launched, the Linguistic Integration of Adult Migrants (LIAM) project, which, whilst drawing on tools and resources developed by the Council of Europe, sought to facilitate the integration of migrants into civil society and to promote social cohesion, in line with the Council's core values. One of the reasons behind this project was the distorted use of the CERF (North & Piccardo, 2017, pp. 83–90) used to assess migrant language skills for the right to

access, residence or citizenship, all of which may violate the human rights of the person concerned. The resources developed by the LIAM project focus on language policy and its development, language learning programs for adult migrants and the assessment of learning outcomes to help the Member States meet the specific needs of adult migrants. The Member States, moreover, have contributed to the project, sharing their concerns and expressing their needs through four surveys (2007, 2009, 2013 and 2018),[27] participating in three intergovernmental conferences in Strasbourg (2008, 2010 and 2014).[28] A symposium in 2016 provided a compendium of articles and case studies. The LIAM project's dedicated website is designed to meet the potential needs of different users. It offers various types of resources, including a set of principles to be taken into account when designing policies to facilitate the language integration of adult migrants, a list of keywords linked to a large number of background documents, tools and other resources (e.g., a self-assessment questionnaire for language course leaders and a European language portfolio designed for adult migrants).

[27] The first survey, conducted between 2007 and 2008, was organised by the Language Policy Division (now Unit) and the Migration Division in cooperation with ALTE and 26 states. The results were announced during the first intergovernmental symposium in 2008. The second survey (2008–2010), also organised by the divisions mentioned earlier, saw the participation of 31 states. The results and the main trends that emerged were published in the report 'Language requirements for adult migrants in Council of Europe member states: Report on a survey' and presented during the 2010 intergovernmental conference in Strasbourg. As many as 36 member states participated in the 2013 survey. Most recently, in 2018, the survey 'Language Policies and Language Requirements for Migrants in the Member States' aimed to map the language and cultural requirements (KoS) of migrants for entry, residence and citizenship purposes with a focus on vulnerable groups (low-literacy migrants, women, unaccompanied minors, asylum seekers and refugees).

[28] The first intergovernmental seminar was held in 2008 to share the first survey results among member states and present the many key documents (issues and case studies) prepared to support states in developing coherent and effective policies. The second conference, 'The linguistic integration of adult migrants: Ways of evaluating policy and practice,' held in 2010, provided an opportunity to discuss the language requirements for family reunification, residence permits, residency and citizenship and address issues such as programmes and forms of evaluation. Finally, the third conference in 2014, 'Quality in the linguistic integration of adult migrants: From values to policy and practice,' took an innovative approach with the presentation of the project's new website and its many resources, the analysis of the results of the third survey; the presentation of a new Guide for project-related policies and a Recommendation on the impact of language testing on migrants.

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Part Three

Social Inclusion and the Role of Communities as Transition Interfaces: Lessons Learned

Chapter Eight

Experiences from Germany

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Overall National Context, Facts, and Legal Basis

From the point of view of most migrants, Germany is a desired destination. Following the Dublin treaty however, it is almost impossible to reach Germany legally without passing another European Union or other presumably safe country.

Nevertheless, a moderately high number of unaccompanied minors keep arriving to Germany, mostly in four-digit numbers, except for the years 2015 and 2016. The number of municipalities in Germany is 10,799.[1] At the height of the surge of migrants in 2016, there were about 3 UAM per municipality, compared to a mere 0.24 in 2019.

While the surge of refugees in 2015 and 2016 was accompanied with a high degree of societal responsibility and good will (*Willkommenskultur,* Culture of Welcome) there were some xenophobic movements which gained a very outspoken and strategically significant, but clearly minority followership of up to 15% of the population. Overall, the support for a responsible and humanitarian, if well-regulated and well-managed refugee policy remains high.

The federal state, states, and municipalities as well as the civil society responded to the arrival of refugees with an expansion of support capacities. These included infrastructures, volunteerism and expanded regular paid for structures. Post 2016, the refugee treaty with the Turkish republic almost completely stopped new minor migration, reducing it to a level of less than 3000 UAM in 2019. Consequently, many of the structures which were built were reduced again, a >stop and go< that turns out to challenge the manageability of minor´s migration in the case of a discontinuation of the treaty with Turkey.

[1] See https://de.statista.com/statistik/daten/studie/1254/umfrage/anzahl-der-gemeinden-in-deutschland-nach-gemeindegroessenklassen/.

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TABLE 8.1 Asylum Applicants Considered to Be Unaccompanied Minors – Annual Data (rounded)

Territory	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
EU	12,540	12,725	23,150	95,205	63,250	31,400	19,845	17,800	
Germany	2,095	2,485	4,400	22,255	35,935	9,085	4,085	2,690	2,230

NOTES Based on data from Eurostat (https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat).

As a consequence of the humanitarian crisis in the collective refugee shelter camps on the Greek islands and in particular after the latest events in which the camp in Moria was burned down, a number of municipalities in Germany started the initiative 'We Have Free Space' (*Wir haben Platz*) and offered and demanded that more minors, at least about 4000, are to be accepted to Germany, as the same number is currently leaving the youth care facilities (Bundesfachverband unbegleitete minderjährige Flüchtlinge, 2020a).

The latest decisions of the European Union on the border regime of the European Union were met by severe criticism from the most important civil society organisations, as the well-being of the minors and fair treatment and access to a regular process of protection are in danger (Bundesfachverband unbegleitete minderjährige Flüchtlinge, 2020b). Another relevant tendency is that the arriving minors are younger (34% under 16 vs 27% in 2017/2019) and the proportion of females is larger (18,6% vs. 12%) which implies an adaptation of the support structures to these groups. The most current numbers are presented in table 8.1.

Legal Aspects Relevant for Migrants

UAM in Germany are taken under the care of the youth support services according to the 8th book of the general social legislation (SGB VIII) which also regulates all following processes. There is a clearing, reallocation, and referral process, which is implemented by the municipal youth support services, according to recommendations of the association of state youth support administrations (Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft Landesjugendämter, 2020). Critical points are the clarification of the age of the refugee and the definition of a support plan, which is elaborated with the participation of the young refugee.

Minor Migrants in Transition to Adulthood: Situation and Challenges

While young refugees, despite cultural background and biography, share many critical characteristics with their local peers, up and fore-

most the characteristic of being adolescent, the critical difference is their insecure status of residence once they reach adulthood. This insecurity is being described by many practitioners in the field as the key challenge for the process of transition from the protected and supported status as UAM and adulthood.

The status of residence is dependent on the result of the application for asylum and/or refugee protection. The practice of this process is highly dependent on the engagement and competence of the assigned guardians. While formally, at the age of 18, UAM become subject to the regular process for adult refugees, including residence in a refugee shelter etc., the responsibility of the youth support services could in practice be extended if the development of an autonomous responsible personality has not yet been completed.

This is assumed for a high percentage of the UAM. In fact, young refugees 'should' remain under the responsibility of the youth support services. This, however, depends on the decision of each regional branch of the youth support services. The actual practice varies.

Most importantly, the special protection of minors against deportation ends. The stress of the process of protection adds to other complex challenges or the youth. After being referred to adult status, the process is determined by the Asylum Law (Asylgesetz (AsylG), 1992).

Recently, the process of transition for young migrants has been reviewed by the civil society group Bundesverband unbegleitete minderjährige Flüchtlinge, a cooperation of leading third sector actors like Workers Welfare, Red Cross, SOS Kinderdorf, Don Bosco Salesians and about 70 other relevant organisations.

The association has elaborated a quite comprehensive guideline for accompanying the transition of minors to adulthood, used by most professionals and volunteers for training and reference (Bundesverband unbegleitete minderjährige Flüchtlinge, 2020b). The guide is based on the wider discussion in social work on 'care leavers,' which are, independent of their refugee status, a major target group of social work, as the challenges of stabilisation, orientation and insertion to regular systems is common to many groups of youth.

A special challenge in the case of young refugees is that these often lack cultural and institutional orientation, as well as individual stabilisation because of a change of reference cultures, while the typical resident client is suffering from individual disorientation, addiction, or a lack of individual competence development.

The model developed by CISOTRA gives a macro perspective on

the practical guidelines described by the Bundesverband unbegleitete minderjährige Flüchtlinge in detail and therefore adds value as a tool for reflection for practitioners and coordinators of young refugee support policies.

Key Coordinating Actors

In the case of Germany, the political and administrative structure is highly federalised, i.e., the 16 federal states have substantial legal responsibilities in the relevant fields on homeland security, migration, education, youth support and other policies.

Some relevant areas, such as insurance schemes (employment agencies) are regulated on the federal level but administered by tripartite arrangements which include social partners. Municipalities have wide responsibilities, which can be distinguished by obligatory responsibilities including responsibilities in the implementation of federal state and state legislation. Own voluntary policies and regulations add to the complexity of municipal policy making and administrative practice.

The second dimension are different responsibilities for youth and adults, which are reflected in a separate law on youth care (SGB VIII) on the federal level, which is mainly implemented by municipal agents.

While the responsibility for youth is quite clear, (young) adults are trapped in a hugely complex system of state responsibilities assigned to a wide variation of layers of government, in fields like migration, law of residence, security, education, housing, social benefits, training and employment, social security and health and many more.

Since this complexity apparently led to several frictions in the field of policies for the transition of minors, several programmes for the coordination of activities of these layers of government have been created as an ad hoc reaction to the challenges of the surge in the number of refugees 2015 ff.

However, to discuss only one example of the multiple programmes, it must be noted that 'coordinators' funded by these programs (e.g., Willkommen bei Freunden 2015–2018) have no legal responsibilities and face the challenge of networking with the huge volume of well-established relevant actors, each with their own agenda and legal obligations, traditions and institutional structures (Willkommen bei Freunden, n. d.). This, despite some fruitful practical results and an improvement of communication, often turned out to be a 'mission impossible.'

From the perspective of the actors which have been involved in the CISOTRA project in Germany and including the actors and dimensions which are being described in the CISOTRA model, the aim of coordination of the policy field should be:

- to see that all elements of the model are considered and are provided in good quality in the region of coordination,
- to see that all referrals between the individual actors and institutions are smooth,
- to see that all actors are aware of each other's aims, responsibilities, and logic of action, and
- to see that all actors communicate with the coordinator and among each other.

The model that has been developed in the CISOTRA project, has built on the political and scientific debate in the community of those concerned with integration policies, which in Germany has much focused on the municipal level in recent years.

Municipalities are those most affected by successful integration or societal disintegration, as on this level the consequences of state policies become concrete.

In Germany, municipalities are also legally and financially responsible for providing basic social security and housing and therefore their finances are much strained if populations, unable to provide for themselves, emerge.

The general problem of coordination is replicated on municipal level as well, as various administrations (e.g., youth support, schools, foreigners, and migration) may have different views and are obliged to act on different legal foundations, often with contradictory aims. Since this level allows for face-to-face contact and a close contact of the actors, coordination is much easier achieved than on other levels and the pressure to find pragmatic solutions is also higher.

Leading municipalities have therefore developed concepts for overall municipal migration policies. An example is the City Hall of Munich (Landseshauptstadt München 2018). These plans are often backed up by municipal funds, which can – in the case of richer municipalities – fill the gaps left by other federal or state funding.

Consequently, municipalities demand a larger say in migration policies and European initiatives like Solidarity Cities or EUROCITIES are

drivers of municipal management of migration policies in a direct coordination with the European Union (Bendel et al., 2019, p. 12).

An additional layer of coordination complexity is the important role of the civil society in Germany. Along the general principle of 'subsidiarity' (Bröhmer, 2014), one principle of state and societal organisation is that each problem is to be taken care of at the lowest possible level, i.e., the individual, family, voluntary associations and societal groups, social partners, and government levels.

Consequently, in Germany there is a large 'third sector' next to state agencies and private businesses. A few examples: many state responsibilities in youth support or employment and training policies are commissioned to third sector actors. Church based providers, namely Caritas, Diakonie, etc. have a large 'market' share of such services and state policies cannot be implemented without using the concept, staff and infrastructural resources of these organisations. These organisations often act on an individual or faith-based set of values and this can influence the state policies to quite some degree, which had a demonstrable mitigating effect, e.g., when the catholic and protestant churches openly criticised the harsh deportation policies of some state actors.

Also, citizen-based volunteer organisations provide manpower and creativity in mitigating acute crises. There is a consensus that without the degree of citizen volunteering the crisis of 2015 ff. could not have been managed. These groups also represent the general culture of acceptance of society towards migrants, as they are often the first and most relevant contact point of refugees vs. the general society.

In transition between UAM and young adult refugee status, before entering the employment system, schools are the focus of interaction with the host society. Schools, vocational schools in particular have developed new formats of instruction like 'vocational integration classes' (*Berufsintegrationsklassen*) which combine language learning, general subjects, and vocational preparation. They are open to minors as well as young adults up to the age of 25.

Therefore, vocational schools, many of which also offer integrated school social work, financed by the municipalities, and granting access to NGOS which support young refugees with volunteer work, have become preeminent hubs of support for young refugees.

As mentioned, the providers of youth support measures as well as job integration, transitional and vocational preparation measures, play an important role as commissioned agents of support.

Often these actors implement measures under the law for youth support as well as vocational integration courses for adults. Such providers have the manpower and facilities for practical support and can often rely on a wider network, e.g., the framework of 'Caritas,' the catholic provider of social services, which is the largest employer and generally one of the largest organisations in Germany. Therefore, a wide range of services can be provided[2] Within this wider framework particularly for youth, the catholic youth support services exist in each diocese, e.g., in Regensburg.[3]

The size, resources, and experienced professionals of this network of organisations and individual institutions can provide overarching services and integration concepts even if the funding structures and sources are fragmented and often contradictory. Similar organisations exist in the framework of the protestant church (*Diakonie*) and secular organisations (*Paritätischer Wohlfahrtsverband*). Another specialised branch in the organisational framework of these third sector organisations is the 'Youth Migration Services' (*Jugendmigrationsdienst*),[4] funded by the 'Strengthening Youth' (*Jugend stärken*)[5] federal programme of the Ministry of family and social affairs.

Another level of stakeholder relevance and therefore coordination needs is the training and employment system in Germany. While there is a right to seek employment after some years of legal residence or granted right of protection, the factual opportunities of training and employment depend on employers. According to the dominant German system of initial training, apprenticeships are provided by individual private companies and full training through state run vocational schools is an exception.[6]

Therefore, private companies are the gatekeepers to training and employment. As Germany is a labour society in legal arrangements and societal culture, being employed in a respectable occupation and providing for oneself is the key factor of general societal acceptance (Offe, 1984; Pries, 2017). This is a notable contrast to more family-based cultures in other countries.

[2] http://www.caritas-germany.org/focus/currentissues/what-does-caritas-do-for-refugees-in-germany.
[3] https://www.kjf-regensburg.de/.
[4] https://www.jugendmigrationsdienste.de/en/.
[5] https://www.jugend-staerken.de/.
[6] https://www.bibb.de/en/77203.php.

This makes companies another key stakeholder, although one that is currently under-used by the more social support-oriented communities of care actors. One reason is a contradiction between the staffing needs of companies in some sectors and the general aim of federal state policy to reduce the number of refugees and to avoid a 'change of track' between the system of human protection and general migration and labour policies. While there is a strong demand for apprentices in sectors like crafts and healthcare and consequently there are numerous success stories of young refugees completing even quite demanding three years apprenticeship programs successfully (Netzwerk Unternehmen integrieren Flüchtlinge, 2020), there are still concerning news of young refugees, particularly from Afghanistan, being deported while being on a promising track of educational, societal and professional integration (Ghassim, 2021).

Considering this general context, a list of actors in the field of educational and employment integration to consider would include educational institutions (elementary education, secondary education, higher education, vocational schools), companies providing apprenticeships, labour market organisations such as the 'Agency for work' (federal with strong social partner involvement), municipal job centres (responsible for those on social benefits), Chambers of Commerce, Chamber of the Crafts (e.g., responsible for recognition of prior qualifications, main supporters of apprenticeships) and various commercial and third sector training providers.

Key Competencies Needed by Professionals

At the moment, there is no established framework of competences for supporting the transition of UAM to the adult system in Germany, although there is a growing portfolio of education programmes and various types of training aiming to build such competences. The discussion to follow builds on discussions with the professional community of actors in the region of associated partner City of Regensburg.

The great majority of actors in the system that has been described in the previous chapter are fully trained professionals, with full Master Level studies in social work, education, public administration, and law. Many of them can build on many years of practice in professional organisations or public administrations.

However, it is widely felt that these competences are insufficient to fully cope with the challenges of the new group of young refugees. Many

practitioners claim that there are many similarities with traditional groups of young clients, as, in the first place, them being adolescents. However, they are also vastly different, particularly regarding their insecure legal status of residence, language and background culture and socialisation. Also, there are specific dynamics of socio-psychological dynamics of migration, which need to be considered, as Irmela Wiesinger (2018) pointed out in a much-acclaimed article.

As all actors until recently and again during the Covid-19 crisis, worked to capacity, the resources for further training are scarce and the motivation for such training is low, as there is no clear political mission for such coordination and little individual benefit attached.

There is a consensus that more coordination between the systems is required. Currently, competences are specific to the respective sub system: pedagogic and educational for guardians of youth, educational for their teachers in school, medical and psychological on the side of specialised agencies and NGOs, which care for specific traumata, etc. For young adults, integration into professional training and work is the main concern, as is support for the general integration into society.

What is currently lacking is a specific competence in organising the transition process of the young adults. This transition implies multifactorial problems: individual development, potential psychological and medical problems (among them traumatisation), the general orientation in the society, making the right career choices and general life planning. Supporting success in school requires good knowledge of the school system and multiple potential educational pathways, particularly those who give the best chances of success, and yet are often unknown to the refugee youth.

To support integration to vocational training, a good knowledge of the professional transition system and dual apprenticeship system is required, including knowledge of the local economy and employers. Supporters of the transition should have knowledge of analysing talents and competences and on how to present them. Also, knowledge about continuing development of language competences is required. Finally, supporters of youth in transition must be well aware of the various volunteer support initiatives provided by the civil society. These are currently the backbone of refugee support, which fill the gaps left by the official institutions.

Obviously, this spectrum of competences is too wide for one person to cover in depth. Professionalisation of transition support services

should aim to develop at least some awareness of the general problems and opportunities in each field along with an overview of sources of information and access to specialised support structures.

Such a portfolio of competences is not currently part of any professional profile. Therefore, a programme to develop such a portfolio, as suggested by the CISOTRA project, although it is only a first step that needs to be further elaborated and evaluated in different national contexts, is innovative compared to the current status quo situation.

Findings from CISOTRA Qualitative Research

Besides an extensive study of literature, which has guided the initial development of the CISOTRA project, and which is documented on the website, the project has made the interaction with stakeholders a key activity within the project. Representatives of the associated partners (City Hall of Regensburg, a mid-sized city in the south east of Bavaria, UNESCO world heritage site and one of the most dynamic industrial regions in Germany and the City Hall of Munich, the capital city of the federal state of Bavaria) have participated in most activities, and stakeholders from civic initiatives, schools, companies and specialised organisations such as youth migration services have been in continuing contact with the project in various formats, like focus groups, training sessions, international expert exchanges and Advisory Boards. The following remarks are formed on the input of these stakeholders, while analysis and summary of these insights is the responsibility of the author.

- Overall, the system in Germany proved to be highly efficient in the immediate crisis response. Institutional capacities were adapted, and the civil society reacted with empathy, a surge in activity and an exceptionally high level of volunteerism.
- The transition of these ad hoc measures to a regular system of transition is more challenging. At macro level, a coherent/consistent migration policy in general and for young refugees has not yet been developed. The principle of avoiding 'pull factors' for more refugee migration is upheld and therefore the transition from refugee migration to the track of work migration is avoided as much as possible. This limits the scope and efficiency of all transition support measures, as applicants are subject to exceedingly long phases of uncertainty and threat of deportation. This is of-

ten the cause of existential fear on the side of the young refugees and concern and frustration on the side of the – often volunteer – supporters of young refugees.

- Vocational schools, together with apprenticeship providing companies, have been a driver of integration during the lifetime of the project. Many individual companies, as well as organisations like the chambers of the crafts, have pointed to the need for applicants for apprenticeships and the readiness of companies to take on young refugees. The companies, as well as the organisations, have therefore lobbied for the youth in many cases and have backed this up with practical support programmes, such as intercultural training for in-company tutors, consultancy, and others (as the Chamber of Commerce/Upper Palantine Lower Bavaria).[7]
- Most professionals can rely on academically trained support workers, such as social workers or psychologists. Teachers in vocational schools, however, find themselves confronted with a new group of students which has vastly different needs compared to their traditional students. While they describe the often extremely high motivation of the refugees as a benefit and motivation for themselves as teachers, they are not trained to provide language support and to deal with phenomena like traumatisation, complex re-orientation, or basic socialisation in Germany. Further training for teachers is offered, but less popular. Many tend to view the 'problem' as temporary. A high number of new staff from various backgrounds, often academics with experience in refugee support work, have been introduced to vocational schools as additional teaching staff with great success, contributing to intercultural opening of schools.
- In addition to that, many municipalities have supplemented their regular school programmes with social work and extracurricular activities.
- The system could not work in favour of the refugees without the support of civil society groups. While much of the state funded measures are implemented by traditional third sector organisations like Caritas, having the most expertise and infrastructure,

[7] https://www.ihk-niederbayern.de/bildung-und-qualifikation/start-ins-berufsleben/fluechtlinge/ausbildung-von-fluechtlingen-3683982.

'new' civil society support groups, like 'Campus Asylum,' 'Regensburger Hilfe für Flüchtlinge' and others fill the gaps in the support system. During the lifetime of CISOTRA, organising additional lessons for refugees in the Vocational Integration Classes was one of the activities, other activities, such as support in the orientation phase of integration (group consultancy as writing workshops and PhotoVoice) are also organised by volunteer organisations which professionalise themselves and have acquired project funds, scientific support, premises and at least some professional staff.

- As mentioned, despite many individual activities and good practices there is no consistent system of integration, as integration is not an aim of policy per se. Municipalities are challenged by the social consequences of non-integration and have therefore a strong motive for stepping in and providing overall coordination.
- Overall, the field is still developing, and the societal debate is far from finished, with political actors in favour of a holistic system gaining influence, despite the noisy populist propaganda. The development of an overall system, nevertheless, is a challenge which has to be met should the huge portfolio of individual extraordinarily successful initiatives and interventions become fully effective, human suffering mitigated and a peaceful and prosperous society preserved.

Relevant Good Practices

The further development of an effective and humane migration policy for young refugees can draw on numerous good practices which have been developed by public and civil actors in recent years. The research in the scope of CISOTRA has documented these practices in the WP 2 report (CISOTRA, 2018). For this overview, a few of them, which are relevant for various elements of the model of intervention that has been developed by CISOTRA, will be mentioned in the paragraphs to follow.

For the Educational Integration Element: Vocational Integration Classes (Staatsinstitut für Schulqualität und Bildungsforschung, 2019). The aim of this format within the vocational school system, usually complementing in-company training in the dual system, is to provide an integrated learning of language and basic vocational competences to youth at the secondary school age. Youth who cannot attend the regular vocational school programmes due to insufficient language competences

for a training placement (apprenticeship) in the dual system of vocational training can finish the basic secondary school exam and follow a highly flexible programme, adapted to individual needs of learners. The facilities of the regular vocational schools are being used, which facilitates transitions to the regular systems. The support and the distribution of students to classes on three different levels is organised according to an assessment of prior learning and competency level. The competences are built according to typical situations in training and employment; all learning should be relevant for future occupations and remarkably close to practice in employment and training.

Support for the Educational Element from the Civil Society Volunteers: Organisation of Extra Lessons for Students in Vocational Integration classes in Regensburg for these to pass the basic secondary school exam. About ten organisations joined forces to identify the need, organised facilities and joined individual support organisations and matched the young refugees with the volunteer teachers. The activity has been supported by the group of practitioners that met during the CISOTRA training for practitioners in 2018. About 30 volunteer teachers and about 150 students have benefited from it.

Support for the Orientation Phase: Writing Workshop and PhotoVoice Workshops as extracurricular activities for students in Vocational Integration classes. The practice was conceptually prepared and implemented by the CISOTRA project during the training for minors and young adults. The activity targeted the individual orientation of the young refugees. In A1 language level, photos taken by the students were a motivation for the first steps in written self-expression. This was continued by writing workshops on B 1 level. This activity was well evaluated by the students and was presented as the official contribution of the CISOTRA associated partner City Hall of Regensburg during the 'Intercultural Week 2020,' a traditional week of workshops, lectures, and other events, organised by the Regensburg Foreigners Council, the official advisory board for migration of the City of Regensburg, which includes 20 elected representatives of the migrant population in Regensburg. The results were presented in an exposition which saw the – given the Covid-19 limitations – high number of about 300 visitors. A catalogue documents the concept and results.

Coordination of Policies and Actor's Element: Munich Comprehensive Strategy for the Integration of Refugees. The plan, published in 2018, fo-

cuses on activities of the City Hall of Munich and is the framework for commissioning of interventions, orientation for all municipal institutions to assure a smooth integration of refugees into the City society and a transition to qualified employment, avoidance of alienation and social exclusion.

The plan has been elaborated as an internal 3-year project of the city hall to orient, develop, and mainstream the municipal policy of integration, based on earlier general integration concepts. The municipal concept claims to set its own standards as being interested in 'Integration from day 1' and activities also for those who finally are not accepted for permanent residence. Munich has actively offered participation in international resettlement activities for persons at risk along with other 50 German municipalities.

The concept presents a concept for a 'chain of education and training' which covers individual educational and training offers, targeted at sustainable integration in employment. Short and medium term aims include expansion of language learning, offers for those who could not obtain an apprenticeship, modular qualifications to access the labour market while assuring certified training, development of guidelines for municipal institutions, including the development of transition management up to the point of sustainable integration in qualified employment. Vocational schools are highlighted as potentially holistic places of learning and integration.

Engaging and Stabilisation element: Catholic Youth Support Service 'Lernwerkstatt.' 'Lernwerkstatt,' a modular system of low barrier measures for minors and young adults, including youth with a low perspective of residence. The special measure is commissioned by the municipal youth support service and Job Centre for young refugees and other migrants with social problems. Its average duration is generally 12 months. The concept is based on very individual work with the refugees (duration, schedule, areas of learning). This includes training in basic vocational areas.

Stabilisation and Orientation Element: PUR (Pupil Refugee) Consultancy for young refugees on school and training matters, psychosocial issues and housing, health, and institutions. City Hall of Regensburg, Youth Support Services. Open access social work provides accompaniment and support for young refugees on matters of school, training, housing, livelihood, and on how to deal with various institutions. Clearing and referral to other institutions and organisations (e.g., on health,

life support, recreation, sports). The offices are integrated to the Vocational School Centre, but work independently and all consultancy is strictly confidential. The office provides intercultural training, social training, and training for the prevention of violence, as well as expert interchange with other actors and leisure time offers.

Orientation Element: Youth Migration Services, Federal Government Programme (partly funded by ESF) commissioned to regional organisations in the third sector. Support of Youth with migration background, educating, advising, accompaniment in all relevant issues at more than 450 centres throughout Germany: Professional and free of charge consultancy with a variety of services and in different languages. Main areas of activity include individual support of integration, including the support plan and socio-pedagogical consultancy along a holistic approach which considers the prerequisites and resources of each person. Group formats to support integration and development of the individuals' personality. Work with parents, information on educational and vocational training pathways as well as expectations and requirements in the education and employment system. Fostering and appreciation of civil society engagement of youth with migration background.

Networking in the Socio-Spatial Environment. JMD participate and foster regional and local networks of all actors in migration support and intercultural opening of institutions and organisations specific for refugee youth, the pilot project 'jmdStart' consults refugee youth at 22 regional offices.

Support for Occupational Integration Element: Project 'Perfect Fit.' The measure aims to support businesses and apprentices to successfully finish an apprenticeship in the dual system by consulting and supporting both parties (businesses and migration background apprentices) The focus is on the cultural opening of businesses with assistance for businesses and apprentices. The measure offers information, qualification and individual support during the apprenticeship training. For business: advisory service during the apprenticeship training; support in finding new apprentices; sensitising for refugee subjects (flight/trauma/intercultural work); training seminars: how to be a good trainer, legal framework in hiring refugees, how to motivate apprentices. For apprentices: advisory service during the apprenticeship training; application management; weekly extra lessons. Funded by the City of Munich Employment and Qualification Program.

Conclusions and Recommendations from project CISOTRA Specific for Germany

From the description of the situation, stakeholder input at the events which have been implemented in CISOTRA in Germany and the analysis of the good practices, we can extract the following main recommendations for the various actors and decision makers in Germany on various level of government.

Recommendations Related to UAM

- The support system for UAM in Germany is particularly good and needs to be extended to young refugees.
- Guardians should be trained with an eye on consistent advocacy in the asylum application process.
- The social work perspective should be more closely joined with the perspective on work and training integration.
- Synergies with the general system of youth integration should be reflected and the reflection of commonalities and differences in the psychodynamics of young refugees and 'German' youth in need of support should be discussed.

Recommendations for Policy Makers

- A consistent migration policy needs to be developed, which recognises migration as a fact and overcomes an approach which tries to deter refugees in general while managing migration for humanitarian reasons in a way that assures the safety and well-being of the refugees while at the same time considering the specific economic and social opportunities and conditions in a highly integrated labour society.
- The municipal level of migration management needs to be hardened and better funded. Integration should be managed on a level where the challenges, solutions and actors are close together and can act on a face-to-face level with the opportunity for an agile development and adaptation of practices.
- A stronger role of coordinators for refugee policies is needed, as the current administrative structure is fragmented and coordinators, often on temporary contracts, lack the legal authority and responsibilities to coordinate the activities beyond the level of communication and networking.

- The market-based organisation of commissioning support services requires a strong coordination also from a financial and conceptual perspective. This can be aided by an investment of municipal own funds to the field.
- Policy on all levels has to accept the fact of a transnational society and stop assuming that migration is a temporary 'problem' rather than a given fact in modern society. This insight implies a pragmatic management of the phenomenon, independent from individual preferences. A policy which tends to conventionalise a growing share of 25% of the population with migration background more as a 'problem' rather than its citizenry will become ever more alienated from the real life.
- Nevertheless, since Germany still is a quite integrated industrial labour society with a high perceived standard of harmony and civil peace, the process of intercultural transformation of the society cannot be left to market forces alone but rather be accompanied by a broad societal reflection of the self-concept of a modern migration society. Therefore, value education, self-reflection, civic orientation, and participation must be a strong part of all policies for minors and young refugees in transition, as well as their resident peers, accompanied by a comprehensive transcultural opening of all state and societal institutions. The basis of such a society is still the industrial labour society as of which Germany is an outstanding example. The opportunities that Germany provides cannot be separated from the conditions of success of such a society. Therefore, the transition to work based learning and training must be the priority for the support system for young refugees, as opposed to keeping these in an uncertain situation within a bubble of (mostly well meaning) refugee support, which neither serves to fulfil the hopes of the refugees nor challenges them to reality check their own expectations for a life in the host country. Such adverbial or well-meaning exclusion from the hard facts of life in an industrial society can lead to alienation and radicalisation, which is unproductive for both sides.

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Chapter Nine

Experiences from Greece

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Overall National Context, Facts, and Legal Basis

Overall Context: Facts (and the Most Important Numbers)

Refugees consider Greece as a transfer state, a gateway to other European countries. However, due to the strict European laws considering the influx of refugees, it is common for them to stay in Greece for a period longer than desired. Compared to the 2018 report regarding unaccompanied minors, there has been an increase of 40% in the absolute numbers (3,010 in 2018, 4,222 in 2020). In addition, there has been a change in the ratio between boys and girls, with the latter now occupying a larger percentage compared to 2018. There are multiple entry points for refugees, and upon entry, they are met by the Greek authorities, the Asylum service, the Greek police, and the Coast Guard. More specific information can be found below.

As of 30 September 2020, 4,222 unaccompanied minors reside in Greece. Out of the total: 92.8% boys, 7.2% girls, 8.8% <14 yrs. old. 23% of UAC are from Pakistan, 39% from Afghanistan, 11% from Syria, and 27% from other countries. The total number of places in shelters for UAC is 1,797. 1,557 UAC are on the waiting list, of which 120 are in Reception and Identification Centres, and 226 in Protective Custody. The total number of UAC referrals received and processed between January 2016 and 30 September 2020 is 32,364.

Legal Basis or National Legislation, Relevant for Migrants

The legal framework and official procedure guidelines for unaccompanied minors are as follows:[1]

1. The competent authorities for the protection of dependent minors shall immediately take appropriate measures to ensure the neces-

[1] http://www.opengov.gr/ypes/?p=4665.

 Dermol, V. (Ed.) (2021). *Towards the actor coordination model* (pp. 147–161). ToKnowPress. https://doi.org/10.53615/978-83-65020-35-2/147-161

sary representation of the dependent minors to ensure the exercise of their rights and compliance with the obligations laid down herein. To this end, all public authorities and any third party informed in any way of the arrival or presence of an unexpected minor, inform without delay the Department for the Protection of Vulnerable Groups, Applicant Asylum Seekers of the General Directorate of Welfare. The latter shall take the necessary steps to appoint the Commissioner through the staff and the local competent prosecutor. The unaccompanied minor is immediately informed of the appointment with the Commissioner, who carries out his duties to ensure the best interests and the overall wellbeing of the child. The person acting as agent is replaced upon request. Persons whose interests might conflict with the interests of the unaccompanied minor cannot be defined as guardians. The competent authorities for the protection of unaccompanied minors regularly assess the suitability of the commissioners and the means necessary for the representation of the partners.

2. In the case of depended minors, and for as long as they remain in the territory, the competent authorities for the protection of them shall ensure:
   - to accommodate unaccompanied minors together with adult relatives, to find a prospective family, to stay in special centres for the accommodation of helpless minors, or to hospitality centres, provided there are suitable areas for it and always in the best interest of the child,
   - co-existence and coexistence of the siblings, considering the age, maturity and generally the interests of every minor,
   - changes in the place of residence of disabled children kept to a minimum.
3. Authorised authorities for the protection of disabled children may exceptionally place unaccompanied minors aged 16 or over in accommodation centres for adult applicants if this is in the best interests of the child in accordance with Article 17 hereof.
4. The competent authorities for the protection of unaccompanied minors shall seek the members of the family of the dependent child, possibly with the assistance of international or other relevant organisations as soon as possible, following the submission of international protection, while at the same time protecting its best interests. If the life or integrity of the minor or their close rela-

tives is threatened, especially if they reside in the country of origin, the collection, processing, and transmission of information concerning such persons is done in a secret manner in order to keep them safe. In case of non-submission or a final application for the expulsion of international protection, the provisions of Chapter C of Law 3907 (Nómos 3907, 2011) and Article 25 shall apply. The competent authorities for the protection of dependent minors shall ensure the application of the cases a, b and d of paragraph 2 of Article 19 A of Law B, based on the interest of the child, as added by paragraph 25 of Article 8 of Law 4332 (Nómos 4332, 2015).

5. Personnel dealing with cases of minors must have and continuously receive appropriate training on their needs. Such staff shall be obliged to protect the confidentiality of personal data of which they become aware in the course of their duties.

Minor Migrants in Transition to Adulthood: Situation and Challenges

The total number of unaccompanied minors and separated minors in Greece on 15 February 2020 was 5,424 – the highest number ever. Of these, 1,790 were in the Reception and Identification Centres of the islands and the Outpost. Seven months later, there were no more unaccompanied minors in the Island Reception and Identification Centres – from 1,790, the number had fallen to zero. It is noted that the number of unaccompanied minors on the islands had decreased by 54% before the arson that destroyed the facilities of the Reception and Identification Centre in Moria.

Positions in long-term inland accommodation structures increased by 30%. In 2019, these places showed a downward trend, with the result that while the number of unaccompanied minors in the country was smaller, a high number of unaccompanied minors remained in the Reception and Identification Centres. By the end of 2020, Greece achieved the goal of 2,000 unaccompanied minors in long-term accommodation structures for the first time since the outbreak of the refugee crisis. This goal had been repeatedly set by the European Commission for at least three years, but with no success. Finally, a new method for assessing underage has been introduced, which incorporates international guidelines, while at the same time improving the readiness of the operational mechanism to facilitate referral and detection of underage and not to delay procedures. Improving the operational mechanism and conduct-

ing the age determination was also something that the European Commission was urgently requesting and had not done so far.

Key Coordinating Actors

Actors (the Most Important in the Country)

State Actors

Greece is a party to the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees and a member of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) Executive Committee, which currently consists of 87 countries. It cooperates with the Greek government, non-governmental organisations (NGOS), the media and civil society to protect refugees and asylum seekers. The UNHCR's main governmental partner is the Ministry of Public Order and Citizens Protection (PSC) and its services, including the Asylum Service, the Appeal Authority, the First Reception Service, and the General Directorate of Welfare (Ministry of Labour, Social Security and Welfare).

The Greek Asylum Service started operating five years ago and quadrupled in size since June 2013: a total of 22 Regional Asylum Offices and Units have been established all over Greece. The Asylum Service operates Asylum Units in all Reception and Identification Centres (RICS) as well as in all pre-removal detention centres.

NGOS and Other Organizations

1. Arsis Guesthouse[2]
2. Charitable organisation of the Holy Archdiocese of Athens 'Apostoli (Mission)'[3]
3. Refugee Home Arsis[4]
4. World NGO Doctors of the World (Greece)[5]
5. International Medicine and Humanitarian Organisation Médecins Sans Frontières[6]
6. Structure of temporary accommodation of asylum seekers EKPOSPO 'Nostos'[7]

[2] http://arsis.gr/xenonas-asinodefton-anilikon/.
[3] http://www.mkoapostoli.com/?page_id=998.
[4] http://arsis.gr/estia-prosfigon/.
[5] http://mdmgreece.gr/our-mission/.
[6] https://www.msf.gr/association.
[7] http://www.nostos.org.com/site/gr/about_us.html.

7. Greek Red Cross[8]
8. Greek Council for Refugees[9]
9. The non-profit company 'Ena paidi, enas kosmos' (A Child, A World)[10]
10. The non-profit organisation 'Iatriki Paremvasi' (Medical Intervention)[11]
11. Idryma Neolaias kai Dia Viou Mathisis (Youth and Lifelong Learning Foundation) (EIN)[12]
12. Disease Control and Prevention Centre[13]
13. Temporary Residence Centre for Non-Natives – Lavrion[14]
14. The non-profit organisation of special care and protection of mother and child 'Kivotos tou Kosmou' (Ark of the World)[15]
15. The non-governmental organisation 'Aitima' (Request)[16]
16. The non-governmental organisation 'Metadrasi'[17]
17. Ecumenical Refugee Programme[18]
18. Syllogos Merimnis Anilikon (Juvenile Care Association)[19]
19. United Nations High Council for Refugees (UNHCR)[20]
20. The Praksis non-governmental organisation (Development, Social Support and Medical Cooperation Programs)[21]
21. Unaccompanied Minors' Housing 'Stegi Plus' (House Plus)[22]
22. Hostel for the temporary accommodation of asylum seekers 'Mellon' (Future)[23]

[8] http://www.redcross.gr/default.asp?pid=7.
[9] http://www.gcr.gr/index.php/en/about-gcr/what-we-do.
[10] http://www.paidi-kosmos.gr/
[11] http://medin.gr/
[12] http://www.indeivim.gr/.
[13] http://www.keelpno.gr/.
[14] http://www.redcross.gr/default.asp?pid=122&la=1
[15] http://kivotostoukosmou.org/kivotos/content/view/32/60/lang,el/.
[16] http://aitima.gr/index.php/gr/.
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[19] https://www.sma-athens.org/.
[20] https://www.unhcr.gr/.
[21] http://www.praksis.gr/el/.
[22] https://stegiplus.wordpress.com/.
[23] http://tvxs.gr/news/kala-nea/dimioyrgia-neoy-ksenona-prosorinis-filokseniasaitoynton-Asylo.

23. To Hamogelo tou Paidiou (Smile of the Child)[24]
24. EKKA (National Centre for Social Solidarity) – Administration of Housing Claims for Asylum Seekers and Unaccompanied Minors[25]

Cooperation and Coordination among Different Actors

About the Directorate of Social Integration of the Greek Republic for the Care and Integration of Migrants, and Its Coordination with Different Actors

The operational goal of the Directorate of Social Integration within the Ministry of Immigration and Asylum (Proedrikó Diátagma 106, 2020, Art. 23) is planning, monitoring of implementation and the actual implementation of integration policy and respective national strategy for social integration of legal third country nationals, as well as the respective sectoral policies and social inclusion programmes, in cooperation with Ministries, local authorities, international organisations and civil society actors, which develop actions in the field of social inclusion.

Actions and measures that are designed and implemented aim at the integration of the beneficiary immigrant and refugee population and are causally related to the needs of each group:

- In the case of the newly arrived refugee population that has received international protection status, integration aims at the smooth transition from the protection regime to the entry into the host society, through programs that support their successful and rapid integration into the Greek society.
- In the case of immigrants, integration aims at their faster and more efficient licensing, their return to legal status, ensuring their non-discriminatory access to health, insurance, employment, and education, improving the services provided to them as well as ensuring their public participation.

The Directorate of Social Integration cooperates with:

- Ministries;
- Local government bodies (Municipalities, local development companies);

[24] http://www.hamogelo.gr/.
[25] http://www.ekka.org.gr/.

- European Agencies (European Integration Network, European Migration Network, European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, European Economic and Social Committee, European Committee of the Regions, European Commission against Racism);
- International organisations (United Nations, International Organisation for Migration, International Organisation for Intergovernmental Consultation on Migration, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe, Council of Europe);
- Civil society actors (Immigrant and Refugee Communities);
- Immigration and Refugee Integration Councils of the Municipalities of the country;
- Non-Governmental Organisations active in the field of immigration and the social integration of immigrants and refugees.

Key Competencies Needed for Professionals, Ensuring the Acquisition of Needed Competencies

Within refugee accommodation structures, the largest part for the care and coverage of the needs of the population is covered by the NGOs. The role of NGO workers is, depending on their position, to provide protection, food, water, shelter, health care in situations of global humanitarian crisis and emergency (e.g., civil strife, poverty, disaster).

Due to many responsibilities of the workers in refugee accommodation structures or in similar structures, but also situations that may be faced by those who work there, international literature often states that working conditions are particularly difficult and stressful. More specifically, working conditions, which have become synonymous with sources of employee stress, are described as:

- physically demanding and unpleasant,
- heavy workload, many hours, chronic fatigue,
- lack of privacy and personal space,
- lack of sufficient resources, personal time, logistical support, and skills to do the job expected of them, and
- constant exposure to danger, chronic fear, chronic uncertainty.

Therefore, apart from the basic knowledge regarding the law, psychology, social work, health, social integration, etc., professionals need

competences that will help them work more effectively and without damaging themselves psychologically. Personal psychological competences that would be vital in this aspect are resilience, emotional stability, positive attitude, openness to experience, empathy, creative problem-solving, and stress management competences.

Findings from CISOTRA Qualitative Research

- Poor efficiency of organisations is the result of a project-based way of working that prevents the development of sustainable and systemic solutions.
- Efficiency of organisations could be improved through study visits abroad; transfer of knowledge and practices from the international environment (e.g., adaptation to the situation in Slovenia); joint national or international projects; regular joint meetings.
- Training for professionals should become a permanent practice. Professionals who work directly with UMA and young adults shall have empathy, social skills, know the methods for work with young migrants and know how to motivate them.
- Young migrants need a holistic support system.
- It is necessary to provide better protection for minors who choose to leave Greece (ensuring safe transition to the target country).
- Several initiatives and concrete solutions are needed in the field of transition of minor migrants to adulthood – main highlights:
    1. It is necessary to establish support programmes for transition of unaccompanied children into adulthood. Support programmes need to be focused on strengthening autonomy.
    2. Even before they turn 18, visits to institutions that could help them with empowerment (visit, get in touch, get to know people there) should be organised.
    3. It is important that adequate accommodation and care are provided even after they reach the age of 18.

Relevant Good Practices

Welcommon Refugees Community & Hosting Centre[26]

The Welcommon Refugees Community & Hosting Centre constitutes a comprehensive and integrated model addressing the refugee issue,

[26] http://welcommon.gr/en/what-we-do/for-the-refugees/.

which and immediately covers all the basic needs of the refugees arriving in Greece, aiming not only at housing them, but also at empowering and including them in the local community through capacity building and facilitation of their active participation and cooperation with the local population, providing adequate infrastructure and quality services, applying best practices with respect to the dignity of the refugees. Unfortunately, funding from the European Commission ceased and Welcommon now operates with the help of donations.

What Welcommon offers to the refugees:

- Decent and safe housing, food, and coverage of basic needs.
- Psycho-social support.
- Primary medical/health care and systematic support (medical records file, interpreting, escort) for secondary care, if necessary.
- Non-formal education of children as well as adults, such as: continuous and innovative language courses (Greek, Arabic, English, German and more), painting, music, photography, theatre, creative activities for adults and children, sports, dancing.
- Preparation of the children, who have been out of school for many years, to be able to return to school soon.

Helios (Hellenic Integration System)[27]

Helios (Hellenic Integration System) is a pilot project aimed at examining the possibilities of implementing decentralised integration policies for refugees and immigrants. It is implemented under the coordination of the Ministry of Immigration Policy in collaboration with the Municipalities of Leivadia and Thebes and the International Organisation for Migration.

This innovative programme exploits measures that are already being implemented, such as education, financial assistance, housing, combining them with new supportive actions related to working life, social ties, and social participation.

During the pilot phase, the actions concern a sample of a population of refugees and immigrants, about 80 people in Leivadia and 40 in Thebes. The two municipalities offer different accommodation options, apartments in Leivadia and Open Hospitality Structure in Thebes.

[27] https://government.gov.gr/parousiasi-programmatos-helios-gia-tin-kinoniki-entaxi-prosfigon-ke-metanaston/.

The initial duration of the programme was set at six months, with the option of extending it for another six months if necessary. It was also crucial to ensure adequate funding. The aim of the pilot project was to create a model for the integration of refugees and immigrants that can be applied across the country.

I_Ref_SOS – Innovative Response to Facilitate Social Assistance for Young Refugees[28]

Within the framework of the ERASMUS+ Youth Programme, the Greek organisation for unemployment (OAED) has designed and implemented a project aimed at developing an effective reception system, social support and smooth employment of young refugees aged 16–24.

This was the project 'I.REF.SOS-Innovative Response to Facilitate Social Assistance for Young Refugees,' coordinated by the OAED, with the participation of the Educational Policy Development Centre (KANEP), the Ministry of Education of Turkey, country of entry of refugees, and the DEKRA Akademie Training Organisation in Germany, a country of potential final settlement of refugees.

The central idea behind the project is to take advantage of the time required from the arrival of new refugees in the countries of entry until the time of their final settlement in the host countries.

As stated in a relevant OAED statement, this time remains untapped by the official mechanisms of the states receiving mass refugee populations.

With the project 'I.REF.SOS-Innovative Response to Facilitate Social Assistance for Young Refugees,' the Agency sought to create a new approach to vocational training for the newly arrived, enriched with innovative educational counselling, mentoring, language and intercultural training and career guidance for trainers and trainees, which will be designed and implemented at a pilot level for new refugees who have applied for asylum. It attached particular importance to the evaluation and wide dissemination of this work and its conclusions.

The central aim of all partners was to incorporate these new methods and approaches, not only in the strategies and practices of the organisations involved, but also in the country policies to tackle the problem of newly arrived refugees of this age.

[28] http://www.iefimerida.gr/news/402066/programma-gia-omali-ergasiaki-entaxi-neon-prosfygon-etoimazei-o-oaed.

The Project had a two-year duration (2017–2019) and was funded by the European Commission under ERASMUS+ Youth Sector – Key Action 2: Youth Partnership Strategies.

The Greek Ministry of Education[29]

Education is a vital step in helping to integrate refugee and migrant youths into the Greek society, and at the same time in protecting fundamental human rights. In 2016–2017, the Greek Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs in cooperation with international organisations such as UNHCR, UNICEF, and IOM started educational integration of migrant children in public schools, in specialised afternoon classes. Approximately 3,500 children aged 6–17 were in formal education in school year 2016–2017, in reception classes for children residing in temporary sites, as well as those living in urban accommodation.

For the school year 2017–2018, the Ministry aimed to integrate all refugee children in school by putting emphasis on the gradual integration to morning zone classes. Specialised reception afternoon classes were maintained, where necessary, for all children to have access to education. According to the Ministry, 2,493 children aged 6–16 living in urban accommodation had enrolled in schools throughout the country in all school levels and the number was growing. School education for 2,360 children living in Accommodation Centres in mainland was under preparation. When the project had been completed, almost 1,000 schools in Greece provided education to refugee children.

Employers Together for Integration[30]

On 23 May 2017, the Commission launched the initiative Employers together for integration at the occasion of the second meeting of the European Dialogue on Skills and Migration, to give visibility to what employers are doing to support the integration of refugees and other migrants into the labour market.

Employers can join this initiative by describing their current and future actions to support the integration of refugees and other migrants in their workforce and beyond.

[29] https://www.minedu.gov.gr/publications/docs2017/16_06_17_Epistimoniki_Epitropi_Prosfygon_YPPETH_Apotimisi_Protaseis_2016_2017_Final.pdf

[30] https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/what-we-do/policies/legal-migration/european-dialogue-skills-and-migration/integration-pact_en.

The successful integration of third-country nationals in the EU labour market represents an opportunity for our societies. When effectively integrated, they can help improve the functioning and performance of the labour market, as well as support fiscal sustainability. In this process, the role of economic and social partners, and of employers, is crucial. Several initiatives have been initiated by employers, trade unions, chambers of commerce in many member states.

The European Social fund is the main funding instrument supporting labour market inclusion, including of migrants. The Asylum Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF) can also provide funding for preparatory measures to access the labour market.

Greece-Specific CISOTRA Project Conclusions and Recommendations

Unaccompanied refugee youths can be characterised through three central elements: first, they are without a guardian, mainly adolescents and refugees. As refugees leaving their home country, they all share basic experiences of a 'loss': loss of home, property, friends, family, school, cultural identity, habits, status, etc. (Berman, 2001).

What is more, experiences of trauma are often an essential part of their daily experience in their native country (Hicks et al., 1993). Many of the refugees experienced war, physical or sexual mistreatment, brutal death of a loved one, stay in refugee camps, etc. (Ajdukovic & Ajdukovic, 1998; Weine et al., 1998; Barrett et al., 2000). Additionally, the journey to the host country can be traumatising, due to difficult or dangerous travelling and living circumstances, or dependency on human traffickers and smugglers (Derluyn & Broekaert, 2005). Even in the host country, these youths can experience traumatising events, such as the interviews as part of the asylum procedure, life in welcome centres, systemic racism, and so on.

Furthermore, as refugees, they must start a new life in a new, unknown country, where they are not familiar with the language, social services, bureaucracy and institutions, local habits and customs, et cetera. Finding a role and position in this new society and adapting to a new culture and way of life can as a result be a challenging and stressful process (Guarnaccia & Lopez, 1998; Geltman et al., 2000).

Finally, these adolescents often quickly realise that achieving the goals and plans they carried with them to the new country will be extremely challenging, especially when they learn about the limited prob-

ability of obtaining a permit to stay in the host country. Since most of these unaccompanied refugee youths are adolescents, they must complete the important developmental task of forming their identity, which involves, amongst other things, personality development, sexual identity development, social skills acquisition and development, etc. (Derluyn et al., 2005).

For young refugees, dealing with traumatic experiences and staying without a guardian in an unfamiliar territory and society, it can be extremely complicated to emerge victorious in these vital developmental tasks (Ajdukovic, 1998; Bruce, 2001).

Also, due to their living circumstances as separated youths, some of them must develop their independence, but this is only a fragile independence, characterised by premature maturation which requires tools such as resilience, and which often contrasts strongly with the situation of dependence they encounter when they arrive at the host country (Derluyn et al., 2005). What is more, they often suffer from a lasting loss and deep loneliness. The list of psychological consequences for a minor refugee transitioning to adulthood is endless. However, there are still practical issues that need to be addressed in Greece. The focus groups and interviews that were held can shed light on these issues.

From the focus groups and interviews that were used to gather data from young refugees and youth workers, we can conclude the following:

- Basic needs such as housing need to be addressed for many refugees, and unaccompanied minors specifically. The transition to adulthood is quite challenging in this regard, as young adults are usually pressured to find accommodation, which often results in cohabitation with much older adults.
- There is a dire need for support regarding language learning, competency acquisition, integration in the local labour market and job search.
- The Greek bureaucracy is often a maze for a young adult who is trying to navigate it, even for local youth. There is a need to help in navigating unaccompanied minors and young adults through this complicated but necessary road.
- Unaccompanied minors during their transition to adulthood need to be empowered and motivated to strengthen their autonomy to successfully integrate into the local society.

- All the actors who are responsible for the care, inclusion, and transition to adulthood need to cooperate more and join forces to accomplish their goal more effectively.
- The communication between refugees and local population needs to be strengthened, as locals still view refugees as a threat to local culture.

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Chapter Ten

Experiences from Italy

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Overall National Context, Facts, and Legal Basis

Overall Context: Facts (and the Most Important Numbers)

Italy has been UAMS main entry point to Europe over the last years. Most UAMS coming to Italy are males, between 15–17 years. The report from the International Organization for Migrants (2018) shows that, once in Italy, the majority reported to be willing to stay in the country (79%); and a few reported the intention to reach Germany (4%), France (3.8%), the United Kingdom (3.6%) and other European countries. However, the percentage of those who feel Italy as a country of destination is much smaller.

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Some data about the arrivals of UAMS to Italy between 2014 and 2020: 13,026 (2014), 12,450 (2015), 25,846 (2016), 15,779 (2017), 3,536 (2018), 1,680 (2019), 2,566 (until sept 2020). Most UAMS that arrived to Italy were males and 17 years old.[1] In June 2019, a total of 7,272 unaccompanied children (93% boys and 7% girls) were present and registered in different types of accommodation. Most of all registered UASC at the end of June 2019 were in shelters run by state authorities and nonprofit entities (79% of the total in second-level reception centres and 5% in first-level reception centres), while 6% were in private accommodations – family care arrangements (UNHCR, UNICEF and IOM, 2019b).

Legal basis or National legislation, Relevant for Migrants

On 7th of April 2017, Italy adopted a new legislation for the protection of unaccompanied minors. The Law No. 47, entered into force on 6th of May 2017 (Legge 7 aprile 2017, n. 47) and represents the first example of an innovative and comprehensive legal instrument adopted by an EU-member State and relating to the rights of the unaccompanied foreign minors coming from non-EU-member States (without Italian or other EU member State citizenship). This law reinforces prohibition against expelling or refusing entry to unaccompanied children. The law recognises special vulnerabilities of unaccompanied children and guarantees them the same rights and protection afforded to Italian and other European children. The law requires identity procedures to be carried out on arrival of an unaccompanied child in Italy, and an inquiry to be conducted to determine what future actions will be in the child's best interests. Identification procedures should be concluded within ten days and be carried out in primary reception facilities. Facilities must meet minimum standards to ensure the child is adequately accommodated and their fundamental rights protected. The law provides that unaccompanied children must have access to the Italian National Health Service during their time in Italy and be admitted to educational institutions. They also have the right to be informed about legal representation, which should be provided free of charge, funded by the state. Other articles of the Zampa law amend or introduce procedures regarding family reunification, the provision of residency permits, access

[1] https://www.statista.com/statistics/623525/unaccompanied-migrant-children-arrivals-to-italy/.

to foster care, the training and appointment of guardians, and assistance for victims of human trafficking.

Although this law represents a positive step and an example for other countries, ensuring its effective implementation is likely to prove difficult. Providing unaccompanied children with sufficient accommodation, guardianship, health care and education requires, among other things, sufficient funding and capacity. Unfortunately, the quality and availability of these services in many places in Italy continue to fall below the standards envisioned (Lelliott, 2018)

In addition, there is the Decree Law No. 113 of 4 October 2018 (Decreto-legge 4 ottobre 2018, n. 113) – converted, with amendments, into Law No. 132 of 1 December 2018 (the 'Salvini Decree') (Legge 1 dicembre 2018, n. 132), which eliminated humanitarian protection and enrolment in the Register of Municipalities for young migrants reaching adulthood.

On October 5, 2020, the Italian Council of Ministers in Parliament approved the amendments of the so-called 'security decrees' that had deeply modified the rules on the reception of asylum seekers, those on rescue at sea, citizenship, and asylum in Italy.

The new 'immigration decree' reintroduces the form of humanitarian protection provided by the 1998 Consolidated Act on Immigration. The so called 'special protection' permit is granted to foreigners who demonstrate serious reasons, in particular of a humanitarian nature or 'resulting from constitutional or international obligations of the Italian state.' The protection lasts for two years and is not a mere extension of the permits for special cases introduced by the first security decre (Legge 1 dicembre 2018, n. 132).

Residence permits for special protection, for disasters, for elective residence, for the acquisition of citizenship or the status of stateless person, for sports activities, for artistic activities, for religious reasons, for assistance to minors, become convertible into a residence permit for work reasons, 'where the requirements are met.'

Article 1 of the new current Government Decree also introduces a new principle of non-refoulement or repatriation to a state where human rights are systematically violated and prevents the repatriation of those who have a well-established life in Italy.

The ban on registering asylum seekers at the municipal registry office, with possible issue of an identity document valid for three years, is also removed. In July, the consult, which defined the rule prohibiting the registration of asylum seekers as unconstitutional following ap-

peals made by many asylum seekers throughout Italy, also intervened on this point.

The *Sprar/Siproimi reception system* changes its name once again and becomes the Reception and Integration System. In fact, the widespread reception system managed by municipalities is restored as a priority system, also accessible for asylum seekers and not only for the most vulnerable cases, minors, and beneficiaries of international protection. In addition, the first level services for applicants for international protection, which include material reception, health care, social and psychological assistance, linguistic and cultural mediation, Italian language courses, and legal and territorial orientation services need to be distinguished from the second level services that aim at integration and include work orientation and vocational training. Membership of the system, which is managed by the municipalities, will always be voluntary and there are no plans to abolish the Prefectural Reception System, the one that gave birth to the Extraordinary Reception Centres (Cas), at the centre of scandals for living conditions below minimum standards.

Minor Migrants in Transition to Adulthood: Situation and Challenges

At the age of majority, UAMS are not under the 'protection system' anymore. However, according to the law No. 47 (Legge 7 aprile 2017, n. 47, Art. 13.2), reaching the age of eighteen, the minor has the possibility to continue, not later than age of twenty-one, the integration process with the permission from juvenile courts and the request to and support of the Social Services ('Servizi Sociali'), which allow for completing the integration process initiated by the minor subject even after the age of eighteen.

The former UAMS turning 18 face several risks, among which it is possible to list:

- Loss of the right of non-refoulement
- Loss of the right of non-expulsability
- Loss of the right to unconditional accommodation
- Loss of rights and guarantees linked to being a child

Of course, there are many factors that can contribute to make the step less traumatic and easier to overcome:

- Educational level

- Access to employment
- Housing independence
- Friendly and supportive relationships

To summarise the situation, it is possible to observe the following.

The first and most important *obstacle in the transition to adulthood* relates to difficulties in obtaining the necessary documents to be able to remain in Italy, above all the exceptionally long waiting times and the numerous and difficult steps required to obtain a residence permit. Of course, it is important to consider that there is an extremely limited window of time for most UASC due to their age (16–17 years old) upon arrival in Italy to equip themselves with the necessary tools (literacy, obtaining a middle school certificate, technical and professional training) and to become independent. Another common problem that emerges is the non-recognition of professional skills acquired in the country of origin. If we consider that most of the young migrants arrived in Italy have experienced violence, exploitation, and discrimination, it is easy to understand how difficult is for them to trust authorities, to build and to keep in mind their life projects. Furthermore, in some Regions the reception facilities and support network are not as developed as in other parts of the country, and so the opportunity to offer concrete help during time can be compromised.

But in this situation, we also have to consider that, despite the difficulties, there are many examples of *factors that favour a good transition.* To summarise them, we can affirm that:

To fight the risk of exploitation and exclusion, support to young adults when leaving reception facilities is crucial.

Law No. 47 (Legge 7 aprile 2017, n. 47) equips Italy with an advanced normative framework for the recognition of the rights and protection of UAMS in transition. This law reaffirms the absolute principle of non-refoulement, introduces new provisions on identification measures, provides for the creation of a social file for each future adult, and introduces the new role of the volunteer guardian as well as provisions to facilitate the realisation of the right to education and health.

Article 13 is particularly important for the purposes of this research because it introduced the possibility for Juvenile Courts to place former UASC under continued protection by the social services until the age of 21, to allow them to complete the inclusion pathways already begun.

As reminded in the report *At a crossroads: Unaccompanied and sep-*

arated children in their transition to adulthood in Italy (UNICEF, UNHCR and IOM, 2019a), a successful transition to adulthood, social inclusion and recovery from past traumas are intricately connected with the reception experience, whose benefits can be positively accrued. In the case of girls and young women, the inclusion in specific protection pathways and the strict rules attached to them may open or hinder many opportunities for social inclusion. Formal and informal relationships – both with adults and between peers – play a fundamental role in UASCS' and former UASC's transition to adulthood. Since the beginning of the inclusion process, educators in the reception facilities (or teachers in the Italian language schools or CPIAS) have played a key role. In addition, volunteer guardians have a positive role too, since they can support minors in finding their place within the social context in which they are defining their transition pathway and continue to act as a reference person, also when they turn 18.

To end, it is important to consider school and vocational training as a key step in the successful process of social inclusion. Similarly, work grants in Italy are viewed positively as a bridge to access employment, which is crucial for both unaccompanied foreign minors and adults.

Key Coordinating Actors

Actors (the Most Important in Italy)

State actors and other main actors:

- *The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs* – Directorate General of Immigration and Integration Affairs is responsible for the registration of unaccompanied children and carries out family tracing of unaccompanied or separated children.
- *Police and other law enforcement agencies* are the main actors who initially engage with unaccompanied children and carry out the identification and placement procedures. They include the Coast Guard, Financial Police, and the Navy
- *Office of Immigration* is the body responsible for issuing documentation certifying the legitimacy of the child's presence as a migrant in the country, and receives the request for asylum
- *Regional and local authorities.* By law, regions have the task of establishing minimum requirements necessary for the provision of services and the management of residential care facilities for chil-

dren, but in doing so must still comply with the minimum requirements set at national level

- *Local social services* have the duty to report on unaccompanied children living in children's care facilities to the Juvenile Court
- *The Prefecture* is a body that represents the national government at provincial level and acts as a territorial Office of the Government regarding coordination of activities, relating to the procedures for first entry and assistance to unaccompanied children, between the Immigration Offices, regional, and local authorities.

Non-governmental organisations in Italy dealing with cooperation with developing countries must obtain recognition from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to benefit from the contributions of Italian cooperation.

AICS – the Italian Agency for Development Cooperation [2] is one of key innovations established by the Italian law on international cooperation (Legge 11 agosto 2014, n. 125). The Agency began operating in January 2016, with the aim of aligning Italy with its principal European and global partners in the endeavour for development. Its basic model reflects the one used in the main European countries, and it must comply with the demand for more professional and innovative forms of cooperation, involving the methodological flexibility necessary in a continuously evolving scenario.

The key themes of the future are an equal distribution of wealth, guaranteed access to quality healthcare and education, and environmental sustainability. These are the challenges that cooperation should tackle and engage with, demonstrating a new 'economy of human promotion,' conceived to involve public and private agents, uniting culture, education, employment, rights, business, and community, and get inspired by European and Italian models. Moreover, international cooperation should provide concrete answers to men, women and children that flee from war and poverty.

Educational institutions, CPIA (Centri Provinciali di Istruzione per gli adulti). The CPIAS are Italian Public Schools that promote education of Italian and foreign young people and adults. They are a type of autonomous school institutions, articulated in territorial service networks to reach the greatest number of potential beneficiaries. Each

[2] https://www.aics.gov.it/.

CPIA, as part of its annual programming, can organise courses linked to curricular and extra-curricular projects, also in collaboration with other Institutions. The CPIAS offer literacy and Italian language learning courses for foreigners with A2 certification and 2nd level courses, aimed at obtaining a 2nd level secondary school diploma (former evening courses).

National protection system for asylum seekers and refugees (SPRAR) or other dedicated child facilities. The Protection System for Asylum Seekers and Refugees (SPRAR) is a network of local authorities that access the National Fund for Asylum Policies and Services within the available resources to implement integrated reception projects. At a territorial level, local authorities, with the valuable support of the third sector, guarantee 'integrated reception' interventions that go beyond the mere distribution of food and accommodation, also providing complementary information, accompaniment, assistance, and guidance measures, through the construction of individual paths of socio-economic integration.

CoopDedalus.[3] Dedalus, a specific actor in the region of Naples, has developed a specific interest in the problems related to migration flows, carrying out research activities and innovative forms of intervention with the aim of promoting social and work integration, especially for minors, young people, and women in difficulty. For this reason, it creates low-threshold social protection services for non-EU prostitutes, information desks, 'on-call' cultural mediation services and manages a shelter for women in difficulty. The same track was also developed in other areas of social work, such as projects in favour of minors and young people in situations of unemployment, marginalisation, and deviance, managing territorial education services, pre-training, social accompaniment, and job orientation.

Communication/cooperation among different actors has been held in different ways:

- National Information System for Unaccompanied Minors (SIM). This system takes the form of a census information system, aimed at recording the entry of the minor into the national territory, regardless of their status as an applicant for international protection, and to monitor their subsequent reception path. System

[3] http://www.coopdedalus.it/.

allows all involved parties (police, regions, municipalities, communities, and tribunals) to access a shared database where each, according to their competence and with respect to data protection, may enter, read, and update the information on children (arrival, age, identification procedures and papers, movements within Italy, basic information on family tracing, activation of protection procedures, and integration). The SIM also records information concerning missing unaccompanied foreign minors, namely the date and place of disappearance, as well as all previous reports of disappearance or tracing (European Migration Network, 2020).

- Different projects have been held to support coordination among actors, with aim to help minors to access the labour market at age 18 – e.g., Doti Project and Giovani Donne Project (Connect, 2014).
- Never Alone, for a possible tomorrow:[4] an Italian initiative promoting both the autonomy and inclusion of young migrants in full compliance with the respect of children's rights, whose purpose is to create a new culture of reception. Nine foundations joined their efforts in the initiative – to promote the autonomy and inclusion of young migrants in full compliance with the respect of children's rights: Fondazione Cariplo, Compagnia di San Paolo, Fondazione CON IL SUD, Enel Cuore, Fondazione CRT-Cassa di Risparmio di Torino, Fondazione Cassa di Risparmio di Cuneo, Fondazione Cassa di Risparmio di Padova e Rovigo, Fondazione Monte dei Paschi di Siena and Fondazione Peppino Vismara. At the centre of this collaboration is determination to promote innovative solutions for the reception, integration and accompanying to adulthood of children from abroad and to help create greater awareness on this issue, both among the public opinion and the National and European institutions. Never Alone is part of the European program EPIM – European Program on Integration and Migration, whose results are collected, validated, and disseminated through an active monitoring system at National and European level that allows the identification of the implemented best practices and that promotes their on-line availability for the benefit of all Countries and Nations committed in the reception of young foreigners.

[4] https://minoristranieri-neveralone.it/.

Cooperation and Coordination among Different Actors

In recent years, the change in the phenomenon of migration and the new paradigms on the theme of inclusion and integration have led many regions to adapt their laws in order to better react to the constantly changing reality. In general, the Regions have functions of planning, of coordination and evaluation of policies and allocation of financial resources for their full implementation, as well as a central role in defining welfare policies and access to social rights.

The most recent regional regulations provide for a greater centrality of municipalities in the exercise of functions related to immigration issues. Local governments, in fact, are no longer conceived exclusively as terminals of regional policies, but as true protagonists of their elaboration and implementation, particularly regarding welfare interventions.

The measures that Regions and Local Authorities are called upon to deal with extend from health, educational and social care to teaching of the Italian language, valorisation of the culture of origin, cultural mediation in services, training courses, to access to housing and job placement. In this way, an attempt is made to improve the coordination between the authorities of the various levels as much as possible to support UAMS.

The creation and enhancement of opportunities for beneficiaries of protection and citizens are important to contribute to the development of a sense of belonging and stability, but also for the exchange and mutual understanding. To this end, the support to meeting initiatives between holders of protection and citizens, socialisation opportunities such as sports, artistic and cultural events, but also forms of association and volunteering must be seen as important opportunities to promote integration. In this sense, participation of the holders of protection in voluntary activities is particularly important and is characterised by many advantageous aspects. Through volunteering, in fact, the holders can strengthen their sense of 'belonging' to Italy, actively contributing to the collective welfare of the host society by providing their time, skills and know-how.

It is important that holders of protection are involved in sports and cultural activities in the place of residence, as well as joining recreational and sports associations in the places of residence or stay.

The objective is to implement policies and tools through which the persons enjoying protection can immediately express themselves as protagonists in the places where they live. In particular:

- Strengthen the voluntary initiatives already present in many local realities to facilitate their dissemination throughout the country, also because of the latest regulatory changes in the field.
- Include the opportunity to participate in solidarity initiatives (volunteer work, public service, civil service) as useful tools for the integration process, also exploring the possibility of launching experimental projects of social utility work to be implemented in public and non-profit organisations.
- To put in place opportunities for meeting and socialisation involving civil society, offering opportunities for refugees and locals to meet and socialise, also supporting forms of association among the people received.
- Activate socialisation paths for minors through access to sports activities, using existing opportunities (Protocol on by using existing opportunities (Ministry of the Interior-CONI Protocol) and identifying new interventions.
- Encourage contribution of the owners, individually or in association, in the definition of asylum policies, such as their participation in the Territorial Councils for Immigration.
- Promoting activities in the field of art and entertainment in which Italian citizens and holders of protection actively participate.

In this regard, protocols for voluntary activities are a tool used for cooperation and coordination between authorities in support of UAMS, through which the Prefectures sign agreements with local authorities, other public entities, or bodies of the Third Sector to involve migrants in public utility activities in favour of the local community.

The need to promote the extension of volunteer activities, already provided within the SPRAR, responds to the line of intervention of the Ministry of Interior in accordance with the needs expressed by local administrators to overcome the condition of 'inactivity' during the reception period, which has a negative impact on the host social fabric, sometimes generating intolerance from the population. The importance of involving foreign migrants in 'useful' activities, reactivating personal resources, creating concrete opportunities for aggregation and confrontation with the local population allows to prevent the risk of developing passive attitudes of welfare and distrust of the system.

This type of initiative, which involves both institutional bodies and

third sector and private social organisations (from trade unions to training centres, from the managing bodies of reception facilities to cultural, sports, environmental, artistic, recreational, religious and voluntary associations), represents a concrete opportunity for beneficiaries to socialise, discover the territory, improve knowledge of local customs and traditions, cultural exchange, promotion of values such as participation, respect, freedom of expression, the respect, freedom of expression, inclusion, and a real laboratory of professional training.

Key Competencies Needed for Professionals, Ensuring the Acquisition of Needed Competencies

One of the main objectives and responsibilities of professionals working with unaccompanied foreign minors is to guarantee the protection of their rights and make sure that they are respected and integrated into society. To understand and effectively take care of migrants, it is necessary to consider their cultural affiliations, their ways of thinking, but also their migration experience.

From a psychological perspective, it is imperative to provide a setting where they feel welcomed and create spaces where they can express their needs and desires. Good communication is also essential in constructing a 'working alliance' with them, especially at their arrival, when they are in the greatest need of information.

On the legal side, the professional must ensure that the rights of UAMS are protected and that they are respected.

It is also important to have a direct and constant dialogue with the structure in which the child is hosted and with the Social Services in order to coordinate with them, actively participate in the daily choices that concern the child and agree on a path towards autonomy.

Among professionals, working with unaccompanied minors, the social worker plays a fundamental role. Social workers advocate for unaccompanied minors in several ways. They face various challenges while working with unaccompanied minors, they come through interaction with the unaccompanied minors, colleagues, other actors, and the system. Those professionals work towards improving the quality of life of people, promoting social justice (including that of immigrants and refugees).

In Campania Region – Italy there are universities and some public authority that offer high-level training courses for professionals working with unaccompanied foreign minors, such as:

- Pegaso Online University[5] that offers a Master on 'Reception, Protection and Inclusion of Unaccompanied Foreign Minors'; The master's degree is intended for graduates, mainly in humanities, legal and sociological disciplines, interested in integrating the knowledge acquired in their degree courses.
- In addition, teaching staff at schools of all levels, public administration staff, police forces, NGO operators, social workers and cultural mediators may find the training course a useful practical tool for managing the phenomenon of unaccompanied foreign minors.
- Guarantor for Childhood and Adolescence of the Campania Region Italy – training course: 'Volunteer Tutors for Unaccompanied Minor for the integration of the list of the Juvenile Courts of the Campania Region.'

Findings from CISOTRA Qualitative Research

In discussions with stakeholders, some facts emerged:

- The Municipality and municipalities in general, with the involvement of the regions and the province, are the most appropriate work coordinators for UAMS in transition to adulthood.
- There is need for a multidimensional approach that involves every stakeholder (central government, local governments, economic and social partners, NGOS, universities, and schools, etc.)
- A participatory process designed for the main institutional stakeholders involved in the reception and care of the UAMS is needed in order to find appropriate and tailor-made solutions.
- Monitoring is recognised as the instrument to drive the mechanism, which arises from the fundamental need to collect information to highlight positive and critical elements to be brought to the attention of the responsible institutional bodies.

Relevant Good Practices

Below, some good practices are briefly presented (for more practices, see CISOTRA, 2021, pp. 76–92).

International Project INTEGRA – Supporting Unaccompanied Minors' Transition to Adulthood

- Responsible organisation: for Italy – CESIE.

[5] https://www.unipegaso.it/website/en.

- Short description: Considering the needs of care-leavers and of professionals working with them, INTEGRA project was designed to address the need to equip residential care professionals to successfully support the social and professional integration of unaccompanied minors who were leaving care-systems.
- Duration of the project: 2018–2019.

Pathways for Education, Employment, and Integration of Young Migrants

- Responsible organisation: Directorate-General for Immigration and Integration Policies – Ministry of Labour and Social policies (Italy).
- Short description: The project was based on the provision of an individual integration plan (which includes tutoring, counselling, career guidance, job orientation and a 5-month internship in a private company), aimed at supporting unaccompanied minors and young migrants to gain self-sufficiency and access to the labour market. By the end of the project, approx. 2,000 internships were expected to be granted.
- Main actions: (a) profiling and needs assessment, (b) offering of a personalised set of active labour market services (tutoring, counselling, career guidance, job orientation, internship), (c) provision of an endowment to intermediary societies providing job orientation and active labour market services (2,000.00 euros for each beneficiary taken in charge); to enterprises for tutoring the internship activities (500.00 euros for 16 hours of tutoring); to beneficiaries for attending the internship (500.00 euros per month for a maximum of 2,500.00 euros).
- Job scouting, job searching, on-the-job coaching.
- Duration of the project: 2016–2019.

Apartments for Autonomy

- Responsible organisation: Initiated by Tuscany region
- Short description: Introducing a new type of diffused hospitality into the system for the reception of children and adolescents.
- Main activities: elaboration of an individualised educational plan, skills assessment process, performing useful work socially, guidance/counselling, support for individual autonomy in everyday

life, Italian language training courses, training paths aimed at acquiring transversal skills, integration paths and school support, recreation and socialisation activities, sports activities and volunteering.

Supervised Independent Living and Housing Solutions for UASC and Former UASC

- Responsible organisation: three housing providers from Milan – the Social Cooperative 'La Cordata,' the Social Cooperative 'Comunità Progetto' and 'Pio Albergo Trivulzio.'
- Short description: Accommodation was offered in apartments located in various areas of Milan where continued protection had been granted to UASC, together with a gradual acquisition of autonomy and responsibility. Young adults had the opportunity to interact with flat-mates and other residents of the same building, thus avoiding ghettos. The role of a reference person for the apartment was crucial even if limited in terms of hours of presence, to provide guidance in the pathway towards autonomy.

Conclusions and Recommendations from CISOTRA Project, Specific for Italy

From the discussions at the CISOTRA events, literature review and interviews, we can extract the following recommendations for Italy.

Recommendations Related to UAMS

- Recognition of skills.
- Alphabetisation of migrants.
- Essential interventions to make the travels of unaccompanied migrant children safe, also of those who decide to leave Italy; partnership projects should be created with countries of origin.
- Need to support the transition paths from the minor to the age of young migrant; some proposals to support transition:
  1. Implementation of support programmes that focus on empowerment, autonomy (can also be in the form of mentoring).
  2. Support in transition should start as soon as a child enters the residential structure; Transition plan should always involve the development of a life project connected to passions and interests of UAMS.

3. Control of reception system to verify what are the tools that are available for the teens leaving structures at the age of 18.
4. Structures where unaccompanied minors live shall help them to learn how to live in the 'community' by making connections within local communities, in the neighbourhoods where they could live in a territory and not only inside the structures.

- Continuation with initiatives that prepare migrants for the labour market (all initiatives shall be implemented with high quality, and carefully monitored).
- Facilitate the access of UAM and young migrants and refugees who turned 18 to the job market by strengthening the cooperation between the reception system and employment offices.
- Offer every UAM a volunteer guardian adequately trained and able to respond to his/her specific needs, even during the phase of transition to adulthood.
- Promote safe and appropriate family or community-based alternative care arrangements.
- Support the custody system.
- Foster and increase the opportunities for meeting and interaction between UASC and former adults.
- Ensure that all UAMS and former UAMS at risk can benefit from psychosocial intervention measures of prevention or response, appropriate to their age, gender and cultural specifics.
- Promote intercultural and interreligious dialogue as an instrument of integration and to counteract the culture of racism and the risk of growing islamophobia.
- Promoting the active participation of UAMS in transition to adulthood in economic, social, and cultural life, also through business activities, especially in innovative sectors, also through the promotion of tools such as micro-credit, business start-up support services, favouring access to credit by beneficiaries of international protection.

Recommendations for Providers of Services: Actors, Organisations, etc.

- Ensure consistent and adequate training of professionals that work in the area, enabling them to effectively respond to the needs of UASC and those turning 18.

- Specialisation of professionals and cultural mediators.
- Continuous training for professionals.
- Need to guarantee effective synergy and collaboration amongst the various stakeholders operating at the centralised level and structured throughout the territory.
- Need of multidimensional approach that involves every stakeholder (central government, local governments, economic and social partners, NGOS, universities, and schools, etc.) to achieve a better understanding of the strengths and weaknesses and, therefore, of the possible solutions to ensure equality and citizenship opportunities to fulfil specific needs.
- Continue with initiatives that support intercultural dialogue as an instrument of integration and to counteract the culture of racism and the risk of growing islamophobia.
- On the educational level, it is necessary to create more adequate channels within the education system, starting from a greater awareness of the needs of unaccompanied migrant children, and to look into how the past could influence their future training and work choices.
- Information and awareness-raising of the local population about migrations, types of migrants, the characteristics of their presence in Italy, Europe, and the world. etc.
- Continuous training for legal experts and psychologists.
- Promote the role of a peer operator.
- Activities aimed at influencing the choices and orientations of public administrations, and local, regional, and national governments, as well as national and international institutions, and of the EU. In this context, the associations carry out both individually and collectively, actions aimed at guiding the choices of municipalities, regions, and national government by organising political and cultural campaigns of a general nature.

Recommendations are also in line with findings from the publication *At a crossroads* (UNICEF, UNHCR and IOM, 2019a).

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Chapter Eleven

Experiences from Slovenia

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Overall National Context, Facts, and Legal Basis

Overall Context: Facts (and the Most Important Numbers)

From the point of view of most migrants, Slovenia is a transition state. This means that most UAMS leave the country relatively quickly and follow their path to the countries of Western and Northern Europe. Some evidence in numbers: 679 UAMS in the period 2002–2016, 388 UAM applicants for asylum in 2017, and 555 in 2018. Around 75% of UAMS left Slovenia on their own, which means that international protection procedures initiated in all those cases were suspended (Žakelj and Lenarčič, 2017; Ministrstvo za notranje zadeve Republike Slovenije, 2019). The quantitative dimension of the challenge is thus small for Slovenia. The country is in the situation of being able to test policy and intervention alternatives on a small scale and to thoroughly study the efforts in larger countries. The small community of migration experts is in close contact, backed up by partly extraordinarily strong and influential philanthropic organisations and a high level of access of practitioners and expert scholars to political decision makers.

Legal Basis or National Legislation, Relevant for Migrants

When UAMS arrive in Slovenia, they have two options:

1. They remain in the country as illegal migrants without status and are resident in the Aliens Centre until they return to their country of origin.
2. They submit applications for international protection – which is the practice in most cases (they receive refugee status or subsidiary protection for a defined period).

An unaccompanied minor is a third-country national or a person without residence under the age of 18, being in the territory of Slovenia

Dermol, V. (Ed.) (2021). *Towards the actor coordination model* (pp. 181–194). ToKnowPress. https://doi.org/10.53615/978-83-65020-35-2/181-194

without parents or legal representatives. Special protection for unaccompanied minors is already provided by the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which requires States to cooperate with the United Nations and organisations in the protection and assistance of these children in finding parents or other family members for the purpose of family reunification. If parents or other family members cannot be found, the child shall, in accordance with the provisions of the Convention, enjoy the same protection as any other child who, for whatever reason, is permanently or temporarily deprived of his or her family environment. Currently, most unaccompanied children are accommodated in Postojna student dormitory. Unaccompanied minors may also be accommodated in the Aliens centre (illegal migrants) or with a foster family, in accordance with the national law.

Unaccompanied minors have special rights guaranteed in the procedures of recognition of international protection, as they are considered as vulnerable persons with special needs. The state authorities have to establish the identity of an unaccompanied minor as soon as possible, and start the process of searching for his parents or other relatives. Prior to the commencement of the proceedings, the unaccompanied minor shall be assigned a legal representative. The unaccompanied minor shall submit a request for protection in person in the presence of the appointed legal representative. For an unaccompanied minor with recognised international protection, the social work centre immediately appoints a guardian and carries out the procedure regarding their accommodation. Unaccompanied minors residing illegally in the Republic of Slovenia: the state may issue a decision on the return of a minor (or on admission to a third country) only if a guardian for special cases has been appointed (*Otrok je najprej otrok,* 2017)

The Strategy of the Government of the Republic of Slovenia with regard to migrations 2019 (Vlada Republike Slovenije, 2019) stressed several recommendations that support social inclusion of UAMS in transition to adulthood:

- *Need for a cultural mediator.* A system of intercultural mediators should be developed, who would assist in the communication between migrants and various services (health, social care, schools, etc.) and between migrants and the majority population.
- *Specific training for professionals.* Regular and compulsory educa-

tion should be introduced for all who are in regular contact with UAMS. All employees in various services that are in contact with migrants (administrative units, centres for social work, schools, kindergartens and other educational organisations, health centres, hospitals, police, etc.) should be provided with specific training in the field of development of intercultural competences, and special knowledge (identification of vulnerable migrants, identification of various symptoms, victims of violence, torture, trafficking in human beings, etc.) should be acquired.

- *Housing groups and foster families for UAMS.* Housing groups with 24/7 professional presence that would prepare migrants for independent living shall be established. As foster care may be the most appropriate form of accommodation for young unaccompanied minors, additional training for existing foster carers should be provided and new potential foster carers should be attracted through awareness raising and promotion activities. Foster carers shall be provided with needed support, and monitoring/control of foster care should be introduced.
- *Attention to children's victims of trafficking.* Particular attention should be paid to children who are victims of trafficking in human beings and they should receive special treatment.
- *Paying attention to transition to adulthood.* When designing systemic solutions, it is also necessary to plan gradual transition of unaccompanied adolescents to adulthood and to provide them with adequate care. After attaining the age of majority, minors who turn out to be not yet sufficiently independent should be provided with further assistance in a tailored form to facilitate their transition from full care to autonomy and independent living.

The CISOTRA project with its activities will help to realise objectives of the strategy.

Minor Migrants in Transition to Adulthood: Situation and Challenges

With the age of 18, UAMS lose the minor migrant rights to the following:

- legal representative;
- accommodation: from the housing unit for minors, they are moved in the adult section; those living in a Student residence may stay

there until the end of the 'current' school year, even if they have already reached the age of 18;
- status: if a minor was attributed refugee status, it is maintained, in the case of subsidiary protection, it terminates.

UAMS who live in Student Residence in Postojna are being prepared for transition to adulthood through different (daily) activities, e.g., assistance in searching for a job, preparation of food by minors themselves, responsible shopping, communication with doctors, learning about administrative procedures, filling in forms/documentations, taking responsibilities for their actions, etc.

However, no systematic initiatives and projects have been prepared for transition of UAMS into adulthood; some progress can be seen in the last period – e.g., transition into adulthood has been discussed within the government working group.

Below, reflections from discussions with UAMS and young adults, held in Student Residence of Postojna are presented (discussion was held in September 2019).

Group of young migrants was very mixed: nine minors, five 18 or more; around half of them with status, and around half waiting for the status/applicants; among them only one girl. Some of them had been staying in Slovenia for 4 years already; some arrived in Slovenia 1 month ago. Most of them were attending Primary school in Postojna (at adult Education centre), some were in secondary school, some of them also worked (e.g., in a restaurant). Some of them had been travelling to Slovenia for 4 months, some even for a few years (and they also worked during their trip, to earn for the travel).

We asked the following questions: Describe your reception and accommodation in Slovenia. What was the most difficult for you? What were your worries/fears?

- The most difficult for us was that we did not know Slovenian language;
- It was exceedingly difficult to wait for the status;
- If you are without status, you get only 18 EUR per month and this is nothing.

Answers we received to the question: Are you satisfied with the support offered?

- They like everything, everything is fine;
- The people, the country, they like their stay in the residence. Those that are not in the residence anymore have stressed: for me it is better, that I live on my own, I don't have to worry about getting back to residence in time.

Answers we received to the question: What are your plans?

- I want to finish school, and then I want to work: some would like to become mechanics, some work in health services, etc.

Key Coordinating Actors

Actors (the Most Important in the Country)

There are many organisations in Slovenia that help migrants and refugees. In principle, they are divided into governmental organisations, public organisations, and non-governmental organisations. Among the non-governmental organisations, there are domestic and foreign organisations.

Governmental organisations – State Actors:

- The Government of Republic Slovenia;
- The Office of the Government of the Republic of Slovenia for the Care and Integration of Migrants;
- The Ministry of Internal Affairs;
- The Ministry of Labour, Family, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities;
- The Ministry of Education, Science and Sport, the Ministry of Health.

Public organisations:

- Educational institutions (elementary education, secondary education, higher education, language schools.), student residences, adult education;
- Health care institutions;
- Labour market organisations;
- Social work centres;

NGOS (beside the listed, many other NGOS work with migrants):

- Slovene Philanthropy (main areas covered: humanitarian help, legal support, psycho-social support, informing refugees, interpreters, monitoring situation – respect of human rights, advocacy and communication with authority, cultural mediation, educational help/learning assistance and general help with integration and personal development, etc.);
- Association 'Odnos' (main area covered: humanitarian help, psycho-social support, informing refugees, helping refugees in finding appropriate accommodation solutions, interpreters, advocacy and communication with authority, cultural mediation, educational help/learning assistance and general help with integration and personal development, etc.);
- Legal Information Centre (dedicated to protecting the rights of vulnerable groups, especially unaccompanied young people);
- Amnesty International (informs the public about the state of respect of human rights in Slovenia, and often includes an assessment of the living conditions of refugees in its reports);
- Slovenian Association of Friends of Youth (area covered: humanitarian help, psycho-social support, educational help/learning assistance and in general help with integration and personal development, etc.)
- International Organisation for Migrations MOM-IOM (informing refugees);
- Peace Institute (advocacy and communication with authority);
- Sports institutes, youth centres (leisure activities);
- Caritas (main areas covered: humanitarian help, legal support, psycho-social support, informing refugees, interpreters, advocacy, and communication with authority …);
- Red Cross (main areas covered: informing refugees, interpreters, advocacy, and communication with authority, etc.);
- UNICEF (main areas covered: psycho-social support, monitoring situation-respect of human rights, advocacy, and communication with authority, etc.);
- Institute Circle (main areas covered: psycho-social support, interpreters, religious care/support, etc.);
- Non-Violent Communication Society;
- Institute for African studies (main areas covered: legal support, psycho-social support, informing refugees, interpreters, monitor-

ing situation-respect of human rights, advocacy and communication with authority, cultural mediation . . .);

- Association for Development of Volunteering Work Novo mesto (main areas covered: legal support, psycho-social support, interpreters, cultural mediation, educational help/learning assistance and in general help with integration and personal development, etc.);
- Humanitarian charity organisation UP Jesenice (main areas covered: humanitarian help, legal support, psycho-social support, interpreters, monitoring situation-respect of human rights, religious care/support, cultural mediation, etc.);
- Humanitarian association ADRA Slovenia (main areas covered: humanitarian help, informing refugees, religious care/support, etc.);
- Jesuit Refugee Service Slovenia (psycho-social support, informing refugees, religious care/support, etc.);
- Association Trigger/Povod (main areas covered: psychosocial support, interpreters, monitoring situation-respect of human rights, cultural mediation, etc.);
- Association Humanitas (monitoring situation-respect of human rights, cultural mediation);
- individual volunteers and other NGOS.

Coordination of NGOS. The work of non-governmental organisations is coordinated by the Platform 'Sloga.' Sloga brings together NGOS and other non-profit organisations with the aim of strengthening their cooperation in the field of global learning and humanitarian aid. The platform informs about current events, emphasises the importance of development and humanitarian cooperation, and encourages cooperation with political decision-makers.

Cooperation and Coordination among Different Actors

The Office of the Government of the Republic of Slovenia for the Care and Integration of Migrants, governmental organisation established on 1 June 2017 (office responsible for integration of refugees), is the main institution, responsible for integration of migrants. Further on, its main tasks and its cooperation with different actors are described.

Main tasks of the office are:

- preparation of standards and guidelines for work in the field of integration,
- participation in preparing legislation in the field of international protection,
- preparation of integration plans for persons with recognised international protection and monitoring of their implementation,
- provision of accommodation capacities and operation of integration houses and branches (accommodation of unaccompanied minor migrants is coordinated by the Office in cooperation with the Ministry of the Interior, together with the Ministry of Labour, Family, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, and the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport),
- preparation of internal instructions for the operation of integration houses and its branches,
- conducting procedures and organising the accommodation of persons with recognised international protection and performing other tasks related to the accommodation of persons with recognised international protection,
- programmes for integration of migrants into Slovenian society for persons with recognised status (integration plan),
- coordination of the work of non-governmental, international, and other organisations in the field of integration of migrants,
- participation in the inter-ministerial implementation of integration measures from the work areas of individual ministries,
- performing tasks related to the implementation of assistance programs for the integration of persons with recognised international protection,
- advising persons with recognised international protection.

In carrying out its tasks, the Office works closely with the European Migration Network (EMN), the European Asylum Support Agency (EASO) and the National Contact Point European Integration Network (EIN). In performing its regular tasks, the Office cooperates with state bodies, local communities, centres for social work, and with non-governmental organisations (international and domestic).

In addition to the Office, the Ministry of Labour, the Employment Service, public institutes (learning Slovene language), the Ministry of Education, the Centre for Social Work and other public entities con-

tribute to the success of integration through their cooperation. Main facts about coordination among different actors, and challenges:

- Insufficient connection between public sector institutions – these are mainly focused on the part of the integration process entrusted to them.
- The challenge is cooperation between public authorities and non-governmental organisations. In relation to the state, civil society is not considered a serious partner in the provision of services. The role of civil society is thus reduced; it is perceived only as a complement to the public sector. At the same time, the general impression is that refugees depend on the help and support of non-governmental organisations for too long.
- The operation of inter-sectoral working group for monitoring activities in the field of migration is a positive approach (established in 2018).

Key Competencies Needed for Professionals, Ensuring the Acquisition of Needed Competencies

Theoretical expert knowledge 'common' to different types of professionals who work with UAMS/young adults, main areas:

- Legislation and protocols.
- Intercultural knowledge, knowing the culture and the environment where the minors come from, social integration.
- Social and health care, integration into education and the labour market.
- Knowing different 'innovative' methods of work with vulnerable groups, knowing how to motivate them.
- Including international perspectives in the area (examples, good practices from other countries).

Professions providing social assistance to UAMS shall also have knowledge of:

- Key aspects of psychosocial support, recognising the needs of UAMS in this area (to be able to perceive cases of minors in need of such help).

Particularly important are personal competencies, ability of analytic understanding of situations, competence of behaviour/treatment. Among them, we stress the following which are specifically related to work with vulnerable groups of UAMS in transition to adulthood:

- cultural sensibility, tolerance towards other cultures,
- flexibility,
- openness for new experiences, readiness for own change, respect for other opinions,
- empathy,
- ocial skills.

Competencies that many professionals lack (feedbacks from professionals who participated at general training sessions in 2019 in Slovenia):

- Most respondents agreed that they would need more support for coping with their own stress, they would need better insight into international practices, and improve their knowledge on how to provide psychosocial support to UAMS and young adults.

Experts in Slovenia can get expert professional knowledge through various training, e.g.:

- Training for different professionals who work with unaccompanied minors (organised by UNESCO and Social chamber), topics: An outline of the UAMS legislation and approaches, Psychosocial support and assistance, Cultural competence, and presentation of good practices;
- Training for guardians (40-hour training);
- Training sessions CISOTRA.

Social Chamber issued the guide for development of competencies of professionals who work with migrants, titled *Holistic approach to successful integration of Migrants* (*Celostni pristop za uspešno integacijo migrantov,* 2018).

Findings from CISOTRA Qualitative Research

- Poor efficiency of organisations is the result of a project-based way of working that prevents the development of sustainable and systemic solutions.

- Efficiency of organisations could be improved through study visits abroad; transfer of knowledge and practices from the international environment – and adaptation to the situation in Slovenia; joint national or international projects; regular joint meetings.
- Training for professionals should become permanent practice. Professionals who work with UAMS and young adults directly shall have empathy, social skills, know methods for work with young migrants and how to motivate them.
- Young migrants need holistic support system.
- It is necessary to provide better protection for minors who choose to leave Slovenia (ensuring safe transition to the target country).
- Several initiatives and concrete solutions are needed in the field of transition of minor migrants to adulthood – main emphasises:
  1. It is necessary to establish support programs for transition of unaccompanied children into adulthood. Support programs need to be focused on strengthening autonomy.
  2. Even before they turn 18, visits to institutions that can help them with empowerment (visit, get in touch, get to know people there) should be organised.
  3. It is important that adequate accommodation and care are provided even after they are 18.

Relevant Good Practices

In Slovenia, there are not many unaccompanied children, but there are some good practices, targeted at offering support to UAMS in transition to adulthood, and social integration overall. Below, three of them are presented.

Programme – Young Migrants[1]

- Responsible organisations: Slovene Philanthropy.
- Short description: The objectives of the programme are to improve the protection of minor migrants, in particular unaccompanied children, children – asylum seekers and refugee children. For this purpose, several activities have been carried out, like mentoring activities for unaccompanied children, activities for psychosocial support – such as individual counselling, practical help with in-

[1] https://www.filantropija.org/migracije/mladi-migranti/.

tegration, activities for facilitation of integration in Slovenian environment, help with learning the Slovenian language, training of volunteers that work with unaccompanied children, etc.

- Duration of the project: The initiative started in 1997.

Accommodation of Minor Migrants into Student Residences

- Responsible organisations: Government of RS, service provider – Student residence of Forestry and Wood Technology School.
- Short description: In 2/2 of 2016, all unaccompanied children (that are asylum seekers) were transferred to appropriate accommodation facilities – student residence halls (educators and other workers take care of their well-being).
- Duration of the project: The project started in summer 2016 (Postojna and Gorica student residences). In Nova Gorica, it only lasted during the pilot stage (1 year); in 2020, the project was being carried out in Postojna for the 4th year (planned: until a permanent solution of accommodation will be found). (Urad Vlade RS za oskrbo in integracijo migrantov, 2018)

Practices are presented in detail in the document titled *Compilation of National Reports* (CISOTRA, 2021).

Skuhna

- Initiation of project: Skuhna is a result of social entrepreneurship project, initiated in 2012 by Association Global and Association Voluntariat, and co-financed by European social fund.
- Description: Through cooking, it connects refugees and migrants with the citizens of Slovenia. Skuhna is basically a social enterprise that employs migrants and Slovenes and offers traditional food from the countries from which migrants come. A great example of how to promote social integration, contribute to employability of migrants, and create an opportunity for dialogue in the right, creative way. Skuhna is located in Ljubljana.
- Duration: Ongoing initiative.

Conclusions and Recommendations from Project CISOTRA Specific for Slovenia

From the discussions that we had with young migrants (in transition) we can conclude that the main difficulties that they faced in Slovenia

were caused by not understanding the Slovenian language; it was exceedingly difficult to wait for status.

From the discussions at the CISOTRA events, literature review and interviews, we can extract the following recommendations for Slovenia.

Recommendations related to UAMS

- Emotional support needs to be ensured.
- Support during educational process.
- Support in acquiring competences and gaining life skills, support for integration into the labour market, including help with finding a job.
- UAMS need to receive support in understanding the system of bureaucracy.
- System solution of accommodation needs to be found.
- To continue with initiatives that support intercultural dialogue, interactions between migrants and local people (a good example was the ArtCaffe initiative, a cafeteria in the Student Residence Postojna, hosted by migrants; also Skuhna practice).
- In general, focus needs to be put on assisting UAMS in transition to adulthood, through different support programs focused on strengthening autonomy and integrating them in 'regular' society.

Recommendations for Providers of Services

- There is a need for accepting an integrative national policy/national strategy in the field of unaccompanied children and unaccompanied minors.
- Cooperation between different actors.
- Regular training for professionals.
- Introduction of cultural mediators.

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Chapter Twelve

Experiences from Turkey

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Overall National Context, Facts, and Legal Basis

Supporting Unaccompanied Minors in Transition to Adulthood in Turkey

The protracted conflict in Syria has displaced more than 7 million people since 2011, mostly towards the neighbouring countries, leading Turkey to face an immense acceleration in mass immigration. As of April 2021, Turkey is the top refugee hosting country in the world. Until the Syrian crisis, asylum seekers in Turkey were mainly irregular migrants from Afghanistan, Pakistan, Syria, Iran, Iraq, and other countries who were in search of international protection, either in the European States or in Turkey. As the civil war in Syria is in its 10th year, most refugees in Turkey are those coming from the Syrian border, mainly of Syrian origin.

The Directorate General of Migration Management, established in 2013 as the main official institution responsible for migration in Turkey publishes detailed statistical information on Syrian refugees distributed by age and gender. Syrian nationals are entitled to temporary protection status. Number of Syrian refugee population aged between 0-18 who are under temporary protection is 1,778,628 within a total population of 3,747,734 (Millî Eğitim Bakanliği, 2021). The number of young Syrian refugee adults who are under temporary protection aged between 19–24 is 480.239 (12.8%).[1] On the other hand, refugees coming from other countries are eligible for international protection status in Turkey, and the number of applications has decreased over the past few

[1] https://www.goc.gov.tr/gecici-koruma5638.

Dermol, V. (Ed.) (2021). *Towards the actor coordination model* (pp. 195–211). ToKnowPress. https://doi.org/10.53615/978-83-65020-35-2/195-211

years. The number of applications varied from 114,537 in 2018, 56,417 in 2019, to 31,334 in 2020.[2] The majority of the applicants come from Afghanistan, Iraq, and Iran.

Refugee children separated from their parents or left unaccompanied have a higher vulnerability among children in need of protection and statistics regarding them is critically important (Atasü Topçuoğlu, 2013; Gönültaş, 2017). In Turkey, the majority of Syrian children who escaped but have lost their parents due to war are separated and protected within the Syrian community whereas those minors coming from other countries like Afghanistan, Iraq and Iran are given the status of unaccompanied and are protected by the State in terms of institutional care. Separate statistics on separated or unaccompanied minors is not publicised. Unaccompanied minors have mainly two options, the first option being registered legally, on their own free will or by authorities in Turkey, and the second one staying unregistered, regarding Turkey as a transit country. The numbers of those who choose the first option are officially followed even if not publicised, whereas the number of those who choose the second option and get in touch with illegal traffickers without entering the Turkish system in order to continue their way towards Western countries is not clearly known (Karataş et. al., 2014). Yet, the numbers of applicants heading to European countries who are considered to be unaccompanied minors have decreased in the previous years.[3]

The official number of UAMS in Turkey from 2005 to 2012 had been 876 (Atasü Topçuoğlu, 2013). In 2018, a sub-committee of Refugee Rights under the Committee of Investigation of Human Rights of Grand National Assembly of Turkey was established to focus on migration in Turkey. The Migration and Harmonisation Report prepared by this subcommittee stated that the number of UAMS accommodated within Child Support Centres of the Ministry of Family and Social Policies of Turkey (MFSPT) was 288, of those with foster parents was 8 and of those supported socio-economically within families was 450 (Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi, 2018). The Report provided that among Syrian children living in camps, 3,969 children were separated from their fathers and 390 from their mothers. The number of those who were separated from both parents had been 290. In urban places, the number

[2] https://en.goc.gov.tr/international-protection17.

[3] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/tps00194/default/map?lang=en.

of Syrian children accompanied by only one parent was 53,253, among whom 85% were separated from their fathers (Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi, 2018).

Turkey has put considerable efforts in supporting refugee population as far as inclusion in health, education and employment is concerned. The EU-Turkey refugee agreement established in 2016 led Turkey to take restrictive security measures on the borders on the one hand and to provide refugees with help in the field of social security on the other, but challenges regarding social inclusion continue. Turkish society has a rather negative view of refugees. After four years of agreement on refugees between Turkey and the EU, the Turkish government announced an open borders policy for refugees on their way to Europe in February 2020. However, by mid-March, the number of migrants and refugees at the border areas decreased due to the threat of Covid-19 and measures were taken to prevent spreading.

In terms of Covid-19, containment measures were introduced, among them closing schools and public places, cancelling social activities, and recommending all residents to stay at home as much as possible. There had been more restrictions for citizens below 20 and above 65 years of age. Movement between cities was restricted and everyone coming from abroad had been quarantined for two weeks. Even if the restriction measures had been eased by March 2021, wearing masks and social distancing in public places is still mandatory, schools are giving hybrid education and the vaccination process is continuing. As of the end of March 2021, the total number of Covid-19 cases had reached 3,208,173, with the number of deaths of 31,076 and 2,957,093 recoveries reported.[4]

Separate statistics for the number of refugees that have contracted Covid-19 are not publicised, but the pandemic measures are difficult to implement in crowded households, where the pandemic affected access to livelihood opportunities considerably. In Turkey, temporary or international protection statuses enable refugees to access a range of free public services, including education, health care and employment but the pandemic certainly exacerbated their vulnerability. Several studies provide that there has been insufficient access to health or education services, loss of employment and difficulties with paying rent and access to livelihoods (SGDD-ASAM, 2020; Concern Worldwide, 2021).

[4] https://covid19.saglik.gov.tr/TR-66935/genel-koronavirus-tablosu.html.

National Legislation

UAMS and separated children are regarded as children in need of protection in Turkey by law. Turkish constitution and other relevant private laws involve measures concerning protection of children. Article 61 of Turkish Constitution guarantees that the state takes all kinds of measures for social resettlement of children in need of protection. Children whose physical, spiritual, moral development or personal security are under threat and who may lack both or one of their parents are classified as children in need of protection in the Law of Social Services (Sosyal Hızmetler Kanunu, 1983, Art. 3). All children, regardless of their nationality, are entitled to their rights according to Turkey's Child Protection (Çocuk Koruma Kanunu, 2005), which also addresses the protection needs of UAMS. UAMS who come to Turkey through irregular migration and request international protection are provided services by MFSPT in line with the protective and supportive measures judged by the relevant courts in line with Turkey's Child Protection Law.

Article 66 of Law on Foreigners and International Protection (Yabancilar ve Uluslararasi Koruma Kanunu, 2013) orders that the principle of 'best interests of the child' shall be observed in all decisions concerning unaccompanied minor applicants. An UAM is defined as 'a child who arrives at Turkey without the attendance of an adult who by law or custom is responsible for him/her or, is left unaccompanied after entry into Turkey, unless he/she is not taken under the active care of a person responsible for him/her' and UAMS are among the 'persons with special need' (Art 3). Hence the Law on Foreigners and International Protection defines UAMS as children who enter Turkey without the attendance of a responsible adult or who are left unaccompanied after entering Turkey. The Law on Foreigners and International Protection (Yabancilar ve Uluslararasi Koruma Kanunu, 2013) and Temporary Protection Regulation (Geçici Koruma Yönetmeliği, 2014), guarantee refugees and asylum-seekers access to education, health care and social services upon registration. When an unaccompanied child is identified, the best interests of the child principle is taken into consideration with respect to relevant provisions of Turkey's Child Protection Law (Çocuk Koruma Kanunu, 2005, Art. 66). Article 66 of Law on Foreigners and International Protection also states that the child applicant is referred to an appropriate accommodation facility, the MFSPT taking his views into consideration. The prior age exception, stipulating those children above 16 could be placed in reception or accommo-

dation shelters has been amended in the Law on Foreigners and International Protection in 2019, stating that all children under 18 would be protected under facilities of the Ministry of Family, Labour and Social Services keeping reservation for an age assessment if physical appearance is not compatible with the age declared (Bazı Kanunlarda ve 375 Sayılı Kanun Hükmünde Kararnamede Değişiklik Yapılmasına dair Kanun, 2019).

The Temporary Protection Regulation (Geçici Koruma Yönetmeliği, 2014) which regulates rights and services for Syrian refugees provides that unaccompanied children shall be treated in accordance with relevant child protection legislation and in consideration of the 'best interests' principle (art. 48). Regarding the family reunification, the Regulation states that family unification steps shall be initiated without delay without the need for the unaccompanied child to make a request. According to TPR, unaccompanied children are mainly housed in MFSPT shelters but may also be placed in Temporary Accommodation Centres if appropriate conditions can be ensured.

There is also a 2015 MFSPT Directive on Protection of Unaccompanied Children which regulates the rights and services unaccompanied minors can benefit from (Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı Çocuk Hizmetleri Genel Müdürlüğü Refakatsiz Çocuklar Yönergesi, 2015). According to the Directive, all health expenses are covered under the State Social Security and Health Insurance Law (Sosyal Sigortalar ve Genel Saglik Sigortasi Kanunu, 2006). All the unaccompanied minors who are accepted by an institution or a unit are vaccinated. School age children's right to access to public schools is also guaranteed and the Directive underlines that children are offered unpaid Turkish courses and given pocket money by the state. Children's right to be informed in a language that they can understand is also stated.

There are several other important aspects of the Directive. It states that after having consulted child's views and wishes, the child can be accommodated with a family which has the same origins as the child (art. 5). Hence, unaccompanied, or separated children could be protected and taken care under home based arrangements by this regulation. However, regular supervisions by MFSPT and independent inspections gain importance to preserve the best interests of the child in this regard.

Article 6 of the Directive states that until the age assessment process results, the minors would be settled in reception centres or shelters ac-

cording to their physical & psychological development. However, physical & psychological development may not give accurate information about the age of the child. Some children's ages cannot be determined as most either do not bring identity documents or those documents are not reliable. When they appear to be older, age-determining tests should be carried out (Tunç Kaçar, 2020). Moreover, unaccompanied minors may appear older than their age physically and psychologically due to the challenging life experiences they have but still their childhood and their destiny may only depend on the unreliable guess by the migration officers regarding childhood (Crawley, 2010).

Turkish Civil Code states that all children under state protection must be assigned a guardian who is responsible for protecting their interests and represent them legally (Türk Medeni Kanunu, 2001). The assignment of guardians is carried out by Peace Courts of Civil Jurisdiction and guardianship matters are thereafter overseen by Civil Courts of General Jurisdiction. A guardian is an adult 'competent to fulfil the requirements of guardianship, not engaged in an immoral life-style and not having a conflict of interest or hostility against the child in question.' Relatives are given priority. In practice, UNHCR, NGO or staff of the Family, Labour and Social Services Ministry are appointed as guardians for UAMS. As a rule, a guardian is appointed for 2 years and may be reappointed for two more.

Issues concerning UAMS are codified under Turkish law as well as in international treaties Turkey has ratified. Turkey is a party to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child that upholds the states responsible for taking appropriate measures for providing appropriate protection and humanitarian assistance for unaccompanied minors along with other children. Turkey has ratified the Conventions below, which foresee protection for children in general along with refugee and asylum-seeking children and UAMS:

- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict
- Optional Protocol on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography (OPSC)
- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on a Communications Procedure
- Council of Europe Convention on Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse (CETS 201)

- Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings (CETS 197)
- Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (CETS 210)

Key Coordinating Actors

The Interior Ministry of Turkey (IMT), DGMMT and MFSPT are the main responsible state institutions concerning UAMS. In MFSPT, the Social Rehabilitation Office is coordinating issues regarding UAMS and in DGMMT, Irregular Migration, Temporary Protection and Human Trafficking Departments are working in this field.

The police under IMT refer UAMS to MFSPT after their registration is completed by Local Directorates of DGMMT. Unaccompanied children have priority in registration. Local Directorates of DGMMT are also responsible for providing shelter to unaccompanied children until the completion of age assessment, health checks and registration procedures. A 'foreign identity number' is provided for refugees who apply for temporary or international protection in accordance with the 2006 Regulation on Registration of Foreigners in Turkey. UAMS may lack identity cards or information, their registration is based on their declaration.

Social service institutions under MFSPT are responsible for the protection of minors who are left unaccompanied before or after entering Turkey as well as refugee and asylum-seeking children who have been subject to child abuse. UAMS are accommodated in appropriate institutions, namely Child Support Centres after referral by Security Forces with decisions for protective and supportive measures and referred to another institution if there is a lack of capacity in the city where referral is made. There are 10 Child Support Centres in Turkey.

Temporary protection beneficiary unaccompanied children aged 0–12 are transferred to a child protection institution under the authority of the Ministry of Family, Labour and Social Services. Unaccompanied children between the ages of 13–18, may be placed in dedicated child protection units in refugee camps. Most of them are placed in child protection units established by the Ministry in Ağrı, Konya, Yozgat, Gaziantep, Bilecik, Erzincan, Istanbul, and Van.

After admission to an institution, all UAMS must enrol in schools and get education. The Ministry of Education provides monthly scholarships for children who are under state protection, but this does not

apply to children with foreign nationality. Turkish language classes take place in shelters, before children enrol in school. Security Forces are informed if children leave the institution without permission. Visits to children in MFSPT institutions are under control of the Ministry of Interior and a relevant permission is required. In case of a request for transfer to another institution, Local Security Directorates are informed.

Various NGOS are working with refugee youth, either at a Turkey-wide level or at a local level. Refugee Rights Centre, Support to Life Association, Human Resources Development Foundation, Solidarity with Asylum Seekers and Migrants Association may be counted among them. These NGOS are engaged in a variety of activities ranging from legal consultancy, psycho-social support, health, education, vocational or language training, supporting means for employment, information, and advocacy for refugee rights. Sometimes there are difficulties regarding coordination and cooperation within the state institutions themselves, and within civil society.

Given the large number of children living within Turkish society with no state protection, it is important that all the public institutions regarding health, education, shelter, and protection work in cooperation to protect the best interests of every child. From headman's offices to family health centres, from schools to vocational education centres, all public institutions as well as NGOS working in these fields should take responsibility regarding unaccompanied and separated minors.

Minor Migrants in Transition to Adulthood

Under Turkish law, state protection ends when the child reaches the age of 18, with the possibility of a short extension in certain circumstances. Youth protection can be extended until the age of 20 for those continuing secondary education, until the age of 25 for those going to university, and until obtaining a profession if they do not continue their education. The reason for extension of protection may be a lack of place to go to, or a lack of security.

A period of adaptation awaits ex-minors who have checked out from the institution. They are generally transferred to satellite cities other than İstanbul, Ankara or İzmir. There are 62 satellite cities. When in place, they have to report to the authorities every week. They need permission to travel from one city to another. For Syrian children who are entitled to the right to receive temporary protection, they are no longer

provided accommodation in metropolitan cities such as İstanbul unless they have a first-degree relative formally resided in İstanbul.

They are generally not provided with a specific place for accommodation, and they must find ways to meet their needs, such as shelter, food, clothes, and medical care. After the age of 18, health insurance is also not provided anymore. Occasionally, UNHCR or state support is given to those youngsters who continue with vocational training. Often, youngsters are engaged in irregular work as their chances for acquisition of a work permit are also low due to difficulties and unfair competition for refugees in the employment context of Turkey. Even before becoming of age, many youngsters may be in search of earning money or travelling to another country rather than extending state protection. They work casual and irregular jobs in work environments that require long hours of work such as paper collection, textile, construction, auto repair, and bakery. In Turkey, children under state protection could legally be employed in state institutions after they come of age, according to Law No. 3413. However, this right is not guaranteed for foreigners.

Options for UAMS to be resettled in a third country seems to have decreased in the last few years, which is why more and more young migrants want to build a life in Turkey after reaching the age of majority. Still, applying to UNHCR or another non-governmental organisation for asylum in third countries may not only serve as a starting point of the asylum procedures but also legitimise minor's presence and safety in Turkey (Yılmaz, 2014). Very few UAMS who go to the university may enjoy the possibility of dormitories from the Credit and Dormitories Office. Most of them are irregularly employed in service, industrial, or agricultural sectors. They also experience a considerable aversion among Turkish society towards immigrants.

During the Covid-19 period, illegal immigration has been restricted more due to extended border securities. The number of children who came to Turkey by land route decreased, while the number of those who came by air increased. For children coming from Iran and Iraq by air, family reunion procedures can be followed more rapidly. During Covid-19 period, UAMS are being accepted in Child Support Centres after their health and Covid-19 tests. The lack of separate facilities within the Centres during testing periods leads to occasional difficulties. Family, adaptation, psychosocial support, and language education services were slowed down especially during the first terms

period of Covid-19 epidemic. As there were restrictions for people under 20, young adults had to stay at their workplaces. Lots of young adults lost their jobs, especially within service sectors like hospitality, others who work in places like bakeries started working over-time as there has been a higher demand. Applications regarding protection of the children subject to human trafficking were also slowed down, as NGOS started working from home as well. Covid-19 pandemic may have caused difficulties in children's protection from abuse as such services were not fully operational.

CISOTRA Qualitative Research Findings

Within CISOTRA project, a focus group which involved social workers from state and civil society organisations was created. The focus group participants emphasised the need for more support for UAMS in transition to adulthood. Key areas of support for minors and youngsters in transition include equipping them with the knowledge and skills for accessing education as much as possible and providing employment so that they can survive after they leave state protection. Psychosocial support and extracurricular skills development as well as legal advice and knowledge of the mechanisms concerning their rights is also important.

UAMS may have difficulties in reaching the support system. Experts who assist unaccompanied minors during procedures state that the existing systems for age determination, namely opening a file for the unaccompanied minor and applying for asylum, sometimes triggers secondary traumas and depression in them, as they are forced to narrate their painful story over and over to the authorities with the fear of not being able to convince them nor obtain their consent. Besides, it is particularly important to ensure that children receive services in their own language. Interviews should be held in an environment where the child can express herself/himself and feel comfortable, especially during the first-time s/he enters the country.

No legal action can be taken without the appointment of a guardian. Hence in the absence of a guardian, rights and obligations regarding social services and protection cannot be realised. Lack of appointment of guardians for UAMS has been regarded as a problem to be addressed immediately.

Child Support Centres in various cities have different facilities and can provide various levels of social inclusion depending on where they are situated. Most Child Support Centres are built in the outskirts

of cities. Their capacities are divergent and may need enhancement. Hence the opportunities for education, psychosocial support, and employment later are divergent with respect to the Child Support Centre UAMS are accommodated in. The Turkish State has left Institutional Care towards home arrangements since 2010. However, institutional care is still provided for UAMS and refugee children. Syrian children without parents who live within the Syrian community also receive differential support, depending on the city they reside in. Sometimes families may receive cash transfers (Red Crescent Social Cohesion Funds and others) in one city but not in another one despite conditions being the same.

Competency of staff working with refugee children has been underlined as a problem. A crucial requirement is to acquire the skills to become an advocate for children and to be able to understand their perspectives. All the parties, MFSPT, the police – each of them has their own perspective but none of them is looking at the situation from the point of view of the UAMS, as the focus group participants said. In-service training for the staff on the subject of child rights, refugee rights and human rights need enhancement and dissemination. Effectiveness of current training sessions for social services staff were questioned within the focus group. Another important need for the staff was psychosocial wellbeing. Social workers, social services specialists and staff working directly with UAMS suffer from burn-out and depression and they need to acquire skills for self-help and treatment. All the support staff, social workers, police, caring mothers and volunteers need protection to be able to protect the children. Teachers also need enhancement of knowledge regarding refugee children since language differences appear as an obstacle.

In Turkey, UAMS and refugee children in general are at risk of being engaged in child labour. Age 15 is the legal working age for children in Turkey. After that age, children's work should be monitored for whether it interferes with physical, psychological, emotional, or educational development of children. Sexual abuse of children and young women among refugees is also a concern, as there are increasing cases of Syrian girls marrying early and potentially being targeted by criminals for sexual exploitation or trafficking.

Recommendations

As emphasised by law, protection of the best interests of the child should prevail, regarding policies for unaccompanied minors and sep-

arated children rather than the security dimension. Rights based approach should prevail in policies and their implementation. Besides, more participatory child and migrant oriented services are required. Agency for Children and Migrants must be taken into account. Along with the best interests of the child, other basic children's rights principles, namely non-discrimination, child participation and the right to life, survival and development need to be preserved by policies in effect.

Cooperation and coordination between different actors in the system who are responsible for UAMS need to be enhanced. The capacity of Child Support Centres for UAMS needs enhancement. Additionally, refugee camps are generally not the place where best interests of the child could be preserved. Since 2010, the Turkish state has been phasing out institutional care and replacing it with home-based arrangements for children. However, institutional care is provided for UAMS and refugee children. A plan on moving towards home arrangements might be useful for UAMS and refugee children as well. Establishment of independent inspection mechanisms is critically important for both institutional and home arrangements.

As for educational inclusion of UAMS and refugee children in general, resources and additional infrastructure is essential to cover the needs as well as material and financial support and efforts at enhancing inclusive education at schools. In Turkey, UAMS need knowledge and skills enhancement both for education and employment in the aftermath. Enhancement of language capabilities along with academic skills, as well as vocational and professional skills, are critical requirements. Personal development in accordance with needs and interests is a question of concern, while the number of UAMS who are under state protection and able to continue higher education is limited. Social and emotional support is another field of requirements for UAMS. They need psychosocial support and extracurricular skills development.

State protection, its content and duration must be given more consideration. Not every person who turns 18 is ready for adult life. Also, the coping capacity expected of any adult after the age of 18 cannot be expected from unaccompanied minors, considering their history. Restricting the duration of protection according to age might become a disadvantage in some cases. It is necessary to produce service models that can be shaped according to the unique needs of each UAM

in transition to adulthood. Most of the time employment seems to be a favourable possibility. However, child labour continues to be a serious concern. UAMS who are not registered and protected by the State are exposed to the worst forms of child labour. Protection and support systems need to be enlarged and enhanced. Awareness raising programmes regarding risks and relevant legislation on early and forced marriages and child labour in Turkey are required for UAMS and support staff.

Social inclusion and social contact with locals are important areas of development. General public opinion is stereotypical and discriminatory against UAMS. Contacts with local communities represent a challenge for UAMS even if they are under protection. Replacing institutional care for UAMS with family-like units could facilitate socialisation and contact within the local community.

Professionals working with UAMS need regular training and supervision. Sensitivity and knowledge of the staff that provide services, teachers, health personnel, migration specialists, and social workers should be enhanced. Training on various competencies, refugee, child, and human rights training are important. They also need to acquire certain skills to become advocates for children and to be able to understand their perspectives. A common language among the staff, especially between social workers and police is important. Assignment of translators or bilingual staff is also a critical need. UAMS and professionals working with UAMS need to get more legal advice and knowledge of the mechanisms concerning UAM's rights. To ensure monitoring and protection of UAMS' rights, guardians have to be assigned by law. Technical knowledge regarding assignment of guardians and curators needs to be increased. A system of voluntary guardianship could also be set up. An important need for support staff emerges as treatment for psychosocial well-being. Social workers, social services specialists and staff working directly with UAMS may suffer from burn-out and depression and they need to acquire skills for self-help and treatment.

Relevant Good Practices

Regarding support for UAMS in transition to adulthood in Turkey, there are several good practices by the public institutions, NGO's, and international organisations, some of which are summarised below.

1. In 2010, UAMS who had left Yeldeğirmeni Child Support Centre

established an organisation called Young Refugees Union. They attempted to become an Association, but it was not possible by law. They were supported by the Human Resources Development Foundation and Association for Solidarity with Refugees and Asylum Seekers. A group of young UAMS pioneered this organisation whose aim was to enable solidarity among UAMS after leaving state protection. Although the initiative did not last long, it was good practice because it gave young adults the opportunity to speak for themselves, rather than having someone else in a more senior position speak on their behalf.

2. Refugee Rights Turkey (RRT) launched a project on unaccompanied minors (UAMS) with the support of the Embassy of Switzerland in Ankara in June 2018. The project aimed to strengthen awareness and sensitivity for UAMS in Turkey and contribute to national policy making in this field. The public awareness component of the project generated a publication to channel the experiences and desires of unaccompanied minor asylum seekers (UAMS) in Turkey 'in their own voices' as a vehicle for self-expression, among other activities aiming to elevate public concern and support for child protection challenges within Turkey's increasingly multifaceted national migration debate. The publication has been a periodical prepared by UAMS named 'Children's Voice.' The policy component of the project involved study visits to selected European countries to draw from approaches and experiences in protection of UAMS with a view to channelling perspectives to the evolving policy discussion on UAMS among refugee protection stakeholders in Turkey. A comparative report is prepared about the UAM protection systems in 3 different countries of Europe and a panel is held in cooperation with Bilgi University in Turkey (Refugee Rights Turkey, 2018).
3. Since 2017, UNHCR Turkey carries out a cash transfer project for those UAMS who leave state protection after reaching the age of 18. Cash transfers are provided on condition that the young refugee who receives it moves to a satellite city and starts to follow a vocational course. This one-year cash transfer project involves research in areas of interest of refugee minors and possibilities of fulfilling these interests in the courses provided by municipalities and Public Education Centres, which provide life-long learning opportunities for everyone. UNHCR holds regular communi-

cation with the beneficiaries of these monthly cash transfers to make sure that refugee minors receive the possible vocational educational opportunities in line with their areas of interest. There are young refugees who go to cooking courses, language courses or other courses in the Public Education Centres.

4. In 2014, the Family, Work and Social Services Ministry initiated ANKA Child Support Program for children at risk involving unaccompanied minors in cooperation with UNICEF. The program involves topics such as 'individual risk assessment,' 'components of supportive environment,' 'group work,' 'individual consultancy,' 'family work,' 'principles for supportive staff' and 'institutional approach against crisis.' The program also involves sections such as addiction, nutrition, problem solving, communication and daily life skills in English, Arabic and Farsi. Three-phase training programmes have been piloted in different centres for around 100 support staff (social workers, psychologists, sociologists, child development specialists and teachers) and the programme to be implanted towards UAMS and their families was revised according to the results. A group of experts and academics participated in workshops related to the programme, which is now being implemented throughout Turkey. The programme includes Individualised Needs and Risk Evaluation Forms, Supportive Environment, Individual Consultancy, Family Work, Principles of Approach for Support Staff, and Institutional Approach to Crisis Intervention components. For each child who is received at the centre, a support staff member is assigned as a consultant and individual needs and risk assessment is carried out in the first 10 days. With this form, the content of individual psychosocial support for that very child is determined. Individual consultancy deals with escape from home, self-mutilation, suicide, abuse, crisis management, intervention and trauma components. Group work is made up of 68 sessions in 5 sections involving self-development and healthy life, emotional regulation, character development, addiction, and pregnancy. Self-development and health modules are carried out for all children, whereas others are provided if needed by the child. Family work involves determination of the needs and the risks for the family, a contract is made with the family where the individual consultancy programme focuses on family-child relations, parenting skills, and approach to risks. The programme is evaluated in

three-month terms and the developments in the programme are followed. Later on, child's return to family-based support, continuance with the program or transfer to another social services centre is evaluated.

5. In 2017, Foster Family and Adoption Association (KOREV) carried out a workshop with 22 experts from state, civil society, and international organisations. The workshop aimed at determination of major problems in the field, as well as development, publishing, and dissemination of solutions for relevant institutions. The report underlines the current situation, emphasises problems in the field, underlines the basic rights of UAMS, communication and awareness raising, legislation, registration, and statistics. The workshop and the report prepared in the aftermath is important as it brings the best-interests of the child forward rather than the security dimension for UAMS (Korev, 2017).

Practices are detailed in the document *Compilation of National Reports* (CiSOTRA, 2021).

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Part Four

CiSoTRA Model

Chapter Thirteen

The Model of Better Social Inclusion of Unaccompanied Minor Refugees at the Transition to Adulthood

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Introduction

The Model for better transition of Minors is an inclusive approach to support young migrants and strengthen the links between different organisations involved in such support for young migrants, creating appropriate interfaces, which can be used for coordinating the activities and creating 'learning communities' among different actors. This could lead to a more holistic approach for the transition of individual young refugees while contributing to a more inclusive and competent community, which leads to a more cohesive society.

Following the partners' report, it was stressed that systems concerning social inclusion of unaccompanied migrants and young refugee adults in all partner countries are not working well enough. In particular, there is a gap in support of unaccompanied minors in transition to young adulthood. Therefore, a model that synthesises an 'ideal' approach of coordination of existing singular measures and practices can have important impacts at regional, national and EU levels.

The model, therefore, considers the national context of the individual countries involved in the CISOTRA project.

As a framework concept, the model explains what organisations can and should expect from each other from a functional perspective. Contrasting the current state of development with a benchmark perfor-

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mance level for organisations at different places within the framework, individual organisations can reflect strong points to share with the wider communities of actors and shortcomings that should be improved through organisational and personal development as a community action. Therefore, the Model produced can be used as a 'tool for reflection.' Furthermore, the Model has been developed to a sufficient level of abstraction so it can be used for this purpose also in other EU countries, as far as these have an overall positive attitude towards their obligations to protect and support young refugees, considering their national context and specifics.

A model could contribute to better operation of organisations that work with unaccompanied minors and unaccompanied young adults: on the one hand to work more effectively and not overlap the work and on the other hand to fill the possible gaps to cover all essential needs of an unaccompanied minor, and unaccompanied young adults to ensure a better transition to early adulthood, where the young refugees are expected to find their way to education and employment and therefore into the general society. The Model is grounded on project activities, reports, researches and evaluations:

National reports in years 2020 and 2021, where data were collected on (CISOTRA, 2019):

- General country context – facts
- Legal basis and National legislation, relevant for migrants
- Insight about what happens when UAMS turn 18 years
- Good practices
- Key actors working with UAMS in each of project partner countries
- Project partners' national reports on migrant needs

Interviews and focus groups were conducted in the year 2018 in each of the partner countries. The purpose was to collect data on unaccompanied minor refugees from different stakeholders working with migrants during their transition to adulthood, and to get data on policies concerning unaccompanied minors, and good practices. All partners used the same semi-structured questionnaires.

Planned evaluations and validation was carried out by all partners and assessed by Advisory Boards in each country.

Documents produced during the project as a Model source:

- WP2 – results of the initial study, implemented in each partner country (CISOTRA, 2019).
- WP3 – feedback on national seminars for different stakeholders, implemented in each year 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021), including open discussions from different stakeholders (CISOTRA, 2018).
- WP4 – general training implemented in Italy in 2018/19 as piloting for the international group of professionals and in 2019 in all partner countries (CISOTRA, n.d.a).
- WP4 source of feedback and information for the model (CISOTRA, n.d.a).
- WP5 feedback on the professional training (CISOTRA, n.d.b).
- WP6 – workshops for migrant minors and professionals who work with them, piloted in 2018 in Greece and delivered in each partner country in 2019 and 2020 (2021) (CISOTRA, n.d.c).
- WP7 – workshops for young adult migrants and professionals who work with them, workshop piloted in 2018 in Turkey and delivered in each partner country in 2019 and 2020 (2021) (CISOTRA, n.d.d).

When the model was developed, stakeholders discussed and assessed it at the 3rd delivery of national seminars 2020 in each partner country. The model was also evaluated and validated by all partners and assessed by Advisory Boards in each country.

The developed Model has two parts – the textual and virtual one. In this chapter, the textual part is presented.

Explanation of the Model

Introduction to the Model

Unaccompanied minors are a significant group among refugees; therefore, they enter different systems of youth protection that exist in all European countries. As many of them are often close to adult age, or they soon will be, they will grow out of protection aimed to unaccompanied minors – therefore, the model is aimed to research possible support (Eurydice, 2019)

European countries have different approaches and institutions that take care of and protect them. Besides governments, ministries, governmental institutions all over Europe, social workers, psychologists, policymakers and activists in NGOS, and volunteers have developed

innovative and effective concepts to improve the situation for UAMS and young refugees.

Countries' diversity, their policies, institutions and their specific situation concerning unaccompanied minors in the transition from minor status to adulthood determine the model design – it must be holistic, flexible, open and sustainable at the same time.

Its structure and design must enable using it according to country specifics, contexts, chaining intensity, and the number of minors transitioning to adulthood.

The Model considers commonalities and particularities in the partner countries and key actors/players that could support the young migrants in transition from minor status to adulthood.

Commonalities and Particularities in the Partner Countries

The literature analysis makes it very clear that unaccompanied minors are Youth on the Move. They are a particularly 'transnational' group, as they have often been on the run for a long time, are away from family and traditional ties, have often travelled through various countries, worked and suffered there and are often not sure about their future in the countries of their present residence. In some countries with fewer economic opportunities, they mainly seek to move on to the northern countries. In the northern countries, they are involved in a legal process that might end in deportation or an illegal status or one that does not encourage societal or economic integration.

Young refugees, therefore, are a very particular group to be well distinguished from 'migration from Country A to Country B.'

On the one hand, unaccompanied minors are less formed and supported by their parents and family. Therefore, they need more context, structure and an alternative 'home,' which means a substantial demand on the host country in effort and resources.

Therefore, stabilisation of the situation (health, housing, identity, etc.) and orientation about the situation, opportunities, and plans are the key challenges for youth and host societies.

The literature shows that protection from prosecution is a general human right, in particular for minors, as is the general protection for minors (European Commission, 2019; Sedmak et al., 2015)

However, integration into host societies, even those that are more and more aware of themselves as 'migration societies,' requires a much more complex process of mutual negotiation of the terms of accep-

tance. This negotiation process requires the host societies to explain themselves the term 'inclusion in diversity' and translate this into concrete regulations of access to education, training and employment, and the terms of societal immersion (Plaul et al., 2018).

On the side of the youth in all partner countries, this requires reconciling their own resources, influences, expectations, and hopes from the families and their own aspirations at an age where forming an identity is a challenge for any youth.

Therefore, any intervention model must put to the front provisions to support the stabilisation and orientation of refugee youth. The design of measures for youth training must consider this as the main paradigm.

Similarly, the system design must be centred on this, and intervention on project or measure level must identify the gaps of current youth training, systems of education and training, and the training of professionals that currently prevent a smooth transition.

Mainstream of Current Reform

Systems are currently working to better coordinate all relevant actors in all partner countries. They are gradually overcoming the 'crisis mode' of the years of the large surge in migration. In some countries like Germany, the number of new arrivals of minors is low and Italy and Greece are more or less sealed from new entrants, even though the means of this exclusion are more than controversial.

In all of the partner countries, on the conceptual level but also in practice, the actors are working to integrate social work, education and training. There is a high level of insight that social work alone is not enough, that youth must be educated, trained and integrated into work. On the one hand, this is a consequence of the insight that this youth will stay in high numbers and not return to their 'home' countries soon.

If they are not to be an alienated part of the host societies permanently, a way must be found to educate, train, and insert them into the general education and training system. This is a huge challenge in all countries, for several reasons. The national reports mention significant heterogeneity of educational prerequisites, individual aspirations, language skills, cultural background. In addition, their peers from the host country are mostly already finishing their education, while young refugees of the same age are just starting theirs.

Therefore, a serious effort to include these youth requires a major reform of all partner countries' educational, social support, training, and insertion systems. All countries are generally transforming to 'migration countries' more and more. Therefore, they have to adapt their systems to make their overall systems diversity-friendly. At the very least, all countries must face the challenge of developing complementary systems for the particular group of young refugees from individual measure/project level to system level.

Conclusions for the Model of Intervention

The chapter to follow the project will summarise what has been learned from studying the details of the situation of UAMS and young adult refugees in the initial report and further project work. In addition, it will define the opportunities and shortcomings of current policies and which good practices, among those studied by the partners, deserve mainstreaming, as they are also helpful for the situation in the respective partner country.

As the national reports and the reflections in this synthesis report have shown, the knowledge, skills and attitudes to be formed by training of the actors need to be founded on a solid understanding of the overall situation, particularly, a reflection of the implicit or already partially conceptualised and institutionalised system of transition of minors to adulthood. This transition takes place along the dimensions of securing the legal status, educational and training integration and social integration. The dynamic of interaction between these factors needs to be understood by all actors working within the overall system if they want to be effective.

Effective and efficient coordination of activities and civil society non-governmental and governmental institutions, including schools' engagement, depends on every single actor understanding the significance of its contribution and understanding the mission and means of related actors, services, and policies. To provide such a framework for reflection, this model, the report at hand, adopts a matrix of social and educational integration, which has been re-developed.

The overview is based on the insight that refugee youth, like their native counterparts, need to move along a 'chain of education' with the final target of sustainable integration in qualified work. The effectiveness of this chain depends on a smooth transition between the individual elements of that chain. I.e., actors in the system have to ensure that

each step is appropriate for the status of the youth and that proper care is taken that the links in the chain fit together. The transition from one part of the chain to the other often requires specific support.

For refugees, this 'chain' is quite specific, as they usually enter the system late (at the age of 16 or later) with sometimes fundamental educational prerequisites or even no school experience at all. Therefore, a particular 'chain of education' has emerged, which is highly specific in each partner country. The principle will be illustrated by an example from Germany, specifically the strategic partner, the City of Munich.

The dimension of securing the legal status of youth in transition is also specific to refugees. While EU citizens have the freedom of residence, the destiny of refugee youth is decided by the legal system in the host country. Therefore, at some point after the transition to adulthood, the possibility of re- or onward migration must be considered and followed. Also, this potential pathway, as the partner's reports show, makes a huge impact on the refugee youth motivation and life planning. Therefore, considering this possibility is necessary for all other parts of the system.

The social integration dimension assumes that social integration into the host country is desired by the host country policy, society and the young refugee himself. However, this cannot be taken for granted. According to each country's immigration policy and pragmatic considerations of the benefits of integration and the respective costs of un-integration, the policy is selective in whom to integrate.

For the model reflection, it is the assumption that all sides desire at least a basic level of integration or liveable inclusion in diversity: the state, the society and the refugee. Some of the dimensions are briefly discussed in the paragraphs to follow to understand the model.

General Insight Represented in the Model

Overall, the information provided in the partner's reports points to the following principles of intervention:

- The integration of UAMS and UAS cannot be achieved by traditional measures of employment support and additional education and training alone;
- The UAM and UA group includes various profiles based on country of origin, chances of refugee status, educational prerequisites and individual vision and motivation. This heterogeneity has to be

considered for all interventions targeting this group (from communication to measure implementation and follow-up);

- Refugee Youth need to be heard and involved in the interventions that are directed to them;
- Many refugee youths suffer from a complex set of problems, inhibitions and limitations described as a lack of social integration in the host country. High hopes in the host country, often the target of a long and painful journey and object of high, sometimes unrealistic expectations, goes along with a lack of trust in traditional institutions and a lack of orientation about the system of institutions, requirements and expectations.
- Most young refugees suffer from financial problems (only basic livelihood being provided while families in the home country often expect to be supported), health problems, including traumatisation and other mental health issues which require action before further education and training can be productive;
- As a rule, refugee youth have limited meaningful relationships outside of their peer group, particularly to institutions and potential role models;
- Such lack of social capital can potentially be mitigated by organisations in socio-spatial proximity to the youth, such as youth associations, sports clubs, youth workers, informal youth groups, social enterprises, cultural associations and the like;
- Also, social service and training providers in all partner countries are increasingly applying a socio-spatial approach to their activities;
- Regional networks play an important role in all of the partner countries and have a crucial part in all holistic interventions targeting young refugees;
- Many innovative practices exist;
- However, most partners report substantial bottlenecks to effective intervention, such as short-termism of measures, 'stop and go' of funding schemes, weak government coordination and others;
- Many of the measures address aspects of the problem of refugee youth integration. Still, in no case a fully implemented overall strategy has been reported, except for a relatively comprehensive formulated strategy of the strategic partner City of Munich, which, however, admits that the full implementation of this strategy re-

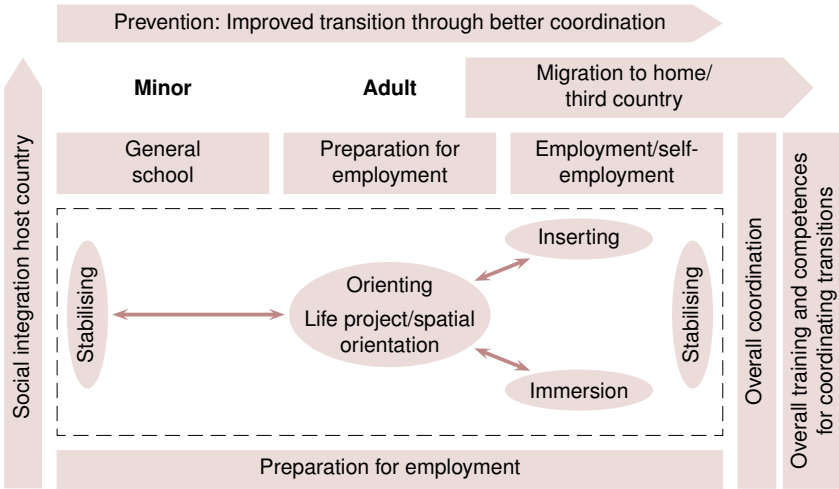

FIGURE 13.1 Model

quires long term efforts and a high volume of municipal financial resources.

Three lines of intervention can be distinguished:

- intervention in securing the *legal rights* of a young refugee, in particular a fully legal determination of the legal status and status of residence,
- the line of intervention in customised education, training and insertion in *education* or *work;*
- and training and intervention in *social integration.*

All three are dependent on each other, as the degree of social integration, willingness to be engaged and existence of individual prerequisites for participation in education and training are needed before such training can be effective. But, on the other hand, education and training can be a means of social integration.

Securing an adequate *legal status* is the prerequisite of all other measures. Therefore, many civil society groups focus their support efforts on making sure that these legal rights of refugees are maintained. We are aware of this dimension; however, coverage of this highly complex issue must remain outside the scope of this discussion. This process becomes relevant when a stay in the host country is denied, and further migration needs to be prepared.

Social integration obviously is a prerequisite of effective education and training; therefore, a range of innovative measures and 'non-measures' (i.e., interventions designed to have no strict curriculum but allow for a maximum of flexibility according to the client's needs) has been developed.

In *education and training,* two main paradigms of reform can be identified: a central role of vocational education and the value of work-based learning. In all partner countries, actors aim to strengthen the relations between the educational system and employers. However, it becomes clear that the training system needs to be adapted to the needs of migrants: more emotional support is required, weaknesses in written educational language make it harder to pass written theoretical exams, and a higher-than-average age of learners are some of the factors which necessitate a general reform of the system.

The second common area of the reform is a better transition of refugee youth between the various stages of education and training to prevent dropout and provide the pathways of education most appropriate for the individual's need.

For refugees who are mostly unaware of the opportunities of the host country's education system and lack access to accurate information from family and role models, a key challenge is to navigate expectations, requirements, and opportunities. The aim of orientation, culminating in the formulation of 'life projects,' is to build relevant skills and build rapport and cooperation with the relevant institutions and, in particular, to build relations to potential employers. In Germany, such efforts have been framed in the concept of 'chains of education' to describe the support for making the necessary transitions.

On the level of *social integration,* there is a broad consensus among the partners about the risk factors for refugee youth to drop out of society permanently out of frustration, denied opportunities, lack of building social relations and mental illness. Many actors see the danger of forming an alienated 'parallel society' of individuals who have not been deported but are not an integrated part of the society. They are in danger of joining the ranks of other equally alienated groups that dropped out of the system.

From the analysis of the literature available[1] as well as from studying

[1] See https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/country/stories and https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/news/eurita-resources-for-refugee-integration.

good practices and partner assessment, it has become apparent that all of these consider the dimension of social integration to be very relevant. Social un-integration can result from a persistent status of having dropped out of education and social integration measures without any access to consecutive opportunities. Still, un-integration also is an inhibitor in itself, which inhibits the immediate success of education and training. Therefore, for a large part of the target groups achieving a level of social integration which allows for participation in any form of learning and employment is an aim per se.

Degrees of Social Integration: Social Integration as the aim of Intervention

To our knowledge, no 'official' index of social exclusion exists in any of the partner countries. While the term itself is used widely by institutions and actors in the field, also the stakeholders interviewed indicate that they have experimented with ideas for such an indicator. Still, no conclusive system is currently being used.

At this point, it can be said that 'social integration' is a widely used 'soft' concept that the actor understands, but to our knowledge, no hard definition or index currently exists.

While there is no commonly accepted index of social inclusion/exclusion, for pragmatic reasons, there is an understanding of what inclusion is and at which end of a continuum of inclusion/exclusion an individual can be placed.

Social un-integration/exclusion in this understanding would be characterised by *multiple severe phenomena* such as:

- insecure legal status or irregularity,
- low financial resources,
- homelessness or living in an illegal 'under-cover' situation,
- mental and physical health problems,
- missing access or disconnect with appropriate care services,
- low level of qualification and education,
- no or weak social networks outside of peer group friends and family and
- low or no connection to relevant institutions.

On an individual level, such individuals may have stopped trying to improve their situation, plan a career in the regular system or develop

any initiative in this direction. An example would be 'street kids,' homeless young people with severe mental health issues living on the street with no or minimal contact with their family and social institutions.

Mid-level exclusion/un-integration in this understanding would include all of the above phenomena to a lesser degree, but with:

- relatively secure and dependable legal status of residence,
- some connections with others who are integrated,
- some form of a link to the general system,
- orientation towards the regular career and social systems and
- activity to enter these systems.

While there may be risk factors in one or multiple areas, no overall deprivation has occurred. Examples would include unemployed refugee youth, or those that have dropped out of school trying to catch up, or young mothers whose family care duties inhibit an intense interaction with the regular system. This includes young people with connections with others, who are integrated; there is some form of a link to the general system, and they are likely to have at least some significant barriers to employment. One example might be a young person with a disability or mental health issue that limits their relationships with other people and their ability to sustain particular types of employment. It could also include a young woman living on her own with a child and no access to childcare, but various social contacts and a willingness to re-enter the regular system.

Special cases within this group are those who, while not being handicapped by objective factors, show a lack of orientation and/or a lack of persistence in the face of recent frustrations. *Socially fully integrated refugee background youth* would include youth who

- have secured permanent legal status of residence or very good chances to obtain such a status,
- have none of the typical risk factors (or only some of them to a low degree, not impacting their functional ability to participate in regular measures),
- can be counted on as being willing and capable to learn and be placed in employment and
- have a good level of relevant relationships and are respected in the relevant community.

Fostering Social Integration: Engaging, Orienting, Stabilising, Inserting

Acquiring access to the host society through acknowledging prior qualifications and catching up with formal education where necessary through adapting school programmes, making University accessible and designing specific training programmes to access formal training and employment have been prominent elements of integration strategies in countries with more experience in integrating young refugees. However, the rate of dropouts from such education and training, even of those with a relatively good education in their home countries, indicates that education and training can only be part of the answer to the challenge of holistic integration.

There is strong evidence from the good practices presented as well as the information from key informants that *enhancing the social capital* of groups currently outside the mainstream society, be it dropouts from the system with host country nationality, be it newcomers like migrants and refugees, is a critical factor for (re-) integration. Making such 'outsiders' more aware of their opportunities and increasing relevant contacts, incorporating interfaces to the employment system within schools, increased work-based learning elements, early identification of risk factors and individualised consultancy, mentoring and coaching are some of these elements.

The matrix chosen as a framework for reflecting a holistic model of integration is represented in the dimension of social integration.

Analysing the reports, summarising the national literature on the topic as well as particularly the rationale incorporated in the good practices which the partners describe, *three main elements of fostering the social integration* of youth can be distinguished, which we have described as 'engaging, orienting, stabilising, inserting.'

These form a 'transition system' for those for whom interventions aim to assure full access to the 'regular' system of education and training, even after an UAM reaches the critical point of transition, the adulthood age when most leave the protected status of a minor.

To define the common understanding of the partners about these elements, each of these will be briefly presented.

Engaging

At the point of reaching adulthood, the young refugees are no longer obliged to be in contact with custodians and are free to act based on

their own deliberations. While this is normal for youth who have often managed their own escape and have acquired a level of 'street smartness,' the experience young refugees get with custodians and other institutions decide if they continue such supportive contacts. Therefore, it cannot be taken for granted that refugee youth remain in contact with relevant institutions, seek information actively, use media in which institutions communicate, are registered in *various systems,* live in a social environment that encourages constructive education or work ethics or are physically and mentally capable of reacting to input.

These groups have been described as the 'hard to reach' ones. In the typology of social inclusion discussed above, such groups are represented by 'street children'y who, on the one hand, face many obstacles, although they are relatively resourceful, and on the other hand, are disinterested and disengaged, and may have given up on the idea of integration through education and employment because they feel discriminated against and excluded from the mainstream system, and therefore rely on alternative legal or illegal sources.

What all of these have in common is that they do not actively seek assistance and are alienated from the system, often 'hard to reach.'

'Engaging' therefore, describes activities to reach out to these 'hard to reach.' This often includes proactive ways of reaching out to these youth and persistence in patiently contacting them in various formats.

Innovative ways to get in contact are to be considered as a conscious part of an overall strategy. A range of good practices with a focus on this engaging element and many by which the 'engaging' of clients is an important part of the design of the intervention have been described by the partners.

Orienting

'Orienting' describes all methodologies to realise opportunities and options, to decide about own aims and life strategies ('life projects'), build relevant competencies, trust, confidence and motivation to become able and willing to access the host country education training and employment system despite potential initial irritation, misunderstandings and frustrations. The factors of social un-integration point to the fact that many refugee youth lack orientations in at least two dimensions:

- A lack of orientation vs reasonable and meaningful *goals* for them-

selves: What do they want to achieve? Who do they want to be? Here a readjustment of initial 'dreams' and ambitions to the actual conditions of the host country is the main challenge.

- A lack of orientation vs the *means* to achieve these goals: What are the opportunities, the pathways, who to talk to, what to do? Here the highly fragmented and even for experts quite confusing multitude of institutions, organisations, opportunities and challenges needs to be reflected, which requires qualified support in all cases.

Together, these elements of orientation, next to the resources required, are key elements of the ability to shape one's own biography and to follow plans and 'life projects,' as described by the OECD as well as by the European Commission in its concept of key competences for life-long learning.

Without adequate room to form such orientations, without a partner to discuss perspectives and possibilities to reverse former decisions and re-orient, there is a danger of frustration due to a lack of alternative plans. Interventions that aim at qualification or employment only, without supporting the forming of such orientations and without an element of building the competence to form such orientation, must therefore be regarded as inadequate for sustainable integration.

The *quality of such orientations* must also be considered. Quality orientation depends on the facilitators of such orientation, their adequate perception of opportunities, their *interfaces with relevant actors and institutions,* and particular *employers.* Also, the methodology of orienting and guidance must be considered.

While often culminating in a 'life project' or formal plan, orientation is, in fact, a longer process, a building of identity under new circumstances, whose intermediate results can and should be revised. It cannot be rushed, but in fact, it requires a dependable support system of supervision and coaching.

This longer *process* also has to include opportunities for experimentation and reflected experience, which provides for various kinds of a work-based learning experience, if any possible, in real-world environments.

Certain practices, such as shorter or longer internships and a whole year of voluntary service in the social sector (as in the case of the German youth voluntary social service) are examples of such orientation.

At the starting point, orientation is closely connected to the 'engag-

ing' phase: building contact and trust to one mediating person one is able to talk to and who can provide access to relevant further assistance, can be the starting point for a wider orientation. On the other end of the spectrum, successful steps of education and training must always be accompanied by a reflection of the step regarding its significance for the further individual biography and a conscious expression and use of one's own competencies and hence new opportunities.

While these general considerations apply to all youth at risk of unintegration, young refugees, in addition, face the challenge to reflect their *spatial orientation,* i.e., either decide if they want to stay in the host country, move on to another target country by legal or illegal means, or to return to the country of origin. This decision can be voluntary or forced, i.e., by denial of a permanent residence status, which puts the youth in a difficult situation if there is no forced deportation, as many support services are not available to those who are only tolerated until deportation becomes legally feasible.

In the case of denial of protection and/or a voluntary decision to remigrate, this decision is also a topic for orientation and preparation. Some good practices aim to support those youths who do not have a permanent residence perspective.

Therefore, the competence of orientation is a permanent part of the overall competence for life-long learning and individual resilience.

Stabilising

The aspect of 'stabilising' acknowledges that overall stabilisation is a *multi-factorial and long-term process* rather than a momentary phenomenon. Progress and setbacks need to be expected and balanced. Therefore, support must be as long-term and as tailored as possible. Elements of securing a *basic livelihood,* such as housing, health maintenance, basic structuring of the day, a minimum of motivation and overall well-being, and the focus, cannot be taken for granted. It is reported from all partner countries that leaving the secured housing and livelihood status as a minor and caring for housing oneself as an adult can be a traumatic experience.

A network of *productive social contacts* must be built and maintained. Usually, there are setbacks in the process. The complexity of this long-term stabilisation requires good *coordination among various agents* (those responsible for funding, health maintenance, social work, peers, parents and co-students, etc.). For refugee youth, it is a particular challenge to expand their social contacts from within their peer

group of refugees. Some show more constructive habits and attitudes than others, and the community of mostly academically trained, white supporters and benevolent volunteers to establish contacts within the mainstream society, regular workers, craftspeople, peer sport club members and other contacts within the average mainstream society.

Inserting

One recent focus of reform of support for all youth struggling with integration into mainstream education and training has been (e.g., in the case of Germany) recognising the long-term character of social stabilisation, which requires assistance for the individual also after initial insertion into education, training and employment. The GP 'assisted apprenticeship' reflects that such assistance by social work can only be phased out gradually, as the training itself and later on the income and socialisation in a regular team of co-workers and company provide a dependable structure for the individual.

Typically, therefore, stabilising an alienated and socially un-integrated individual is one of the areas in which spatial/community coordination and maintenance of a close network of actors are particularly important. Many activities that do not directly aim at qualification or professional insertion, such as sports activities, becoming part of an association, cultural activities and volunteerism, can contribute much to the stabilisation of individuals. Here, the closer community, the neighbourhood and the municipal community must develop and maintain an attitude of openness and a 'welcoming culture,' strictly not only within initiatives and organisations which are dedicated to refugee support, but in all parts of the civil society as well as in all parts of the public administration and institutions.

In the overview model, which we use to reflect holistic intervention, this element is denoted by 'insertion,' the formal introduction into measures and formal programmes, and initiatives aimed at refugee support vs immersion. Immersion in our approach denotes young refugees becoming more and more a part of the mainstream society and being accepted as a regular part of groups and organisations which are not thematically dedicated to refugee and migrant support.

Mutual Dependency and Reinforcement of the Elements and the Need for Overall Coordination

As a consequence of these considerations, the CISOTRA partnership proposes to use an adapted general *matrix of 'educational and train-*

ing chains' vs a progression of social integration, which includes the elements of engaging, orienting, stabilising and insertion, *as a matrix to describe activities to integrate young refugees and to manage the transition from the status of minor to the status of self-responsible adulthood.*

While the elements of social integration can be analytically separated, they are often part of the same intervention on the side of the providers and part of a holistic process within the individual in actual practice.

The individual stages of integration depend on the success of the others. Each transition is a critical incident, a point of potential failure or experience of confidence-building success.

Individual orientation is useless if not supported by the means to act on the orientation or the removal of inhibitions like health handicaps. A sound system of orientation and stabilisation is futile without a good system of outreach (engaging) to the neediest clients as well as a dead-end if outreach agents are in good contact with clients, but without a system of orientation and social stabilisation to support the pathway of integration into sustainable education, training and finally employment.

In the perspective of time, the measures of social (re-)integration, preventive and curative ones, must be available throughout the development phase of the young person. Therefore, the logic of youth support schemes for minors, which have an educational and pedagogical focus, must be extended to a degree, also to young adult refugees.

There is a wide consensus that influences from the *family,* often far away but still present through social media and communicated hopes and demands, are critical. Shaping the initial contact points with the system, in the case of this study, the support system for minors; in particular, custodians and providers of youth support services and their staff are crucial to shaping the trust in the system and identifying risk factors early on. The transition to adulthood, leaving the youth support system and from forms of a school dedicated to the target group into the more mainstream education and training system, is another critical barrier that many fail to overcome.

Finally, the transition to employment is such a critical stage in which support for orientation, stabilisation and outreach to refugee youth at risk of failure must be provided. At the same time, assistance must be phased out only when a reasonable degree of sustainable stabilisation has been reached.

While supporting smooth transitions for youth is the main task for the agents also in the 'standard' sequence of education, training and employment, the initial insertion into these standard systems of qualification, training and employment of youth who are newcomers to the host country society is the aim of the measures of social orientation and stabilisation, as has been demonstrated.

In parenthesis, the degree to which this orientation and stabilisation is conceptualised as 'integration' into a host society and its values and expectations, which is regarded as stable and providing the criteria for those wishing to be integrated, or to which degree there is an intercultural opening, the acceptance of transnational spaces and adoption of the principle of 'inclusion in diversity' (European Union, 2017) is still a topic of political and societal debate and negotiation in all of the partner countries.

Obviously, the pattern of individual measures and institutional activities to deal with young refugees is highly complex, with many interdependencies and interfaces. Nevertheless, it is only on the way to constituting a thought-out and consistent system.

The emerging pattern of intervention is also quite complex. Consequently, in all of the partner countries, friction in the coordination of these measures has been described.

Be it problems of inter-ministerial coordination, overlapping responsibilities, gaps between various professional rationales of intervention, lack of resources to organise coordination or the complexity to manage and maintain appropriate networks: all have inspired a vivid discussion about better coordination of the multiple activities.

The main criticism of the current policies and activities in the area is that too large of a part of interventions is planned and implemented without a sufficient degree of coordination, without sufficiently managed transitions, without an overall concept and overall monitoring and evaluation.

In all of the partner countries, a wide range of institutional and organisational actors are involved, often reporting to a different level of government and funded by different sources. Moreover, these actors usually follow different rationales of intervention with varying criteria of success.

Institutional traditions, different values and profiles of actors, while being critical for the effectiveness of expert interventions, are also an *inhibition* towards communication and cooperation among the profes-

sions and institutions. Conflicts between the community of social and education policy, more oriented to a client and centred approach of support, and the security and interior policy community, more oriented to safeguarding order and safety and singling out those considered illegal residents a potential threat, are the classic case. Frictions within the various levels of government in federal systems of some partner countries (IT, DE) are also clearly visible.

Funding through *short-term* projects from various European, National, Federal State, Municipality, Foundation and other funds, all with their own criteria for funding, duration and background agenda and a high degree of institutional and organisational fluctuation, therefore add up to serious limitations of the effectiveness of in themselves good and professional interventions.

There is a broad consensus in the literature referred to, and in the practices reported, that *while a consistent overarching legal and statutory framework is needed, next to the need of a uniform European Migration Policy, coordination of concrete measures for integration and in particular coordination of engagement of the civil society, must be on a local and regional level.* Only on this level is it possible to engage the relevant stakeholders, overcome the anonymity of big numbers and statistics, give the 'problem' a face, connect concrete people, and match refugee youth with potential employers looking for talent.

Therefore, practices for such local/regional coordination are also among those needed to be selected and described in more detail by the partners. The case of the CISOTRA strategic partner City of Munich, where a comprehensive municipal concept of refugee integration has been developed and backed up by the City Hall's own funds, is a good practice in this regard.

Therefore, a central part of recent reforms has been the *improvement of coordination* among the actors. Next to a quality provision of individual elements of this range, the organisation of such coordination itself is a critical intervention.

While there is a general consensus that all relevant actors have to be networked and coordinated, there is quite some diversity among the partner countries as to how, with which partners, in which spatial and organisational context and using which organisational means, such coordination takes place. A particular focus is civil society engagement. In all of the partner countries, there is a wide consensus that the surge in the number of refugee youth could not have been managed without

the engagement of non-governmental organisations. The same is true for the ongoing support and integration of young refugees. While access to institutions is a legal right for those with a legal title of protection, integration or inclusion is a societal matter, where the 'struggle for acceptance' is a complex two-way process in which the mutual acceptance of host country civil society actors and young refugees is the prerequisite for sustainable civic engagement.

This overall range of activities presented in such a matrix is the subject of community activity and overall coordination, which has to be planned and organised by the relevant agents. *Each individual practice needs to contribute* either to one or multiple aspects of social integration and educational and training progress to *prepare and organise the respective 'next step.'* No step in the process can be regarded as meaningful and complete without an eye on the progression to the next step.

Therefore, identifying good practices and policies of such coordination has been part of the partners' research and also of the selection of good practices.

Limitations

Each model is a simplification of reality and should be understood within such limitations. We have built and developed it on four pillars:

- process and needs,
- actions,
- stakeholders and their cooperation,
- knowledge and training needed.

Therefore, it works in that framework, which demands further development and deep consideration, which cannot be included in this stage.

In that view, the partner's country comments during the development phases illustrate the limitations and indicate further development. However, some of them were taken into account and realisation during the process of building the Model:

- The chain of education process has too much work-based emphasis. It should focus on the idea of 'inclusion' more. Training can also support social integration concerning cultural and social aspects.

- Strengthen the socio-psychological aspects of UAMS; adaptation, relationships, behaviour is important. The behaviour disorders of UAMS; school and social-health services, within an inter-institutional network aimed at pursuing the well-being of families and citizens in their childhood.
- Just like any other social group, unaccompanied minors are heterogeneous groups. Therefore, the solutions offered to their problems should be various as well.
- The fact that non-registered migrants are common in all project countries except Germany should be considered.
- The perspective of child labour prevention should be encompassed.
- The model needs to be spiral and cyclical: For instance, when migrants fall out of the system, a mechanism should detect this and re-include the migrant into the system.
- Considering migrants as a resource for the host country is essential.

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Part Five

Conclusions

Chapter Fourteen

Project Findings

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Common Points between the Project Countries

In all partner countries, the analysis of the literature makes it noticeably clear that unaccompanied minors are Youth on the Move. They are a particularly 'transnational' group, as they have often been on the run for a long time, are away from family and traditional ties, have often travelled through various countries, worked, and suffered there and are often not sure about their future in the countries of their present residence.

In some countries with less economic opportunity, they mostly seek to move on towards the northern countries. In the northern countries they are involved in a legal process often ending in deportation or an illegal status or one that does not encourage societal or economic integration.

Young refugees therefore are a very particular group, to be well distinguished from 'migration from Country A to Country B' youth. Unaccompanied minors are on the one hand less formed and supported by their parents and family. Therefore, they need more context, structure, and an alternative 'home,' which means a substantial demand on the host country in effort and resources. Therefore, stabilisation of the situation (health, housing, identity etc.) and orientation about the situation, opportunities and plans are the key challenges for youth as well as for the host societies.

The literature shows that protection from prosecution is a general human right, as is the general protection for minors. Integration into host societies, even those which are more and more aware of themselves as 'migration societies,' however, requires a much more complex

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process of mutual negotiation of the terms of acceptance. This process of negotiation requires the host societies to explain themselves, to explain terms of 'inclusion in diversity' and to translate this into concrete regulations of access to education, training, and employment, but also of the terms of societal immersion.

On the side of the youth in all partner countries, this requires reconciling their own resources, influences, expectations and hopes from the families, but also their own aspirations at an age in which forming an identity is a challenge for any youth. Any model of intervention must therefore emphasise provisions to support the stabilisation and orientation of refugee youth. The design of measures for the training of youth needs to consider this as the main paradigm.

Similarly, the design of the system must be centred on this and an intervention on project or measure level must identify the gaps of current youth training, systems of education and training and the training of professionals which currently prevent a smooth transition.

Mainstream of Current Reform

Efforts are underway in all partner countries to better coordinate all relevant actors. Step by step, systems are overcoming the 'crisis mode' of the years of the large surge in migration. In some countries, such as Germany, the number of new arrivals of minors is small, while Italy and Greece are sealed off from new immigrants, even if the methods of exclusion are more than controversial.

In all the partner countries on conceptual level, but also more and more in practice, the actors are working to integrate social work, education, and training. There is a high level of insight that social work alone is not enough, that youth must be educated, trained, and integrated into work. On the one hand this is a consequence of the insight that these youths will stay in high numbers and not return to their 'home' countries soon. If they are not to be an alienated part of the host societies on a permanent basis, a way must be found to educate, train, and insert them into the general system of education and training. This is a huge challenge in all countries for several reasons. The national reports mention great heterogeneity of educational prerequisites, individual aspirations, language skills, cultural background. Also, most of the youth at arrival are at an age at which the youth of the host country mostly finalise their educational career while refugee youth are about to begin it.

Therefore, a serious effort to include these youths requires a major reform of the educational, social support, training, and insertion systems in all partner countries. Basically, all countries are more and more transforming to 'migration countries' in general. They must adapt their systems to this fact in the sense of making their overall systems diversity friendly. At the very least all the countries must face the challenge to develop complementary systems for the group of the young refugees from individual measure/project level to the system level.

The Role of Schools

Schools must be the focal point of such efforts. As schools, due to universal obligatory school attendance for children, are a universal contact point to state and societal organisations, they can potentially be a hub for such holistic approaches or at least be an important part of them. While the reports from all the partner countries indicate the factual importance of what schools do or not do, a conscious adoption of such a role is reported only in some best practices. Being able to play such a role presupposes the insight into the desirability and necessity of such a role as well as the willingness to develop a matching role profile.

Schools traditionally are only responsible for learners at obligatory school age, while many young refugees are beyond this age. Concerning educational prerequisites and personal development level, however, older youth can profit from school type resources as well. School based vocational training also blurs the line between initial school education and adult learning. Transforming schools into more comprehensive training and learning centres therefore is an important point for development. Teaching, social work and consultancy for transitioning to general training and employment systems are ever more integrated. However, institutional separation is still a fact, as is the separation of training of professionals, professional communities, and professional learning.

For all of this, the insight into the basic concepts of diversity, interculturality and inclusiveness as a mission for schools is necessary. All the partner countries are trying hard to make progress in this area. The literature shows conceptual insights in all partner countries and reports examples of activities in this direction.

NGO and the civil society are a 'live laboratory' to develop and test such interventions.

Strong Role of NGOs and Civil Society

In all the partner countries, NGOs play a strong and positive role. While in some countries there is a strong tradition of partly faith-based (e.g., Caritas and other catholic organisations as well as their protestant counterparts) and volunteer engagement in social care, new initiatives add to the traditional ones in all the partner countries.

Partners generally assess that the formal state system would be insufficient to cope with the challenges and that volunteer work prevents the system from collapsing. Many of the initiatives point to innovation that also needs to be adopted by the regular system, such as expanded language learning opportunities, communication and social learning, general social work, and community organisation.

NGO and the civil society in general form an educated community in all partner countries which discusses the current events intensively, educates its members, inspires innovation, and puts pressure on policy makers and institutions to reform.

The factual importance if not indispensability of these organisations gives them substantial leverage to influence policy making. The current challenge for these them is to find a common voice while the organisation of the policy field of social policy in general and refugee support in particular puts them in a situation of competition for economic resources for their work.

Key Information about the CISOTRA Project

- The project partners are from Slovenia, Italy, Greece, Germany, and Turkey.
- The consortium jointly developed and implemented an innovative methodology to foster the social inclusion of unaccompanied minors in transition to early adulthood (through holistic support networks, which facilitate the transition from the youth support and education system to the adult education and employment system).
- The main activities: initial study – applied research on the situation, national seminars, ECTS courses, short training for professionals, workshops for UAMS and young adults, the Model of better social inclusion, Monograph book.
- The project involved around 300 professionals from the area of education, labour market, social care, health, security, 200 UAM and

young migrants, 60 policy officers and decision-makers, and 800 other (different) stakeholders.

Country Specifics Recognised in the Project

Germany

- The overall excellent youth support system in Germany needs to be adapted to the specific needs of UAMS and support to young refugees must be provided also after 18 years of age as a rule, not an exception. Inclusion requires a consistent and specific support system until a stable status of employment and societal immersion is achieved. General adult education needs to be expanded.
- A consistent migration policy needs to be developed, which recognises migration as a fact and overcomes an approach that tries to discourage refugees in general.
- The transition to work-based learning and training must be the priority for the support system for young refugees in contrast to keeping these in a bubble of refugee support in a limbo status of unclear residence status. The opportunities and limitations of the labour market in Germany must be communicated.
- The process of the intercultural transformation of society cannot be left to market forces alone. It must be accompanied by a broad societal reflection of the self-concept of a modern migration society. A comprehensive transcultural opening of all state and societal institutions is required.
- The discussion of traditional gender stereotypes and consistent protection, support and encouragement of women must be the core element of any support system. Traditional perceptions of masculinity must be challenged.

Greece

- Greece is considered as a transit country by both migrants and the authorities. As a result, there is not enough effort to promote social integration in Greek society. The focus of migration policies should be shifted from the provision of temporary shelter to actual social inclusion.
- Policies should support active labour market integration (incl. language lessons, related to training for specific professions, lessons of several skills related to professional life as well as life skills,

and introduction to cultural elements. Municipalities and local stakeholders should create incentives for local businesses to train and hire young refugees.

- Experience of NGOs should be exchanged, e.g., monthly.
- Training addressed to professionals working with UAMs should be strengthened and directed towards self-care and resilience, since the burn-out rate in the sector is remarkably high.
- Policies for minors should encourage contacts with their resident peers in a spirit of mutual intercultural communication and opening as opposed to one-way integration.
- Policies and activities aiming at social inclusion should be flexible to adapt to the specific situation (background, personal characteristics, skills, language biography, country of origin etc.) of each UAM and not treat all of them as a unified group.

Italy

- Italy is the main European gateway for immigration and migration policies that, while being in agreement with the European Union, are often subject to national political decisions based on emotional pressures and political ideology. The development of policies of constant social inclusion for immigrant children is a necessity. Policies should be based on accepting migration, following the law, being able to generate respect for human rights, security, and social inclusion of migrants on equal terms with citizens, including good policies for the protection of the superior interests of children.
- Local policies for the protection of unaccompanied minors are often separated and not coordinated with national policies, creating a fragmented and poorly coordinated system in all its phases.
- Social inclusion must be reworked through facilities for reaching the labour society and the knowledge and attribution of rights that are often considered to be known and applied without verification. This process must be based on a process of intercultural implementation that develops through knowledge and information necessary in the migration society of the globalised world. The training of trainers raises the level of knowledge and the ability to disseminate. Knowledge of the values, traditions and rules of the State is a key step in the recognition of the legal system capa-

ble of transforming migrant children and young refugees in transition into citizens integrated into a process of mutual exchange and cultural evolution.

Slovenia

- Slovenia is considered as a transit country for migrants – most UAMS leave the Slovenian country relatively quickly and follow their path to the countries of Western and Northern Europe.
- The Slovenian partner recommends the application of the general policy recommendations of CISOTRA in Slovenia. Slovenia shall support the development of a high-quality system for the transition of UAMS into adulthood, and safe transitions of UAMS and young refugees within Europe.

Turkey

- The capacity of Child Support Centres for UAMS needs enhancement. A plan on moving towards home arrangements might be useful for both UAMS and refugee children.
- Social and emotional support is another field of UAMS requirements. They need psychosocial support and extracurricular skills development.
- UAMS and professionals working with them need to get more legal advice and knowledge of the mechanisms concerning UAMS' rights. To ensure that UAMS' rights are monitored and protected, a guardian must be assigned by law. Technical knowledge and skills such as the assignment of guardians and curators need enhancement.
- UAMS who are not registered and who are not under state protection are at risk of the worst forms of child labour. Protection and support systems need to be enlarged and enhanced. Awareness-raising programmes regarding risks and relevant legislation in Turkey on early and forced marriages and child labour are required for UAMS.
- The professionals working with UAMS in Turkey need regular training and supervision programmes. Sensitivity and knowledge of the staff that provide monitoring or security services, teachers, health personnel, migration specialists, social workers should be enhanced. Training on various competencies, refugee, child, and

human rights training are important. They also need to acquire the skills to become an advocate for children and to be able to understand their perspectives. Assignment of translators or bilingual staff is also a critical need.

- An important need for support staff emerged as a treatment for psychosocial well-being. Social workers, social services specialists and staff working directly with UAMS suffer from burn-out and depression and they need to acquire skills for self-help and treatment.

CiSOTRA Key Achievements

Most of the project achievements focus on recommendations for professionals to support better social inclusion of UAM in transition to adulthood, with a focus on the needs of UAM and training for professionals that work with them. The main achievements of the project were:

- Comparative initial research on the legal and social situation of young refugees in the partner countries and collection of more than 50 good practices.
- Development of a model of coordination of actors for better social inclusion of migrants in transition to adulthood, https://CiSoTRA.eu/CiSoTRA-model/.
- Development of on-line training for professionals (4 ECTS courses and 15 short training units), visit e-platform: https://elearning.CiSoTRA.eu/.
- Monograph book, http://www.toknowpress.net/monographs/978-83-65020-35-2/.

Chapter Fifteen

Policy Recommendations

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Based on the evidence presented in the national reports, studying the good practices which have been selected by the partners and the initial analysis, the project partners have agreed on the policy recommendations to follow. The recommendations have been reviewed and discussed by the partners during the partner meeting in Bari (Oct. 2018, the general and specialised training in Naples, Nov. 2018 and 2019) as well as in written communication.

The recommendations are grouped regarding various levels of decision making in a country.

National Level (General)

Follow a holistic model of transition of UAMS *to adulthood.* The transition of UAMS to adulthood is a complex process. It includes adolescence, migration and often a change of the cultural environment. The following elements of a holistic model of inclusion need to be organised: Protection of UAMS and young refugees along with all international obligations, but also taking account of the reality of the existence of large populations of displaced young persons with no perspective of returning to a home. Outreach to young refugees to include them in the support systems. Stabilisation of the social and psychological situation to prepare them for the following steps. Orientation on conditions of success in the host society and potential educational and professional pathways to education and employment. Immersion into the regular social fabric of society.

Support and fund NGOS *in the field.* In all CISOTRA partner countries, NGOS are at the forefront of care and organising transitions. All policymaking must include the expertise of these actors and leave space for them to develop and exchange expertise and best practices, while at the same time creating a legal and financial framework that assures their independence and viability.

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Develop and expand training for professionals. Migration created trans-cultural spaces in all partner countries. Transculturality therefore needs to be the leading paradigm of training, which must focus on cooperation and coordination competences, competences in understanding the psycho-social dynamics of refugees and working techniques helpful for stabilisation and orientation, including encouraging overcoming traditional perceptions of gender roles, self-organisation, and digital participation. Actors in the system need to act according to the needs of a trans-cultural society. More overarching competencies in fields like social support in an inter- to the trans-cultural environment, operating the mechanisms of the complex educational and employment system for migrants, institutional cooperation etc. An understanding of the mechanisms of discrimination according to gender, class and background is required. Methodologies of creativity, culture, and arts, such as theatre, creative writing, media production, are proven elements of the orientation of young refugees. Each actor needs to understand phenomena like traumatisation, cultural and biographical re-orientation. For all professionals, an in-depth knowledge of the immediate cooperation partner´s logic of action, responsibilities, resources, and policies is essential. Also, face-to-face relationships must be built locally to form a capable network of actors which is also effective in addressing emergencies.

Local Level

In many partner countries, the local level of government and civic participation (like municipalities) have proven themselves as places of practical problem solving even in a context of split up responsibilities and contradictory policies on the state level. Therefore, transition of minors must be managed on a local and regional level, using funds from state, federal and local sources. A dedicated effort for coordination of various actors must therefore be made. Ideally, an overall regional integration strategy for refugees is formulated, of which the integration of unaccompanied minors is a part. The various actors must consult each other regularly. Common policy goals and overarching case management are to be implemented. Spaces and opportunities for exchanging practices and sharing insights and experiences among all NGO and state institutions actors are required. These should be independent of temporary changes of party politics and focus on civic participation, including that of migrant populations.

Municipalities need to ensure that young refugees understand the local institutional, economic, and social environment. The host country presents itself in the shape of the local community. It is critical for young refugees to know the actors and their expectations, responsibilities, and opportunities in very concrete terms.

International/European Level

All international and European obligations for the protection of UAMS must be fully observed. A clear migration policy, which takes into account the realities of international migration and the reality of a high number of displaced young refugees needs to be developed in full solidarity within Europe. The right of women to safe migration must be strengthened. The current indecision and disorganisation of the political framework in all partner countries put all actors in an unfortunate situation: perspectives for youth are unclear, political aims in various fields of policy are contradictory. No clear perspectives and consequently educational and vocational pathways for youth can be developed consequently. Frustration and societal disintegration, in some cases aggression and psychological health problems (as depression) follow. Work with the member states to assure safe and legal travel from third countries and between the member states and respect for the right to apply for protection at the EU borders. This is particularly relevant for women. Support for and obligations of EU border states to protect the rights of refugees must be strengthened.

Enforce the full protection of legal and safe work for all youth, independent of their legal status. The phenomenon of work migration of the third-country national youth needs to be dealt with in more constructive ways. Pathways into legal and safe work must be a priority also for displaced young refugees, i.e., those without the chance of a safe return to a home country. While youth do mostly flee from unbearable local situations and are often affected by violence and prosecution, withholding opportunities for education and work provokes illegality and exploitation.

Transfer of good practices: Good practices must be exchanged and mainstreamed, backed up by adequate funding, including training and international exchange of staff. On the operational level, many good practices of language learning, socialisation, individualised social work, and educational support have been developed in all the partner coun-

tries. Transferring such initiatives requires an extensive effort to describe such practices in English and to exchange the experiences of professionals. International programmes of qualification for staff in the field and field visits must complement theoretical learning. The educational program, which has been developed by the CISOTRA project, therefore will be continuously updated, expanded, and disseminated. Individual elements should be detailed and further piloted. A comprehensive system of monitoring good practices in Europe should be set up and adequately funded.

Final Words

CISOTRA Partners commit to supporting project results and their sustainability through a series of activities:

- Discussing the Model of better social inclusion at the national/regional level to find a coordinator in a specific environment.
- Promotion of E-platform with on-line ECTS courses and short online training units, particularly among stakeholders, and providers of training for professionals, to contribute to an increased level of knowledge, awareness-raising, and networking.
- Partners will organise training and discussions on the topic of UAMS in transition to adulthood also in the future (dissemination events).
- HE education institutions will use courses and training materials developed in the project within courses at their institutions – courses will be run internationally.
- Through project outputs and sustainability strategy, partners of CISOTRA (institutions and experts) remain available to support the professionals working with UAMS in transition to adulthood in home countries. With those approaches, we also aim to contribute to the EU Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion (2021–2027).

Reviews

The monograph *Towards the Actor Coordination Model* aims to foster the inclusion of disadvantaged learners, including persons with a migrant background while preventing and combating discriminatory practices. It is connected with the project CiSOTRA – Civil Society for social inclusion of unaccompanied minors in transition to adulthood – learning communities for shaping transition interfaces. Despite the overall diverse situation of migrants in the partner countries (Germany, Slovenia, Italy, Greece, Turkey), all of them report quite similar problematic phenomena. The monograph ends with policy recommendations at the local, national, and European level.

Europe is currently faced with a surge in migration from third countries, which is considered by some as a migration 'crisis.' Unaccompanied minors are a significant group among young refugees and although most of them are close to adult age, these young refugees enter the distinct systems of youth protection that exist in all of Europe´s countries. Although minors (youth under 18 years old) are a special group, the general rules, and policies of the European Union on migrants apply. They are particularly relevant for young migrants, as they are the largest group.

Therefore, the topic of young refugees is in all the countries of Europe and the countries of the partners of the CiSOTRA project, a complex one in many respects:

- Political controversy about the legitimacy of third-country immigration for reasons of conflict and hopelessness.
- The complex psychological and legal situation of the youth: insecure status of residence., pressures from host country law enforcement, societal attitudes, often unrealistic own and family expectations.
- Educational, legal and youth protection systems which are generally not designed for this situation and therefore must be reshaped and repurposed under the pressure of high numbers of migrating youth and limited human and sometimes financial resources and a limited systemic adaptability of systems.

The monograph is divided into five parts. In the first, introduction

part of the monograph, some key information about the CISOTRA project is given as well as an introduction to the model. The second part of the monograph is theoretically focused. As the title Social Inclusion and the Transition to Adulthood suggests, there are several short contributions covering topics of education and work-based learning, migration processes, communication, language skills, the use of information technologies, etc.:

- The role of inclusive education in social inclusion of refugees.
- The best of both worlds: use of information-communication technologies among teenage migrants in Slovenia.
- The crucial role of language skills in ensuring access of unaccompanied minors and young adult migrants to basic services: challenges and effective.
- Work-based-learning and the inclusion pathway into the labour market.
- Intercultural pedagogy.
- EU regulation – the rules for non-EU citizens.

The methodology of the monograph is based on a qualitative approach to address the question of how to foster social inclusion (including inclusion through education) of unaccompanied minor migrants in transition to early adulthood through holistic support networks, which would facilitate the transition from the youth support and education system to the adult education and employment system. The monograph is well structured and organized. The research background is well elaborated. The scientific treatment is plausible and free of any major technical issues.

Dr. Karim Moustaghfir

Towards the Actor Coordination Model is a relevant and timely text connected with the project CiSOTRA – Civil Society for social inclusion of unaccompanied minors in transition to adulthood – learning communities for shaping transition interfaces.

Unaccompanied minors are a significant group among young refugees in the migration 'crisis.' Therefore, the topic of young refugees is in all the countries of Europe and the countries of the partners of the CiSOTRA project, a complex one in many respects. Although minors (youth under 18 years old) are a special group, the general rules, and policies of the European Union on migrants apply. They are particularly relevant for young migrants, as they are the largest group. Unaccompanied minors are subject to several international treaties and conventions, which put them in a privileged position as being particularly vulnerable and therefore entitled to comprehensive protection.

The monograph is divided into five parts:

- In the first, introduction part of the monograph, some key information about the CiSOTRA project is given as well as an introduction to the model.
- The second part of the monograph is theoretically focused. As the title Social Inclusion and the transition to adulthood suggests, there are several short contributions covering topics of education and work-based learning, migration processes, communication, language skills, the use of information technologies.
- In the third part of the monograph with the title Social inclusion and the role of communities as transition interfaces – lessons learned, authors from the project countries describe the current situation and experience regarding the inclusion of young migrants and UAM in transition to adulthood.
- The fourth part of the monograph wears the title CiSOTRA model. This part summarizes the intellectual work done in the project reflecting in the creation and truly clear description of a model for better transition of minors to adulthood.
- In the last part of the monograph title Conclusions, overall project findings are summarized, and policy recommendations explained at the local, national as well as European level.

The methodology of the book is based on the case studies in the partners' countries. One of the most important achievement is the

CISOTRA model – is a model of cooperation and co-dependency between organizations that deal with unaccompanied migrants minors and young adults, and their interrelations in terms of supporting minors in the system. The model explains what the organizations could expect from each other, as well as, what each organization in the network should change in its functioning, to improve its work. The model is an innovative and inclusive approach to support the UAM in transition to adulthood and to strengthen the links between different interfaces, i.e., organizations involved in the support for young migrants forming learning communities, i.e., networks of different actors. However, the role of a coordinator, which is often neglected, could contribute to a more integrative community leading to a higher level of cohesion in a society. The model is based on a structured 'Theory of Change' planning process.

Dr. Mitja Sardoč

Europe is currently faced with a surge in migration from third countries, which is considered by some as a migration 'crisis'. Differences in attitude and general political outlook brought to the surface by this surge are hard to reconcile. While it is obvious that the situation in the countries of origin of refugees is desperate, the legal system in most European countries admits third country nationals only in cases of individual or collective prosecution. All refugees, except the few admitted under the legal framework, are facing long periods of insecurity regarding their status of residence and having only limited access to both the educational system and the labour market. Among them, young refugees are most numerous by far, as, due to the current mostly illegal ways of getting to Europe, young healthy and dynamic males have the best chance of making it. These young people carry with them the hope of friends and family that they will be safe from the direct consequences of war and conflict, but also the hope that they will be able to get to and stay in Europe to support their families from there. The aim of the CISOTRA project was to develop and apply innovative methodology to foster social inclusion of unaccompanied minor migrants in transition to early adulthood through holistic support networks, which would facilitate the transition from the youth support and education system to the adult education and employment system.

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