



# Labour migration and the systems of social protection

## *Country report Belgium*

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# **1 Introduction**

The first part of this report consists of a historical overview of immigration, migration policy in Belgium, the role of migrants in the labour market and differences between old and new migration - particularly its organization and networks.

It will present the important issues that affect the job market such as the opening of the labour market, discrimination, the issues of training, education and recognition of qualifications; targeted policies and the promotion of diversity.

It will also provide an overview of public policies, measures and actions taken: anti-discrimination laws, promotion of diversity, and migration policy arranged through quotas, regularization and the work permits system.

## 2 A short history of immigration in Belgium

### 2.1 Period of organized migration (1946 – 1974)

1946 marks the beginning of organized migration to Belgium. The immediate post war period was characterized by a great demand for labour and new agreements with sending countries. Belgium turned to countries which exported labour: to Italy (1946-1956), Spain (1956), Greece (1957), Morocco (1964), Turkey (1964), and Poland for workers in the coal and steel industry. The main groups present in Belgium up to the early 1990s therefore originated from these countries (with the partial exception of Poland, as most members of the Polish Diaspora had come to Belgium before the Second World War). Unlike most other European colonial powers, Belgium did not use her colony (Democratic Republic of the Congo) as a place to recruit migrant workers from.

Nationality of the foreigners living in Belgium 1900 – 1970<sup>1</sup>

Country	1900	1920	1938	1970
France	56.576	67.309	71.322	86.658
Netherlands	63.923	39.051	68.014	61.261
Poland	-	5.329	61.809	18.370
Italy	3.543	3.723	37.134	249.490
Spain	-	-	-	67.534
Greece	-	-	-	22.534
Portugal	-	-	-	7.177
Turkey	-	-	-	20.312
Morocco	-	-	-	39.294
Germany	53.758	7.960	14.472	-
Luxemburg	10.417	5.792	11.185	-
Great Britain	5.748	6.246	9.161	-
Czechoslovakia	-	712	16.230	-
Total	212.474	149.577	339.799	696.282

Between 1946 and 1974, Belgium resorted to immigration to meet shortages of labour. During this time period, migration was therefore primarily conceived as labour migration, rather settlement migration. However, this is primarily an analytical distinction, because the course of history showed that labour migration led to the

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<sup>1</sup> Albert Martens : Les immigrés. Flux et reflux d'une main-d'œuvre d'appoint, p.45 et Institut National de Statistique

permanent settlement of the immigration population, even though the political authorities initially intended differently.

In view of a declining birth rate, and the politically sensitive unequal demographic development in Belgium's French-speaking south and the Flemish-speaking North in the early 1960s, the government identified immigration as a way to steer population development. In response to a report by the French demographer Alfred Sauvy, who had advocated abandoning the economic focus of the migration policy, immigration policy began to focus more on the integration of the immigrant workers and their families. A new family policy was designed to fight what the employers feared the most: migrants' mobility. As Employers were aware that wages were lower in Belgium than in nearby areas they welcomed this development as an important incentive to bind workers to their jobs. Emphasis was placed on the family dimension of migration in terms of the information provided to the migrants in the countries of emigration, and through financial incentives.

## 2.2 Recruitment halt (1974) and the myth of "zero migration"

On August 1<sup>st</sup> 1974, the global economic crisis and rising unemployment led the Belgian government to halt further immigration. Migration was controlled using hiring quotas, which focused on highly skilled workers. The government took steps to regularize the situation of the third country nationals who were often found to be residing in Belgium illegally.

As of 1974, the Belgian authorities acted in two ways. Firstly, they established conditions favourable to integration and devised ways to integrate those who were found on the Belgian territory. Secondly, they tried to ensure that no more immigrants would settle in the country. These two contrasting directions are reflected in the development of the legal framework that governs migration and the rights and responsibilities of immigrants in Belgian society. Whereas certain laws strengthened the rights of those already in the country, others created new barriers to migration and allowed for tougher controls and surveillance.

The progressive strain in Belgian policy is represented by the 1980 Law, which defined requirements for the entry, residence, settlement and expulsion of foreigners, and allowed the newcomers to have certain rights. Through the 1981 law, racism was outlawed. Hence the status of foreigners and the security of their residence was improved. These laws were followed by the introduction of a new integration policy in 1984, characterized by the relaxation of conditions for the acquisition of citizenship, increased regulations against racism, and new social policies geared towards immigrants.

On the other hand, various amendments were made to the Act of 1980 (in 1984, 1987, 1991, 1993, and 1996) that aimed to restrict the conditions for entry and strengthen the means of surveillance. Since 1987, successive governments have attempted to halt two main sources of inflow: students and refugee applicants. As a result immigration has become criminalised. This tendency to criminalise immigrants

has resulted in the conflation of refugees, drug dealers and terrorists, resulting in greater border security and greater sanctions against people residing illegally.

In the year 2000, fresh immigration publications were produced by international agencies, a European Commission Communication was published, and a political and public debate was held on the possible reopening of borders to migrants. This marked the end of the so called zero immigration period.

### 2.3 Europeanization of Belgian migration policy

In the last decades, EU regulations and other international obligations had an increasingly important impact on Belgium's migration and integration policy. The Schengen Agreement meant that Belgium needed to loosen its policy in order to comply with international obligations and democratic principles. New foreigners continued entering Belgium, some legally, others illegally. Due to these developments and other factors, it proved impossible to achieve the government's goal of zero immigration. During this period there were six forms of legal entry:

- Free movement within the European Union by nationals of member states
- The family reunion
- Labour migration (57,000 work permits issued between 1974 and 1993)
- Foreign students
- Asylum seekers
- Tourists with or without a visa.

The year 2008 saw the adoption of the "Blue Card" Directive which relaxed the conditions for hiring and recruiting highly skilled migrant workers. In Belgium, 2008 was also marked by the creation of a Ministry of Migration and Asylum.

European states, including Belgium, wish to attract skilled migrants; however they are anxious to strengthen controls on illegal immigration - controls largely outsourced to countries that constitute the external borders of Europe. However, the irregular migrants respond to economic and social needs: to occupy jobs which are short of workers and keep prices low enough for continued mass consumption. This will be discussed in greater depth below.

### 2.4 Undocumented migration and the Regularization Act

Belgium is also home to migrants who entered Belgium illegally or who remained there after their tourist visa or work/residence permits expired. The testimonies of

these undocumented migrants describe the working conditions on the black market. Employment in this sector is characterized by absolute poverty in terms of working conditions and wages. The jobs are usually in the spheres of cleaning, construction, hospitality industry, agriculture, etc. and are extremely undervalued. The undocumented workforce is sought by employers who require flexible and low-paid workers, although foreigners who hold these jobs are not necessarily unqualified. Research by Krzeslo (2001) demonstrated the existence of ethnic niches occupied by illegal immigrants. We argue that illegal work here has the function of maintaining some sectors. Indeed, certain activities are assigned automatically to undocumented immigrants, and employers have rarely been pursued judicially. This liberal 'laissez-faire' policy demonstrates the level of tolerance of illegal employment. The government, employers, citizens implicitly accepted that illegal immigrants carried out what is deemed to be 'dirty work', whilst concordantly refusing to accept new immigrants.

The Act published on December 22<sup>nd</sup> 1999 was implemented in order to regularize migration, as the extent of illegal migration had become apparent. This adjustment gave an idea as to the extent of illegal immigration: 36,000 files were introduced representing approximately 50,000 people, including 23,000 minors. However, it is likely that there still are many illegal immigrants, who, due to misinformation, lack of confidence, or other reasons have not sought amnesty.

### **3 Current demographic structure of Belgium**

On December 31, 2007, Belgium had 10,666,866 inhabitants, including 971,448 foreigners, 9.1% of the total population, the same percentage as in 1990. The majority of foreigners were citizens of the European Union. Italians were the largest group, followed by the French and Dutch. Romanians, as new entrants, experienced the largest increase as a group (+300% between 2005 and 2008).

The variations are due to several factors:

- Natural increase;
- Naturalization in response to changes in legislation (1991, 1995, 1998, 2000, 2006), i.e. change of nationality. Between 1991 and 2008, some 600,000 people have become Belgian;
- Net migration between 1990 and 1999, the largest group being EU citizens (59.1%). After a slight decline in the early 2000s, there has been an increase due to enlargement of the EU and the accession of ten new countries.



## Legal population by nationality - 2002-2008

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Africa	136.532	131.685	131.888	131.538	133.802	138.673	142.655
Morocco	90.657	83.641	81.771	81.287	80.609	80.587	79.867
DR Congo	14.349	14.607	14.757	13.983	14.252	15.347	16.132
Algeria	7.382	7.338	7.480	7.495	7.560	7.830	8.185
Tunisia	3.337	3.275	3.338	3.312	3.428	3.499	3.591
Cameroon	1.923	2.232	2.454	2.738	3.305	3.988	4.966
Rwanda	2.930	2.593	2.726	2.996	3.143	3.341	3.166
Ghana	1.845	2.351	2.516	2.438	2.702	2.833	2.882
Others	14.109	15.648	16.846	17.289	18.803	21.248	23.866
Asia	32.033	35.544	39.155	42.075	48.222	53.286	57.624
China	4.567	6.085	6.951	7.358	7.588	8.010	8.254
India	3.608	3.958	4.373	4.758	5.305	5.718	6.166
Japan	3.691	3.776	3.958	4.192	4.277	4.468	4.578
Pakistan	2.094	2.417	2.647	2.975	3.503	3.834	3.797
Philippines	3.276	3.374	3.405	3.224	3.133	3.101	3.109
Thailand	2.075	2.235	2.445	2.586	2.754	2.894	2.993
Iran	1.150	1.138	1.244	1.425	2.157	3.238	3.723
Others	11.572	12.561	14.132	15.557	19.505	22.023	25.004
North America	14.227	14.220	14.183	14.050	13.811	13.902	14.033
USA	11.814	11.709	11.582	11.4476	11.180	11.149	11.235
Canada	2.413	2.511	2.601	2.574	2.631	2.753	2.798
South America	9.781	10.579	11.041	11.534	12.108	13.061	13.786
Brazil	1.841	2.025	2.161	2.413	2.721	3.338	3.860
Chile	1.350	1.275	1.205	1.139	1.0088	1.058	999
Others	6.590	7.279	7.675	7.982	8.299	8.665	8.927
Oceania	871	891	914	896	905	853	889
Indeterminate and Stateless	3.079	3.398	3.271	3.115	3.375	3.386	3.740
Indeterminate	2.780	3.078	2.961	2.776	3.016	2.972	3.264
Stateless	299	320	310	339	359	414	476

From: Migrations et populations de l'immigration en Belgique – Rapport démographiques 2008 – UCL/CECLR, 2009

This table shows that two thirds of foreigners living in Belgium are Europeans (EU-27). The remaining 30% are Moroccans and Turks, the two largest groups of non-Europeans. An increase of some 300,000 Belgians between 2002 and 2008 can also be observed, due to the naturalization process and birth of children, following the changes in nationality legislation.

Distribution by groups/nationality of registered immigration – 1998-2007  
(except asylum seekers and refugees)

Nationality	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Total	61.252	68.443	68.599	77.572	82.637	81.890	85.370	90.337	96.290	146.409
Belgium	10.572	10.681	11.320	11.610	12.423	13.113	12.932	12.950	12.857	36.483
Foreigners	50.680	57.762	57.279	65.962	70.214	68.777	72.438	77.387	83.433	109.926
Europe	33.739	39.111	37.133	40.294	41.581	41.602	45.231	50.615	55.531	100.716
EU 27	29.704	30.614	32.451	34.916	35.139	35.185	39.362	44.500	49.573	57.973
EU 15	27.358	28.018	29.593	29.685	30.220	30.446	32.356	34.872	37.435	38.395
Germany	3.206	3.070	3.036	2.883	2.965	2.942	3.307	3.250	3.290	3.385
Austria	262	258	205	220	258	248	248	254	250	282
Danmark	397	385	408	383	326	339	299	343	318	295
Spain	1.141	1.163	1.355	1.527	1.503	1.545	1.591	1.827	1.848	1.902
Finland	416	411	462	389	510	388	421	387	377	389
France	7.385	7.931	8.108	8.039	8.134	8.187	9.520	10.377	11.570	12.269
Great Britain	2.722	3.020	3.222	2.660	2.545	2.496	2.364	2.207	2.015	2.042
Greece	539	605	531	554	593	636	601	716	558	495
Ireland	352	328	339	344	348	292	278	285	256	228
Italy	2.502	2.603	2.600	2.439	2.310	2.293	2.301	2.459	2.613	2.708
Luxemburg	194	184	189	218	234	231	227	244	301	246
Netherland	6.242	6.200	7.178	8.167	8.403	8.546	8.789	10.109	11.488	11.370
Portugal	1.384	1.313	1.320	1.347	1.565	1.822	1.907	1.933	2.030	2.293
Sweden	616	547	640	515	526	481	503	481	521	491
Poland	1.120	1.152	1.132	2.929	2.427	2.085	3.481	4.815	6.694	9.393
Bulgaria	197	227	269	425	474	498	706	853	797	2.625
Romania	388	587	650	966	996	998	1.438	2.322	3.059	5.491
Others	641	630	807	911	1.022	1.158	1.381	1.638	1.588	2.069
Europe non EU	4.035	8.497	4.682	5.378	6.442	6.417	5.869	6.115	5.958	6.260
Bosnia-Her.	19	47	28	76	77	90	113	99	101	80
Croatia	53	57	41	112	95	60	86	99	96	114
Macedonia	84	120	114	185	233	232	201	267	253	
Russia	204	223	319	445	449	486	492	497	760	783
Ex-USSR	298	310	260	200	145	124	107	150		
Serbia-Mon.	66	4.245	70	161	222	259	296	281	465	
Former-Yugos.	172	593	122	180	169	149	155	165		
Turkey	2.449	2.132	2.815	2.987	3.874	3.831	3.237	3.389	2.999	3.180
Others Europe	690	770	913	1.032	1.178	1.186	1.182	1.168	1.284	2.103

From: Migrations et populations de l'immigration en Belgique – Rapport démographiques 2008 – UCL/CECLR, 2009

Distribution by groups/nationality of registered immigration – 1998-2007  
(except asylum seekers and refugees)/2

Nationality	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Asia (without Turkey)	4.161	4.406	4.917	6.074	7.281	7.072	7.385	7.370	7.772	7.801
China	667	700	821	1.280	2.127	1.579	1.394	1.225	1.469	1.171
India	536	561	662	852	959	1.101	1.213	1.339	1.516	1.640
Japan	872	956	890	798	820	938	1.083	1.027	999	1.027
Pakistan	221	167	147	283	383	390	564	673	511	456
Philippines	430	397	410	559	538	399	368	349	435	436
Thailand	276	325	373	447	469	553	614	573	546	555
Others Asia	1.159	1.300	1.614	1.855	1.985	2.112	2.149	2.184	2.296	2.516
Africa	7.792	8.835	9.741	12.884	15.025	14.435	14.012	13.388	13.690	14.933
Algeria	357	425	466	674	710	732	769	725	736	879
Cameroon	181	207	149	335	468	456	510	618	638	835
DR Congo	674	793	822	1.413	1.313	1.133	1.143	1.106	1.068	1.181
Ghana	174	213	273	370	617	387	261	529	411	385
Morocco	4.327	4.936	5.667	7.072	8.495	8.438	8.014	7.106	7.488	7.831
Rwanda	158	145	177	147	138	207	203	163	192	263
Tunisia	258	290	354	440	494	510	445	494	530	567
Others Africa	1.663	1.826	1.733	2.433	2.790	2.572	2.667	2.647	2.627	2.992
North America	3.285	3.347	3.360	3.430	3.331	3.110	3.181	3.073	3.137	3.081
Canada	457	459	566	540	632	628	578	665	584	626
USA	2.828	2.888	2.794	2.890	2.699	2.482	2.603	2.408	2.553	2.455
South America	1.384	1.685	1.760	2.587	2.450	2.196	2.294	2.594	2.969	2.925
Brazil	296	323	416	487	472	451	584	737	1.022	996
Others	1.088	1.362	1.344	2.100	1.978	1.745	1.710	1.857	1.947	1.929
Oceania	243	256	263	278	241	259	234	240	212	262
Indeterminate and Stateless	76	122	105	415	305	103	101	107	122	110

From : Migrations et populations de l'immigration en Belgique – Rapport démographiques 2008 – UCL/CECLR, 2009

This table shows the number of foreign entrants per year in Belgium from 1998 to 2007. We observe that while for most nationalities the number of inputs is relatively stable, for some the number has steadily increased. Some nations show peculiarities - the number of French has increased from 7,385 to 12,269 entries per year, Dutch from 6,242 to 11,488 per year, Poles from 1120 to 6694 per year, Romanians from 388 to 5,491 per year, even Moroccans from 4327 to 7488 per year.

## Acquisition of Belgian citizenship

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Morocco	9.133	21.917	24.018	15.832	10.565	8.704	7.977	7.753	8.722
Turkey	4.402	17.282	14.401	7.805	5.186	4.467	3.602	3.204	3.039
Italy	1.187	3.650	3.451	2.341	2.646	2.585	2.086	2.360	2.017
DR Congo	1.890	2.993	2.991	2.809	1.796	2.271	1.876	1.569	1.793
France	363	948	1.025	856	698	780	772	820	936
Algeria	520	1.071	1.281	926	826	830	739	658	687
Rwanda			794	1.012	557	571	700	635	924
Netherlands	234	492	601	646	522	665	672	692	668
Poland	253	551	677	630	460	465	470	550	586
Romania		384	297	282	271	311	330	423	554
Pakistan		315	425	360	248	293	298	338	666
Russia		142	134	170	147	231	267	301	1.533
Others	6.291	12.337	12.887	12.748	9.787	12.581	11.723	12.557	14.038
Total	24.273	62.082	62.982	46.417	33.709	34.754	31.512	31.860	36.063

From: L'immigration en Belgique : effectifs, mouvements et marché du travail – SOPEMI, 2009, p.18

This table shows the acquisition of nationality between 1999 and 2007. In less than 10 years 363,652 people became Belgian. The Moroccans and Turks have been the largest groups.

## Asylum Seekers 2002 – 2007

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Russia	1.156	1.680	1.361	1.438	1.582	1.436
Serbia-Montenegro	1.451	1.198	1.294	1.203	778	1.219
Iraq	461	282	388	903	695	825
DR Congo	1.789	1.778	1.471	1.272	843	716
Afghanistan	326	329	287	253	365	696
Guinea	515	354	565	643	413	526
Iran	743	1.153	512	497	631	411
Slovakia	635	390	730	773	126	364
Armenia	340	316	477	706	381	339
Rwanda	487	450	427	565	370	321
Turkey	970	618	561	453	380	250
Others	9.932	8.392	7.284	7.251	5.023	4.012
Total	18.805	16.940	15.357	15.957	11.587	11.115

From: L'immigration en Belgique : effectifs, mouvements et marché du travail – SOPEMI, 2009

This table shows the numbers of asylum applications from 2002 to 2007. There is a relatively stable number of recognized refugees in Belgium, however, the trend has been a downward one in recent years.

## Illegal aliens arrested in 2008

Nationality	Number	%
Algeria	2.424	15,08
Morocco	2.036	12,67
India	1.616	10,06
Iraq	866	5,39
Romania	819	5,10
Brazil	570	3,55
Poland	565	3,52
Palestine	560	3,48
Bulgaria	463	2,88
Afghanistan	438	2,73
Tunisia	338	2,10
Serbia	326	2,03
Russia	317	1,97
Iran	301	1,87
China	264	1,64
Turkey	222	1,38
Total	16.070	100

From: Migrations et populations de l'immigration en Belgique – Rapport démographiques 2008 – UCL/CECLR, 2009

This table shows the number of foreigners arrested and detained in Belgium in 2008. This gives an indication of the countries where these people come from and their nationality.

## 4 The labour market and immigration

### 4.1 Permits needed to access the labour market

This section provides information about the job market in Belgium. It gives some figures on immigrants, the number of work permits issued, the workforce rates, the unemployment rates, etc.

To have legal access to the labour market, workers from outside Europe must have a work permit or a business visa if they want to access non-salaried employment. These are issued for a maximum period of five years and are designated for a specific economic activity.

General governmental jobs are not available to immigrants, as these are reserved for nationals (except in the administration of the Brussels-Capital Region and the services of the French Community Commission).

The permits need to be requested from the regional employment services: FOREM (Wallonia), Actiris (Brussels) and VDAB (Flanders).

There are three types of permits:

- The A permit is of unlimited duration, valid for any employer, industry, or profession. It is awarded to foreign workers living and working in Belgium for several years on a B permit.
- The B permit is for a limited period of a maximum 12 months and renewable for an employer. It is granted to foreigners whose employer has first obtained an employment authorization, which is granted after verification that there are no unemployed Belgians or EU nationals available for the job.
- The C permit was introduced in 2003. It is granted for a limited period of 12 months maximum, valid for any employer, industry, or profession. It is issued to foreigners residing legally and temporarily in Belgium for reasons other than work: students and applicants for refugee status.

Certain categories of foreigners are exempt from needing work permits: Refugees and spouses of Belgians.

## 4.2 Admission of foreign workers

In 2007, 39,336 B permits were issued to foreign workers (with 23,028 first time B permits). The Polish, Romanians and Bulgarians benefited most.

### A and B permits delivered to foreign workers by nationality

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Africa	2.826	2.546	2.489	1.252	807	908	939	1.134
South Africa	156	161	169	123	93	122	117	143
DR Congo	655	424	348	133	89	101	120	150
Morocco	856	884	858	368	198	208	212	268
America	2.457	2.560	2.240	1.792	1.807	1.921	2.068	2.098
Brazil	223	184	140	122	176	178	192	238
Canada	368	390	372	300	288	268	290	284
USA	1.455	1.574	1.331	1.106	1.103	1.181	1.231	1.181
Asia	3.078	3.185	3.472	2.979	3.041	3.574	4.144	4.974
China	493	499	558	393	300	419	555	616
India	675	821	1.049	642	1.167	1.324	1.656	2.170
Japan	976	1.025	1.090	1.022	1.063	1.195	1.234	1.327
Europe	3.510	3.611	12.554	3.499	3.406	5.448	13.4447	30.982
Bulgaria	193	219	226	236	194	217	225	2.027
Estonia	11	10	9	10	10	12	27	35
Hungary	158	150	357	145	157	162	306	326
Latvia	12	13	17	21	20	24	28	34
Lituania	28	29	33	20	31	35	80	109
Poland	420	498	597	851	1.425	3.132	10.391	22.158
Czech Rep.	148	181	163	256	136	165	255	492
Romania	285	392	408	398	367	492	687	3.876
Russia	378	368	428	319	271	277	290	333
Slovakia	100	141	221	148	120	143	407	578
Slovenia	253	246	243	205	11	22	20	35
Turkey	447	436	415	290	240	349	407	543
Oceania	168	189	177	163	151	155	149	147
Australia	126	141	135	130	123	125	123	113
Others	34	23	214	6	1	5	4	1
Total	12.073	12.114	12.554	9.691	9.213	12.011	20.751	39.336

From: L'immigration en Belgique : effectifs, mouvements et marché du travail – SOPEMI, 2009, p.66

The award of a B permit depends upon the non-availability of Belgian or EU workers for the industry or occupation sought. However, there are exceptions, especially in case of highly skilled workers. Since 2007 researchers and managers who work in very specialised areas have been also exempt.

There is a steady increase in the number of B permits granted. However, the number of permits issued to highly skilled workers - awarded mostly to Indians, Americans

and Japanese individuals - has decreased, whilst a significant increase for core occupations has been noted (predominantly for seasonal work in horticulture).

### 4.3 Immigrants in the job market

Belgium had a labour force of 4,863,662 people, 3,662,000 employees, 703,000 non-wage workers and 498,662 unemployed people in 2007. The foreign labour force was 458,909 persons, representing 9.4% of the total workforce.

#### Workforce by nationality

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Belgium	4.143.223	4.188.873	4.206.696	4.255.973	4.286.895	4.341.347	4.382.232	4.404.753
EU								
Germany	9.236	9.222	9.572	9.848	10.902	11.633	12.397	12.735
Austria	576	581	629	641	708	715	730	743
Denmark	742	730	746	732	790	796	814	804
Spain	22.589	22.188	21.981	21.418	21.736	21.553	21.222	20.903
Finland	496	516	568	539	565	586	629	629
France	68.788	71.233	71.686	73.015	77.667	81.077	86.539	91.338
Greece	7.013	6.831	6.636	6.377	6.502	6.314	6.061	5.693
Ireland	1.072	1.071	1.109	1.146	1.195	1.205	1.184	1.201
Italy	94.431	91.399	88.932	86.092	86.297	84.093	82.826	79.570
Luxemburg	1.460	1.448	1.398	1.400	1.418	1.446	1.471	1.434
The Netherlands	34.029	34.426	34.439	35.110	37.952	40.918	43.887	45.357
Portugal	12.341	12.442	12.700	13.346	14.192	14.730	15.036	15.534
Great Britain	9.154	9.229	9.348	9.060	9.578	9.603	8.514	9.418
Sweden	1.105	1.119	1.122	1.105	1.208	1.231	1.275	1.288
New EU States								
Bulgaria	1	1		686	1.469	1.778	2.179	4.249
Cyprus	10	17	16	29	44	45	48	43
Estonia	18	14	18	37	63	59	74	82
Hungary	335	334	339	491	598	582	645	721
Latvia	31	31	38	63	113	102	121	150
Lithuania	31	32	41	99	175	210	234	286
Malta	17	20	24	36	48	49	48	51
Poland	3.220	4.024	4.759	5.608	7.745	10.957	13.404	17.618
Czech Rep.	154	181	224	314	483	583	617	728
Slovakia	146	198	231	344	523	681	971	1.026
Romania	13	9	13	1.771	2.461	3.394	5.014	8.437
Slovenia	33	31	30	50	81	75	82	96
Non EU States								
Algeria	3.332	3.647	3.809	4.117	4.272	4.505	4.255	4.115
DR Congo	5.389	6.307	7.004	7.005	8.712	9.126	9.075	8.913
Morocco	41.338	40.230	38.604	36.802	39.907	38.030	36.256	34.398
Tunisia	1.957	1.919	1.857	1.869	2.223	2.130	2.106	2.122
Turkey	23.979	21.905	20.952	20.246	21.129	19.333	18.024	17.048



Others	44.903	51.310	55.118	56.614	67.080	72.143	73.073	72.179
Total Immigration	387.939	392.465	393.943	396.012	427.836	439.681	449.810	458.909
EU citizens	262.255	260.866	259.830	280.583	289.583	289.242	299.828	323.122
Total	4.531.162	4.581.338	4.600.639	4.651.985	4.714.731	4.781.028	4.832.042	4.863.662

From: L'immigration en Belgique : effectifs, mouvements et marché du travail – SOPEMI, 2009, p.70

Overall, foreigners represent 8.5% of the total workforce. The employment rate of foreigners is lower than that of Belgians (about 12 percent difference in 2007). Women are disadvantaged on the labour market in comparison to men, especially among foreigners (24 percent for foreigners and 13 percent for Belgians). Similarly, self-employment is increasing among foreigners and in 2007 it increased by 8.8% in comparison to 0.8% among the Belgians.

#### 4.4 Admission of self-employed individuals

Every year foreign workers apply for business visas. This number has been rising since the 2000s, in particularly in regard to applications from Poland and Romania.

##### Independent and employed workers

	2006	2007
Poland	2.411	2.754
Romania	1.009	2.640
The Netherlands	1.752	1.767
Bulgaria	209	1.347
France	1.269	1.215
Italy	865	910
Portugal	453	480
Turkey	427	465
Morocco	415	441
Germany	317	355
United Kingdom	279	300
Others	2.385	2.414
Total EU nationals	11.791	15.090
Belgium	60.082	65.712
Total	71.873	80.802

From: L'immigration en Belgique : effectifs, mouvements et marché du travail – SOPEMI, 2009, p.34

#### 4.5 Unemployment and the workforce participation rate

The unemployment rate is two times higher among foreigners than among Belgians,

with disparities, sometimes significant, between nationalities.

Non-EU citizens have the highest unemployment rate : the Moroccans (38.3), Turks (32.3%), Congolese (34.9%) in 2007, for example.

There is a significant flaw in statistics on foreigners: the only criterion that comes into consideration is the nationality of people. Indeed, in Belgium, there are no statistics on ethnic groups, that is to say the statistics that take account the origin of people. As a significant number of people have acquired Belgian nationality in Belgium over the past twenty years, it is therefore difficult to fully mirror the reality of people of migrant background on the Belgian labour market.

However, at least some data is available for the labour market. The processed data from surveys allows a variable to include the country of birth. This does not include all people from different migrant groups (for some groups, parents or grandparents were born in Belgium), but it gives a more accurate overview of the situation.

Labour participation rates show a gap between the nationalities or groups of different countries of birth: the groups of the population who are foreign-born or are of foreign decent have a fewer assets than the Belgian population.

In the medium term, we see that the employment rate of the Belgians and foreigners from the EU 15 is much higher than for citizens from the rest of the world. Over the past 20 years, the male employment rate of non-EU15 citizens has been more than 50% while it ranges from 59% to 69% for the citizens of the EU15. The employment rate for Belgian men is still slightly higher but the difference between Belgian men and EU15 citizens, since 1993, is minimal. For women, the changes in recent decades are positive in the three groups of citizenship, but the gap between Belgian women and the other two groups is wider than for men.

#### 4.6 Part-time work and temporary work

Flexibility in the workplace encompasses part-time work and temporary work. Work is often available in the tertiary (services) and quaternary (non-commercial) sectors where part-time hours and temporary work are widespread. Although EU nationals and people from immigrant backgrounds have a strong presence in industrial sectors, the new migrations are mostly absorbed by these sectors.

In terms of part-time work, there is a difference between Belgian employees and foreign employees. There is a clear difference for the men: among the Belgians, 8.3% of men work part-time whilst 14.5% non-EU workers are part-time. Of all the men born outside the EU, 49.8% work part-time involuntarily this only applies to 17.2% of Belgian born men.

Among the Belgians, 8.2% have temporary jobs, this rises to 11.2% for European foreigners and 24% for non-Europeans. Women from outside the EU have the highest rate of temporary employment with 29.8% in temporary work. These rates are slightly lower when taking into account the variable « country of birth ».

In the service and non-commercial sector the availability of part-time and temporary work increases sharply. Only 8.3% Belgian men work part-time compared to 14.5% of non-EU foreigners. Of all the males residing in Belgium who are born outside the EU, 49.8% work part-time involuntarily in comparison to 17.2% Belgians. Among the Belgians, 8.2% have temporary jobs, compared to 11.2% of European foreigners, and 24% of non-Europeans. 29.8% of women from outside the EU are employed on a temporary basis.

#### 4.7 Discrimination in the labour market

The theme of discrimination in the labour market is not the main focus of this report. However discrimination remains a central factor in the relationship between a state and its foreign citizens and citizens of foreign origin. It appears worthwhile to give some information on the Belgian situation and the measures put in place to counter them.

The differential treatment of persons based on their origin affects not only non-nationals, but also and especially Belgians of foreign origin, educated and socialized in Belgium. While for years this has been ignored under the pretext that people of immigrant background did not have equivalent qualifications and skills, the reality has been revealed by studies of the labour market. In 1997 a university study was carried out for the first time a - at the request of the International Labour Organization (ILO) – which allowed the phenomenon to be studied in an objective and scientific way.

The International Labour Office (ILO) report made clear that during the hiring process when considering those with equal qualifications (university qualifications and professional experience) applications from people who were "Belgian-born" were treated differently than those from persons of foreign origin. It was clear that discrimination against Belgians of foreign origin existed.

Different sources of discrimination were identified:

- Discrimination can arise from a straightforward refusal to hire somebody because of his or her origin, as the employer could constitute the different background as a 'risk factor'.
- A company may have to 'accept' its own discrimination against a potential employee because of expected negative reactions by other staff members or customers.

Discrimination can occur in the conditions of employment or during the execution of the contract: different employment tasks, wages, lack of access to promotion or to a permanent employment contract, etc ....

Discrimination may result from the screening tests themselves insofar as they may contain elements not related to the assessment of skills and qualifications that disqualify persons of foreign origin.

Observed discrimination also resulted from the existence of stereotypes. Experience shows that employers are often not aware of the level of experience that a potential candidate of foreign origin may have. Small companies tend to be more specific in terms of their specifications, as they wish to ensure the quality of the candidates' work. Employers often view applicants with a foreign surname or a different skin colour as deficient in their knowledge of the regional language and punctuality, and may fear practical problems which may arise due to religious practices (such as the observation of Ramadan, the wearing of the Islamic headscarf). This occurs even if the candidate has the same level of training or equivalent experience as a native applicant. Possible prejudices among existing employees and customers are also frequently invoked when rejecting candidates of foreign origin.

Many of these stereotypes and prejudices are so entrenched in society that employers, managers, human resources departments and selection agencies are not always able to overcome them.

Interviews with employers showed that there is a lack of information and guidance on the benefits of diversity in a company. This lack of knowledge about diversity is often at the root of the reluctance to hire persons of migrant background. Studies show that the presence of workers from lower socio-economic groups may lead to more creativity in the company. Foreign workers could also be helpful in facilitating contacts with clients of foreign origin. Sellers of ethnic origin may be better placed to tap in to new market as they may be more aware of the tastes and habits of specific groups of foreign customers.

## **5 Old and new migrants**

### **5.1 The 'new migrants'**

Belgium's political, economic and social circumstances have changed a great deal since immigration was halted in 1974. The rising levels of migration since the 1990s have been driven by changes in migrant groups, in their motivation, and their strategies for survival and earning a living.

Who are these "new migrants"?

There have been some studies and surveys on these issues in Belgium. One suggestion which is backed by strong evidence is that the development of new migrants' careers<sup>2</sup> is influenced partly by the kinds of opportunities made available to them by Belgian society's political, economic, social and cultural institutions. It is also partly influenced by the mobilization of the migrants' own social, economic and cultural resources.

We certainly cannot regard the "new migrants" as a homogeneous group. A key feature of immigration since the 1990s has been its variety: the migrants' origin, education, planned length of stay and prospects may be very different.

Among the differences observed are migrants' different levels of participation in the job market in terms of their country of origin and the difference in employment levels between highly skilled and less skilled migrants. It is a regular occurrence that highly skilled migrants are unable to work at the level to which they are educated, or in line with their skills and experience.

In recent years Belgium has received large numbers of immigrants from Poland, Romania, India and China. A breakdown of the gender of the migrants indicates that most female immigrants come from Thailand, the Philippines and the Czech Republic.

We also find that very poorly regulated sectors, such as the agricultural sector, often have a rapid turn over, employ immigrants from specific backgrounds and may go through cycles of employing certain nationalities. Along the same lines we find that there are industries that cannot function without new immigrants: agriculture, construction, domestic work, hotels and catering, for example.

The globalization trend with its international competition and extensive offshoring also affects the Belgian job market. Sectors that cannot be offshored – essentially people centred industries and services – can now only function because these jobs are being 'offshored internally,' to workers within Belgium. Furthermore, the requirement for flexibility that is affecting more and more workers in the rich countries means that, if employees are to be more flexible and more available to their employers, some of their own household and family duties have to be taken on by others.

Taken as a whole, this powerful trend is creating a two-tier job market and a proliferation of worker classifications of different statuses (e.g. part-time work, temporary jobs and service vouchers). Keeping up the indigenous employment rate depends, among other things, on this structural need for foreign workers employed on unregulated conditions, allowing prices to stay low enough to maintain

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<sup>2</sup> "The notion of 'career' here means the process whereby an individual passes through a number of stages or kinds of status in terms of occupational mobility", Final Report of the "Society and Future" Programme, "Summary of Research" section on NOMIBE: New Migrations and New Immigrants in Belgium", – This part is largely based on the conclusions of that work.

consumption; this means, as we said earlier, certain tasks being done by these foreign workers.

## 5.2 Legal and undocumented migrants

As “unofficial” employment is by definition not declared, there are no figures available to assess its extent; we therefore have to fall back on surveys in which migrants, legal and otherwise, talk about their work.

There is a preconception of migrants working in precarious situations, under poor conditions (hazardous, dirty, exhausting work; wages below the norm, irregular payment, long or uncertain hours). Those who are allowed to stay in the country legally have the ability to improve their conditions over time by ascending the informal hierarchies (e.g. provided by community networks) and bettering themselves in the labour market. However illegal migrants will not necessarily see an improvement in their situation throughout their unofficial stay. These people have little or no contact with the authorities (except sometimes for children, as we shall see later), and their social network goes no further than the local community.

Those who have permission to remain show a great variety of working patterns, often due to various factors in their situation: the opportunities for legal employment, those for casual work, and those for actively seeking work.

These patterns also depend on personal characteristics: human capital – the level of education – does not have the same crucial importance in unofficial jobs market as in the legal one; the same is true of cultural capital and social capital.

It is possible to work legally before getting permission to remain, and those awaiting a decision on an asylum application often do this. Their jobs are mainly in the hotel, restaurant and catering industry (HoReCa), but some also work in other services, and in industry and agriculture.

Generally jobs taken before getting permission to remain are casual jobs. This kind of work is often tied to the size of the ‘community’ to which the individuals belong and the networks connecting them. A degree of ethnic stratification may be seen: construction workers are often from Eastern Europe, North Africa or Central Africa; service workers are for the most part African; in “HoReCa” (hotels, restaurants, catering) we found people from South Asia, the Near and Middle East, and Eastern Europe; cleaners are generally from Central or South America, Eastern Europe or Asia; farm workers are from Central Africa, South Asia or the Balkans.

In many European countries it has been observed that workers often lose their jobs after getting permission to remain: their employers do not want to give them an ‘official’ job. Still there are many who continue to work in the unofficial economy.

Thus while illegal migrants are in competition with one another in the unofficial jobs market, they also enter into competition with all the country's workers once their residence becomes legal.

It was also found that, overall, the kind of job done (legally or otherwise) before obtaining permission to remain is a strong determinant of the subsequent sector of employment. Workers' readiness to switch from one sector of employment to another depends upon the sector from which they originated. The manufacturing industry and services attract many workers who have recently obtained permission to remain; there is also a very noticeable exodus from agriculture and construction. On the contrary, those working in HoReCa generally stay in that industry.

Lastly, after obtaining permission to remain, the most highly educated generally tend to move to jobs that do not match their level of qualification better than those they were in before.

### 5.3 Career patterns and strategies

Foreigners use various methods to stay in Belgium, with or without leave. The ultimate aim is to get official permission to remain, ideally for an indefinite period. This status enables them to get a work permit and to move around freely.

Particular strategies are employed by the migrants to avoid being expelled. Social and economic integration is one of these strategies for staying in the country; another is reliance on social networks. We found that those who arrive as tourists, workers, students, stowaways or as part of a family group could count on solid support, but those who get in on humanitarian grounds – asylum seekers – are in a worse position when their asylum application is rejected.

The mobilization of social capital partly depends on the strength and number of the individual's connections, but also on the degree of trust in social relationships. Confidence is often in short supply among asylum seekers; many of their strategies for getting in and staying will have depended on paid help from strangers. Recourse to illegal practices is often seen as necessary, both to get out of their own country and to enter and stay in another.

Strategies for remaining depend on the mode of entry. Those who get in by applying for asylum will have spent time in the country legally; if they get refugee status they will know enough about Belgian institutions and the official networks to get established without too much difficulty. Those that fail to get refugee status will find things very different; when they go underground they are not familiar with any social networks and/or informal communities that could help them. One of the reasons why they apply for leave to remain is to stay within the official environment which they know how to deal with: this enables them to go on getting information, support and encouragement.

New arrivals have a much easier time if they have family members already in legal residence: this gives them an extensive network that can be mobilized for the practical aspects of everyday life and in looking for work.

The impact of social networks on immigrants' employment, residence status, or other areas is different for men and women. Women have frequent contact with schools (through their children), with NGOs, or with employers (of domestic workers), while men have fewer opportunities for such contacts. These social networks are not only important and useful in daily life; but also when the time comes to apply for leave to remain.

Housing is one of the most problematic aspects for illegal immigrants, or those in a precarious situation, because as well as the various kinds of discrimination suffered by many foreigners, things are made even harder for them by their status and their lack of funds. To cope with such difficulties it is very important to have a network or some social capital to rely on. We have seen that people who have come into the country legally find it harder to get by once they go underground (except for those who have a family network on arrival). Those who enter the country illegally are generally better prepared psychologically, socially and materially to cope with their situation.

When the migrant gains official status however (by getting leave to remain, for example) and his or her social and economic circumstances improve housing conditions tend to improve, as it becomes easier to move home.

Once a migrant's position is made official he or she becomes less reliant on family and community networks and is able to engage with more formal social organizations such as public institutions, job agencies, training centres, and so on.

Many of those who have moved from clandestine status to legal residence apply for Belgian nationality after a few years. This is to avoid discrimination in the job market (though Belgians who were once immigrants do still often experience discrimination), and to allow them to travel freely or reunite with their families.



## 6 Public policy & measures/ actions specific to the labour market

The measures and policies implemented by public authorities in order to fight discrimination (formal and informal) have the effect of opening the job market for foreigners and migrants irrespective of their residence status (e.g. diversity plan, work permits).

In its report, the Commission for Intercultural Dialogue (2005), which was established by the government, insisted on equal opportunity policies, cultural diversity, and the rejection of discrimination. In the field of employment, many publications and initiatives have emerged.

Two trends are present in the issue of labour market diversity: the rejection of discrimination, and plans for diversity on different governmental levels (in Belgium, the employment policy is partly federalized).

The coalition agreement of 18 March 2008 stated that "[the Government] will pay particular attention to groups underrepresented in the labour market (youths, women, immigrants, older workers and disabled persons) and facilitate the access of such persons into the labour market."

### 6.1 Promoting diversity

In the years since 2006, various federal level ministries (including the Federal Public Service - SPF) signed a Diversity Charter through which they undertook to eliminate discrimination and to make the management of their human resources reflect the diversity of society.

In 2005, an 'Equality and Diversity' logo was created to highlight companies' commitment to diversity and equality.

In the last few years the Brussels region has implemented measures to promote diversity in employment. The Brussels based Territorial Employment Pact has produced:

- The Diversity Charter, which requires a commitment from signatory companies to manage diversity and discrimination. Diversity consultants are available to help those companies that wish to use their services;
- The Diversity Plan, which extends and strengthens the Diversity Charter by translating its principles into concrete actions on the ground.

There is a Diversity Charter which is used in Wallonia, which firms are able to use to manage their diversity:

- Funding is made available for diversity management (maximum €10,000) for companies that realise at least one of the four axes of diversity management policy: analysis and diagnosis, implementation of a policy of diversity management, the monitoring and evaluation of the policy implemented and commitment to a process of certification.
- The Walloon Award for "Diversity and Human Resources" which honours significant initiatives in this area;
- The "Equality and Diversity" logo

In Flanders the Evenredige Arbeidsdeelname Diversiteit (EAD) exists to improve the situation of those of foreign origin. It provides a series of suggestions for stimulating and promoting diversity in businesses, organizations and local authorities. This policy aims to facilitate greater participation in the labour market, through various instruments, such as the EAD Toolbox. Finally, the fight against discrimination has been strengthened with action plans and a new decree to promote equality of opportunity.

## 6.2 Measures and actions

Listed below are some measures implemented by Belgian governments some of which have been undertaken in collaboration with public or private sector organisations. These aim to promote diversity and fight discrimination. It is not an exhaustive list, but aims to highlight what is implemented at various governmental levels.

### Federal

#### Diversity in Government: 2009-2010 Action Plan

This diversity action plan set out actions to be undertaken by the unit in charge of diversity FPS Personnel and Organisation, the diversity team at Selor, and the Training Institute of the Federal Administration in 2009 and 2010. A number of high priority actions were identified. These revolved around five areas: awareness of leaders, recruitment and selection, reception and integration, training and development and support of HR and diversity.

[http://www.fedweb.belgium.be/fr/publications/broch\\_po\\_plan\\_action\\_diversite.jsp?referer=tcm:119-79055-64](http://www.fedweb.belgium.be/fr/publications/broch_po_plan_action_diversite.jsp?referer=tcm:119-79055-64)

#### Charter for Diversity

This was signed on March 2006 by the Presidents of all the FPS and APS, the Charter requires that the presidents pledge to promote equality of opportunity and diversity within the federal government.

### Selor

Selor, the Recruiting Office Administration, encourages people of foreign origin to participate in the selection of potential job candidates, in order to increase their representation in the administration.

This requires a commitment to objectivity and a focus on the skills of the candidate, therefore selections are anonymous. Free testing for discriminatory elements is available and the Selor staff receive diversity training. The emphasis is put on the legal framework on discrimination and managing diversity. The training also helps to develop practical skills for managing diversity in the selection procedure by providing practical tools.

<http://www.selor.be/>

### The 'Multicultural Enterprise' organisation

The organisation 'Multicultural Enterprise' is active member of the FPS Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue. It has two essential goals: to fight discrimination on ethnic grounds in the labour market, and raise awareness amongst the professional and administrative sectors. It also manages the project's diversity logo.

### The 'Equality Diversity' slogan

In May 2005, the Ministerial Conference on integration decided to create a slogan to promote diversity in the job market. The Federal Ministers of Employment and Social Integration commissioned a study, in consultation with the Centre for Equal Opportunity and the Fight against Racism and various social partners, experts and businesses. In September 2006 the pilot project 'Equality Diversity Slogan' was launched in coordination with the FPS Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue. Fifteen companies and organizations have registered. The entire procedure used in the pilot project is under evaluation and will be submitted to the two relevant ministers for decisions on possible adjustments to the slogan before it is publicised more widely.

## Regions

### Employment: The project 'Integration of the Newcomers'

Since September 2001 the project 'Integration of the Newcomers' which was supported by the European Social Fund, was conducted in three regions. As its name suggests, this project was aimed at social and professional integration of newcomers. This manifested itself in initiatives to support employment. This project was coordinated by the regional placement agencies (ACTIRIS VDAB FOREm) which enabled local partners to gain expertise in diversity coaching and in the legal and administrative issues raised by employing foreigners.

<http://www.diversite.be/index.php?action=onderdeel&onderdeel=80&titel=Primo-arrivants>

Region of Brussels

#### Charter of Diversity in Business

On 19 December 2005, the first entrepreneurs in Brussels signed the Charter which committed them to encouraging more diversity in their businesses. Currently, some 140 companies have signed this Charter.

<http://www.diversite.irisnet.be/La-charte-de-la-diversite.html>

#### Diversity Plans

Developed in consultation between social partners, associations and institutions of public interest, the plans provide a flexible tool to meet the needs of companies. They include guidelines for the analysis and implementation of appropriate actions, the support of a consultant for diversity, and the possibility of a financial contribution. These plans were made operational in December 2006.

<http://www.diversite.irisnet.be/Les-plans-de-diversite.html>

Wallonia

#### Assistance for Diversity Planning

Assistance for diversity planning is available to human resources departments, this strategy is used to manage diversity and fight against discrimination in hiring and employment in the Wallonia region. The Walloon government uses this and the Priority Action Plan for the Future of Wallonia to support equality of opportunity in economic development.

<http://diversite.wallonie.be/que.html>

Flanders

#### VESOC actieplan Evenredige Arbeidsdeelname in Diversiteit

Each year the Flemish Social and Economic Council set up a 'Diversity' action plan. This supports the establishment of diversity in large enterprises by encouraging internal promotion and provides administrative support on-line. The fight against discrimination is carried out through training and coaching staff, and in collaboration with the Centre for Equal Opportunities and the Fight against Racism.

#### Collaboration Protocol

On April 2008, the Flemish ministers responsible for integration, employment and the economy signed a memorandum of cooperation with agencies in charge of the integration of migrants. The integration process - compulsory in Flanders - is divided into primary and secondary levels: the first is implemented by the home office. This level involves the welcoming and training migrants gaining Belgian citizenship and

providing access to employment. In the second stage the VDAB takes the central role (decree of June 2003) for links with companies and additional training courses (including languages) which migrants would require.

#### Public services as employer

On December 2004, the Flemish Government decided to support and promote diversity in its administration. This decision followed the commitment to equal opportunities and development plans diversity made in May 2002. On July 2006, the Flemish Government decided commitment to a target of 4% staff from foreign or immigrant origin in 2015. In order to achieve this targeted ads will be produced, equal opportunities will be prioritized in hiring, a kind of political 'affirmative action' will be promoted and information on diversity will be made available to administrators.

#### Anti-discrimination

In October 2007 the 'Action Plan Against Discrimination' was implemented by all public services and also by private contractors working for the government (temping agencies, etc.). Special attention was provided about target groups, including migrants, regarding ways to enable and support these groups. Specifically, this involved four types of action: linking diversity and (anti-) discrimination, recording and reporting complaints, monitoring and research training and the exchange of expertise.

#### Employment in the social sector

With the inter-departmental agreement of 2006-2010, the social partners committed themselves to the promotion of the employment of foreigners, and persons of foreign origin, in the social sector. Specifically, it was projected that between 2006 and 2010, 10% of jobs would be allocated to foreign persons or persons of foreign origin. To achieve this work was undertaken to make the sector more attractive, through with better information and support for potential candidates.