

CITY REPORT: STOCKHOLM

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Transformations in the labour market	3
1.1. Socio-economic trends1.2 Public regulation1.3. Indicators	8
2. Demographic changes and family	11
Socio-economic trends Public regulation	
3. Immigration	17
3.1. Socio-economic trends3.2. Public regulation3.3. Indicators	22
4. Trends in the housing field	26
4.1. Socio-economic trends	
References	30



1. TRANSFORMATIONS IN THE LABOUR MARKET

1.1. Socio-economic trends

What have been the main trends in the growth and sector specialisation of the local economy over the last 10 years?

The Stockholm metropolitan region, defined as the labour market area, covers the two counties of Stockholm and Uppsala and is inhabited by around one-fifth of the Swedish population. Compared with the rest of the country, Stockholm stands out as having the highest rates of employment, and highest activity rate and GDP per capita. The County of Stockholm includes 26 municipalities of which the City of Stockholm dominates with 40 per cent of the population and 50 per cent of the employment (Hermelin 2011). In Stockholm County, the employment rate grew by nine percent between 1990 and 2007, while it fell in the rest of the country. The fastest growing economic sectors are Research and education, Financial and business services and Authorities and organisations. Trade and communications are also growing but not at the same pace (Hermelin 2011, p. 30f). BRP (gross regional product) in the County of Stockholm grew by 4.2 per cent per year between 1999 and 2007.

Stockholm is among the fastest growing metropolitan areas in Europe. The City of Stockholm is considered to be Scandinavia's financial centre and Stockholm has the largest regional product among the Scandinavian capital cities (international.stockholm.se/Stockholmgross-by-theme/Economic-growth). In an OECD territorial review from 2006, Stockholm is stated as "one of the most successful metropolitan regions in the OECD". The strengths of Stockholm that are pointed out in the report are research and development, concentration of advanced business, logistical and financial services, and specialisation in high-growth, high-tech sectors, notably information and communications technology (ICT). Weaknesses that are noted as risks that could undermine the region's competitiveness in the long run are factors like "lack of new high-growth firms to stimulate the regional innovation system, challenges in the labour market especially with regard to the integration of immigrants, housing shortages and a transport network that has failed to keep pace with growth in the region" (OECD 2006).

What have been the main impacts of such transformations on the levels of regular employment, temporary employment and unemployment?

The employment rate is higher in Stockholm than in the two other big cities in Sweden, Malmö and Gothenburg, and than the Swedish average. Employement rates have not undergone any radical changes during the 2000s. There is a trend towards a higher rate of temporary employment, which has affected the young in particular. Temporary employment has grown constantly since the early 1990s.

Table 1 - Economically active population in Stockholm 2000 and 2008, percent

	2000	2008
Men	77.6	78.0
Women	76.6	77.7
All	77.1	77.9



What population groups have been most affected by the rise of temporary employment? Which ones have been affected by unemployment and long-term unemployment? What has been the impact on the female/young labour force/migrant levels of temporary employment and unemployment?

There are no local data on temporary employment, but aggregated data indicate that women are constantly over-represented compared with men. The fastest growth in temporary employment is in the group of young adults. Almost one-fifth of workers aged 25-34 have a temporary contract. The youngest group, aged 19-24, are also over-represented in this regard, but not as much now as they were around 20 years ago.

The rates of gainfully employed have not undergone any significant changes during the 2000s for most age groups. The exception is the youngest group, in which employment has decreased by around 6 per cent.

<u>Table 2 - Rate of gainfully employed (förvärvsarbetande) in Stockholm</u> in 2000 and 2009 by age

Age	2000	2009
20-24	61.2	55.0
25-34	77.9	76.1
35-44	79.0	81.9
45-54	79.8	79.6
55-64	65.6	69.5
Total 20-64	75.1	74.9

Source: SCB/STATIV.

Unemployment rates in 2010 were very much at the same levels as in 2000. The early years of the new millennium (2003-2004) showed somewhat higher rates. However, unemployment rates differ quite substantially between different age groups, with the youngest at the "top".

Table 3 - Rate of open unemployment in Stockholm 2000 and 2010, by age

Age	2000	2010
20-24	10.6	10.4
25-34	9.6	8.3
35-44	7.5	7.5
45-54	4.5	5.9
55-64	3.0	3.9
Total 20-		
64	7.2	7.1

Source: SCB/STATIV.

Another striking difference in the unemployment figures is between people born in Sweden, the Nordic countries, EU/EFTA and outside of these regions. Unemployment rates for the first two categories have been somewhat reduced during this period, while for the latter two groups, there has been a limited increase. However, for people born outside of EU/EFTA, the unemployment rates are substantially higher than for the other groups.



Table 4 - Rate of open unemployment in 2000 and 2010 by region of birth

	2000	2010
Sweden	6.2	5.4
Nordic countries excl. Sweden	5.9	5.0
EU/EFTA excl. Nordic countries	6.6	7.0
World outside EU/EFTA	13.4	14.0

Source: SCB/STATIV.

Long-term unemployment has increased somewhat during the 2000s, most notably in the youngest age group.

Table 5 - Rate of long-term unemployment in 2000 and 2010, by age

Age	2000	2010
20-24	1.2	2.1
25-34	1.2	1.8
35-44	1.5	2.0
45-54	1.1	1.7
55-64	1.3	1.3
Total 20-64	1.3	1.8

Source: SCB/STATIV.

When it comes to rates of long-term unemployment, there are also significant differences between people born in Sweden, the Nordic countries and EU/EFTA and people born outside of these regions. Long-term unemployment has grown in the latter group while the rates have been quite stable during the 2000s for the other groups.

Table 6 - Rate of long-term unemployment in 2000 and 2010, by region of birth

	2000	2010
Sweden	1.1	1.2
Nordic countries excl. Sweden	1.3	1.3
EU/EFTA excl. Nordic countries	1.4	1.9
World outside EU/EFTA	2.6	3.9

Source: SCB/STATIV.

What are the estimated data about the grey labour market? What has been the trend in the last ten years? What population groups are more associated with this?

There is limited knowledge on the extent and structure of the informal "grey" labour market. The workforce that is employed within this segment of the labour market consists mainly of people with an immigrant background (foremost those having spent only a short time in the country or asylum seekers). For paperless asylum seekers, this is the only labour market that is accessible to them and often the only way to make a living (Social rapport 2010). There seems to be strong relationship between ethnic segregation, social welfare dependence, poverty and the less regulated labour market.

What has been the impact of the recent financial crisis? What groups have been most affected?

The Swedish economy recovered fairly quickly after the recent financial crisis. A key reason for this was the lessons learned from the banking crisis in the early 1990s,



which had a severe impact on Swedish society and forced through far-reaching reforms which intended to ensure fiscal sustainability (OECD 2011).

As the statistics presented above indicate, young people and those with an immigrant background, especially those born outside of the EU/EFTA region, have experienced increasing difficulties in entering the labour market. However, it is unclear to what extent this development is related to the recent financial crisis.

What has been the trend in the income distribution and wage level? What is the wage gap between men and women, between temporary and permanent workers, and between highly skilled and lowly skilled workers?

Income levels are higher in Stockholm than in other parts of Sweden. The overall trend during the 2000s, especially its latter half, has been an income rise. One factor that has affected income during recent years is a tax reform that has been carried through by the present - right-wing - government in four steps since 2007. This reform has meant tax reductions for people in employment, a so-called "earned income tax credit". One effect of this is a growing income gap between people with employment and those without employment or those who receive sickness benefits or pensions.

As to the wage gap between men and women, the differences are still significant but have declined somewhat during the 2000s.

<u>Table 7 - Average disposable income, men and women in 2000 and 2009. Comparison</u> between Stockholm, Malmö and Gothenburg, specified in number of base amount

		2000	2009
Stockholm	Men and women	5.4	6.2
	Men	6.3	6.9
	Women	4.5	5.5
Malmö	Men and women	4.1	4.6
	Men	4.5	5.0
	Women	3.6	4.2
Gothenburg	Men and women	4.3	5.1
	Men	4.8	5.6
	Women	3.8	4.6

Source: Inkomst- och taxeringsregistret (The revenue and taxation register).

Wage levels are clearly rising with age and with higher levels of education.

Table 8 - Average disposable income in Stockholm, by age in 2000 and 2009, specified in number of base amount

	Age	2000	2009
Stockholm	20-64	5.4	6.2
	20-24	2.8	2.9
	25-34	4.8	5.1
	35-44	6.1	6.8
	45-54	6.2	7.2
	55-64	6.4	7.7

Source: Inkomst- och taxeringsregistret (The revenue and taxation register).



<u>Table 9 - Average disposable income in Stockholm, by level of education in 2000 and 2009,</u> specified in number of base amount

		2000	2009
Stockholm	All educational levels	5.4	6.2
	Lower secondary education	3.9	4.3
	Secondary education	4.6	5.3
	Tertiary education	6.7	7.2
	No data	3.5	3.9

Source: Inkomst- och taxeringsregistret (The revenue and taxation register).

In terms of those in temporary employment in the late 2000s, there is a larger mix of age groups among such workers. However, factors like gender, age and immigrant status raise the likelihood of being temporarily employed. The "typical" temporary worker is described as a woman between 16-24 years of age, with secondary education and a temporary position (substituting for another worker who is on leave or absent) within the private sector.

Table 10 - Temporarily employed by sex in large cities and suburban municipalities

	2008-2009	2010-2010
Men and women	14.0	14.7
Men	11.8	12.6
Women	16.1	17.0

Source: ULF, SCB.

There are no local data on wage gaps between those in temporary and permanent employment.

What is the approximate size of the population that is part of POPULATION TARGET ONE? What is its approximate share of the whole labour force and the population of the same age? What has been the trend in the target group over the last 10 years?

In Stockholm, the age group of 15-19 years old constituted 5.1 per cent of the population in 2010, 6.7 per cent were in the range of 20-24 and 9.2 per cent were in the age group of 25-29. In the age group 20-24, 10.4 per cent were unemployed in 2010 and the corresponding figure in the age group 25-34 was 8.3 per cent, which is lower than the average level of unemployment in Sweden among young people (USK/SCB). There have not been any significant changes in the rates of employment/unemployment during the 2000s.

In a national study from the early 2000s, a group of 25,000-30,000 young people (aged 16-24) were identified as being in a position outside of the labour market and other forms of occupation, such as labour market programs or studies. The conclusion from this study is that this is a group with severe problems in becoming established in society. The most evident explanatory factor for this was low levels of education, the effects of which increased with increasing age. In this group, young foreign-born people who had spent a relatively short time in Sweden were over-represented (Ungdomsstyrelsen 2003).



What are the main problems that the POPULATION TARGET ONE deals with in the labour market/work-family reconciliation/housing? To what extent have the previous structural changes affected the specific living conditions of the target group?

As indicated above, young people experience growing difficulties in entering the labour market, especially if they possess a low level of education. Long-term unemployment is growing among young people and they are to a high degree employed on temporary work contracts.

A growing problem for young people, especially in the larger cities and the university cities, is how to enter an increasingly tough housing market. Around half of Swedish municipalities have a shortage of housing for young people. Available housing is often too large or too expensive for young people, even when they have an income. In the Stockholm region, 24 municipalities (out of 26) report a shortage of housing for young people, while 21 of these municipalities also have a general housing shortage (Boverket 2011). An interview study with parents in the three largest cities in Sweden showed that 7 out of 10 of those aged 20-25 who still live with their parents would move out to their own residence if that possibility was available (Hyresgästföreningen 2009).

Of the young adults (aged 20-27) living in the County of Stockholm, 46 per cent have a home of their own. This proportion has decreased from 50 per cent since 2009. The share of young adults living in their own rental apartment has decreased each year since 2001 from 29 per cent to 19 per cent. In 2011, 24 per cent live in an apartment run by a co-operative building society and 2 per cent in their own house. The share of young adults living without protection of tenancy - with relatives or friends, in student housing, with a sublease, in rented rooms and so on - has increased during the late 2000s, from 24 per cent in 2009 to 28 per cent in 2011. About one-fifth of young adults that have left home receive financial help from parents or relatives to make ends meet and a large share of young adults have a tight budget to live on (Hyresgästföreningen 2011).

1.2 Public regulation

What is the division of responsibilities among national, regional and municipal levels in the regulation of the labour market and in the provision of services and benefits to the labour force population who are in an at-risk position? What is the role played by third-sector and private organisations in this respect? Please specify the proportion of welfare provisions carried out by public/private/third-sector actors.

As described in the WP2 national report on Sweden (Nordfeldt & Segnestam Larsson 2011), the Swedish public administration consists of three levels of government: national, regional and local. The current Local Government Act, which came into force in 1992, defines the roles of municipalities, county councils and regions as follows:

- Local authorities are responsible for matters relating to the inhabitants and their immediate environment.
- The main task of the county councils and regions is healthcare and regional development.
- The Swedish parliament has 349 members and is the supreme political decision-making body in Sweden.



The responsibility for labour market policy lies with the central government through the Ministry of Employment. As described in the WP2 national report, the public authorities in this field are the Swedish Public Employment Service, Swedish Unemployment Insurance Board (IAF), Swedish Institute for Labour Market Policy Evaluation and the European Social Fund (ESF). The Swedish Employment Service is divided into 68 geographical labour market regions in which local employment offices are arranged (Nordfeldt & Segnestam Larsson 2011). Since the mid-1990s, decentralisation has taken place in this field, and the municipalities have become primary actors to run different forms of programs to promote the activation of unemployed people and those on social welfare benefits. At the local level, different forms of programs and projects are developed, within the framework of the central policy, but adapted to local needs and resources. The municipalities have the freedom to determine time limits, financial reimbursement levels (above the national norm) and sanction procedures (Thorén 2009, p. 65).

Responsibility for the supply of social welfare services thus lies at the local level. The City of Stockholm has a highly decentralised organisation with 14 district administrations in charge of most of the welfare services, for example, social services and care for the elderly and disabled. Stockholm has a further 15 technical departments and 17 companies¹.

The public sector still holds a dominant position within the field of labour market policy and the roles of both private and third sectors are marginal. A traditional role for non-profit organisations has been to offer different kinds of extended education and subsidised work (Lundström & Wijkström 1997). During the 1990s, an interest was taken in the social economy as a new form for creating new jobs. As a part of regional policies, there is an interest in the contribution of small-scale cooperatives and entrepreneurship within civil society to employment in the more peripheral regions of Sweden (see e.g. Nordfeldt & Lundstedt 2001). Private actors have recently entered this field by being engaged by the local employment offices as work coaches for the long-term unemployed.

Have there been changes in the distribution of responsibilities between levels of government (e.g. national/regional/local) and/or social actors (e.g. public/private/third sectors) over the last 10 years? Have you observed changes in the welfare mix and governance patterns in these policy areas?

Restructuring and deregulation of the Swedish welfare state mainly took place during the 1990s, but these processes have been strengthened during the 2000s. A growing number of fields have been opened up for competition and legislation has forced local administrations to make the procurement of welfare services a competitive process and to give citizens the right to choose a service provider. And, since 2007, private employment agencies have been used in some municipalities.

¹ These are companies owned by the City of Stockholm through the parent company Stockholms Stadshus AB. They consist, for example, of the housing companies AB Svenska Bostäder, AB Familjebostäder, AB Stockholmshem and the Stockholm Housing Agency: Stockholms Stads Bostadsförmedling AB. Furthermore, there are companies responsible for the water supply, Stockholm harbor, school buildings and the city theater.



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What are the main welfare programs addressing the needs of POPULATION TARGET ONE? Please separate income support measures from in-kind services (including activation policies and provision of life-long training) and briefly describe the amount and kinds of benefits and the related eligibility criteria. Please specify if these measures are provided by local/regional/national agencies or institutions, or by public/third-sector/private/self-help organisations.

Sweden has both a long and a strong tradition of activation policies (see Nordfeldt & Segnestam Larsson 2011). This has also been strengthened during the 2000s with special measures directed towards young people outside of the labour market. Unemployment benefits are closely connected to previous work and membership in an unemployment fund, which means that this is not available for young people with no former employment. Unemployed youth (aged 16-25) can be assigned to the program "Job guarantee" for young people, which includes activities like counselling, coaching, practice, education and skills development, support to start an own business or rehabilitation. During the participation in this program, the young person (over the age of 18) can get activity or development support (those under 18 are supposed to be supported by their parents). It takes three months from the registration at the local employment office until a young person receives support, which is state support paid by the National Insurance Office (Försäkringskassan). (These rules are currently under discussion and this waiting time might be eliminated.)

In Stockholm, there are different programs for different target groups among the unemployed. A relatively new program is Jobbtorg (provided at job centres) that started in 2008 and is available in seven different areas of the city. The aim of Jobbtorg is to make more people switch from benefits to work. One of the target groups for Jobbtorg is young people aged 16-24, who are eligible for welfare support from the city district administration. As a part of this programme, young people aged between 18-24 with a long history of social support, a documented functional limitation or newly immigrated to Sweden can be offered an internship somewhere in the city administration or in a municipality-owned company. The internship lasts between one and three months and can be transformed to temporary employment for six months financed by Jobbtorg.

Jobbtorg seeks to develop cooperation with different actors like private companies, third-sector organisations, local employment offices and the National Insurance Office (www.stockholm.se/Arbete/Jobbtorg-Stockholm/). Third-sector organisations hold a relatively marginal role in relation to unemployed youth, but there are some organisations that run projects targeting unemployed youth.

Of the 49,937 people who were registered at employment offices in Stockholm City in September 2011, 16,871 took part in different municipal schemes (mstatkommun.arbetsformedlingen.se).

Have there been changes in the public expenditure levels or eligibility criteria of these programs over the last 10 years? Have there been changes in the level of supply/in the coverage level/in the amount of benefits? Have specific mismatches between supply and demand emerged?

Replacement rates in the unemployment insurance have fallen over the past few years through new rules on qualifying days and time limits, which means that the level of compensation decreases gradually over time.



1.3. Indicators

Some smaller changes can be identified in the dominant industries that employ people in Stockholm. For example, manufacturing and construction are decreasing while research and education, as well as personal and cultural services, are growing.

Table 10 - Economically active population by industry and sex 2001 and 2007

		2001			2007	
Industry	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Agriculture, incl. forestry						_
and fishing	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
Manufacturing and mining	11.1	6.0	8.6	9.4	5.2	7.3
Energy, water, waste	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.6
Construction	5.9	0.9	3.4	6.8	0.8	3.8
Trade and communications	22.6	16.0	19.3	22.4	15.9	19.2
Financial and business						
services	29.7	23.6	26.7	30.1	22.8	26.5
Research and education	6.1	9.2	7.6	6.6	14.3	10.4
Health and social care	5.4	20.9	13.1	5.9	18.8	12.3
Personal and cultural						
services	9.8	11.2	10.5	11.1	12.3	11.7
Public administration etc.	5.6	7.2	6.4	5.8	8.2	7.0
Not specified	3.1	4.6	3.9	0.7	1.2	1.0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: USKAB

2. DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGES AND FAMILY

2.1. Socio-economic trends

What has changed in the demographic structure of the local population over the last 10 years? Please record the changes that have occurred in the main demographic indicators.

Stockholm Metropolitan Area is by international standards a small region in terms of population. However, as stated in the introduction, it is a constantly growing region and city. In 2000, Stockholm Metropolitan Area had 1,660,700 inhabitants and in 2010 the number had increased to 1,876,654. Stockholm City had in the same period grown from 750,348 to 847,073 inhabitants. In 2010, around 16 per cent of the population were under the age of 14, around 70 per cent were aged 15-64 and 14 per cent were over the age of 65. Stockholm had a net migration surplus of 10,742 people in 2010. There were no dramatic changes in the structure of the population during the 2000s.

Table 11 - Age groups in the population 2000 and 2010

Age	2000	2010
0-14	15,8	16,2
15-19	4,4	5,1
20-44	41,1	40,7
45-64	22,5	23,8
65 -	16,1	14,1

Source: USKAB



What have been the trends in terms of marriages/de facto couples, separations and divorces? What have been the trends in fertility and birth rates over the last 10 years? Have the average ages upon giving birth and upon giving birth for the first time changed? Has the proportion of births out of wedlock changed?

The overall trend has, for a long time, been a growth in single-person households; Sweden has the highest proportion of single-person households in Europe. In Stockholm, more than half of the households (58 per cent) are single-person households. According to local statistics, there were no significant changes in the proportions of unmarried, married and divorced people when comparing figures from 2000 and 2010.

Table 12 - Population (aged 15+) by sex and marital status (Stockholm, 2000 and 2010)

		Men				Women				Children under 15	The whole population
Un- married	Married	Widower	Divorced	Total	Un- married	Married	Widow	Divorced	Total		
153.908	104.380	7.676	34.217	300.181	142.163	105.500	34.590	49.479	331.732	118.435	750.348
183.023	117.841	6.238	37.396	344.498	167.145	117.716	26.251	54.013	365.125	137.450	847.073

Source: USK

The average age for giving birth to a first child is higher in Stockholm than the average for Sweden (SCB 2006). The birth rate in Stockholm has increased during the 2000s, especially at the end of the decade, when there was a "baby boom"; 9,261 children were born in Stockholm in the year 2000, but in 2009, the number of newborns grew to 13,267. The average ages upon giving birth to a first child were generally the same, but more children were born to older mothers. The average number of children per family was somewhat lower in Stockholm (1.79) than the average for Sweden (1.91) (www.stockholm.se/OmStockholm/Fakta-och-kartor).

Table 13 - Children born/1000 women, by age, and average age for having a first child, in Stockholm

Year	Born/1	Born/1000 women in the age group						Average age at first child
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	
2002	6	33	69	117	68	16	1	30.6
2009	3	29	70	138	107	30	2	30.7
C	. LICI/			•	•			<u> </u>

Source: USK

The average age at first birth in Sweden in 2009 was 28.9 years for first-time mothers (www.scb.se/Pages/PressRelease____290189.aspx).

What have been the main changes concerning the family structure over the last 10 years? How have the proportions of single-person families, lone-parent families and couples with children changed? How have the average size of households and the average number of children per household changed? How has the proportion of recomposed families changed?

As mentioned above, the proportion of single-person households has grown, as has that of single-parent households.



A typical model for divorced and/or separated couples with children is that the child/children live by turns with both parents, often one week at a time. This complicates the notion of "lone parents" when a growing number of parents have a kind of shared lone parenthood, in terms of both bringing up and supporting the child/children.

What trade-offs have emerged in the area of conciliation between working and caring? What social groups have been most affected?

As described in the WP2 national report (Nordfeldt & Segnestam Larsson 2011), access to childcare has increased during the 2000s, as an effect of reforms in the early part of the decade. An important reform was the introduction of a maximum fee for preschool activities and care of school-age children. This involved a ceiling being set on the fees payable by parents for their children. An outcome of this is that the previous differences in use of childcare based on the parents' education level have almost entirely disappeared. There are no major differences in the utilisation of childcare dependent on the parents' country of birth.

In 2002, 83 per cent of children aged 1-5 in Stockholm were listed as receiving childcare: 21,807 children (approx. 56 per cent) attended public childcare and 10,759 (approx. 28 per cent) non-public childcare. In 2010, 83 per cent of the children aged 1-5 were still listed as receiving childcare: 26,527 (54 per cent) went to public childcare and 14,643 (30 per cent) to non-public alternatives. This indicates that there has been a modest growth in non-public alternatives to meet the growth in demand for childcare. Most children that do not attend childcare stay home with a parent on parental leave.

What is the approximate size of the population that is part of POPULATION TARGET TWO? What is its approximate proportion of the total population and/or number of families? What has been the trend in this target group over the last 10 years?

It is difficult to estimate the size of target group two and the trends during the last 10 years. In 2008, single mothers made up 27 per cent of the families with children in the City of Stockholm and, in a majority of these families, there were one or two children (SCB). (Only six per cent of all families consisted of single fathers with children.) However, the number of single-mother families has not grown during the 2000s. Statistics on the national level show a slight downward trend in separations during the 2000s. Another trend is that alternate residence is becoming more common. Three out of ten children in Sweden with separated/divorced parents are alternating between their parents (www.ssd.scb.se/databaser/makro/SaveShow.asp).

At the same time, statistics indicate that it is more common to be a single mother if one possesses a low level of education, such as lower secondary or secondary education (SCB 2010). Women work part-time to a higher degree than men and more often with low-paid jobs. Single mothers therefore often have an economically tougher situation than other family constellations, despite welfare benefits. Employment has decreased among single mothers and they have precarious employment more frequently than other groups. Unemployment among single mothers has grown in recent years. They possess a lower disposable income and receive more financial assistance than single men with children (RUT 2009). The overall growth in income during recent years has not benefited single mothers (RUT 2010a). The proportion of single mothers that live below the relative poverty line in Sweden has grown during recent years from around one-sixth in 2006 to one-quarter in 2010 (RUT 2010b).



Save the Children's report on child poverty in Sweden (Rädda Barnen 2011) indicates that living with a single parent and having parents with an immigrant background increase the risk of being economically poor. A combination of these factors increases the risk many times. Among children with single parents and an immigrant background, it is estimated in the report that around 50 per cent can be considered as economically poor. In total, in Stockholm City in 2008, it is estimated that 14.4 per cent lived in an economically vulnerable household. The report further points out that there are huge differences between different neighbourhoods of the city, with clear links between segregation and the distribution of child poverty.

What are the most relevant occupational status and professional activities of POPULATION TARGET TWO? What are their main problems in the area of workfamily reconciliation/housing/employment? To what extent have the previous structural changes affected the specific living conditions of the target group?

There are no relevant statistics on occupational status and professional activities of this particular group. The section above provides information on indicators of the economic situation of single mothers.

A group that has gained attention during the 2000s is homeless families. Socio-economic characteristics of this group indicate that there are clear gender and ethnic/immigration factors involved in housing problems. In 2008, a survey was conducted by the social authorities in Stockholm on homeless families. In this survey, 160 families were reported as homeless by the LSA's around the City of Stockholm. Families headed by a single mother constituted the largest group, 65 per cent of the 160 homeless families. Single-father families constituted 4 per cent and couples 31 per cent. Among the homeless families, 66 per cent had an immigrant background and had migrated from countries outside of the EU, while 23 per cent were of Swedish origin. In total, 8 per cent of the homeless families had migrated from non-Nordic EU countries and 3 per cent from the Nordic countries (Stockholms Stad 2009).

2.2. Public regulation

What is the division of responsibilities among national, regional and municipal levels in the provision of family welfare benefits and services? What is the role played by third-sector and private organisations in this respect? Please specify the proportions of welfare provisions carried out by public/private/third-sector actors. Please make reference to your country's WP2 when relevant.

The main responsibility for the supply of welfare services lies at the local level. The local authorities are obliged according to the Social Services Act to supply the residents of the municipality with the support and help they need (SoL 2001:453). Family welfare benefits and services are accordingly the responsibility of the LSA's. The supply of childcare belongs to the school's field of responsibility, which is also a local matter.

The national level is where responsibility for the payment of general allowances lies: child allowances and parent allowances. At the regional level, namely, the county councils, is where the organisation for health and medical care is carried out.



Although most areas of welfare are still dominated by the public sector, private agents are noteworthy in some areas. Childcare is one such area, in which the developments towards diversification have been especially significant (Nordfeldt & Segnestam Larsson 2011). As described in the WP2 national report, it has even been argued that the number of non-public providers is unusually large in this field of welfare in Sweden (Vamstad 2007). The expansion of non-public providers in childcare has been explained by a host of different factors, such as capacity shortage (Gustavsson 1988), tax reforms (Stensöta 2004), cost-efficiency (Antman 1996) and attempted democratisation (Möller 1996).

In accordance with the above, almost all local authorities in Sweden can provide places at a preschool, at a leisure-time centre or in a family day care home without undue delay. At the same time, local authorities are also obliged to provide grants for non-municipal childcare, that is, undertakings run by a principal other than the local authority.

Table 14 - Service providers in Sweden (National Agency for Education 2011)

	Number of local authorities with childcare	Number of institutions (% of total)	Number of children (% of total)
Total	290	19,152	856,922
Local authority		14,844	725,777
as principal	290	(78%)	(85%)
Private		4,308	131,145
principal*	250	(22%)	(15%)

^{*} No information available on the distinction between for-profit and non-profit (e.g. National Agency for Education 2011). Information exists, but requires specific data-sets from SCB (Interview 2011-04-20).

In the early 1990s, the number of non-public childcare providers more than tripled and the number of children attending their facilities quadrupled during the same time period (Vamstad 2007). In 2001, about 15 per cent of all registered children in preschools attended a facility that operated under non-municipal auspices. This figure is almost twice as high if one only studies the major urban areas of Sweden (Pestoff & Strandbrink 2004). In 2010, this number for all forms of childcare was still about 15% (National Agency for Education 2011).

Have there been changes in the distribution of responsibilities between levels of government over the last 10 years? Have you observed significant changes in the welfare mix and governance patterns in these policy areas?

The reforms in the field of childcare took place some decades ago, and there have not been any radical changes during the last ten years. Childcare is mainly provided by the public sector. However, as described above, this field was opened up for alternative providers in the 1980s. As stated above, there has been modest growth in non-public alternatives in childcare in Stockholm during the 2000s.



What are the main welfare programs addressing the needs of POPULATION TARGET TWO? Please separate income support measures from in-kind services and, for each relevant measure, briefly describe the amount and kinds of benefits and the related eligibility criteria. Please specify if these measures are provided by local/regional/national agencies or institutions, or by public/third-sector/private organisations.

A general welfare benefit is child allowances, which embrace all children; parents get a monthly allowance based on the number of children. Families with children who have limited economic resources can apply for housing benefits. These allowances are paid from the national level. There are no other special welfare programs addressing this group. When there is a need for welfare support, this can take different forms and is paid by different sources. If an unemployed single parent has been a member of an unemployment fund, the support for the first period of unemployment will come from this. Long-term unemployed are removed from the fund after a certain amount of time and included in programs run by the employment offices. Benefits during participation in labour market programs are paid from the National Insurance Office. The National Insurance Office is also responsible for sickness benefits and disability pensions. If further support is needed, means-tested benefits can be applied for at the LSA's as, under the Social Services Act, they are ultimately responsible for local residents who cannot support themselves. Some third-sector organisations and parishes offer smaller emergency financial help and emergency housing, for example, shelters for the homeless.

Have there been changes in the public expenditure levels or eligibility criteria of these programs over the last 10 years? Have there been changes in the level of supply/in the coverage level/in the amount of benefits? Have specific mismatches between supply and demand emerged?

During recent years, changes have taken place in the national social insurance system; new rules have been introduced and the compensation levels have been reduced. Parliament decided in 2008 on new rules for health insurance. Fixed dates were introduced for the examination of work capacity, the evaluation criteria of work capacity were made stricter, sickness benefits became time-limited and the conditions for long-term sickness benefits were tightened. This means that, after a certain time, people on long-term sickness leave are transferred to the employment offices' area of responsibility. When it becomes a matter for the employment offices, a person's work capacity is considered in relation to the labour market or municipality schemes. For some groups, these changes have had severe effects where individuals lost their sickness benefits but were not capable of working. Since these rules were introduced, corrections and derogations have been made, but there are still groups whose economic situation has become severe.



3. IMMIGRATION

3.1. Socio-economic trends

What is the proportion of migrants and/or ethnic minority groups to the total population of the city? What are the largest ethnic minority groups in the city? What is their composition? What is their level of inclusion in the labour market and in the housing market?

There are no data on ethnic groups in Sweden. Statistics are instead based on country of origin and parents' country of origin. The proportions of foreign-born people and those with foreign-born parents have increased somewhat in Stockholm during the 2000s, from nearly 25 per cent to nearly 30 per cent.

Table 15 - Foreign-born people and those born in Sweden with both parents born abroad

	Foreign-born	Born in Sweder	١		Total	
	-	Both parents fo	reign-born		Foreign-born and born in	Sweden
		In the same	In different	Total		% of total
-		country	countries			population
Year						
2001	143 027	31 517	11 137	42 654	185 681	24,6
2002	145 703	32 621	11 609	44 230	189 933	25,1
2003	148 045	33 686	11 964	45 650	193 695	25,4
2004	150 272	34 701	12 394	47 095	197 367	25,8
2005	153 857	35 690	12 834	48 524	202 381	26,2
2006	160 618	37 071	13 419	50 490	211 108	27.0
	166 746		13 962		219 207	27,0
2007		38 499		52 461		27,6
2008	172 772	40 013	14 584	54 597	227 369	28,1
2009	181 090	41 952	15 355	57 307	238 397	28,7
2010	187 585	43 834	16 103	59 937	247 522	29,2

Source: SCB/USK

In the last ten years, most migrants have come from African countries like Somalia and Eritrea. Other large migrant groups are persons/families from Iraq, Iran and Afghanistan. From Europe, people from Poland have moved to Sweden to work.

Below are figures for the years 2002 and 2009, which show foreign-born people (utrikes födda) and aliens (utländska medborgare) by citizenship. The columns represent foreign citizens (Utländska medborgare), Swedish citizens (Svenska medborgare), foreign-born (Födda i utlandet), Swedish-born (födda I Sverige) and the total.



Table 16 - Foreign-born and foreign citizens according to citizenship

4.17 Utrikes födda samt utländska medborgare efter medborgarskap 2002-12-31 Foreign-born persons and aliens by citizenship

	Jtrikes födda ¹	ons and aliens	,	-	Utländska	medborgare	e ²
-	Utländska nedborgare	Svenska medborgare	Totalt	därav svenska medborgare, %	Födda i utlandet	Födda i Sverige	Totalt
Europa Danmark Finland Island Norge Bosnien-Hercegovin Estland Frankrike Grekland Italien Jugoslavien Polen Rumänien Spanien Storbritannien Tjeckoslovakien Tyskland Ungern Österrike	327 1 344 1 342 940 1 258 1 816 223 775 2 154 83 1 699 299 382	35 502 854 10 449 38 1 356 1 728 1 650 406 2 225 431 3 066 4 220 1 035 532 803 741 2 484 1 503 436	64 068 1 852 20 605 269 3 300 2 527 1 977 1 750 3 567 1 371 4 324 6 036 1 258 1 307 2 957 824 4 183 1 802 818	55,4 46,1 50,7 14,1 41,1 68,4 83,5 23,2 62,4 31,4 70,9 69,9 82,3 40,7 27,2 89,9 59,4 83,4 53,3	29 322 1 060 10 283 245 2 091 840 329 1 424 1 420 1 044 1 092 1 769 195 825 2 319 - 1 658 281 417	7 100 430 3 109 79 709 52 18 226 418 233 162 214 11 157 343 - 435 18	36 422 1 490 13 392 324 2 800 892 347 1 650 1 838 1 277 1 254 1 983 206 982 2 662 2 093 299 574
Ovriga Afrika Eritrea Etiopien Gambia Marocko Somalia Övriga Amerika USA Övriga Nordamerika Chile Colombia	1 796 6 570 337 699 431 433 2 526 2 144 6 362 1 770 1 043 1 785 275	1 545 11 328 1 334 3 104 411 1 202 2 106 3 171 8 995 1 015 943 3 108 1 003	3 341 17 898 1 671 3 803 842 1 635 4 632 5 315 15 357 2 785 1 986 4 893 1 278	46,2 63,3 79,8 81,6 48,8 73,5 45,5 59,7 58,6 36,4 47,5 63,5 78,5	2 030 6 326 365 604 426 418 2 568 1 945 6 287 1 870 1 029 1 744 258	329 706 36 45 54 26 363 182 372 237 45 22 6	2 359 7 032 401 649 480 444 2 931 2 127 6 659 2 107 1 074 1 766 264
Peru Övriga Sydamerika Asien Afghanistan Bangladesh Indien Irak Iran Kina, folkrep. Libanon Pakistan Sydkorea Syrien Thailand Turkiet Övriga	605 884 17 177 865 445 556 6 081 2 032 988 252 233 125 786 862 2 136 1 816	951 1 975 26 503 120 837 924 5 151 6 779 802 1 273 552 1 413 1 403 778 3 927 2 544	1 556 2 859 43 680 985 1 282 1 480 11 232 8 811 1 790 1 525 785 1 538 2 189 1 640 6 063 4 360	61,1 69,1 60,7 12,2 65,3 62,4 45,9 76,9 44,8 83,5 70,3 91,9 64,1 47,4 64,8 58,3	585 801 16 711 879 438 525 6 082 2 018 950 174 212 103 765 842 2 099 1 624	29 33 1 758 62 15 28 502 101 36 12 18 2 135 81 644 122	18 469 941 453 553 6 584 2 119 986 186 230 105 900 923 2 743 1 746
Oceanien OSS Statslösa och okä		138 1 944 11	673 3 976 51	20,5 48,9 21,6	529 1 711 396	35 54 713	564 1 765 1 109
Samtliga	61 282	84 421	145 703	57,9	61 282	10 738	72 020

Anm. Se även noter till tabell 4.21. – ¹Utrikes födda redovisas efter födelseland. – ²Utländska medborgare redovisas efter medborgarskapsland.



Table 17 - Foreign-born people and aliens by citizenship

4.20 Utrikes födda samt utländska medborgare 2009-12-31

Foreign-born persons and aliens by citizenship

Samtliga Väller SCR/LISY	72 205	108 885	181 090	60,1	72 205	8 260	80 465
Oceanien Statslösa och okänt	594 56	243 16	837 72	29,0 22,2	541 875	17 547	558 1 422
Ovriga länder	3 554	4 097	7 651	53,5	3 164	203	3 367
Thailand	1 699	1 385	3 084	44,9	1 675	58	1 733
Syrien	409	2 060	2 469	83,4	360	18	378
Pakistan	760	725	1 485	48,8	740	22	762
Libanon	237	1 533	1 770	86,6	202	6	208
Sydkorea	160	1 644	1 804	91.1	145	6	151
Iran Kina, folkrepubliken	1 865 2 011	8 348 1 674	10 213 3 685	81,7 45,4	1 793 1 964	60 63	1 853 2 027
Irak	4 178	11 348	15 526	73,1	4 093	270	4 363
Indien	1 110	1 280	2 390	53,6	1 065	45	1 110
Bangladesh	812	1 233	2 045	60,3	802	29	831
Afghanistan	881	878	1 759	49,9	886	81	967
Asien	17 676	36 205	53 881	67,2	16 889	861	17 750
Ovinga Sydamenka	1 340	2 43/	3 8/1	01,3	1 320	71	1 307
Peru Övriga Sydamerika	622 1 540	1 505 2 437	2 127 3 977	70,8 61,3	588 1 326	12 41	600 1 367
Colombia	338	1 453	1 791	81,1	303	7	310
Chile	1 487	3 874	5 361	72,3	1 436	49	1 485
Centralamerika	812	1 325	2 137	62,0	734	13	747
Canada och USA	1 870	1 668	3 538	47,1	1 943	153	2 096
Amerika	6 669	12 262	18 931	64,8	6 330	275	6 605
Ovriga länder	3 334	5 1/1	0 000	00,8	3 008	241	3 200
Somalia Övriga länder	3 641 3 334	3 165 5 171	6 806 8 505	47 60,8	3 629 3 009	338 241	3 967 3 250
Marocko	523	1 569	2 092	75 47	482	24	506
Etiopien	949	3 344	4 293	78	814	31	845
Eritrea	1 168	2 082	3 250	64	1 276	102	1 378
Afrika	9 615	15 331	24 946	61	9 210	736	9 946
Ovinga lariuei	1 405	1 104	2 048	77,7	1 200	133	1 303
Övriga länder	1 /5/	1 184	2 649	74,7 44,7	1 709	182 135	1 385
Serbien och Montenegro ⁴ Turkiet	810 1 757	3 514 5 194	4 324 6 951	81,3	329 1 709	11 182	340 1 891
Ryssland ³	1 220	2 680	3 900	68,7	999	48	1 047
Bosnien-Hercegovina	457	2 325	2 782	83,6	443	13	456
Övriga Europa	5 709	14 897	20 606	72,3	4 730	389	5 119
o riiga iainaa	0	2 0			0.00	0.0	
Övriga länder	3 448	2 478	5 926	42	3760	313	4 073
Ungem	375	1 341	1 716	78	376	12	388
Storbritannien Tyskland	2 517 2 328	1 085 2 201	3 602 4 529	30 49	2 844 2 389	310 389	3 154 2 778
Spanien	982	554	1 536	36	1 116	157	1 273
Rumänien	759	1 128	1 887	60	749	.17	766
Polen	5 154	4 636	9 790	47	5 117	377	5 494
Italien	1 189	495	1 684	29	1 391	202	1 593
Grekland	1 306	2 159	3 465	62	1 446	255	1 701
Frankrike	1 737	537	2 274	24	1 882	206	2 088
EU27 utom Norden Estland	20 463 668	17 947	2 001	46,7 67	21 770 700	32	732
EU27 utom Nordon	20 463	17 947	38 410	46.7	24 770	2 270	24 040
Norge och Island	2 272	1 146	3 418	33,5	2 465	623	3 088
Finland	8 158	10 115	18 273	55	8 312	2 157	10 469
Danmark	993	723	1 716	42	1 083	385	1 468
Norden	11 423	11 984	23 407	51,2	11 860	3 165	15 025
	medborgare	medborgare		medb., %	utlandet	Sverige	
	Utländska	Svenska	Totalt	därav sv.	Födda i	Födda i	Totalt
						medborgare ²	
r oreign bonn perso	Utrikes födda	1			Littländeks	modbornaro ²	
r-oreign-born perso	ons and allens i	ov citizensnib					

Källa: SCB/ USK

Anm. Uppdelningen av utländska medborgare på födelseland redovisas ej då låga värden förekommer.

136

Housing conditions differ quite substantially between people born in Sweden and people that are foreign-born. For people born in the Nordic countries, EU countries, North America and Oceania, the differences are less considerable than for people born in the rest of the world. People born in Africa are, for example, heavily over-represented in rental apartments and consequently strongly under-represented in single-family homes and co-operative building society dwellings (SCB 2008).



¹ Efter födelseland. 2 Efter medborgarskapsland. 3 Inklusive med födelseland "Sovjetunionen".

⁴ Inklusive med födelseland "Jugoslavien".

A study conducted in the cities of Stockholm and Uppsala in the early 2000s showed that country of origin is an important factor in explaining differences in housing. It also showed that the housing market in Stockholm is heavily segmented. Foreign-born individuals are strongly over-represented in semi-public rented dwellings and this over-representation is especially strong in relation to people from African and Asian countries (Bråmå *et al.* 2006).

There are differences in levels of employment between Swedish and foreign-born individuals. An important factor is the time spent in the country. Those with less than five years in Sweden have a very low rate of employment. Among people with 20 years or more in Sweden, employment rates are much higher, but still lower than for native Swedes; this pattern applies to both men and women (SCB 2008).

There are significant differences between levels of employment between people born in different countries. The lowest employment levels are found among people born in an African country. Highest levels are found among people from the other Nordic countries. In the groups with the lowest employment levels, the differences are most striking among the youngest age groups. The employment rates are especially low for refugees from non-OECD countries. Even 10 years after migration to Sweden, the employment rate is less than 50 per cent in some immigrant groups. In comparison with many other countries, the differences in employment rates between natives and immigrants are large (SOU 2010:88).

What is the territorial distribution of these ethnic minority groups? Are there areas with high levels of segregation? Are immigrants concentrated in deteriorated neighbourhoods?

Stockholm is a highly segregated city and ethnic background is an important explanatory factor of where one lives. However, as described in the WP2 Swedish National report, researchers have pointed to the fact that the majority of the suburbs that have been referred to as the most segregated areas are not characterised by ethnic homogeneity. There is great ethnic diversity in these areas. Characteristic of these areas is a very low proportion of native Swedes and segregation can therefore be described as a distinction between predominantly Swedish-populated residential areas versus predominantly immigrant-populated residential areas (Gullberg 2002; Andersson 1998). These researchers have moreover pointed at "neighbourhood effects" in the sense that there is a neighbourhood impact on income, which varies by age, gender and country of origin. The income trends for native Swedes residing in rental houses in large-scale suburbs - the socalled Million Program areas - for both men and women and regardless of education level were less favourable than for people residing in other parts of Stockholm (Gullberg 2002; Andersson 1998). There are clear links between segregation and distribution of child poverty and families with an immigrant background. In the Swedish Save the Children report on child poverty, it is stated that the growing economic gap between children of Swedish background and those with immigrant parents reinforces the already strong economic and ethnic segregation (Rädda Barnen 2011).

What have been the main immigration/emigration trends over the last 10 years? What are the largest migrant groups that have arrived in the city over the last 10 years?

Over a long period of time, immigration to Sweden has shifted from mainly consisting of labour migration from European countries to primarily refugee and family unification migration from non-OECD countries. At the same time, the labour market situation for immigrants has worsened significantly.



According to statistics from the Migration Board on refugees and asylum seekers that have been received in a municipality with compensation from the state, the figures for Stockholm County were 2,477 in 2010 and, in the City of Stockholm, 1,042. Corresponding figures for 2005 were 1,903 for Stockholm County and 991 for Stockholm City (www.migrationsverket.se/info/790.html).

Has the proportion of migrants changed over the last 10 years? Has their composition in terms of area of origin/age/gender/educational level changed? Has their distribution in the territory significantly changed? What have been the trends for family reunification?

The highest immigration rate so far was in 2007, when almost 100,000 people immigrated to Sweden. Most immigrants came from an EU country or from Asia. A common reason for migrating from an EU country was to find work, but family unification was also a common cause. People from Asia are more often refugees, although family unification is also a common reason for migrating from Asia. Family unification has become increasingly frequent during the last 10 years.

Between 1997 and 2006, the largest group of immigrants came from Asian countries, predominantly from Iraq. During 2006 and 2007, immigration from European countries increased. This is explained by the strong economic development in Sweden during these years, which attracted labour, especially from Poland (SCB 2008).

Has concentration/segregation increased or decreased in the last 10 years? Has degradation of concentrated/segregated neighbourhoods worsened/improved in the last 10 years? What have been the main problems arising from such changes?

Suburbs in Stockholm metropolitan areas with a large immigrant population are also areas that can be defined as resource-poor. These areas foremost consist of large housing estates that were built during the so-called "Million Homes Programme" when a million dwellings were built during a period of 10 years from the mid-1960s to the mid-1970s. These large housing estates are today associated with segregation and social problems. Refugees and immigrants, primarily from outside the OECD region, have been directed towards these so-called "under-privileged" suburbs.

In a report published in 2006, measurements of segregation and social exclusion were described on the basis of a summary of four factors: rate of income, education, immigration and employment. The conclusion from this was that 8 per cent of neighbourhoods can be defined as "socially vulnerable to a high degree", and 19 per cent as "partly socially vulnerable". Many of the areas that are classified as socially vulnerable were identified already in the end of the 1980s and a conclusion in the report was that there have been no significant changes in segregation in the late 1990s and early 2000s (USK 2006).

There are tensions in some of the "under-privileged" neighbourhoods that come to the surface from time to time, manifested in, for example, the burning of cars and the attacking of emergency services, but not to the same extent as in many other European cities.

In the general election of 2010, an anti-immigrant party entered parliament for the first time since the early 1990s. An effect of this has been an increase in anti-racist movements. In the autumn of 2011, polls indicated that support for the nationalist party has decreased, which is probably an effect of the terrorist attack on the Norwegian parliament and the massacre of young social democrats, conducted by a Norwegian man



with racist views, who in a written manifesto described his enthusiasm for the Swedish Nationalist Party.

What is the approximate size of the population that is part of POPULATION TARGET THREE? What is its approximate share of the total immigrant population? What has been the trend in the target group over the last 10 years?

There are no data available to estimate the population in target group three. In 2010, there were about 196,000 people with a foreign background in Stockholm, which corresponds to a little more than one-fifth of the population. The trend of immigration and the situation in the labour and housing markets are described above.

What are the most relevant occupational status and professional activities of POPULATION TARGET THREE? What are their main problems in the area of housing/employment/childcare? To what extent have the previous structural changes affected the specific living conditions of the target group?

In a recent governmental report (SOU 2010:88), there are different explanations for the large differences in terms of employment between Swedish-born people and immigrants to Sweden; these differences are most striking when it comes to refugees from non-OECD countries. Discussed in the report are factors in relation to supply, demand and policy interventions. The authors point at factors such as lack of language skills, lack of access to informal networks, high requirements to be considered as employable, ethnic discrimination and poorly designed policy measures.

As in many other countries, immigrants in Sweden are over-represented in self-employment in comparison to native Swedes. Among the employed, 8.7 per cent of native-born were self-employed in 2008, while the corresponding rate for foreign-born was 9.7 per cent. The highest rate of 11.1 percent was found among people born in another EU country (excluding the Nordic countries) (www.migrationsinfo.se/arbetsmarknad/foretagande).

As described above, previous research indicates that there is a clear ethnic dimension to segregation and segmentation on the housing market.

3.2. Public regulation

What is the division of responsibilities among national, regional and municipal levels in the provision of services and benefits to migrants who are in a vulnerable position? What is the role played by third-sector and for-profit organisations in this policy field?

The initial responsibility when people/families immigrate to Sweden lies at the national level through the Migration Board. When moving to a municipality, the responsibilities for support are taken over by that municipality. Immigrants are entitled to support according to the Social Services Act and apply for this through the LSA's. The roles of third-sector organisations are foremost to function as a social network and sometimes to have an advocacy role. For-profit actors, as mentioned above, to a limited degree, supply temporary housing, mainly on behalf of and funded by the LSAs.



Have there been changes in the distribution of responsibilities between levels of government (e.g. national/regional/local) and/or social actors (e.g. public/private/third sector) over the last 10 years? Have you observed changes in the welfare mix and governance patterns in these policy areas? Please specify the proportions of provisions carried out by public/private/third-sector actors, and of mixed situations.

At the national level, changes occurred in the field of integration policy in the mid-2000s in connection with the change of government, from a social democratic government to a right-wing alliance. After the governmental shift, a new direction and partly new organisation was introduced for integration policy. The responsibility was later moved from the (earlier) Integration and Equality Department to the Labour Market Department. The Swedish Integration Board was shut down in 2007. The aim of the integration policy is now expected to be reached through general measures, which embraces the whole population regardless of country of origin and ethnic background.

Levels of responsibility for immigration and integration issues are shifting over time. A reform in 2010 meant a centralisation of responsibility for the establishment of newly arrived immigrants on the labour market. The Employment Office took over the responsibility for the coordination of this issue from local governments' coordination responsibilities. Still, local governments have a major responsibility for the reception and introduction of refugees. In Stockholm, these responsibilities are decentralised to the district authorities.

County councils are involved by having been assigned a coordinating role to fulfil the national integration policy.

Immigration and integration are social areas with vivid third-sector engagement; the interest from local authorities and county councils in third-sector contributions within these fields has grown. Municipalities and county councils are emphasising the importance of civil society organisations' contributions and are financially supporting third-sector organisations that target immigrants and work with integration.

In 2010, an agreement was approved between the central government and third-sector organisations active within the integration field, as well as with the Swedish Association of Local Authorities and Regions. The purpose of this agreement is to clarify the relationship between the actors involved in the work and newly arrived immigrants and their integration; it is also to develop forms and methods for third-sector organisations to contribute better to this work (Regeringen 2010).

What are the main welfare programs addressing the needs of POPULATION TARGET THREE? Please separate income support measures from in-kind services. In addition, briefly describe the amount and kinds of benefits and the related eligibility criteria. Please specify if these measures are provided by local/regional/national agencies or institutions, or by public/third-sector/private/self-help organisations.

Policy measures are general, which means that immigrants with residence permits have access to the same activities offered to all Swedes, including the extensive labour market programs. There are also specific measures for newly arrived immigrants, both before and after they have received their residence permits. During the period when the asylum applications are evaluated, there are some activities offered by the Migration Board. People who get residence permits as refugees and their relatives can spend several years participating in introduction programs (SOU 2010:88).



The responsibility for these programs has been with the municipalities. However, in December 2010, the Public Employment Service took over this responsibility. The contents of the introduction programs are adapted to the participants, and include language training, civic studies and labour market activities. These programs often last for at least two years. There is a lack of evaluation of these measures, which means that little is known about how efficient they are (SOU 2010:88).

Third-sector organisations operate a wide range of activities in relation to immigrants and integration and are part of integration policies in Stockholm. This includes both the so-called immigrant organisations and other organisations, such as the Red Cross and Save the Children. Organisations work both collectively by political participation and influencing local policies and with integration on an individual level by participation in organisations (Bengtsson 2004). They also work locally with, for example, the provision of information and the organisation of meeting points and festivities, as well as with different kinds of individual support including temporary financial support (Forssell & Ingemarsson 2008). Organisations also work in different projects in cooperation with public and private actors.

Have there been changes in the public expenditure levels or eligibility criteria of these programs over the last 10 years? Have there been changes in the level of supply/in the coverage level/in the amount of benefits? Have specific mismatches between supply and demand emerged?

After having spent five years in the country, there are no special programs and measures for immigrants. The same welfare services and employment programs as described above in section 1 are available under the same conditions as for other population groups.

3.3. Indicators

The tables below show the distribution of economically active and not economically active foreign-born people per activity in Stockholm and the distribution of men and women in different occupations, based on country/region of birth, on a national level.

Table 18 - Economically and not economically active foreign-born people by activity

Year Economically active		Not economic	ally active				
	active	Students	Unemployed	Conscripts	Early retirement	Others	Total
200	55,2	7,9	2,8	0,0	7,0	27,1	44,8
2008	57,	7 7,9	2,1	0,0	8,4	23,8	42,3

Source: SCB/USK



Table 19 - Share of employed women aged 20-64 years, at the national level, in different occupations, 2006

Profession	Born in Sweden	Nordic countries	EU countries	Other Europe	North America/ Oceania	South America	Asia	Africa
Managers Work requiring special	4	4	2	1	3	1	1	1
theoretical skills Work requiring limited higher	20	18	24	11	30	12	12	7
education Offices and customer	21	18	16	10	17	12	12	7
service Services, social services and	13	12	10	7	8	8	7	5
sales workers Process and machine	30	30	26	35	26	43	37	57
operators Without need	3	6	4	10	2	3	5	2
for professional training Other and no	6	9	10	20	8	16	17	16
responses Total	3 100	4 100	7 100	7 100	6 100	5 100	9 100	6 100

Source: STATIV/SCB

Table 20 - Share of employed men aged 20-64 years, at the national level, in different occupations, 2006

Profession	Born in	Nordic	EU	Other	North	South	Asia	Africa
	Sweden	countries	countries	Europe	America/ Oceania	America		
Managers	8	7	6	3	6	2	3	2
Work requiring special	O	,	O	3	O	_	3	_
theoretical skills	17	13	23	8	27	12	14	10
Work requiring limited								
higher education	18	15	13	6	14	10	9	7
Offices and customer								
service	6	5	5	6	5	7	7	8
Services, social								
services and sales workers	9	6	9	10	11	19	17	23
Craftwork within	7	U	7	10	11	17	17	23
construction and								
manufacturing	17	20	12	14	8	9	8	5
Process and machine								
operators	16	23	14	32	10	16	19	16
Without need for								
professional training	4	6	7	14	8	19	13	20
Others and no	-	-	4.4	0	40	,	40	0
responses	5	5	11	8	10	6	12	9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: STATIV/SCB



4. TRENDS IN THE HOUSING FIELD

4.1. Socio-economic trends

What have been the main changes in the local housing market, distinguishing the rent market and the property market? What has been the trend of real estate prices?

Real estate prices have increased quite severely during the last 10 years. In the County of Stockholm, the price for co-operative building society dwellings has increased by 78 per cent (SEK/square meter) between 2000 and 2010 and the price of single-family homes by 110 per cent during the same period (purchase price/assessed value) (www.cisionwire.se).

Another trend is that the transformation of rental apartments to owner-occupied apartments has been most pronounced in Stockholm, where a large number, especially in the centre of the city and the inner suburbs, have been converted this way. The interest from tenants in suburbs more distant from the centre of the city in terms of buying apartments has been less marked. Some real estate has instead been sold off to private landlords.

As a result, there has been a trend during the 2000s of an increase in the number of people living in co-operative building society dwellings, and a corresponding decrease in the share of the population that are living in rented dwellings.

2000 2009 Stockholm Owner Rented Co-Owner Rented Co-City occupied dwellings operative occupied dwellings operative building building society society dwellings dwellings Total men 15.3 59.6 24.2 14.7 43.3 41.0 and women

Table 21 - Distribution of households by tenure status 2000 and 2010

Has access to housing become more difficult over the last 10 years? What population groups have been most affected?

Access to housing is becoming more difficult in the metropolitan areas in Sweden. There is a shortage of housing in Stockholm and the surrounding municipalities (Boverket 2010). In particular, there is a shortage of rental apartments, and specifically, affordable rental apartments.

The threshold of entry into the rental market has become higher. Landlords in Sweden are relatively free to set their own requirements for new tenants. They often claim to make individual assessments, but some requirements seem to be of a more general character (cf. Nordfeldt and Olsson 2006). Usual requirements are no rent arrears or a record of other non-paid debts, long-term employment and a salary that is at least three times the rent. Social security benefits are generally not considered sufficient as income. Furthermore, requirements can include a maximum number of children (in relation to the number of rooms in the apartment) and no record of earlier neighbourhood disturbances (Boverket 2005: 31; Bråmå *et al.* 2006). It differs somewhat among landlords in Stockholm in terms of whether they regard social benefits as an acceptable source of income for a first-hand contract.



These increasingly strict requirements are affecting economically disadvantaged households and households that lack references from previous housing, such as refugees and other newly arrived immigrants (see Sahlin 2002) or families that have previously been evicted in particular (Flyghed 2000).

Has there been a spread in critical situations such as overcrowding, difficult affordability, poor hygienic conditions, evictions and homelessness? What social groups have been most affected?

With a few exceptions, there is a shortage of housing in all municipalities in Stockholm metropolitan area (Boverket 2010). Stockholm is one of the few municipalities in Sweden that run a housing queue. In 2010, there were 330,000 people registered in the queue, which has grown markedly from around 94,000 in 2003. The Housing Agency, which provides these statistics, estimates that there are around 20 percent, that is, around 65,000 people, who are "active customers", and this number has been fairly stable during the 2000s. The Housing Agency estimates that around 84 per cent of the people registered in the queue already possess stable housing and/or are queuing for possible future needs (bostad.stockholm.se/sv/Om-bostadskon/Statistik/Kostatistik).

As to the situation regarding evictions, these grew in number during the 1990s but the figures during the 2000s have been fairly stable.

Table 22 - Applied and enforced evictions in 2000, 2005 and 2010, city of Stockholm

	2008		2009		2010		
	Applied	Enforced	Applied	Enforced	Applied	Enforced	
	evictions	evictions	evictions	evictions	evictions	evictions	
Stockholm	545	216	567	243	675	326	

Source: Kronofogden, Win-IT 2010-01-03 (Johan Krantz).

There is limited knowledge on factors such as illegal second- and third-hand rentals and lodging with relatives and friends.

There are around 3,000 individuals are defined as homeless in Stockholm and around 400 of these are living in emergency accommodation/hostel or rough sleepers. Homelessness in Stockholm has remained at approximately the same level during the 2000s, with a slight decrease (Stockholms Stad 2010). The surveys on homelessness conducted by the city council include people who have applied for help from the LSAs.

Table 23. Number and rate of homeless persons in different forms of accommodation in 2010.

Year	2010		
	Number	%	
Training flat	519	17	
Supported housing, hotel home	1120	37	
Treatment unit	230	8	
Custody, prison, hospital or other institution	124	4	
Temporary staying without contract with relatives, friends/			
acquaintances or subletting on short term contract (max. 3 months)	348	12	
Camping, hotel/hostel	134	5	
Emergency accommodation/ shelter	308	10	
Sleeping rough	78	3	
Unknown	121	4	
Total	2982	100	

Source: Stockholms stad 2010, suppl. 1.



Social authorities in Stockholm work according to a model of a "staircase of transition" with various kinds of shelter and monitored or supported housing, training flats and others. The idea of the staircase is that homeless people are supposed to advance stepwise from the streets to a dwelling of their own via low-standard shelters, other emergency or short time shelters, so called category housing and dwellings with social contracts like "training flats" and "transitional contracts" which can be transferred into a first hand contract after one year. While moving upwards, the conditions improve in terms of physical standard and space, integrity, freedom and security of tenure. While living within the "staircase", the clients/tenants are expected to solve alleged problems (e.g. paying off old debts, stopping the abuse of substances, starting to work), and to get "training in independent living" while being monitored by social workers (Sahlin 2003: 4, 1998).

owned homes the regular TOS-flats housing market regular rental contracts transitional contracts the secondary training flats housing market category housing shelters open day and night welfare hotels the shelter market night shelters institutions hospitals jails friends/relatives (temporary) sleeping rough

Figure 1 - The staircase of transition

Source: Sahlin 2003, p. 4

In Stockholm, there were 2,151 places in the "staircase" (excl. transitional contracts and training apartments) in 2007 (Fall et al. 2007). The number increased somewhat in 2008 to 2,214 places (Stockholms Stad 2008). Around 300 of the dwellings that are mediated by the Stockholm Housing Agency are converted into transitional and training apartments. Around half of these are within one year "taken over" by the tenant, i.e. converted back into a first hand contract. The majority of the emergency and supported housing and institutions are supplied by the public sector, but also, to a lesser degree, by private actors and civil society organisations. A special niche for third sector organisations is e.g. the provision of emergency shelters. There are 54 beds in two shelters run by the Salvation Army (24 beds) and the Stockholm City Mission (30 beds) respectively. A rather large actor in Stockholm is the Stockholm Hotel Home Foundation (Stiftelsen Hotellhem i Stockholm). The Hotel Home Foundation has the commission from the city of Stockholm to provide social housing. They administer around 2 300 apartments. The majority of these are temporary housing for young adults, persons with social and/or economic problems and families in urgent need of temporary housing. The foundation also offers more permanent supported housing to persons with special needs. (www.shis.se/omshis/)



In some parts of Stockholm, a new model is being tried out, inspired by the American model of "Housing first". This model involves homeless people being offered permanent housing and, in parallel to this, receiving adequate social support.

In 1999, Stockholm City introduced a so-called "Roof-over-head warranty", which means that homeless people over 20 years of age, originating from Stockholm and in need of an emergency shelter, are assured of a bed for the night. There is a "homeless clinic" that allocates places after business hours. The only thing that can prevent a person from getting a bed for the night is if that person is violent or threatening.

What has changed in the most critical urban areas with a high concentration of problematic social groups? For example, this can include worsening or improvement of existing problems, emergence of new problems, and so on.

See the description above in section 3.1.

4.2. Public regulation

What is the division of responsibilities among national, regional and municipal levels in terms of the regulation of the housing market and in the provision of services and benefits to people who have difficulty accessing housing (including social housing)? What is the role played by third-sector and for-profit organisations in this policy field? Please make reference to your country's WP2 when relevant.

As described in the WP2 national report for Sweden (Nordfeldt & Segnestam Larsson 2011), households that are unable to arrange housing on their own are entitled to support. This is regulated by the Social Services Act and the responsibility lies with the LSA's. Different types of supported housing supplied by LSAs have been labelled by researchers as the "secondary housing market", which consists of various kinds of apartments and rooms that are sub-leased on special terms - *special contracts* - without tenure security (Sahlin 2006).

The non-profit sector has a strong and long tradition, which existed prior to the development of the welfare state, of helping homeless people. Within this field, non-profit organisations, often Christian organisations, have continued to play an important, and since the 1990s a growing, role within the niche of shelters and emergency services for homeless people, parallel to the publicly organised welfare system. In Stockholm, the City Mission and Salvation Army are important actors within this field and supply emergency shelters, for example.

Have there been changes in the distribution of responsibilities between levels of government over the last 10 years? Have you observed changes in the welfare mix and governance patterns in these policy areas? Please specify the proportions of provisions carried out by public/private/third-sector actors, and of mixed situations.

There have been no significant changes of responsibilities in this field during the last 10 years.



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THE WILCO PROJECT

Full title: Welfare innovations at the local level in favour of cohesion

Acronym: WILCO

Duration: 36 months (2010-2013)

Project's website: http://www.wilcoproject.eu

Project's objective and mission:

WILCO aims to examine, through cross-national comparative research, how local welfare systems affect social inequalities and how they favour social cohesion, with a special focus on the missing link between innovations at the local level and their successful transfer to and implementation in other settings. The results will be directly connected to the needs of practitioners, through strong interaction with stakeholders and urban policy recommendations. In doing so, we will connect issues of immediate practical relevance with state-of-the-art academic research on how approaches and instruments in local welfare function in practice.

Brief description:

The effort to strengthen social cohesion and lower social inequalities is among Europe's main policy challenges. Local welfare systems are at the forefront of the struggle to address this challenge - and they are far from winning. While the statistics show some positive signs, the overall picture still shows sharp and sometimes rising inequalities, a loss of social cohesion and failing policies of integration.

But, contrary to what is sometimes thought, a lack of bottom-up innovation is not the issue in itself. European cities are teeming with new ideas, initiated by citizens, professionals and policymakers. The problem is, rather, that innovations taking place in the city are not effectively disseminated because they are not sufficiently understood. Many innovations are not picked up, because their relevance is not recognised; others fail after they have been reproduced elsewhere, because they were not suitable to the different conditions, in another city, in another country.

In the framework of WILCO, innovation in cities is explored, not as a disconnected phenomenon, but as an element in a tradition of welfare that is part of particular socio-economic models and the result of specific national and local cultures. Contextualising innovations in local welfare will allow a more effective understanding of how they could work in other cities, for the benefit of other citizens.

