

THE SELECTIVE IMMIGRATION POLICY OF THE EUROPEAN UNION IN THE LABOUR MARKET FOR THE NON-EU NATIONALS

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Abstract

Migration is an indispensable option for people to sustain their life cycle and improve their quality of life. In the 20th century and beyond, we have seen immigration policies among the common policies of the European Union, mainly due to the rise in immigration and the need for workers. The EU's Common Immigration Policy is a set of social and economic policies in which a balanced approach is adopted and measures are taken to promote orderly and irregular migration practices are applied. The paper will highlight the EU's aim for a qualified immigration policy. The study's research question is to question why the EU is setting up an immigration policy that balances economic prosperity with the labour market. The study examined the situation of EU and non-EU migrant workers in terms of EU selective immigration policy, wage inequalities, social integration problems and discrimination in the labour market. The study is covered in three sections. In section one, international migration and labour migration are studied in a theoretical framework. The second section examines the EU's selective immigration policy and its impact on the labour market. The third section focuses on the integration problems faced by immigrants from EU and non-EU countries in the labour market.

Keywords: EU Immigration Policy, Non-EU Nationals, EU-Nationals, Labour Migration, EU Labour Market

JEL Codes: F22, J15, J61

AB İŞGÜCÜ PİYASASINDA AB DIŞI GÖÇMENLER AÇISINDAN SEÇİCİ GÖÇ POLİTİKASI

Öz

Göç, bireyin yaşam döngüsünü sürdürmesi ve yaşam kalitesini yükseltmesi için zorunlu bir seçenek olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. 20. yüzyıl ve sonrasında ağırlıklı olarak göçmen artışı ve işçi ihtiyacı nedeniyle Avrupa Birliği ortak politikaları arasında Göç Politikalarını görmekteyiz. AB Ortak Göç Politikası, dengeli bir yaklaşımın benimsendiği, düzenli ve düzensiz göç uygulamalarında alınan tedbirlerin uygulandığı sosyal ve ekonomi politikalarının bütünüdür. Bu çalışmada, AB'nin nitelikli göçmen odaklı bir göç politikasını amaçladığı vurgulanacaktır. Çalışmanın araştırma sorusu, AB'nin ekonomik refahı ile işgücü piyasasını dengeleyecek bir göç politikası belirlemesinin nedenlerini sorgulamaktır. Çalışmada, AB Seçici Göç Politikası, ücret eşitsizlikleri, sosyal entegrasyon sorunları ve emek piyasasındaki ayrımcılık gibi konular açısından AB İçi Göçmen ve AB Dışı Göçmen işçilerin durumu incelenmiştir. Çalışma üç bölümde ele alınmıştır. Birinci bölümde, uluslararası göç hareketi ve emek göçü teorik çerçevede incelenmiştir. İkinci bölümde AB'nin seçici göçmen politikası ve işgücü piyasası üzerindeki etkileri araştırılmıştır. Üçüncü bölümde ise AB üyesi olan ve olmayan ülkelere mensup göçmenlerin işgücü piyasasında yaşadığı entegrasyon sorunları üzerinde durulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: AB Göç Politikası, AB Dışı Göçmen, AB İçi Göçmen, Emek Göçü, AB Emek Piyasası

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INTRODUCTION

Globalization has obliged citizens of third-world countries to settle in developed countries, which have the advantages of holding control of scarce resources, comfort zones, public security, and political and social welfare in the world. For purposes of better living conditions, higher wages, and survivability, people are forced to migrate to leave their homeland. European Union (EU) countries make standard policies to plan legal immigration according to economic output and to struggle with illegal immigration and the influx of immigrants. The EU has implemented efforts to better manage external borders and illicit migration flows since the migration crisis in 2015. Hundreds of people from Middle Eastern countries fled across the Mediterranean Sea in 2015 to escape war and persecution and reach European borders. It was also tragic that 3,550 people has died as a result of this crisis. More than 911,000 refugees and migrants arrived in Europe. To create a single area of free movement—a region without internal boundaries between five Member States—France, Germany, Luxembourg, Belgium, and the Netherlands, Frontex was founded in 2004. Frontex is in charge of protecting the external border security of EU member states from illegal immigration. Therefore, Frontex's assistance has helped to reduce illegal immigration into the EU by more than 90%. However, Frontex has recently focused on controlling the EU borders to prevent illicit migration attitudes from the Aegean and Mediterranean coasts. It was usual for the EU immigration policy to establish a set border to protect the welfare and equality of EU citizens, given the increasing number of migrants daily. As a result, the EU members have gathered as a homogenous unit to improve EU welfare and productivity. Consequently, it is crucial for EU immigration policy to decrease every difficulty related to economic interests and to increase every opportunity to develop the labour market for skilled workers.

In 2015, a mass migration of Syrian refugees arrived at the EU borders. EU migration policy objectives have generally targeted protecting borders rather than admitting migrants to be adopted into the labour market. The influx of Syrian refugees has caused European governments to change their stance and develop more protective policies in the name of stable economic prosperity. According to the classification of migrants, economic migrants have a more substantial influence on developing the economic and social systems than non-economic migrants regarding working performance and market integration. Therefore, in developed countries like EU member countries, skilled workers are preferred among immigrants and refugees, and some measures are taken at the borders for others. Meanwhile, high-income countries, like six members of the EU, started to reduce the number of low-skilled workers by creating artificial intelligence applications for some jobs. Consequently, most migrants from EU countries who are low-skilled are in the backstage employment process.



In this article, a qualitative search method is preferred for comparing the reasons for the selective immigration policy of the EU according to the members' total employment rates. Though the search is wide-ranging for the survey or interview, the qualitative method is preferred for the study. Meanwhile, many comprehensive statistical data exist in EUROSTAT (European Office). For the study, general statistical data are used to understand the selective immigration policy of the EU and the hierarchical employment process for immigrants in the labour market. The methodology of this study is based on three dimensions. One of them is to search for the scale of wage inequalities for EU nationals and non-EU nationals and nationals of the destination country. The other is a hierarchical policy by country of birth for the workers in the EU's labour market; the third one is the social discrimination of non-EU nationals in the labour market. Migration flux makes waves in the labour market. It affects many problems both in the inner circle area of the origin country's labour market and the destination country's exterior circle. For this reason, the study is started with the title of labour migration and its many reasons on the labour market in the EU. Then, the study is focused on the selective immigration policy of the EU for workers in the labour market. If there is inequality among the workers in the EU labour market, there must be a protected way for the citizens and their stability of welfare. However, it reveals that the destination country prefers a selective immigration policy for the labour market. However, there is a long way for non-EU countries to adapt to the social and economic system and prove they have the same skills as citizen workers. Thus, the study examines the hierarchy of labour forces in the labour market in the EU and the integration problems of non-EU immigrants in the EU labour market to understand the many obstacles laid down in the hierarchic employment process for immigrants.

In this study, EU selective immigration policies are examined through the selective immigration policies of EU member countries. It has been emphasized that the understandable reasons for the EU countries' measures on labour acceptance are necessary to keep the level of welfare stable. This study consists of three parts. The first part analyzes the migration movement theoretically through labour migration. In the second part, it is pointed out that wage inequalities by country of birth are a significant issue among workers and affect employment rates in the labour market. In the third part, labour market integration problems of immigrants who are coming from non-EU countries are emphasized in the origin of the EU selective immigration policy. Finally, it is noted that a particular immigration policy is necessary for selecting the labour force among the skilled immigrants to stable the labour market.

A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK of LABOUR MIGRATION

Migration has been a defining feature of humanities throughout written history. The motivation for migrants to move from one location to another is primarily related to the desire to live in better conditions or to flee persecution. Even if the living space situation is not chaotic, this could be an individual's choice



or a common choice of a family looking for a better place to live. The first theory of migration movement was formulated by Ernst Georg Ravenstein, who made his observations based on migration to the United Kingdom in 1889 (Ravenstein, 1889, p. 246). In Ravenstein's search for migration, he explored some empirical generalizations affecting internal migration and emphasized that there were many laws about migration movement. However, the significant causes of migration were economic (Ravenstein, 1889, p.247). The first one is migration over short distances. The second is that migration occurs in steps (family reunification), and the third is that migration is primarily due to economic causes (Lee, 1966, p. 49). It was not only the first analysis of migration that mainly occurred at the internal level but also many generalizations focused on general observation of migration movement.

After the Industrial Revolution, migration flux has been seen from the inside to outside. For this reason, international migration has a long history with some milestones. After the agricultural revolution, the long migration periods stopped around the living areas. In ancient times, the needs of human beings were focused on finding food and having secure places (Trivedi & Mehta, 2019). The development of free market societies, colonization, the trade revolution, the industrial revolution, and technical advancement are a few essential factors that have fueled an increase in global migration (Wickramasinghe and Wimaralata, 2016, p. 13). However, at the end of the 20th century, it was seen that many factors affected migration flux and routes. Most of them are linked to both internal and international economic aspects.

Many theories and articles about international migration involve economic and social effects on the migration process. However, a migration movement must be evaluated in light of its specific circumstances, including both obstacles and opportunities. In 1965, Everett Lee conceptualized the factors associated with individuals' migration decisions. He focused on the motivation for migration by considering the relationship between origin and destination countries. According to Lee's Theory, migration is a dynamic movement involving intervening obstacles and opportunities. He referred to them as the migration movement's push and pull factors. The lack of employment possibilities in the exporting countries is a push factor for labour migration, whereas the economic opportunities in the receiving countries are pulling factors (Lee, 1966, p. 48). There are various draws, but a few include the availability of jobs, improved living conditions, a desirable environment, safety, political and social stability, etc. Additionally, there are pull factors at the destination that draw immigrants and push factors at the origin that compel immigrants to relocate abroad. Instead, encourage folks to move out of their current homes by using push factors. These push factors related to economic, cultural, political, and environmental issues, defined as the lack of opportunities, prejudice, loss of income, war, natural disasters, and others, are notable (Lee, 1966, p.49). Consequently, push factors

drive people to move from one place to another. Push factors are often related to international migration movements, and pull factors are generally related to individual migration movements.

The two theories indicate that migration is due to economic reasons and the short distance between origin and destination. On the other hand, many factors, including age, marital status, gender, educational level, etc., are related to the motivation for migration. Furthermore, females are more migratory than males over shorter distances because they protect and unify all family members. However, males dominate long-distance destinations or international migration to earn money (Ghosh, 2019). Most of the migration takes place from agricultural areas to industrial areas. The government is concerned about how the immigrant community, primarily made up of immigrants without formal education, contributes to the local labour market. International migration, typically from developing to developed countries, frequently exhibits this process (Crouch, 2016, p. 110).

There is not a single theory that accounts for all facets of global migration. According to several beliefs, international migration is a last-ditch effort to find work or improve living conditions. The neo-classical hypothesis, on the other hand, is the most established and well-known hypothesis of international migration. This theory strongly emphasizes how labour migration affects economic growth (Naerssen, Spaan & Zoomers, 2008, p. 72). This hypothesis contends that spatial imbalances in labour supply and demand and the demand for labour markets in recipient nations are the primary drivers of international migration (Massey et al. 1993, p. 437). For instance, in the surrounding countries of the EU member states, especially the Middle East and North African countries, labour is paid low wages and there is unemployment despite the EU countries. Also, in most developing countries, we observe poverty, low wages, unemployment, and overpopulation. These are the barriers to the development of a country. According to neo-classical theory, sending and receiving countries' international migration can be regulated by labour market laws and opportunities (Wickramasinghe & Wimalaratana, 2016, p. 14). Currently, many regulations in developed countries control the import of the labour force. For labour demanding countries it is significant to select immigrants according to the needs of the labour markets.

Global inequality comprises within and between-country inequality (Kapur & McHale, 2009, p. 1104). It also affects the recruitment and emigration policies in all countries. Meanwhile, Europe is the most popular destination for people who live in undeveloped or developing countries. Many people come from Middle Eastern countries on the Eastern Mediterranean Route, and others from Northern African countries on the Central or Western Mediterranean Route and Western Africa Route (Okay et al., 2021). However, labour migration is a significant type of migration that is the main push factor for inequality along the Mediterranean routes. The other types of migration, except asylum migration, are related to individual



choices, employment, and seeking better living conditions. Accordingly, the route to the EU is the primary reason for migration for better economic opportunities. However, it is not pointed out that migration is not only an economic reason alone but is also related to push factors like persecution, starvation, and abuse of human rights for the immigrants (Zolberg, Shurke, & Aguayo, 1989, p. 275). Furthermore, European countries provide appealing economic opportunities, democratic regimes, and human rights. Mass migration from African and Middle Eastern countries forces the EU zone to seek economic and political opportunities as well as better living conditions.

EU SELECTIVE POLICY PRIORITIES and PURPOSES

The eastern Mediterranean route has been the center of migration since the 2000s, and the European continent has been the destination of both forced and voluntary migration from North Africa and the Middle East routes. The Second World War and the growing economy characterized the European immigrant populations. After the second half of the twentieth century, a massive increase in the immigrant population was caused by political refugees, contributing to labour immigration from surrounding countries between 1950-1975 (Zimmermann, 1995, p. 46). With the dissolution of socialism in the 1990s, Germany received 1.5 million immigrants, most of whom were ethnic Germans. Most European countries became more multicultural in the 2000s as a result of both increased migration and globalization. Since the mid-2000s, many Northern and Western European immigrant populations have more than doubled. Immigration policies however, differ from one country to another. Traditionally, Norway and Sweden used to have a generous migration policy, but Denmark and Finland had strict migration policies. It was necessary to take measures to tackle the influx of migration problems. Even though the EU countries are open to receiving immigrants to improve the labour market, they control the entrance of frontiers in a standard immigration policy and legislation by promoting FRONTEX.

In 1999, in Tampere, Finland, the European Council set out the items of standard immigration policy. The new approach was agreed upon in Tampere and confirmed in 2004 by adopting the Hague program (Jaulin, 2010, p. 8). The Hague Program's role in coordinating the operational efforts of law enforcement and other institutions in freedom, security, and justice and keeping track of the Council's strategic aim is self-explanatory (Fijnaut, 2016, p. 737). These are the specific measures for the immigrant's adaptation. The EU has also established readmission agreements with non-EU countries with the intention of neighborhood policy for controlling its frontiers (Cassarino, Gabrielli, & Perri, 2023). Illegal migration has increased over the last decade, primarily from Turkey via the Eastern Mediterranean route. They outlined the procedures for deporting those who are illegally present in the EU.



In the EU immigration policy, there are some remarkable strategies for the labour market. This might offer functional policy analysis for labour-migration policy integration. At the forefront of policy discussions, the Commission of the European Communities released the Green Paper on Admission Procedures for Non-EU Immigration in 2005 (EU, Green Paper- On an EU Approach to Managing Economic Migration, 2005). Generally, before admitting a non-EU migrant, member countries search for proof of economic needs in the domestic market, especially in the technological and health sectors. Furthermore, EU member countries must implement consistent measures to improve EU labour markets and stabilize competitiveness. This is the responsibility that comes with the EU's economic integration. As a result, EU member countries admit only legal immigrants in order to control their entry into the labour markets. Even if the Lisbon employment targets are achieved by 2010, demographic change will result in a decrease in total employment levels (Fridriksridottir, 2017). Therefore, the EU will face a working-age population decline, resulting in a 20 million decrease in employment in member countries in the future.

Many people in EU societies have staunchly anti-immigrant feelings. Card, Dustmann, and Preston (2005) asserted using the European Social Survey's immigration module that the proportion of respondents advocating strict immigration policy ranges from 17.9 percent in Sweden to 86.1 percent in Greece. According to Boeri (2010), negative attitudes toward immigration are primarily associated with a perceived financial burden. Some Europeans fear that immigrants will deplete governmental resources as recipients of significant social payments implemented in Europe to address socioeconomic marginalization. As a result, several national governments are restricting migrants' access to welfare and tightening migration regulations. According to Boeri (2010) this is a conundrum. On the one hand, the EU labour market must be sustainable in order to recruit skilled migrant workers in a well-coordinated manner among EU members; on the other hand, EU national governments use restrictive practices to provide immigrants with educational and health services in order to preserve their resources.

The EU Selective Immigrant Policy has two purposes: to improve the EU economy and to stabilize the population of migrants. The first is attracting highly qualified migrant workers to the EU Labour market. The other one is to reduce the number of immigrants and asylum seekers to stabilize EU citizens' political, social, and economic welfare. In addition, the priority of the EU Immigration Policy is to tackle irregular migration on the frontiers of the EU Zone. As a result, policies relating to irregular immigration must be coordinated among EU member states. Furthermore, the European Pact on Immigration and Asylum, formally adopted on October 16, 2008 in Brussels, emphasizes the importance of strengthening cooperation with countries of origin and transit on a variety of fronts, including managing migrant inflows, combating human trafficking, and combating international terrorism (Speciale, 2010, p. 122). The European Council



issued a directive (2009/50/EC) in May 2009 introducing the Blue Card, a European work visa. The "Blue" is inspired by the hue of the EU flag and the US Green Card. The new visa is designed to attract highly skilled immigrants by making their legal status fully transferable inside the EU. In addition, the cause of these frequently contradictory procedures was that immigrants' employment and residence permits were only valid in the member nations where they were issued (Lange, 2020, p. 277). This significantly hampered migrant mobility within the EU. There is a significant difference between the U.S. and EU labour markets for recruiting high-skilled immigrants. In 2007, former EU Justice and Security Commissioner Franco Frattini stated that the EU receives approximately 85 percent of the worldwide low-skilled migrant labour force, while the US receives only 5 percent. In comparison, the United States receives 55% of the skilled labour force while the European Union receives only 5% (Speciale, 2010, p. 123).

In 2015, there was an influx of asylum seekers who had never seen a mass migration since Second World War II. According to UN Reports 2016, there were 173 million migrants worldwide in 2000. In 2010, the migrant rate increased to 222 million migrants; in 2015, it increased to 244 million migrants (UN, 2016). Approximately 75% of refugees come from foreign countries amid humanitarian crises and armed conflict (Kingsley, 2015). Mass migration and EU member states could not predict this migration's regional and international effects. With the influx of Syrian asylum seekers to EU countries, the migration policy has been inadequately organized for the mass numbers of migrants' labour mobility and social cohesion. (Zimmermann, 2018, p.3). Additionally, the Blue Card Directive 2009/50 failed. It was for the entrance and residence of non-EU Nationals in high-skilled and well-paid employment. However, after 2015, the migration flux from Syria, primarily low-skilled immigrants, was a problem for the EU labour market. It was hard to accept the mass migration and to integrate the migrants totally into the EU legislation procedures.

In 2020, the EU Commission announced the New Pact on Migration and Asylum that it would continue to advance the EU's legal migration acquis in the following years. Demographic changes in Europe, looming shortages in national labour markets, and a lack of talent to foster innovation are concerns the European Commission plans to solve through legal migration and a "skills and talent package." The Commission insisted on recasting the Blue Card Directive to strengthen the legal migration acquis and meet demographic and labour market demands (Lange, 2020, p.276).

According to the European Union Immigration Policy, integrated labour is a critical issue for increasing EU members' economic potential. There is no denying that European societies require migrants. Europeans are living longer lives and birth rates are declining year after year. To encourage the legal migration of high-skilled employees, students, researchers, and seasonal workers, the EU has imposed new



labour-market restrictions and changed the procedures for integrating immigrant workers. There is, however, a hierarchical classification among natives, EU-Nationals, and non-EU Nationals.

THE HIERARCHIC CLASSIFICATION of LABOUR FORCE in the EU LABOUR MARKET

Wage Inequalities

In the EU Immigration Policy, there are four sheets for balancing the regular immigration process. These are regular immigration for controlling the export of immigrants who can be employees for the labour market's needs, integrating legal residents for the third countries' nationals, combating irregular migration for an effective return policy, and reducing the migrant population growth. The final step is to reach an agreement with third countries for readmission to their home country. They are all measures taken to control the entire migration process.

There is a link between wage inequalities and the population of immigrant workers in the labour market. Indeed, a study on the impact of increased migration in Europe has examined evidence that labour migration in competitive markets increases the efficiency and flexibility of labour markets and slows wage growth, allowing more people to find work (Zimmermann, 2018, p. 4). In EU countries, four types of employment are on their way into the labour market-employment, out-of-labour force, unemployment, and ex-pats. Except for ex-pats (temporary workers), all other groups are employed. In addition, there are two types of workers: skilled and low-skilled. Immigrants are perfect substitutes for low-skilled natives; they do not affect the demand side of the economy (Zimmermann, 1995, p. 48). The EU member states must manage the labour migration states as a well-organized procedure of labour market recruitment.

Immigration is undoubtedly advantageous for immigrants, but this is only feasible if their rights are adequately safeguarded. Both the country of origin and the host country may benefit economically; nevertheless, the wealthy and powerful nations gain the most from the system's current economic and commercial arrangements. In planning for the future in developed countries, social services must consider social and cultural constraints from migration. In all societies, some jobs are not preferable to native workers, e.g., servers, cleaners, etc. They are known as 3D jobs (dirty, dangerous, and demanding), and someone must perform these tasks for the sake of society's healthcare and welfare. Because of the precarious living conditions of immigrant workers, who are frequently eager to work harder, longer hours, and undertake undesirable duties in 3D works, many migrant employees are low-skilled (Biering, Lander, & Rasmussen, 2017, p. 238). Immigrants contribute to the EU's economy and culture. They are offered at all activity levels, filling the gap that local workers cannot. The challenge is to ensure the benefits of migration for everyone – EU citizens and society, migrants and their families, and possibly their country of origin. As



the EU population ages and the birth rate falls, legal immigrants are needed to fill gaps in the EU labour force.

In 2020, there was a search for the wage inequalities between migrant and national workers supported by the International Labour Organization (ILO). According to the report, in high-income countries, migrants earn approximately 13% less than native workers. In other countries, the disparity might reach 42% (ILO, 2020). Labour migration is a significant issue for development. However, in high-income countries, there is competition between natives and non-EU workers, particularly for well-paid jobs. The labour market participation of non-EU workers is due to their skills, experiences, and adaption to the new labour environment. However, income distribution is a vital problem for natives and non-EU workers. Additionally, if a receiving country has a strict immigration policy, the natives can participate in the labour market even if they are low-skilled. On the other hand, the government makes some efforts to stabilize the labour participation of natives who have less ability to be recruited, even when non-EU employees have higher skill levels than natives (Alesina, Miano, & Stantcheva, 2023, p. 5)

Employment Rate by Country of Birth

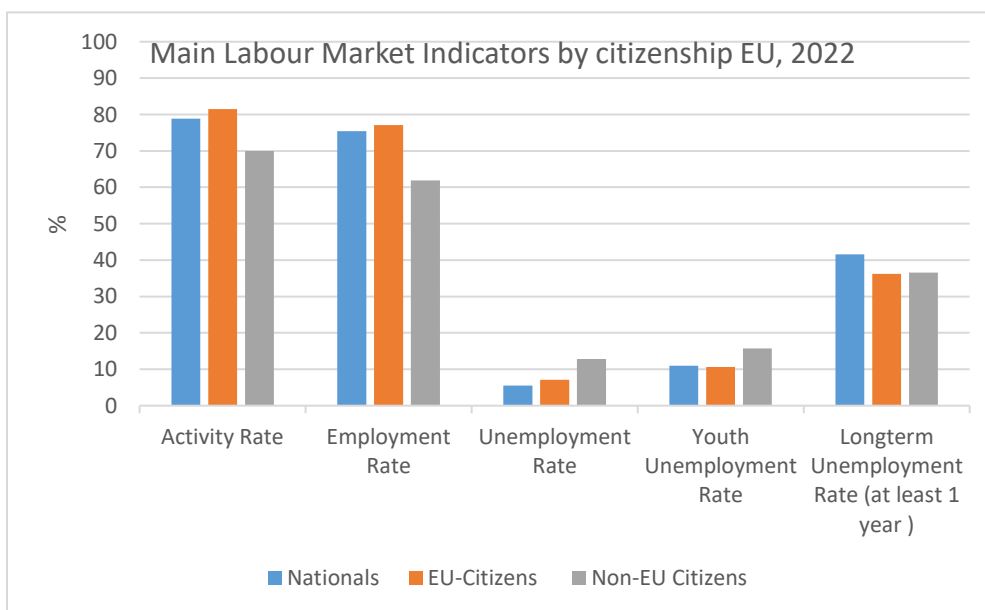
There is a comparative difference in finding a job in a given field between natives and immigrants in the receiving country's labour market. Immigrants have difficulties adjusting to the labour market. In terms of finding a job anywhere, they cannot live in better conditions than in the sending countries due to low-profile jobs and low wages. In the EU, immigrants and native workers confront opportunities in low-profile jobs in the international demand for the labour force. However, the labour market needs to be in balance in terms of both the demand and supply of labour quotas. In order to be effective in the EU common market, which is the essential step of the economic integration union adopted in the establishment of the EU, native workers need to work in the labour market. Except for native workers, the labour system prioritizes EU citizens in the second stage. Finally, if the labour supply is higher for both groups, afterward, non-EU nationals are demanded (Biering et al., 2017, p. 239). With the increased number of refugees and immigrants, the EU does not hesitate to control legal and illegal migration to EU territories. As a result, the EU has a selective immigration policy aimed primarily at controlling the labour force for native workers.

In the European labour market, some indicators help to analyze the comparatives of the types of employees' participation abilities. Indicators for the labour market include activity, employment, unemployment, and long-term unemployment rates. The activity rate is the proportion of people who are actively engaged in activities in comparison to the total population (Eurostat, 2020). Also, the activity rate shows the possible participation of employees in the labour market; if it has a high rate for the migrants, it

can be understood that the legal procedures open the door for the migrants or marginalize them in the market. Young and female migrants are primarily excluded from the activity rate. However, for female migrant workers, it is difficult to reach the kindergartens or any social institutions they need for child care due to social adaptation problems. On the other hand, young migrant workers have less competitiveness than native workers because they lack proficiency in language skills and less-educated level than their peers' natives. It is easier for young migrant workers to adapt to the labour market and social life. However, the state needs to make arrangements that are lacking in this group and that will provide the necessary conditions for integration. The fact that the working period in Europe is limited to the age of 64-65 restrains young migrant worker population from working in specific jobs as required by the EU labour market.

Employment mobility helps match people with relevant positions and is crucial for the economy's ability to adjust to shocks and structural changes. However, there are also benefits to staying on the job longer and the costs associated with switching jobs. However, the more job opportunities that are created in the labour market; the more mobility and job security are provided. While this increases workers' confidence in the labour market, it also prevents them from feeling safe and migrating to other countries (Crouch, 2016, p. 108). While the EU demanded low-skilled workers before the 2000s, after adding ten members to the organization in 2004, it aimed to carry out social and market policies together with the recruitment of well-skilled migrant workers to improve the EU economy.

Figure 1: Main labour market indicators by citizenship of EU



Source: Eurostat,2022



Figure 1 depicts the EU labour market for workers aged 20 to 64 in 2022. Working-age non-EU nationals had a 70.0 percent activity rate in 2022, compared to 78.9 percent for nationals and 81.5 percent for EU citizens. Non-EU nationals have a 75.4 percent employment rate. The unemployment rate is 61.9 % for non-EU nationals, 77.1% for EU citizens, and 75.4 % for national workers. The unemployment rate for those workers is 6.3 percent for nationals, 8.7 percent for EU citizens, and nearly double that for non-EU nationals 15.5 percent. The youth unemployment rate for non-EU nationals is 20.0 percent, 12.7 percent for EU citizens, and 12.6 percent for nationals. Long-term unemployment is defined as being unemployed for at least one year; the EU labour market has a total of 40 percent unemployed labour force, 41.6 percent among unemployed nationals, 37.4 percent among unemployed EU-citizens, and 39.1 percent among unemployed non-EU nationals (Eurostat, 2022). When this figure is analyzed, it can be seen that, based on the activity rate, non-EU nationals or migrant workers from third countries are not preferred for recruitment in the labour market; these people are at the last chance for receiving employment.

If the unemployment rate among non-EU nationals is higher, there are more low-skilled migrant workers than natives in the European labour market. Due to this condition, the locals will have more employment opportunities and a more competitive labour market. If immigrants tend to be low-skilled, they can replace low-skilled natives. It might lower natives' incomes and raise unemployment among low-skilled foreigners (Zimmermann, 2018, p. 5). Furthermore, the EU's selective immigration policy tends to deter low-skilled immigrants and attract high-skilled ones to improve strategy and increase demand for low-skilled EU citizens while reducing it for non-EU nationals. Therefore, low pay can make both employees more competitive. Non-EU nationals, however, have meager employment rates. It is difficult for them to integrate into the labour market. Especially most of the non-EU nationals who are the workers in the EU labour market are low-skilled or non-skilled employees. So, this may cause a depression in wages, and EU nationals may decline in welfare. The EU immigration policy prefers to select skilled migrants for the fields needed in the EU labour market. It is necessary for turning the wheel of the economy in the EU.

There is a relationship between welfare and mass migration fluxes in receiving countries. If the migrant workers are skilled and well-educated, they will contribute generously to the economy and reduce earnings inequality. For instance, Irish workers were critical factors in the British economy at the beginning of the 20th century. If the migrant workers are low-skilled or less educated, they can depress the wages of natives and increase migrant unemployment rates. So, the situation can cause long-term mobility of migrant workers around the EU countries, and it can orient assimilation issues in labour markets.



SOCIAL INTEGRATION PROBLEMS of NON-EU NATIONALS in the EU LABOUR MARKET

The diversity of the European Union's labour market lags behind that of the American labour market. The American labour market is the market that provides more labour mobility than all labour markets at the international level. The most significant reason for this is that the socio-cultural diversity of the United States of America in terms of social cohesion and integration has been an ongoing element since the country's establishment. There are many obstacles to non-EU nationals' participation in the EU labour market.

Language Issue and non-EU Nationals' Labour Market Participation

Due to the great linguistic diversity among European nations, many young immigrants or non-EU nationals attempt to integrate into the labour market of another nation. Because there are 24 official languages in the European Union, there will be differences in how non-EU immigrants adapt to the labour market in different countries (Dorn & Zweimüller, 2021, p. 51). It is difficult to adapt to both the labour market and social cohesion. Speaking a different language might also limit the labour mobility of non-EU nationals in the EU labour market. Even if a non-EU immigrant is a skilled worker, a lack of proficiency in the language of the receiving country can limit their abilities to find a job, a better job or to find a job quickly (Lochmann, Rapoport, & Speciale, 2019, p. 267). The immigrants should be fluent in the language of the receiving country if they intend to work there (Boeri, Hanson, & McCormick, 2002, p. 43). Otherwise, it can reduce the productivity of the non-EU immigrant in the workplace or create social inclusion, or it is not preferred to recruit a professional or well-qualified worker. With labour market participation, there are three stages of the labour market recruitment hierarchy. The inner circle comprises nationals, EU nationals, and non-EU nationals at the circle's border (Guzi, Kahanec, & Kurekova, 2023, p. 13). However, this is the rule for the low-income jobs, 3D jobs or low-income and hard-working jobs. Social rights are in the same differential phase for the three types of workers.

The fact that the destination country's language and culture differ from the immigrants can lead to adaptation problems. On the other hand, since English is accepted as a common language worldwide, speaking this language accelerates the process of admission to the labour market. On the other hand, the fact that the immigrant migrated with his family and relatives negatively affects his adaptation to the country of destination. For this reason, the EU rejects massive migrations. When dealing with the migrant market, the EU always considers the demands of the labour market. The similarity of the sending and receiving countries' cultures and languages impacts the degree of assimilation. With more and better-quality jobs and



more robust social cohesion by 2010, the Lisbon Agenda seeks to make Europe the world's most competitive and knowledge-based economy.

Communication is a significant issue for quickly finding a job in the labour market. Furthermore, workers who argue that their English language skills are limited in low-skilled jobs have fewer employment opportunities and lower fees (Fabo, Beblavy, & Lenaerts, 2017, p.489). Refugees and immigrants are two different types of immigration. Refugees find it hard to find valuable jobs in the labour market as they happen suddenly and are unplanned due to the dire conditions of the country they migrate to. Therefore, refugees lag in competition with migrant workers (Zimmermann, 2005, p. 427). For this reason, they do not know the destination country's language and cannot stand the competitiveness of the labour market. However, they can find at least 3D jobs to survive in the EU labour market. As a result, immigration flows are often more significant between nations that speak the same language and in English-speaking countries. In the EU labour market, the EU plans to acquire skilled and well-communicative proficiency in English language skills for foreign workers.

Language can also support integration into social life. Refugees have fewer opportunities to acclimate to social and cultural life in their new country and the local labour markets. As a result, the EU migration policy is geared towards migrant workers who can fully integrate into labour markets and adapt in the long term to social life with the help of proficiency skills in the language.

Social Exclusion and Discrimination in the Labour Market

In the European zone, Germany, the most critical immigration country, has permanently been the target of labour migration (Zimmermann, 2005, p. 428). France is the second, and Spain is the third country in terms of labour migration flux. France focuses on willing migrants in terms of cultural adaptation and language use. Germany supports workers who will be integrated into the labour market with free language courses. In Spain, many refugees and migrants come from Northern Africa, and from less developed countries. Additionally, Spain faces mass migration from these countries. The state's budget is burdened by the large number of migrants, who represent a diverse group of potential workers. As a result, in Spain, migrants primarily work in specific industries such as agriculture and services. This policy restrains the circle of working areas for migrant workers. It reduces foreign migration in domestic areas.

In 2005, the EU Commission released a new direction, the Green Paper, to recognize the economic migration of non-EU nationals into the labour market and identify future labour market demands. In recent years, EU-national migrants' economic migration has increased around the Europe zone. Nevertheless, non-EU nationals have no chance to compete with them. Firstly, most EU nationals can move around the EU



labour markets to work permanently whereas non-EU nationals do not. On the other hand, selection for employers among EU and non-EU nationals' job seekers is widespread in EU labour markets. Differences in national origins may not be evident from the physical characteristics or names of workers in the context of migration in Europe (Dorn & Zweimüller, 2021, p. 52). As a result, a study that examines explicitly nationality-based prejudice uses data from a Swiss state employment agency's online platform that connects job searchers and recruiters to track not only the names of job seekers but also their nationality and language proficiency (Hangartner, Kopp, & Siegenthaler, 2021, p. 573). According to this platform, non-EU national job seekers are 13 to 19 percent less likely to be employed than Swiss nationals. Furthermore, for the Swiss labour market, there are two options for selecting job-seekers on the recruitment platform: the first is preferably Swiss workers, and the second is the primary origin of EU national workers (German, French, etc.)

For instance, a large portion of earlier migration from less developed to more developed European nations included low-skilled workers working in the low-wage construction industry or providing inexpensive labour for factory jobs and service professions, such as the influx of southern European guest workers to Germany in the 1960s and 1970s. However, globalization and technological advancement have raised the relative need for highly skilled people who are favorable in commodities that require a high level of competence. As a result, migration to high-income countries worldwide has become more skills-driven in recent years (Kerr, Kerr, Özden, & Parsons, 2016, p. 87). Individuals who come to Germany on a work permit are likelier to earn less when transitioning to self-employment than if they come from another channel. The Single Permit Directive is a significant tool in EU migration policy for third-country citizens who agree to work in EU member states, where applicable. The directive's implementation and functioning, however, have several issues. The personal scope, processes, and rights outlined in the directive must first be clarified, streamlined, and made as simple as possible before being revised. Second, it should consider advancement opportunities, admission requirements for all workers in low-skilled and medium-skilled from third countries, and safeguards against and responses to third-country worker exploitation.

The EU Commission made many recommendations for non-EU workers in November 2021. The commission encouraged the entry and mobility of third-country nationals applying for work or legally migrating third-country nationals with a work permit; this offer will also be compatible with rules in current legal immigration directives considered inconsistent. Also, the EU Commission has established a legal immigration permit directive for non-EU migrant workers. However, the EU Commission has prepared this working permit for skilled workers. Nonetheless, there are numerous barriers to non-EU migrant workers being accepted into local labour markets. For instance, when interviewing job candidates, recruitment



officers address them by name, nationality, and language skills (Hangartner et al., 2021, p. 575). In the EU region, especially Sweden, recruiters prefer to recruit Swedish nationals first rather than core region EU nationals (German, French, Italian, etc.) and then look for EU nationals, but for a last chance, non-EU nationals (Constant & Zimmermann, 2005, p. 97)

Only in the United Kingdom, with a research focus, prior to Brexit, do migrants possess skills that are relevant to views on each type of migration. However, discrimination based on origin is more common in areas where migrants' economic contribution is unclear. British recruiters are more optimistic about migrant workers coming to fill jobs than job-seekers and about skilled professional migrants than low-skilled workers. They prefer Eastern European low-skilled workers to immigrants from Pakistan but show no ethnic preference among Eastern European and Pakistani professionals. (Larsen & Di Stasio, 2019, p. 20). So, the preference criteria of workers are related to the needs of EU labour markets. After Brexit, for Britain, there are many obstacles to recruiting job-seekers, especially for skilled jobs and sectors where employers have trouble recruiting these workers because of burdensome visa procedures. Nevertheless, the post-Brexit immigration system liberalized access to the UK labour market for non-EU nationals but introduced visa requirements for EU nationals who could previously hold any job. As a result, low-wage occupations that formerly relied heavily on EU national workers are no longer eligible for a work visa, with some limited exceptions for social care and seasonal workers (Sumption, Forde, Alberti, & Walsh, 2022)

Another obstacle or barrier in European countries concerns different employees' social security rights. These entitlements include old-age pensions, unemployment benefits, health services, etc., funded by governments and differ from country to country. According to the legal view, the integration of migrants, refugees, and asylum-seekers depends on the host country in which they settle legally and on affordable opportunities. Entry and residence in EU countries are subject to some precautions for non-EU nationals. However, some forms differ depending on European country and immigrant status, far from promoting an integrated European legal space. An 'economic migrant' with a long-term residence permit has broader rights than an immigrant with a short-term residence permit; similarly, a refugee has much broader rights than an asylum seeker; an asylum seeker is granted a smaller model of rights and benefits than an immigrant with complementary (compared to Geneva 1951) protection status. Koning pointed out the Immigrant Exclusion from Social Programs Index (IESPI) on 25 indicators and the exclusion of immigrants from welfare programs in some countries to protect the national budget and their citizens' expenditures permanently (Koning, 2022, p. 25). Working conditions are harsh for non-EU workers. In the EU labour market, the fact that non-EU workers, who are often the last preferred group, are commonly employed in low-paid jobs is also a reason why these jobs involve difficult conditions and are risky in terms of security. However, the



EU has also established a legal framework to combat discrimination, which is a significant impediment to integration. There are widely accepted minimum standards for increasing equality of treatment based on race or ethnic origin, religion or belief, age, and disability. In the 2000s, the EU established some directives to combat the discrimination of third-country workers. For instance, “coordination arrangements” have been created to facilitate the portability of social security rights between countries and to prohibit discrimination against returning migrants who have left a country (Münz, 2007, p. 7).

Another point about this subject is that EU-born workers who are cross-border workers have some problems in deciding which country is appropriate to work in according to the social security facilities. It shows a working pyramid for all workers in EU labour markets. First, it is to choose the person who is suitable for the nature of the job among the employees who apply for the recruitment. Second, he must have received an education in the EU education model, or, if he is an immigrant, he must have an accredited diploma from the host country. Third, it is checked to see whether it is suitable for the nature of the job. Fourth, if all the qualifications are suitable for the job among the candidates, it is checked whether they are citizens of the country they applied for. If the job seeker is born in one of the EU countries, it can be the second choice. Although some countries recognize equal treatment between domestic and foreign workers in their social security legislation, some countries discriminate against immigrants. Consequently, bilateral and multilateral social security agreements are essential for taking into account periods of employment in other signatory countries in granting the right to benefits subject to completion of the qualifying period. Many countries allow immigrant workers to be entitled to social security when bilateral or multilateral social security agreements are concluded with the workers' country of origin. International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 102 and other current conventions in social security include explicit non-discrimination clauses (Hirose, Nikac, & Tamagno, 2011, p.13). However, as part of economic integration, the EU member countries need to extend these social security rights to every worker, and not discriminate against the country of birth. For instance, when asked whether discrimination based on skin color, ethnicity, or religion is widespread in France, about eight in ten say “yes” compared to just six of ten Europeans (Carcillo & Valfort, 2020, p. 2). In addition to being ethically unacceptable, discrimination brings high costs to our economy by reducing the labour demand of discriminated groups. This low demand lowers the wages of members of these groups and increases their difficulties in accessing employment. It can also confine them to less qualified positions than they would normally occupy. The responses of the labour supply magnify these negative consequences. Low wages reduce the desire to work (Carcillo & Valfort, 2020, p. 3). The drop in labour demand caused by discrimination also lowers the productivity of foreign workers who invest less in education and lifelong learning because they expect low returns. While this spiral of



negativity affects public finances by causing production losses, public expenditures due to unemployment benefits and social transfers to those who suffer from discrimination increase.

21.6 million third-country nationals, made up of 4.2% of the total EU population, are settled in EU countries. New immigrants settling in the EU annually represent less than 0.5% of the EU population (EU, 2020). Most of the migrants settling in the EU are likely to stay for the medium term. Therefore, having a job and adapting to EU society are crucial for successful integration. Social supports such as housing, health services, and helping children are equally important in achieving social cohesion.

CONCLUSION

The reason for the demand for migrant workers, the EU labour market is still one of the first to attract immigrants. Apart from job opportunities, political freedoms and social rights are appealing to immigrants because EU countries have a high currency value. The countries where English is spoken as a common language are in this region, and they are democratic countries with societies living in peace and tranquility. On the other hand, due to these attractive factors that the EU has, it is typical for the high demand for immigrants to be subject to a selective policy by EU member states. The effects of establishing the EU as an economic integration system are seen in the regulations of the EU labour market. The EU's openness to legal immigration and approach that prioritizes the needs of the labour market also reveals the aim of economic integration. EU member states, which want to deal with the priority needs of labour-intensive sectors such as low-paid 3D jobs and short-term jobs, in line with the needs of the labour market, face problems in issues such as granting social security rights.

EU immigration policy is based on labour migration as a circle from the inside out. Citizens are primarily preferred in the labour market. The most important reason for this is that the loss of income for the country's citizens due to foreign workers affects the country's welfare system. Loss of income or income imbalance creates problems between foreign workers and citizens, limiting the demand for migrant workers from EU countries to 3D jobs and short-term jobs. These are grouped as jobs the country's citizens do not want to do or short-term, insecure jobs. In this case, although the regulations to which the EU member states are bound to focus on the labour market are based on equality, in practice, the approach and concerns of the country's society are more effective for the government.

After the 2004 enlargement of the EU, there are three steps to understanding the rate of labour migration. In a central EU country's labour market, the first choice for any low-skilled work is for natives. The second choice is for recruiting any EU-national job-seeker, and the last is for non-EU nationals. However, many problems have occurred in the EU market system due to differential skills. These

distinctions opened across multiple lines, including age, education, social class, and immigrant heritage. For instance, highly educated young people, the middle class, and those of immigrant heritage tend to be more optimistic about immigration. In contrast, those with little or no skills, those who are older, working-class people, and those with no immigrant heritage tend to be more damaging. These groups become more diverse over time as positive groups become more convinced of the benefits of migration, while hostile groups become more skeptical. Therefore, the immigrant approach of the societies in terms of the level of development among the EU member countries also changes according to the income level. In countries such as Bulgaria, Romania, and Estonia, where low-income groups are concentrated in the labour market, the immigration policy minimizes the acceptance of migrant workers. In contrast, the acceptance of migrant workers is higher in industrialized countries such as Germany and France.

As a result, in the selective immigration policies of the EU member countries, both the differences in the labour market in terms of the needs of the country and the differences in the industrialization level of the country also show differences in the practices of immigration policies.

AUTHOR STATEMENT / YAZAR BEYANI

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