The Local Dimension of Migration Policymaking

edited by Tiziana Caponio and Maren Borkert

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Introdu Maren I

- ı Fron
- 2 The whe
- 3 The

rates at Marc H

- 1 Intro
- 2 Wha
- 3 Wha
- 4 Look in E
- 5 The
- 6 The
- 7 Con

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Tiziana

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- 2 Polic a co
- 3 Polid of pi
- 4 Expl diffe
- 5 Cone

Contents

		troduction: the local dimension of migration policymaking	9		
	M	laren Borkert and Tiziana Caponio			
	Ι	From the nation state to the city: the emergence of local			
		integration as a European policy issue	9		
	2	, B F F			
		where are we and where we are going?	13		
	3	The content of the book	23		
r.	N	aturalisation politics in Switzerland: explaining rejection			
		tes at the local level	33		
	M	arc Helbling			
	I	Introduction	33		
	2	What is to be explored: naturalisation procedures in			
		Swiss municipalities	35		
	3	What is to be explained: the rejection rate	37		
	4	Looking for explanations: local citizenship politics			
	•	in Europe	41		
	5	The arguments and how to operationalise them	43		
	6		48		
	7	Conclusion	51		
2.	G	rassroots multiculturalism in Italy: Milan, Bologna			
		nd Naples compared	57		
	Tiziana Caponio				
	T	Integration models at a crossroad: a defeat of			
		multiculturalism?	57		
	2	Policies for immigrants in Milan, Bologna and Naples:			
		a comparison of official priorities	61		
	3	Policy networks and implementation: a reconstruction	~-		
	,	of practices	65		
	4	Explaining grassroots multiculturalism: actors' logic in	0.5		
	•	different contexts	74		
	5	Conclusion	79		

ess,

ved ced ans out of

3∙	tr	oung immigrants' low participation in the German vocation in the German vocation in Munich and Frankfurt,	onal /Main				
	tr	y to make a difference	85				
	C	Can M. Aybek					
	1	Introduction	85				
	2	The situation of young immigrants in the German					
		vocational education system	86				
	3	Integration policy and local governance of vocational					
		training	92				
	4	Introducing and establishing new approaches in VET	99				
	5	Conclusion	102				
4.	Lo yo	Local policies concerning unemployment among immigrant youth in Amsterdam and in Berlin: towards strategic					
		placement and pragmatic accommodation	109				
	Fl	oris Vermeulen and Rosanne Stotijn					
	I	Introduction	109				
	2	The policy paradox: the dilemma of recognition	110				
	3	Local integration policies in Amsterdam	113				
	4	Local integration policy in Berlin	116				
	5	Immigrant youth unemployment in Amsterdam and					
		in Berlin	119				
	6	Conclusion	130				
5 -	М	anaging religious pluralism in Canadian cities:					
, -		mosques in Montreal and Laval					
		Aude-Claire Fourot					
	I	Introduction: cities and the current challenges of					
		religious pluralism	135				
	2	Issues and approaches associated with creating	133				
	_	Muslim places of worship	136				
	3	Muslim places of worship: a configurational analysis	130				
	,	of institutionalisation processes	140				
	4	Examples of institutionalisation processes	145				
	5	Conclusion	151				

Conclusio Tiziana Ca

1 Introdu

2 Lookin

policy a 3 The co Switze

4 Policyr evideno 5 Conclu

List of contribut

Ti	onclusion: making sense of local migration policy arenas ziana Caponio	
1 %	•	
Ι	Introduction	
2	Looking for commonality in extreme difference: local	
	policy arenas in the migration field	
3	The contexts: the role of local authorities in migration	
	policymaking in Germany, Italy, the Netherlands,	
	Switzerland and Canada	
4	Policymaking patterns in local migration policy arenas:	
	evidence from case studies	
5	Conclusion	
,	Conclusion	

Conclusion: making sense of local migration policy arenas

Tiziana Caponio

1 Introduction

As pointed out in a recent literature review on the multilevel governance of migration carried out in the context of IMISCOE Cluster C9's research on immigrant and immigration policymaking can be considered as still in its infancy (Zincone & Caponio 2006). This is even more the case when the local level is considered: not only is research on local immigrant and immigration policy very recent, but the policymaking dimension is only rarely addressed (see also the introduction chapter in this volume). Given the lack of systematic empirical accounts, theorising also appears to be still poorly developed.

Such an important gap in the literature cannot of course be filled overnight. More theoretically driven empirical work is needed, which can only be achieved through joint research programmes. As a consequence, the ambition of making sense of the local dimension of migration policymaking is beyond the scope of this book, which is the product of a far more modest effort: that of gathering together the contributions of a group of migration scholars looking at this underresearched topic from very different research questions and perspectives. Nevertheless, we undertake, at least in a tentative manner, a first comparative exercise aimed at elucidating the relevance and the main characteristics of the local dimension of migration policymaking in the five countries considered in this book: Switzerland, Germany, the Netherlands, Italy and Canada.

At first glance, such an exercise may be regarded as highly questionable from a methodological point of view. The fact that the studies presented in this book analyse different dimensions of integration policy is puzzling: how to compare local citizenship policy and politics in Swiss cantons with vocational training in German and Dutch cities? Or access to services in Italian cities with mosque-building issues in Quebec? The risk of comparing apples to oranges is evident. In order to avoid methodological nonsense, in the first section of this chapter I shall try to devise a minimum set of theoretically relevant concepts drawing on both the general policymaking literature and specific work on local immigrant policy. This latter body of research has already ela-

borated a number of categories and typologies to account for the extreme diversity of local responses to immigrant presence, among which the one proposed by Alexander (2007) stands out as particularly compelling. Nonetheless, the dynamics and specific characters of local policymaking processes are not adequately considered. This is why I resorted to the classic notion of *policy arena*: first introduced by Lowi (1972) in order to account for power relations in policymaking, this category will be loosely interpreted and adapted to the study of local migration policymaking. More precisely, I shall speak of *local policy arenas* as policymaking fields arising around specific *issue areas* or dimensions of migration policy. The challenge is to understand how local migration policy is worked out through local policy arenas across the five countries considered, and what patterns of similarities and differences can be singled out in terms of dynamics of policymaking processes, actors involved and their reciprocal relations.

Of course, local migration policy arenas cannot be considered in a void, since they take shape in specific national contexts and systems of state-periphery relations. This is why in the second section, models of administrative centralisation/decentralisation in the five countries will be briefly described, and the role played in each one by sub-national authorities in the context of immigration and immigrant policy and policymaking will be considered. This is a crucial step if we are to understand the different institutional contexts in which local migration policy arenas may find themselves to take shape.

Based on the evidence provided by the case studies presented in this book and on other relevant pieces of literature, in the third section I shall provide some comparative analysis of local-level responses and policymaking processes in the three *issue areas* of migration policy analysed in the contributions to this book, i.e. citizenship, welfare services and religious diversity. These issue areas will be conceptualised as three different *local policy arenas*, of which I shall point out the specific stakes, networks of actors involved and patterns of policymaking relations. Given the heterogeneity of the empirical material on which the analysis is built, this should be considered more as a tentative exercise than as a systematic account.

In the fourth section the relevance of the local dimension of policy-making across the five countries considered will be assessed: to what extent do local policymaking arenas matter in migration policy? What is the impact of different state structures? Are there significant differences between centralised and decentralised countries? Or, on the contrary, can similar decision-making patterns be pointed out? And, if so, what are the common mechanisms lying behind local policymaking on migration? Of course, answers to these queries cannot but be provisory, confirming the need for systematic, theoretically driven re-

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2 Looking for commonality in extreme difference: local policy arenas in the migration field

From a policymaking perspective, locality represents a crucial dimension for the study of policy processes, since it is at this level that the very essence of policy as a peculiar combination of decision and action in relation to some collective – more or less clearly – perceived issue takes shape. Different institutions and organisations usually operate in a specific territorial context, either of a public or private nature, with generic or specific tasks, political or executive functions, etc. Regardless of the investigated policy field, complexity is indeed intrinsically linked to local policymaking, a complexity given by the closeness and continuous overlapping and intertwining of decision and implementation, autonomy and execution.

Such complexity has not been sufficiently tackled in the existing literature on migration local policy. While often acknowledged, research on its consequences in terms of policymaking structures and processes is lacking. Alexander (2007), for instance, distinguishes between espoused and enacted policies, which recalls the classic distinction in policymaking studies between decision and implementation. Yet, what the relationship is between the two is not investigated. As pointed out by a number of contributions in this book (see in particular Vermeulen & Stotijn; Caponio ch. 2; Fourot), implementation is a dynamic process, in which various actors are involved, and through which official policy may undergo profound transformation and reinterpretation. In order to look carefully at these processes, appropriate theoretical tools are needed: these might be borrowed from classic policy analysis, which emerged specifically with the purpose of looking inside Easton's 'black-box' (1965) to shed new light on policymaking processes.

In particular, here I draw on Lowi's seminal concept of policy arena, which, in my view, can be reinterpreted in a loose way and fruitfully applied to make sense of the complexity of local migration policymaking. Two features of Lowi's approach appear particularly relevant: 1) the incorporation of the element of power, which is not always explicitly acknowledged in most of the metaphors and analytical tools used in implementation research (see, for instance, implementation structures, policy networks, advocacy coalitions, etc.); and 2) the 'policy determines politics' challenging argument, according to which different types of policy engender different power relationships among individuals and groups, and these relationships can be described and predicted on the

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First, the element of power is central in local policymaking on migration since these policies have to be formally discussed and agreed upon by local representative and/or executive institutions, such as city councils, regional parliaments, municipal governments, etc. Confrontation between opposite ideologies and political framing of migration can be expected. Migration is usually a hot issue, one on which mass media attention is very high and public opinion, while divided, is more likely to be negatively oriented. As a consequence, local migration policymaking can hardly be depicted as characterised just by negotiation and pragmatic orientation. Such an orientation may happen under specific circumstances,² but is not the rule. On the contrary, power relations and politicisation are very likely to occur.

Secondly, as for the 'policy determines politics' argument - while this has been the object of much criticism - it can still be regarded as an intriguing analytical perspective. In other terms, the challenge is that of analysing policymaking bottom-up, starting from the policy stakes and looking at how decision-making and implementation processes take shape across different cities in different countries. Of course, one must be aware that local policy, of whatever kind - migration policy included - does not take place in a void, but rather in complex institutional environments that impinge on different models of state/periphery relations. Depending on the specific issues or issue areas (Alexander 2007), local authorities may be assigned a crucial role in a given country while having just negligible competence in another. This is the case of, for instance, citizenship in Switzerland as compared to the other four countries considered in this study. Institutional settings cannot be dismissed, and thus I investigate them in the chapter's second section. Nevertheless, to reverse the perspective and start from the issues at hand may help to identify common patterns of policymaking despite considerable institutional differentiation, and to answer to more general questions like: when and under what conditions does politicisation occur? What factors account for patterns of convergence in local policymaking on migration?

The concept of *policy arenas*, by emphasising both negotiation and power and by looking at policy processes from the bottom up, may help to overcome the risk of just concluding that each city/region is a case apart. This would inevitably follow if one adheres simply to the analysis of formal policymaking structures and institutional settings. Yet, by looking at how, despite differences, involved actors interact on specific issues, common features of local migration policymaking can be highlighted and accounted for. In this respect, the issue of politicisa-

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negotiation and bottom up, may h city/region is a tes simply to the tutional settings. actors interact on policymaking can ssue of politicisation, i.e. of the wielding of political power as opposed to the search for negotiation and pragmatic solutions, is indeed a crucial point. By focusing on the policy arenas around different migration policy stakes, and by comparing them carefully, my purpose is to isolate those mechanisms and processes that may lead to the prevailing of the coercive, or on the contrary, the consensual side of policymaking. If institutional settings provide the structure for the exercise of power and negotiation in relation to migration, local governments and policy networks may still engage in different patterns of relationships, depending on the issues at hand.

Of course, in order to undertake such an analysis, we need a clear specification of possible local policy issues related to migration and of their main characteristics. In this respect, Alexander's (2007: 48-50) classification of policy domains and issue areas appears to be of particular relevance. He has identified four policy domains of local migrant policy: the legal-political domain, which addresses the civic incorporation of migrants/ethnic minorities in the host polity; the socio-economic domain, which concerns social inclusion policies; the cultural-religious domain, which includes policies related to minority religious and cultural practices as well as to inter-group cultural relations; and the spatial domain, which groups policies with a strong spatial dimension (housing, urban renovation, etc.). Each policy domain is then divided into more specific issue areas, representing 'all the (potential and actual) local migrant policy' (Alexander 2007: 48). The contributions collected in this book allow for the analysis of policymaking processes in three policy domains and four issue areas: Helbling's account of Swiss local citizenship policy is an instance of the migrant civic status issue area, in the legal-political domain; Caponio ch. 2 on Italian cities, Aybek and Vermeulen and Stotijn on youth employment policies in German and Dutch cities illustrate two closely related issue areas in the socio-economic domain, i.e. welfare services and vocational training; Fourot's essay on mosque-building in Quebec addresses the issue area of local authorities relations towards religious institutions and practices.

However, contrary to Alexander's typological approach, the methodological path that will be followed here is not a deductive, but rather, an inductive one. Drawing on the contributions collected in this book as well as on other relevant pieces of literature, I shall attempt to analyse the local migration policy arenas structured around the three main issue areas specified to find, in each issue area, common patterns of policymaking across different cities.

The search for common patterns represents a key task for research on local migration policy and policymaking, since this is a condition for understanding how a relevant part of migration policy actually works, and under what conditions it might eventually work better. The debate on 'good' or 'best' practices, which informs much of policy-practitioners' literature on migration today,³ has shifted from an emphasis on exceptionality and uniqueness to a search for basic mechanisms that may allow for the transferability of a certain practice in different contexts. What these mechanisms are and what factors may have an impact on their – correct – functioning is an empirical question, to which only research can provide systematic and evidence-based answers.

The contexts: the role of local authorities in migration policymaking in Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Canada

The relevance of the local dimension of migration policymaking varies considerably across European and non-European countries, depending on different state structures and, as a consequence, on the institutional role assigned to territorial levels (regional/provincial/local) of authority in shaping immigration and immigrant policy. In the following section, I shall first reconstruct general models of centre/periphery relations and levels of administrative centralisation/decentralisation, looking closely at sub-national levels in the context of migration policy and policymaking. As will be noted, the five different countries dealt with in the chapters of this book – from different points of view – maximise difference on the independent variable, in the sense that they provide distinct instances of state structures and administrative settings, both in general and in relation to migration.

In the classic terms of Lipset and Rokkan (1967), state structures and levels of decentralisation are the products of processes of state building, and reflect arrangements to the state/periphery cleavage in Europe and to the cultural/linguistic conflict between the anglophone majority and francophone minority in Canada.⁴ In this sense, the five countries considered represent different solutions to these historical challenges: Switzerland, Canada and Germany stand for different instances of federalism; Italy can be regarded as a case of a regionalised state structure in transition towards a quasi-federalist form; the Netherlands is a prototype of a unitary state, although with a non-negligible degree of administrative decentralisation.

As for federalist systems, the three countries considered present different forms of centre/periphery relations (McKay 2001; Watts 2008). First of all, Switzerland is a confederation characterised by a high degree of separation between the federal state and the cantons (so-called dual federalism), these latter enjoying exclusive authority on a signifi-

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cant number of matters such as public order, health care, education, territorial organisation, state-church relations and taxation. In this context, municipalities raise their own taxes and autonomously organise themselves. While the degree of local autonomy may depend on the cantons, in general this is very high when compared with other countries (Kriesi 1998; Linder 2005). Similarly, Canada is also a case of dual federalism, based on two distinct jurisdictions, the federal parliament and the legislative assemblies of the provinces, with separate areas of legislative authority and a few shared ones (Rocher & Smith 2003). However, in contrast to Switzerland, the federal parliament has always enjoyed a certain primacy over the provincial ones, as pointed out, for instance, by the fact that the residuary powers are attributed to the central government (Bélanger 2001a). As for centre/periphery relations, these are more of an asymmetric kind: according to the so-called 'opting-out formula', provinces can decide not to participate in a federal programme and receive tax compensation for withdrawal. Currently, only Quebec availed itself of such an opportunity, which is part of the special status accorded to this province since the British North America Act of 1867 to accommodate its linguistic and cultural diversity (Bélanger 2001b). Municipal legislation falls within the exclusive jurisdiction of the provinces, and city administrations have no constitutionally guaranteed autonomy: at this level, asymmetry is the rule, so the exercise of prerogatives in one city does not necessarily apply in another (see Fourot in this volume).

Germany, on the other hand, has been depicted as a case of administrative federalism or cooperative federalism: the federal government has a very broad range of exclusive, concurrent (with federal law prevailing) and framework legislative jurisdiction, while the Länder have a mandatory constitutional responsibility for applying and administering most of these federal laws5 (Leonardy 1999: 12), as pointed out by the fact that public service is mainly organised and employed by Land governments. In contrast to Canada and similar to Switzerland, local governments enjoy constitutionally guaranteed autonomy: they carry out most of the administrative tasks attributed to Länder, who have legislative responsibility for their organisation and supervision (Leonardy 1999; Jeffery 2002).

Italy can be considered a case of a unitary state that has, in the last twenty years, undertaken a process of increasing devolution of authority to the periphery and, in particular, to the regions. The regional state structure was already envisaged in the 1948 Constitution, which also recognised municipal autonomy. Nevertheless, this was a kind of highly centralised and asymmetric regionalism: the fifteen ordinary regions could enjoy legislative powers only within state law limits, while the five regions with a special statute (i.e. the border regions Aosta Valley, Friuli Venezia Giulia and Trentino Alto Adige, and the two insular regions Sicily and Sardinia) were accorded greater administrative and legislative autonomy (Ventura 2002: 114). Ordinary regions were implemented only in the mid-1970s and their functioning showed from the very beginning limits and contradictions. Reforms in the sense of decentralisation took place only in the early 1990s. In 2001, the reform of Title V of the Constitution, sanctioned by popular referendum, has substantially modified the originally unitary state structure in a federalist sense: areas of exclusive state legislative authority and shared ones have been specified, while legislative power on residuary matters has been assigned to the regions; yet, contrary to classic federalist models, Italy still lacks an institution allowing regions to participate in the national legislative process (Ventura 2002: 118-119). Administrative functions are the prerogative of the municipalities even though, according to the principle of subsidiarity, the provinces and the regions may intervene where deemed necessary.

In our sample, the Netherlands represents the only pure unitary state structure: Lijphart (1968) described it as a 'centralised consensus democracy'. As such, provinces and municipalities, which represent the lowest tiers of government, are essentially responsible for the implementation of national policies. Whereas the twelve provinces have limited authority, municipalities are multi-purpose territorial governments and they outweigh provinces in terms of tasks, level of expenditure and number of personnel. Actually, municipalities do not only have executive responsibility but, according to the Constitution, also have the right to take the initiative in the administration of their territory (Toonen 1990). This ensures municipalities a considerable degree of autonomy.

Different state/periphery structures impinge of course on the treatment of migration in the countries considered. Generally speaking, immigration policy, according to Hammar (1985) the regulation of international migration flows, falls within the jurisdiction of central state authorities, with the notable exception of Canada, where immigration is a matter of shared jurisdiction with the provinces. Most provinces have agreements with the Canadian government that allow them to participate in the selection of immigrants to be admitted within the scope of federal programmes (Birrel & McIssac 2006: 103). On the other hand, the primacy of state authorities in Europe might be considered a reflection of the immigration history of the old continent, where international flows represent a relatively new phenomenon taking place in the context of established and supposedly homogeneous nation states. However, a more close attention to centre/periphery relationships on issues of immigration regulation highlights interesting differences across the four European countries considered in this chapter. As for the two federal systems, Germany and Switzerland, the Länder and the canto ing and imp laws and reg chambers (re the regional countries reg admission po is concerned, alien police an

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On the other hand, in more centralised state structures such as Italy and the Netherlands, the influence of sub-national levels on immigration policy is far less extensive, even though local authorities may play a non-negligible discretional role in the issuing and renewal of residence permits,8 as well as in tolerating irregular migrants.9 The aforementioned quasi-federalist turn in Italy is still far from endowing the regions with the kind of direct influence in national legislation that can be found in the other federal states, since there is no legislative chamber representing the regions at a national level. Yet, according to the 2002 Immigration Law, the regions can take advantage of the possibility to organise, in collaboration with the Minister of Education, training courses in the countries of origin: these courses offer the regions an instrument of selection of immigrants, to fill shortages in local labour markets. However, the national quota assigned for this category of entries is negligible and, furthermore, the regions have not taken advantage of this opportunity (Caponio 2007).

As is clear, different state structures and institutionalised centre/periphery relations set the formal framework of opportunities and constraints against which sub-national authorities may take action in immigration policy and policymaking. Their role may range from direct involvement in immigrant recruitment (Canada) and repatriation (Switzerland) to mere discretion in the implementation of elements of the national legislation (the Netherlands). Discretion, while not institutionally recognised as part of the implementation process, is nevertheless relevant for the effects it produces both for those who are subject to a certain law or regulation and for immigration policy as a whole. The case of Italy is in this sense paradigmatic: the toleration of illegal stays would have been impossible without considerable discretion on the part of local authorities in allowing access to services to all immigrants, including irregular ones. This, coupled with the absence of opportunities of legal entry and with an increasing demand in the labour market for low-qualified, highly flexible workers (especially in agriculture and for care and domestic services), has contributed to the consolidation of a so-called 'half-closed/half-open door' immigration policy (Colombo & Sciortino 2004).

As for immigrant policy, which has been the main focus of the contributions presented in this book, the picture is much more scattered and, along with the institutional division of responsibility in welfare policy, integration rhetoric and official immigrant policy must be considered. This is a clear point of distinction among the three federalist countries: whereas Switzerland never promoted a national integration policy, and Germany did so only in 2005, when the first national integration programme was introduced, the Canadian central government looks far more interventionist. As a consequence, whereas immigrant policy is essentially cantonal/regional policy in the first two countries, this is not the case in Canada. In 1971 the Multiculturalist Act established the basic principles of Canadian immigrant policy by recognising the right to difference and proclaiming cultural diversity as a national value. Moreover, federal programmes aimed at supporting first settlement, especially through English and French language instruction, are carried out by the Department of Citizenship and Immigration in the context of various agreements with the provinces (Simmons 1999; Birrell & McIsaac 2006). The only exception is represented by Quebec, which under the terms of the Canada-Quebec Accord signed in 1991, has exclusive responsibility for welcoming and integrating immigrants who settle in the province, thus enjoying full autonomy in the management of federal funds allocated for immigrant policy. As for the other provinces, immigrant policy is composed of a mix of federal and provincial programmes, often overlapping each other. Depending on the provincial statutes, municipalities have been assigned varying degrees of influence in these policies, which are often implemented by NGOs selected on the basis of public bids. However, since the late-1990s, budget constraints and welfare retrenchment have been accompanied by a strengthening of provincial responsibility in immigrants' accommodation and reception (see Fourot in this volume): in the case of Vancouver (Leaf 2005: 289), this led to an increased centrality of municipal authorities in dealing with non-governmental and community organisations.

As for Italy, beginning in 1998 immigrant policy became a regional matter. Law no. 40/1998, established a National Integration Fund to be allocated to the regions, which were actually responsible for approving annual integration programmes, in collaboration with provincial and local authorities. Throughout the 1990s, local administrations had played a crucial role – especially in the north – in providing first assistance and various integration projects (in this volume ch. 2), given the autonomy Italian municipalities enjoy in the organisation of public services delivery and implementation. The recent federal reforms have reinforced regional responsibility in welfare policy, and it is actually up to the regions now to decide whether to establish ad hoc immigrant integration pro-

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Autonomy of local/regional authorities in immigration policies

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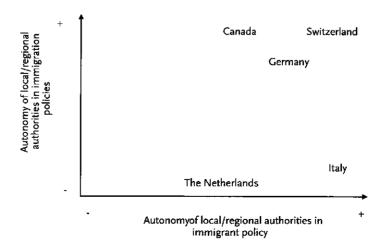
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grammes to be implemented by provincial and/or municipal authorities.

In the Netherlands, on the other hand, immigrant policy has been formulated and developed in a centralised way by the national government, which introduced an Ethnic Minority Policy as early as 1983. Local authorities, though, have enjoyed considerable autonomy in implementation throughout the 1990s, a trend that has been contradicted by the introduction, in 2003 of a national integration programme assigning to the central state control over integration courses and exams. Nevertheless, consistent with the general structure of the Dutch welfare state described above, many integration measures continue to be carried out by municipalities, which has produced a growing gap between national-level symbolic politics and local-level integration policies (Bruquetas-Callejo et al. 2008).

Figure 6.1 sums up the results of the analysis carried out so far. A first picture of the relevance of the local dimension of migration policymaking in our five countries can be identified by crossing the two dimensions of: 1) local/regional degree of autonomy in immigration policy and 2) local/regional autonomy in immigrant policy in the formal division of responsibility between centre and periphery. According to the figure, the local dimension is likely to be extremely critical in Switzerland, while it will be of a minor relevance in the Netherlands, with the exception at least in part of immigrant policy.

Figure 6.1 The local dimension of policymaking in Canada, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and Switzerland: dimensions of analysis



State/periphery institutional arrangements described so far represent sets of rules that shape local policymakers' opportunities and constraints. Yet, if we are to understand how immigrant local policies actually work, the compilation of an inventory of opportunities and constraints is insufficient. I shall focus on the local dimension of migration policy per se, to find out if, and to what extent, there are common mechanisms at work behind – and maybe in spite of – extreme differences in formal state/local authority arrangements.

4 Policymaking patterns in local migration policy arenas: evidence from case studies

In this section I turn my attention to *local migration policy arenas*, particularly to the three local arenas that can be identified on the basis of the contributions collected in this book, i.e.: the legal status – namely citizenship – policy arena; the social welfare and employment policy arenas; the religious diversity arena. For each, I shall first identify the main structural differences across the five countries considered in terms of the local authorities concerned and the formal responsibility assigned to them. In a second step, I will focus on elements of similarity in the functioning of the local arenas with particular attention to the actors taking part in policymaking processes and the logic behind their actions.

As already mentioned, such an assessment can only be tentative: not only do the contributions collected in this book look at local policymaking from very different perspectives and with varying methodological approaches, but existing literature on local policy has unevenly addressed such a dimension. Moreover, while much has been written on various aspects of local socio-economic and religious diversity issue areas, a serious gap exists when considering the local dimension of citizenship policy. As a consequence, the following analysis has to be considered as a preliminary attempt to build an original heuristic perspective on the local dimension of policymaking rather than as an accomplished study.

4.1 Citizenship policy: an invisible local migration arena

According to Alexander (2007: 49), citizenship relates to the migrant civic status, which is a crucial issue area in the legal-political policy domain. In general, it is taken for granted that citizenship is the goal par excellence of national policymaking. It is up to national laws to draw the boundaries between citizens and non-citizens and to decide under which conditions the latter may aspire to become members of the na-

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However, as Helbling points out in this book, if in Switzerland national citizenship is explicitly based on membership in a local community, i.e. in the municipality, in other countries, centralised France included, regional differences in the implementation of naturalisation laws can be observed. This clearly indicates the relevance of local/regional authorities' attitudes towards the question of who has the right to become a citizen (see also Helbling 2008: 18-19). The local dimension of citizenship policy, while only rarely acknowledged and studied, may nevertheless represent a crucial migration policymaking arena in contemporary receiving countries, since it is at a local level that criteria for membership in a certain community acquire social meaning.

How does the citizenship local policy arena look across the five countries considered in this study? What are the main differences and similarities? Answering such questions, even in a tentative manner, is extremely difficult since here a serious gap in the migration policy literature has to be faced: studies on citizenship policy have been carried out essentially in a taken-for-granted nation state perspective, with a prevailing macro-sociological and structural approach (Helbling 2008: 50). Consequently, the local dimension of citizenship policy can be considered as an invisible arena, i.e. one which cannot be noticed and accounted for through the theoretical and methodological lens characterising mainstream immigration and citizenship literature.

This does not mean that such a local arena does not exist or that it is relevant only in the few countries where it has received some attention. Probably more research is needed, especially if one considers that, according to an NGO survey carried out in the fifteen 'old' EU member states in the context of the NATAC study, one of the main complaints was the degree of discretion and power of decision left to administrative authorities (Chopin 2006: 229).

Notwithstanding the scarce literature and empirical evidence available, I shall try to point out some possible characterising features of the local citizenship policymaking arena across the five countries considered. We begin by identifying the main differences. Drawing on Helbling's literature review in this book (see also Helbling 2008), a first distinction can be made between political local citizenship arenas and essentially administrative ones. Switzerland is the best example, and probably unique, of a political local citizenship arena, since final decisions on naturalisation applications are taken at a municipal level by a political body, i.e. the local parliament, the executive, or even the entire population through direct ballot. Politicians are also involved in various stages of the procedure, even if it is generally the local adminis-

tration that keeps in touch with the applicants, informs them about the formal aspects of the process, checks to see if the main criteria are fulfilled and makes a first assessment of the candidate's chances of obtaining a Swiss passport. Officials also deliver recommendations to the political bodies involved in the process (Helbling 2008: 13).

On the other hand, administrative local citizenship arenas can be further distinguished according to the type of bureaucracy responsible for handling applications and/or making final decisions. Only in Germany and Austria such responsibility falls entirely within, respectively, regional (Länder) and provincial authorities, while in the other EU-15 states applications are handled by local branches of the central executive authority that has the final say (Waldrauch 2006: 145). This is the case of the Ministry of the Interior12 in Italy, where the prefectures (local branches of the Ministry of the Interior) have the task of collecting applications and checking the documents, and of the Immigration and Naturalisation Service in the Netherlands (which is an authority subordinate to the Ministry of Alien Affairs and Integration). In the latter country, though, preliminary investigation and registration of applications is carried out by municipal authorities (Van Oers, De Hart & Groenendijk 2006: 422-423). A similar centralised institutional setting can be found in Canada, where the administration of citizenship falls under the authority of Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC), a federal-level department (Bloemraad 2006: 107). At a local level, citizenship judges operate as officials of CIC to interview applicants, to organise promotional events and to preside over citizenship ceremonies.13

To sum up, three different structures of local citizenship policy arenas can be identified: the political policymaking arena, where procedures and decisions are dealt with locally and with a relevant involvement of political actors (Switzerland); administrative decentralised arenas, where naturalisation procedures and decisions are essentially administrative matters carried out at a sub-national level (as in the case of Germany and Austria); administrative centralised arenas, where local authorities have just executive functions and operate on behalf of a national decision-making institution, as pointed out in the cases of Italy, the Netherlands and Canada.

Having clarified the differences in the structures of the local citizenship policy arena, I now turn my attention to the possible elements of similarity in their functioning across the five countries considered. A first common element in all the arenas considered, both political and administrative, centralised and decentralised, is the key role played by local public officials in the crucial stages of the naturalisation procedure. Apart from the cases of Switzerland and Germany, treated extensively by Helbling elsewhere in this book, this seems to be the case in

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the local citizensible elements of es considered. A oth political and ey role played by aralisation proceny, treated extento be the case in

the other three countries, although systematic accounts are lacking. In Canada, for instance, citizenship judges operating at a local level are responsible for interviewing applicants and ensuring that they meet the requirements of the Citizenship Act and regulations. In the Netherlands, under the 1984 Act, civil servants of the municipality were responsible for examining language and integration requirements, thus enjoying a considerable margin of manoeuvre which was drastically restricted though after the introduction in April 2003 of a standardised naturalisation exam (Van Oers, De Hart & Groenendijk 2006: 423). As for Italy, it is assumed that the local branches of the Ministry of the Interior (prefectures) enforce the rules. Yet, the few studies available on the implementation of regularisation laws (Triandafyllidou 2003; Zucchini 1998) and on access to residence permits (Fasano & Zucchini 2001; Caponio 2007), show a high degree of differentiation in the attitudes and practices of local officials. Such differences can also be reasonably expected in relation to the implementation of citizenship policy by the prefectures.

It is extremely difficult, on the basis of the scarce empirical evidence available, to show the logic of action of local officials in the citizenship policymaking arena. However, drawing on existing research on the practices carried out by local-level bureaucrats in the migrant status issue area (see Jordan, Stråth & Triandafyllidou 2003), the need to investigate administrative cultures comes to the fore. Attitudes towards immigrants' legal status take shape in the daily routines of the bureaucracy and in the way this copes with new challenges.

Given this pre-eminence of bureaucratic actors and their administrative culture in the local citizenship arena, one might hypothesise that politics will not play a relevant role with the exception of Swiss municipalities, where local governments are formally part of the decisionmaking process. Yet, this might be another common thread across the cases considered: political influence, either of a direct or indirect type, cannot be completely ruled out. In the case of Germany, studies have documented considerable variation in naturalisation rates and citizenship policies between progressive and conservative Länder (Hagerdorn 2001), these latter applying stricter requirements and criteria of examination. Hailbronner (2006: 241), for instance, points out how until 2005 the requirement of constitutional loyalty on the part of the applicant was interpreted differently by the Länder responsible authorities. While Christian Democratic Länder made it compulsory to have a formal consultation with security services, in other Länder such a consultation was required only in particular cases.14

In her comparative assessment of bureaucratic practices and structures of Canadian and United States citizenship policy, Bloemraad (2006) points out how different political views on migration, primarily

centred on security in the US and on integration in Canada, inform the organisational cultures of the agencies administering citizenship in the two countries. The analysis does not take into account the local dimension within the two systems, even though this has been noted as relatively important, at least in the US (see Helbling in this volume). As for Canada, it should be recalled that provinces have considerable influence on the selection of immigrants, and Quebec enjoys full autonomy. The selection of future, would-be citizens can be directly influenced by political preferences, as pointed out by the Quebec selection criteria favourable towards francophone immigrants, which are consistent with the political goal of preserving and reinforcing the French-speaking community.

Moreover, political actors may also attempt to play a role in administrative local citizenship arenas by promoting various measures aimed at favouring immigrants' naturalisation. Language courses, information to would-be citizens and/or specific preparation to pass citizenship tests or examinations can be regarded as part of a local political strategy aimed at fostering access to citizenship. The naturalisation campaigns carried out in some German cities such as Berlin or Hesse (Chopin 2006: 226) are a case in point. In the Netherlands and Canada, national programmes explicitly assign to sub-national-level authorities the task of undertaking citizenship promotion. Meanwhile in Italy, the picture is far more scattered, and much depends on regional/local authorities, who might decide to start such programmes in the context of their integration policies. Political attitudes that are pro- or anti-immigrant are likely to influence the propensity for undertaking such policies. Hence, even if, in general (the only exception being Switzerland), local politicians are not formally involved in citizenship policy, they still seem to be able to exert indirect influence. This can be more or less significant depending on the kind of authority responsible for the final decision, i.e. if it is placed at a sub-national or national level. Moreover, much will depend on the authorities' interest in the politicisation of the citizenship issue. Since political action is driven by a consensus-maximising logic (Mahnig 2004; Caponio ch. 2 in this volume), which is at the base of the 'democratic impatience' described by Vermeulen and Penninx (1994) - the political desire to achieve quick solutions for problems and processes of a long-term character - one can hypothesise that local political actors will enter into the local citizenship arena only insofar as they perceive some gain in terms of consensus in the party/coalition electorate. The kind of measures undertaken will depend on the party ideology or views of migration, and range from non-policy to support for the introduction of administrative restrictions (see the aforementioned conservative German Länder), to immigrants' selection (e.g. preference for French-speaking immigrants in Quebec), to facili language and cult ported only when sus in the actual as

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Quebec), to facilitating programmes (e.g. naturalisation campaigns, language and culture courses, etc.). Favourable measures will be supported only when they are consistent with the perception of a consensus in the actual and potential electorate.

A third actor appears to have some relevance in the local citizenship arena: NGOs. These groups can mobilise at a local level to provide information and support to applicants on the basis of specific public programmes, as is the case in Canada and, at least in part of Germany and the Netherlands, or independently of municipal authorities (Chopin 2006: 221). Independent action is likely to be particularly prominent in those countries, such as Italy, where public authorities do not offer any counselling, and also initiatives on the part of local administrations are few and discontinued. NGOs' logic of action generally leans in the direction of supporting their constituencies, i.e. immigrants. However, their role in the local citizenship arena arguably also depends on the relevance that naturalisation has in their perception of immigrants' needs and interests. Where emergency issues prevail and basic needs are emphasised, especially by organisations traditionally volunteering for poor people as is the case of a considerable number of Catholic NGOs in Italy, citizenship will not be regarded as a priority.

Hence, despite the scarce existing literature, we can assert that the local dimension of citizenship policymaking is not of a minor relevance, even in countries where the crucial decisions are taken at a national level, such as Canada, the Netherlands and Italy. The local arena appears to be essentially of an administrative kind, even if the – in most cases, indirect – role and influence of political actors should not be disregarded. Moreover, the local conditions may be more or less favourable to naturalisation depending also on NGOs' propensity to mobilise and campaign independently on this issue, which cannot always be taken for granted.

4.2 The social welfare migration policy arena: decision making versus implementation?

In Alexander's (2007) classification, the socio-economic policy domain includes four issue areas that relate to the overall social inclusion of immigrants and access to welfare. In particular, on the basis of the contributions collected in this book, I shall focus on two such issues areas: social services and the labour market. These appear to be strictly interconnected at a local level, since labour market measures are usually part of broader local strategies of social inclusion composed of a mix of welfare services. After an assessment of the main differences in the structure of local socio-economic policymaking arenas, I turn my attention to an analysis of similarities in the functioning patterns.

As for the first point – access to social and employment services being a crucial element of immigrant policy – the importance of the local dimension will depend on the degree of administrative decentralisation of the welfare state overall and, in particular, of immigrant policy. Looking more closely at the institutions involved and at their respective authority, especially in terms of separation between decision-making and implementation, different models can be identified. The first model, which is prevalent in the four European countries considered in this book, is essentially bottom-up, since it is based on the principle of local autonomy, according to which municipalities enjoy considerable discretionary power in the implementation of national/regional/cantonal policy. General policy objectives and guidelines are translated by local authorities into specific measures and initiatives, a process which implies a relevant margin of manoeuvre in the choice of what services to deliver and how

On the other hand, the second model, which reflects the case of Canada, is more top-down and characterised by a certain degree of competition between the federal and the provincial level, especially as far as labour market programmes are concerned¹⁵ (Birrell & McIsaac 2006: 111). Moreover, administrative arrangements for the delivery of services may vary considerably among Canadian provinces: while in Ontario and Manitoba, for instance, services are delivered by an extensive network of NGOs, in Quebec the local branches of the provincial government are also involved (Birrell & McIsaac 2006: 112). The role of municipalities depends on provincial jurisdiction, though, in general, it does not seem to be crucial.

Despite differences in the local policymaking structures, similarities can be noted in relation to the mechanisms of functioning of the local socio-economic immigrant arena. In all the countries considered, it constitutes a 'new' social policy arena which intersects with more established local welfare policies such as labour employment and vocational training, housing, social assistance, etc. Relations between 'old' and – relatively – 'new' arenas appear to be a particularly critical point. Established bureaucratic structures tend to resist innovation and to boycott new administrative units dealing with immigrants' integration. In the cases of Munich and Frankfurt described in this book by Aybek, the ad hoc institutional bodies created by municipal authorities have encountered difficulties in cooperating with other administrative units as well as with the corporative policy networks dealing with vocational education and training. An even more separate system - setting apart immigrant settlement programmes and labour market development services - can be found in Canada, where federal and provincial departments working on these issues have just begun to address the problem of coordination (Birrell & McIsaac 2006: 111).

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Similar issues are pointed out in this book by Vermeulen and Stotijn's comparison of integration policies in Amsterdam and Berlin, and by Caponio (ch. 2) in relation to Italian cities (see also Caponio 2006). In Amsterdam, for instance, the role of the minority advisory councils in the developing of immigrant local policy has been often questioned, ¹⁶ as has been the case with the commissioner for foreigners (Ausländerbeauftragte) in Berlin, the Institution for Immigrant Services in Bologna and the Foreigners' Office in Milan. ¹⁷

To explain such difficulties in the everyday operating of integration policy, micro-level relations within the socio-economic immigrant arena could be revealing. Three categories of actors must be considered: elected political actors, the bureaucratic apparatus and civil society organisations, immigrant associations included. At first glance, we can hypothesise a straightforward separation between the political, decision-making sphere and the administrative-plus-NGOs implementation sphere. Yet, relations appear to be far more complicated, and have to be considered in the context of the different policymaking structures highlighted above.

First of all, elected politicians play a crucial role in setting the policy frame according to which the socio-economic integration of immigrants is defined and dealt with by the administrative apparatus. This may be regarded as a purely symbolic function, loosely related to the actual working of services. Yet, the confrontation between the cases of Vancouver and Toronto in Canada (Good 2009) and the European cities analysed by the contributions collected in this book can better clarify the fundamental relevance of frame-setting in the local immigrant' socio-economic arena. Multicultural policies undertaken by the municipalities of Vancouver and Toronto have been actively promoted by the political leadership in the context of strategies aimed at, respectively, fostering Vancouver's economic linkages with the Pacific Rim and affirming the city of Toronto's autonomy vis-à-vis attempts to centralise power in the hands of the Ontario province (Good 2009: 277-280). By contrast, in most European cities, elected politicians show more reluctant and ambiguous attitudes, which casts doubts on the relevance and scope of action of the offices charged with the implementation of immigrant policy. Regardless of the political ideology of the governing majority (i.e. left-wing- or right-wing-oriented), ad hoc offices and institutions established by political actors in the Italian, Dutch and German cities analysed in this book are usually assigned a subordinate position in the administrative structure, signalling an uncertain political legitimacy of the city's integration policy. In the case of Zurich described by Mahnig (2004), ambiguities in the local political frame, oscillating between openings to immigrants' participation and requests for adaptation to the Swiss society, have to be understood vis-à-vis a political sysPolitical actors also set the legitimising frame for the action of civil society organisations in the local immigrant socio-economic arena. In the case of Amsterdam, for instance, Vermeulen and Stotijn point out how even in the context of the present-day 'diversity policy', which fails to acknowledge the relevance of groups in the policymaking process, the mayor continues to regard immigrant religious organisations as an important counterpart. Such an accommodative stance is also evident in the new Berlin Senate integration policy, which opened new opportunities for immigrant organisations' participation in 2005 and, as far as Italian cities are concerned, in Bologna and Naples where the empowerment of immigrant groups is a centre-left-wing official policy priority. In contrast, in Milan the political policy frame appears to be far more oriented towards sustaining the action of traditional Catholic NGOs working in the field.

Once the official policy frame is set by elected politicians, administrative bureaucracies and civil society organisations are, in order to implement it, supposed to act accordingly. As the chapters presented in this book currently signal, more attention should be paid to what happens in policy implementation. The local socio-economic arena cannot be identified just by political official priorities and attitudes towards immigrant integration. As pointed out by Vermeulen and Stotijn as well as by Caponio ch. 2, street-level bureaucrats and policy practitioners represent a crucial category of policymakers insofar as they are able to accommodate the original policy objectives in order to better cope with immigrant needs and/or to overcome obstacles in the delivery of existing services to foreign users. As is clear, if politicians follow a consensus-driven - electoral - logic, which accounts for the ambiguity of official policy priorities and frames, practitioners appear to be more useroriented. Such an attitude on the part of practitioners and officials can be either the result of a strong professional ethos and commitment, consistent with Weber's duty of office, or of more prosaic strategies to come to terms with everyday disparate users' demands challenging established routines. More research on the administrative backgrounds and cultures of public officials operating in the local socio-economic immigrant policy arena might be revealing. 18

Civil society organisations also play a crucial role in the local immigrant socio-economic arena. These can be of different kinds, and may include traditional charity organisations, often of a religious type, professional NGOs working in partnership with public authorities, community and immigrant associations, etc. In the area of vocational training and youth employment, the unions and employers' organisations would also be expected to play a role. However, this is not necessarily

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Different configurations of civil society mobilisation will depend essentially on two factors: 1) the legitimate political policy frame, which can materially and/or symbolically support certain types of organisations; and 2) the more general local welfare policy context and legacy. In the Italian cities analysed by Caponio ch. 2 in this book (see also Caponio 2006), two different welfare policy legacies can be identified: one organised around the unions and the workers' cooperatives in Bologna, these latter becoming over the course of time increasingly professional NGOs specialised in providing social services; and one centred on the primacy of Catholic charities and voluntary organisations in Milan and Naples. Whereas in Milan, thanks to the close relations with the regional and local administrations, they have developed into professional NGOs delivering services on the basis of public contracts, in Naples, the scarcity of public resources accounts for their less professional profile. However, in all three cities, these prominent autochthonous organisations appear to crowd out newer immigrant associations, which face difficulties in access to public funding and to policymaking processes (Caponio 2005). By contrast, in the case of Amsterdam, the combination of the pillarisation-policy legacy (see also Alexander 2007) and the political-legitimising framework reported above, seem to account for a greater opportunity policy structure for immigrant organisations, even in the present context of a 'diversity policy'. Also in the cases of Berlin, Frankfurt and Munich, immigrant organisations seem to enjoy more leverage than in the aforementioned Italian cities. In particular, as far as Frankfurt and Munich are concerned, innovative approached to the German vocational education and training (VET) system, are started at the grassroots level and rely upon the direct involvement of NGOs specialised in providing social services to immigrants (IG in the case of Munich) and of municipal institutions working with immigrant associations (AMKA in Frankfurt).

In Canada, if policy development, planning and priority-setting happens at both the federal and provincial level, services are delivered at a local level essentially through NGOs. Consequently, a multitude of organisations can be found in the various provinces competing for public funding and catering to different clienteles, either people of an immigrant background in general or of a specific national community. At the same time, federal multicultural policy started in the early 1970s provides a political-legitimising framework for ethnic commu-

nity and immigrant organisations (Bloemraad 2006: 125), even if grants tend to be modest.

Along with the three main categories of policymakers mentioned so far - i.e. elected political actors, public officials and civil society organisations - a fourth category must be considered: that of experts. Policymaking processes concerning the socio-economic integration of immigrants in the German, Dutch and Italian cities analysed in this book, often refer to scientific reports, white papers, advisory councils, individual consultants, etc. External actors whose legitimacy is based on their knowledge of the issues at hand, can play a non-negligible role in influencing local policy and giving certain direction to it. According to Caponio's accounts of Milan, Bologna and Naples in this volume (ch. 2), experts are personalities who are well known for their competence in the field and usually pursue a problem-solving-oriented logic, i.e. one aimed at providing sound solutions to perceived problems. This is likely to enter into conflict with elected politicians' consensus-driven logic, which is more oriented towards favouring popular solutions regardless of their efficacy in dealing with problems. However, evidence in the contributions to this book is too sparse to allow any further analysis. The local research-policy nexus appears to still be a neglected topic. It deserves more focused attention, especially at a time when the plea for policy evaluation and more knowledge-driven intervention is commonplace.

4.3 A potentially contentious arena: mosque-building

In the cultural-religious domain, a primary issue area is represented by religious and cultural minorities' practices and institutions (Alexander 2007: 51). These usually are at the basis of specific demands and interests at a local level: one such demand regards the establishment of appropriate places of worship such as mosques for Muslim immigrant groups. Muslim minorities in Western Europe and North America are essentially the product of migration flows. Thus, the demand for the establishment of a mosque has a clear symbolic relevance, marking the evolution of Islam from the private space of a prayer room to the public sphere, making its presence open and visible (Cesari 2005a: 1018; Allievi 2009: 51). Notwithstanding national differences in state/religion legislation and cultural traditions (Aluffi Beck-Pecoz & Zincone 2004), a great wealth of literature has pointed out the crucial relevance of the local dimension in the accommodation of religious demands in Europe¹⁹ (Maussen 2007). In Canada, too, according to Fourot in this book, cities are regarded as having de facto responsibility for the management of religious pluralism in the context of official multiculturalism.

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Next I shall attempt to identify the main actors and mechanisms of functioning in the local religious diversity arena. Following Landman and Wessels' (2005) analysis of decisions on mosque-building in Dutch towns, three main categories of actors can be regarded as relevant: the mosque committees or, more generally, the promoters of the initiative; the municipality, as composed of two different actors - local elected politicians and political parties represented in the city council versus municipal bureaucrats; and the neighbours concerned by the new mosque's plan. Attention has focused so far on the contentious cases, seeing a strong opposition by neighbours and a NIMBY-type mobilisation. However, Landman and Wessels (2005) point out how contentiousness is not always the case. Currently, under the general rubric of 'mosquebuilding' very different requests and demands are considered by researchers, from the granting of free land or premises, to funding and permissions and/or exemptions from specific rules such as parking, As suggested by Maussen (2007: 17-18), developing a more detailed typology of mosques in Europe and, it could be added, of the main related requests on the part of Islamic organisations, could be extremely helpful in identifying the main characteristics of the local mosquebuilding policy arena, as well as the factors and conditions that are likely to lead to politicisation and conflict. This would require a systematic research programme comparing purposely selected cases in different countries. Here, I shall simply attempt to draw some comparative observations starting from existing case studies carried out in the five countries considered.

As for the first category of actors taking part in the local mosque-building policy arena, the promoters of the initiative are usually identified with a mosque committee or an Islamic cultural association taking steps to establish a new mosque or to ameliorate/expand an existing one. Yet, this is a very heterogeneous and stratified category, since a number of factors are likely to influence the strategies and logic of action of the mosques' promoters. First of all, the constitution of a committee or an organisation is not the rule: as pointed out by Fourot in the case of Montreal, action can also be taken by individual leaders loosely connected with the local Muslim community.²⁰

Associations and/or leaders may differ in terms of their personal characteristics. Their level of education and knowledge of legal rules and the political climate of the receiving context can make the difference: in the two Quebec cities analysed by Fourot, for instance, promoters initially avoided openly declaring their intention of establishing a place of worship, fearing a refusal because of the universalistic orientation of local policy and public discourse. In a similar vein, according to Cesari (2005a: 1019), the new generation of highly educated and middle-class Muslim leaders emerging especially in France and the United

Kingdom knows how to frame requests in an appropriate manner and to pursue a successful negotiation strategy. Currently, Muslim communities composed mainly of citizens are more likely to be perceived as legitimate counterparts by local politicians, since they are also voters, as pointed out in the Dutch cities analysed by Landman and Wessels (2005), as well as in Brussels' Schaerbeek mosque decision-making process analysed by Manço and Kanmaz (2005).

In contrast, first-generation communities of non-citizen Muslim immigrants inevitably encounter more difficulties in articulating their needs and demands. Mosque-building in Germany (Jonker 2005), Switzerland²¹ (Cattacin et al. 2003) and Italy²² (Saint Blancat & Schmidt di Friedberg 2005; Allievi 2009) are similar in this respect. Yet, the strategies adopted by the promoting groups in these contexts appear to be quite different: whereas recently established Muslim associations in north-east Italian cities such as Lodi have decided to assume a low profile role (Saint Blancat & Schmidt di Friedberg 2005), either abandoning their requests or accepting the relocation of the projected mosques to very marginalised areas outside the cities or, as in the case of Berlin described by Jonker (2005), openly confronting the Kreuzberg authorities, leading the two parties to judicial courts.

As is thus clear, different strategies are likely to be undertaken and pursued by a mosque's promoters, according to the specific socio-economic profile and legal status of the leadership. The more the leaders hold established positions in the local society, the more they will be able to downplay conflicts and undertake negotiations. In contrast, weak groups, either from a socio-economic or a legal-political point of view, will find it more difficult to articulate their requests through established participative channels. Risks of marginalisation or radicalisation appear to be particularly evident.

This does not mean, however, that well-established leadership will prove successful. Division and conflict within the community is a crucial factor with respect to outcomes of the policymaking processes. The demand for a grand or 'cathedral' mosque is more likely to raise issues of representativeness, as pointed out in the case of Montreal described in this book as well as in the studies on Marseille and Toulouse carried out by Cesari (2005b).

Municipality is the second actor involved in the local mosque-building policy arena. Yet, at a more micro-level analysis, here again we find two distinct actors usually pursuing different strategies and logic of action: politicians and municipal civil servants. These latter, generally identified as city planners and technical officers, are particularly relevant, since, according to Landman and Wessels (2005: 1135), they are the ones able to suggest suitable sites for the planned mosques, which places the municipality on the side of the Muslim association if a con-

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flict does arise. However, their willingness to collaborate with the group promoting the mosque's project cannot be taken for granted, and much depends, once again, on administrative cultures and, more specifically, on formal institutions or more informal practices of participative city planning. In the Dutch cities analysed by Landman and Wessels (2005), the town planners, while not sympathetic to the cause of Muslims, still accept as legitimate their claim for an adequate worship place. This does not seem to be the case in Berlin (Jonker 2005), where the impersonal, bureaucratic attitude of civil servants considerably contributed to reinforcing the lack of comprehension between the municipality and the Mevlana mosque committee. Also in the Italian cities analysed by Saint Blancat and Schmidt di Friedberg (2005), planning offices usually adopted a neutral and distant stance, just checking for the administrative conformity of the application. Such an impersonal style is not necessarily detrimental to Muslim groups: in the case of Milan, in 2000, the technical office accorded to an Italian convert permission to renovate a building of his own to be used as an Islamic cultural centre, despite the negative attitude of the then centre-right mayor. Bureaucracy acted essentially in a neutral way in the two Quebec cities analysed by Fourot as well, even though the specific institutional configuration governing the decision-making process in Laval, where zoning changes have to be approved by the resident population, gave offices a secondary role vis-à-vis political actors.

To sum up, if city planners do generally pursue a logic oriented towards rule enforcement and formal conformity, it may be hypothesised that different administrative cultures, as well as formal and informal rules and practices – particularly with reference to participative planning – have an impact on this category of actors will interpret their role. This may range from active support of the applicant whose requests are judged to be legitimate, to the impersonal, neutral treatment of mosques' dossiers. However, a positive decision on the formal correctness of an application usually represents an important constraint for local politicians, since it is more complicate to oppose a building plan that respects existing urban planning rules and satisfies technical requirements.

Currently, when speaking of local politicians in such a potentially contentious arena as mosque-building, a distinction has to be made between the local governing majority and the opposition parties represented in the city council (see also Allievi 2009: 64). Even though the action of both is driven by the prospective electoral consensus, the action of the first group is subject to a specific set of constraints. Governing politicians have to deal first of all with the 'neutral' decisions taken by civil servants. As pointed out in the case of Milan, a positive technical decision cannot be easily overturned, unless one is willing to be exposed to accusations of open discrimination and Islamophobia.²³ An-

other constraint is represented by the possibility of turning to a referendum. In order to avoid this, governing politicians will embark in a long negotiation process leading to a high level of personalisation of the policymaking process, as pointed out by Fourot in the case of Laval. A similar situation is described by Saint Blancat and Schmidt di Friedberg (2005) in the case of Lodi: the left-wing mayor initially supported the building of a mosque in a commercial area of the city. And yet, the Northern League threatened to promote a referendum (in addition to opposition encountered in the neighbourhood), leading the mayor to reconsider the location of the mosque to the very outskirts of the city.

Generally speaking, the level of openness of the local governing majority to accommodation depends on the legal status of the local Muslim population. Both Landman and Wessel (2005: 1135) on the case of the Netherlands and Fourot (in this volume) on the case of Quebec, observe that militating against the demands of the mosque committees would have implied a cost in terms of useful votes for re-election. On the other hand, in the case of Italy, foreign Muslims, as well as third-country nationals overall, can only become voters upon naturalisation, after ten years of regular residence. As is clear, the search for political consensus will be likely to sacrifice Muslim claims.

Radical political parties sitting in the opposition ranks are of course free from any of the constraints mentioned, and may take an active role in mobilising opposition to the mosque's plans in the concerned neighbourhoods. This is the case, for instance, of the Northern League in Lodi, as well as of the Interest Party in Deventer (Landman & Wessel 2005: 1136). However, protests may assume very different forms and intensity, and as pointed out in this book by Fourot in her study on Montreal and Laval, they may range from a demand letter to heated discussions in public hearings. According to Landman and Wessel (2005), factors such as the demographic distribution of the Muslim population in the urban area, the immigration history of the city, as well as the social class of the opponent group, account for differences in the levels and fierceness of the opposition in the two small cities of Deventer and Driebergen and the city of Utrecht. In Utrecht, a town with a longer history of immigration, mosques are usually located in districts where Muslims represent a strong and numerous group, while the rest of the resident population come from socially weaker strata, lacking the personal and economic resources to mobilise the protest. Yet, more attention should be paid to the supply-side of the protest: populist parties with a radical stance towards immigration as well as religious authorities - for instance, in Italy, pre-eminent Catholic bishops expressing radicalised views - can be regarded as protest entrepreneurs (see the aforementioned case of Lodi), able to mobilise generic sentiments of aversion around political slogans and vocal opposition. At the same time, the

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media may also play a role in giving wind to opposition campaigns: as pointed out by Triandafyllidou (2006) again regarding Lodi, a clear imbalance in the representation of the various social and political actors by the press can be identified, with political parties monopolising the discourse and Muslim voices being in contrast under-represented.

As a consequence, protest cannot be simply interpreted as a sort of inevitable, more or less fierce, reaction to change by the neighbours. Different actors taking part in the protests may pursue different strategies and have different goals. More comparative research on the local conditions leading to NIMBY mobilisation is of extreme interest in order to have a clearer understanding of the functioning of the local mosque-building policy arena.

5 Conclusion

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In order to make sense of the local dimension in migration policymaking, this chapter has attempted to propose a theoretical toolkit to cast the chapters of this book into a more unitary and consistent framework. This can only be regarded as a tentative exercise, which draws its strength on the extreme variance between the national cases considered, but has also some weaknesses. First of all, the countries analysed represent a limited sample of contemporary migration receiving contexts: a major gap is the lack of an Eastern European case, which would have shed light on the local dimension of policymaking in an important transition – from emigration to immigration – area. The Moreover, the studies presented in the chapters of this book are very different in terms of objects of analysis, research demands, theoretical backgrounds and methodological approaches. This poses a serious limit to systematic comparative analysis, which I have attempted to overcome by resorting to other relevant empirical studies and pieces of literature.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, the introduction of the notion of a *local migration policy arena* – here intended as a policymaking field structured around specific issue areas or dimensions of migration policy – has enabled me to focus on patterns of similarities and differences in the local-level responses and policymaking processes across the five countries considered and in the three issue areas of migration policy analysed by the contributions to this book: citizenship, welfare services and religious diversity.

On the basis of this analysis, I now return to the questions set at the beginning to provide some provisional answers. First, it can be maintained that the local dimension of migration policymaking has a nonnegligible relevance in all the countries considered, despite significant differences in the state structures and models of centre/periphery rela-

tions. Local policymaking arenas matter, and more attention should be devoted to their analysis in migration policy-oriented studies. The relevance of the local dimension does not seem to be strictly dependent on the five countries' state structures, but the way a specific issue is treated in each country should also be taken into account. In the case of Canada, for instance, federalism goes hand in hand with a strong interventionist stance on the part of the central government and a highly centralised policymaking structure as far as citizenship is concerned. This may contradict expectations based on a state-structures institutional analysis, yet it is consistent with the historical legacy of a nation based on the compromise between the English-speaking majority and the French-speaking minority. In this context, citizenship acquires the meaning of a republican style social contract (Bloemraad 2006), unifying in a modern constitutional polity different cultural and linguistic groups.

On the other hand, a strong tradition of local autonomy accounts for the leeway that local authorities enjoy both in the centralised Dutch state and in the regionalised Italian one, especially as far as the implementation of social policy is concerned, giving particular pre-eminence to the local immigrant welfare arena in these countries. In contrast, municipalities are subject to different provincial rules and statutes in Canada, where the very crucial sub-national authority in welfare policy is represented by the province.

In the case of religious diversity, the city emerges in all the five countries as the key arena for accommodation. Despite legal differences in national legislation and relations with Islam, demands for appropriate places of worship usually arise at the local level and touch upon issues such as the use of public space and urban planning, which are the exclusive responsibility of local administrations.

Clearly, state structures and systems of centre/periphery relations set the general framework of opportunities and constraints for sub-national authorities' action in relation to immigration. Yet this is not a fixed framework: rather, it may change according to the specific issues, as pointed out in the case of citizenship policy in Canada. Moreover, the analysis of national institutional patterns does not tell us how policies are actually worked out. The case of accommodation of religious diversity is in this respect revealing.

Having analysed the specific decision-making structures characterising each issue area policy arena, I now turn my attention to the identification of similarities and differences across the three policy arenas in terms of policymaking dynamics, actors involved and logic of action. A first important element indicated by the analysis is the complex nature of local government, which is composed of at least two actors not necessarily sharing the same views on immigration. Politicians, on the

one hand, pursue a co those measures that are perceived interests and are likely to conceive of according to the special lised to in their office clients' demands is not ity and even instrument analyses of different lo bute to a redefinition of gence in local immigrations constellations of factor immigrants' needs and

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But local policy and policymaking cannot be identified just with the action of local governmental actors. The contributions to this book and the discussion in this chapter indicate a far more complex picture. NGOs, immigrant associations, experts, media as well as neighbours may all play a role in local policymaking. In particular, NGOs appear to be crucially involved in the citizenship and social welfare arenas, usually showing a client-oriented logic of action, i.e. one aimed at supporting immigrants' integration and access to rights. Yet, such a category needs more specification: in Italy, for instance, NGOs are usually identified with autochthonous traditional non-profit organisations, whose actions often crowd out newer and less organised immigrant ones; in the other countries considered in this book, with more established immigrant communities, NGOs often include immigrant organisations catering to their constituencies. As is clear, the different configurations assumed by NGOs working on migration in different countries may influence considerably the openness of local policy and policymaking to immigrants. Nevertheless, if a common trend towards the increasing incorporation of NGOs in local policymaking can be identified across the five countries considered, this does not necessarily imply greater inclusion of immigrants, who may well be at the margins of established welfare organisations and networks.26

Immigrant stakeholders necessarily play a central role in the religious diversity policy arena, as pointed out in the analysis of mosque-building policymaking. Here we find either specific organisations (Islamic cultural associations and/or mosque committees) or individual leaders all pursuing a similar strategy oriented towards obtaining recognition from the local authorities. Nonetheless, the more or less established presence of Islam in the city, the socio-demographic composition and the legal status of the leadership and of their constituencies, as well as the content of their specific demands (public soil, funding etc.), can influence considerably policymaking dynamics and

outcomes. More systematic comparative analyses might shed new light on how relations are actually structured in such a potentially contentious policy arena, as well as on the specific forms of mobilisation neighbours can assume in different contexts.

Last, a lack of attention to the role of experts and media in local policymaking has already been noted. As far as the media are concerned, these have sometimes been considered in relation to mosque-building conflicts. However, their way of communicating about immigration and immigrants' integration into the city can influence the establishment of a more or less inclusive public discourse and public opinion climate. The role of local media in other issue areas should also be considered, since public discourse has a crucial relevance in the framing of the migration issue.

As is clear, three is still much to do in the study of the local dimension of migration policymaking. This book should be considered as a first effort to identify the main gaps in the literature and to propose possible future research paths that would help to fill them. More systematic and theoretically oriented research programmes are needed to tackle the issues considered so far, since existing literature has often developed in a disconnected way, through case studies that hardly interact with each other. Once again, comparison across cities in different countries should be regarded as a difficult yet necessary challenge for policy migration scholars. It is clear that empirically based knowledge on how immigration and immigrant-integration issues are presently treated and resolved day by day cannot be derived from comparison of national legal frameworks.

Notes

- The distinction between immigration and immigrant policymaking recalls Hammar's (1985) classic definitions of immigration and immigrant politics. Whereas immigration politics is concerned with the conditions of entry and admission on the state's territory, immigrant politics deals with issues of access to citizenship rights for those immigrants who are admitted to reside and work in the country.
- With reference to the cases of Sweden and the Netherlands, Penninx and Martiniello (2004) point out how local politicisation was avoided in the 1970s thanks to the introduction of a consistent framework for national integration policy to which local administrations had to adhere.
- See, for instance, the EU Handbook on Integration for Policy-makers and Practitioners, a second edition of which was published in 2007 (Niessen & Shibel 2007).
- 4 Currently identifiable in the case of Canada is a centre/periphery cleavage between Quebec and Ontario versus the West Atlantic provinces. The latter are less populated yet rich with feedstocks and commodities, and have always perceived their position in the federation as subordinated by the most populated provinces' interests in industrial development (Kent 1992).

5 However, it must be poir sion-making through the senior ministers and which ing the Länder.

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7 This is the case in Switz and Police, which is par (D'Amato 2006).

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- 18 Campomori (2007), for in officials dealing with imm pointed out how the accor crats is related to their pervoluntary work in Catholic

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- However, it must be pointed out that the Länder participate actively in national decision-making through the Bundesrat, which is composed of Land first ministers and senior ministers and which possesses an absolute veto on all federal legislation affecting the Länder.
- In the case of Quebec, such agreements date back to the 1970s and currently provide this province with a unique role in the selection of immigrants. It is directly carried out by provincial authorities in the context of selection and eligibility criteria set by the central government (Birrel & McIsaac 2006).
- 7 This is the case in Switzerland of the Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Justice and Police, which is particularly vocal on issues of interior security and asylum (D'Amato 2006).
- 8 For Italy, see studies on local implementation of regularisation procedures (Zucchini 1998; Triandafyllidou 2003), as well as those on local practices of residence permits' renewal (Caponio 2007).
- 9 For the Netherlands, various studies have pointed out the tension between national and local policy with respect to the Amsterdam-based garment industry, employing predominantly undocumented Turkish workers tolerated by the city administration (Raes 2000). As for Italy, see, for instance, local administrations' practices in dealing with immigrants' reception and first accommodation described by Ponzo (2008).
- 10 For the main shifts in Dutch national integration policy since its start in the 1970s, see Bruquetas-Callejo et al. (2008: 11-19).
- NATAC is an acronym for the project 'Acquisition of Nationality in EU Member States: Rules, Practices and Quantitative Developments'. This specific targeted research project was co-funded by the European Community's Sixth Framework Programme and the Austrian Ministry for Education, Science and Culture in the period 2004-2006. It was coordinated by the Austrian Academy of Sciences and the Institute for European Integration Research of Vienna.
- Actually, in Italy the decision is up to the President of the Republic on the recommendation of the Minister of the Interior. For details, see Arena, Nascimbene and Zincone (2006).
- Applications are decided upon by the Citizenship Commission which is formed by all citizenship judges. For details, see www.cic.gc.ca/english/resources/publications/cit-ann-report-2006.asp#mandate.
- 14 As of January 2005, with the entering into force of the Immigration Act of 2004, the naturalisation authorities have to transmit all personal data of applicants to the security services (Hailbronner 2006: 241).
- Basic policies are set by the federal government and implemented on the basis of various agreements signed with individual provinces, with the exception of Quebec that as mentioned in the third section of this chapter –enjoys full autonomy in the definition and management of settlement and labour market programmes.
- 16 In the case of Amsterdam, Alexander (2008) points out the substantial isolation faced first by the Minorities Policy Coordination Bureau during the Minorities Policy period (i.e. 1980s to mid-1990s) and then by the Diversity Unit created in the mid-1990s under the new Diversity Policy Programme. He attributes this to bureaucratic resistance to change.
- 17 The same holds true as far as Swiss cities are concerned. See, for instance, Mahnig (2004) on the case of Zurich.
- 18 Campomori (2007), for instance, on the basis of a survey on the attitudes of public officials dealing with immigrants in the municipalities of the Lombardy regions, has pointed out how the accommodative and open attitude of these street-level bureaucrats is related to their personal and professional backgrounds, often characterised by voluntary work in Catholic charitable associations.

- 19 I am fully aware that more sophisticated models of explanation of Islam institutionalisation in Europe have been elaborated (see e.g. Rath et al. 2001; Koenig 2005; Fetzer & Soper 2005). Here I just highlight the main institutional elements affecting local policymaking arenas on mosque-building.
- 20 This is also the case in various episodes reported in Italy. In Turin, for instance, a recent plan to establish a grand Moroccan mosque founded by the Moroccan government has encountered opposition on the part of other Moroccan Muslim associations and from other Islamic groups more generally.
- 21 On Switzerland, see also the highly politicised dispute over minarets (Stüssi 2008).
- 22 The critical relevance of citizenship is evident if one considers that the promoters of a mosque project in Italian cities are usually either naturalised citizens or Italian converts to Islam, relying upon their personal social relations in the local political context (Saint Blancat & Schmidt di Friedberg 2005). Nevertheless, the personal ties of the leaders do not always prove to be sufficient in order to receive positive decisions.
- 23 On the other hand, a negative decision by planning authorities also serves as a major impediment for supposedly sympathetic politicians. On this point, see the case of Berlin's Kreuzberg mosque described by Jonker (2005: 1075).
- 24 The municipality would have granted a piece of land at a favourable, off-market price.
- 25 For reasons explaining the lacunae, see the introduction chapter in this book.
- 26 This appears to be the case in the German cities analysed by Aybek in this book, since immigrant organisations do not take part in local vocational education and training policy networks.

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