

Research Note

Social inclusion of migrants and their 2nd generation descendants

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ABSTRACT

The concern of this research note is, first, to consider alternative ways of identifying the migrant population in the EU and the numbers concerned. Secondly, it is to examine the characteristics and situation of those identified in terms of their household circumstances, education levels, employment status and income levels and to compare these with those of the non-migrant majority population in order to assess how far they are disadvantaged as a group. The focus throughout is on people of working age who are key to the income and standards of living of migrants families.

The definition of migrants adopted is based on country of birth (grouped into EU or non-EU countries) and has, in addition, a household dimension, in the sense that migrants are defined as those who live in households where all adult members were born outside the country of residence. This definition is considered to be preferable to the alternative, citizenship-based definition.

Migrants tend to face a higher risk of poverty (defined as having income below 60% of the median) than people born locally. Risk of poverty rates of both EU and non-EU-born migrants are higher than for those born locally in most of the Member States, though the difference is especially large for those born outside the EU.

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I. Measuring migration in the EU: definitions, problems and limitations

Foreign-born population versus foreign population

According to the 1998 UN recommendations on the statistics of international migration an international migrant is defined as “any person who changes his or her country of usual residence”.¹ Given that it is difficult to identify such people directly, the two criteria most commonly used to identify the migrant population in countries are the place of birth and nationality. The foreign-born population are those people whose country of birth is different from their current country of residence while the foreign population are those who do not have the nationality of the country in which they live². Difficulties of comparability can arise from the varying national definitions of migrants. Some countries apply the country of birth criterion to define the migrant population while for others nationality is the determining factor. Both OECD and Eurostat collect data on both bases.

Problems in comparing migration data based on nationality (citizenship) stem from the different rules and requirements which govern the acquisition of citizenship in different countries.³ In some countries, children automatically receive the citizenship of their country of birth (*jus solis*) while in other countries they retain the nationality of their parents (*jus sanguinis*). In yet other countries, children obtain the citizenship of the country in which they live when they reach the age of majority. Whatever the regulation, as soon as migrants acquire citizenship, they are no longer recorded as foreign nationals. In addition, to add a further complication, in some countries people can acquire their new citizenship without losing their old one.

Unlike nationality or citizenship, a person’s country of birth does not change. Nevertheless, in some countries, such as France or Portugal with ex colonies, the foreign-born population includes a significant number of people who were born abroad.⁴

The EU-SILC, which is the main source of data on income and living condition, contains statistics on both country of birth and citizenship. Country-specific information is collected in the national surveys, which is then aggregated into three values in the harmonised dataset (which unfortunately implies a loss of information). In the case of country of birth the three values are: (1) born in the same country as the country of residence, (2) born in another EU Member State and (3) born outside the EU. Similar categories are used for citizenship: (1) same citizenship as the country of residence, (2) EU citizenship and (3) citizenship of a non-EU country.

¹ UN (1998) Recommendations of Statistics on International Migration, Revision 1, Statistical Papers Series M, No 58, Rev 1, New York, p 17

² Dumont, J-C, & Lemaître, G. (2005) Counting Immigrants and Expatriates in OECD Countries: A New Perspective OECD, Paris

³ Nationality and citizenship are two different concepts but they relate to more or less the same notion. Nationality tends to be used in countries where citizenship at birth is based on that of the parents, while citizenship is more commonly used in countries where it is granted to persons born in the country.

⁴ Dumont, J-C, & Lemaître, G (2005) Counting Immigrants and Expatriates in OECD Countries: A New Perspective OECD, Paris

Long-term versus short-term migrants

People can stay in a particular country either for a long time, perhaps permanently, or for a short time, or temporarily. The UN defines long-term migrants as those who change their usual country of residence for a period of at least 12 months and short-term migrants as those who live in another country for a shorter period than this. Although Eurostat requests national authorities to supply data according to this definition, some countries are unable to do so and base their statistics on the stated intention of the people concerned to stay for less than a year or more than a year. In other countries, migration is defined in terms of the actual length of stay, or on an administrative procedure, such as registering as a resident. The different criteria used in countries make it difficult to harmonise national migration statistics. For instance, in some countries, people who are granted temporary permits are not counted in the official migration statistics whereas in others, they are, meaning that students studying abroad are counted as migrants.

The OECD uses the term “permanent” or “permanent-type” migration, which includes those granted the right of permanent residence on entry, those admitted with a permit of limited duration, which is renewable, and those with the right of free movement (such as EU citizens within the European Union)⁵. Unlike the usual national data from the population register, category-based, residence permit data enables international students and seasonal workers to be distinguished from more permanent migrants. Since, however, the EU-SILC does not include information on the duration of stay, it is not possible to distinguish between long- and short-term migrants.

Illegal immigrants and asylum seekers

Illegal immigrants or those who overstayed their visa do not figure in official statistics, almost by definition. Asylum seekers are potentially an important group from a social perspective because they tend to be especially disadvantaged and vulnerable to poverty. In their statistics, both OECD and Eurostat apply the UN definition of refugees. Eurostat collects data on the number of asylum applications by citizenship, but it notes that while most Member States record applications of individuals some record only cases. National totals may, therefore, include repeat applications. OECD does not include asylum seekers among permanent or long-term migrants unless they have been granted the right of long-term residence.

The data on migrants, of course, only partially covers ethnic minorities, so that groups who tend to be marginalised in society, such as the Roma, in particular, remain hidden⁶.

II. The relationship between the alternative definitions of migrants

Migrants are often exposed to labour market disadvantage, social exclusion and a higher risk of poverty. The concern here is to attempt to quantify such disadvantage from the data in the EU-SILC for 2006, which cover 24 countries (excluding Malta for which the microdata required to undertake the analysis are not available and Bulgaria and Romania for which the survey was implemented only in 2007). The focus, as noted above, is on the population aged

⁵ Lemaître, G. et al (2007) Standardised statistics on immigrant inflows results, sources and methods, OECD, Paris

⁶ Lucinda Platt (2007) Poverty and Ethnicity in the UK, The Policy Press, Bristol and Anikó Bernat (2007) How to improve the situation of Roma in Central and Eastern Europe (paper produced for the European Observatory on the Social Situation, 3/2007. Downloadable at: <http://www.socialsituation.eu/>

16-64. The definition of migrants adopted is based on country of birth (grouped into EU or non-EU countries) and has, in addition, a household dimension, in the sense that migrants are defined as those who live in households where all adult members were born outside the country of residence. This definition is considered to be preferable to the alternative, citizenship-based definition which is less comparable between countries since it is affected by the variety of rules and regulations governing the acquisition of citizenship across the EU.

Table 1 shows the overlap between these two definitions of migrants in respect of population of working age. As expected, in most countries, significantly fewer migrants are identified when citizenship is used as the basis for analysis than when country of birth is used. On average across the 24 countries covered, some 31% of migrants born in another EU country have acquired the citizenship of the country in which they live, while 36% of migrants from countries outside the EU have done so.

The difference in these proportions reflects perhaps the more transitory nature of migration of EU citizens as they move within a common labour market. This seems to be the case in Belgium, in particular, where only 17% of migrants born in another EU country have Belgian citizenship in contrast to 52% of migrants born outside the EU. The same is true in France, Luxemburg, the Netherlands and Sweden, though to a lesser extent. On the other hand, there is another group of countries where EU-born migrants seem to have acquired citizenship in greater numbers than those from third countries. This includes the Czech Republic, Italy and Finland.

In addition, there is a large difference between countries in the proportion of migrants whether from inside or outside the EU who have obtained citizenship. While, therefore, 90% of migrants born outside the EU have acquired citizenship in the Netherlands and Latvia, the figure is below 10% in Ireland and Cyprus, which might well reflect differences in the period of time migrants on average have lived in the respective countries.

III. Demographic and economic characteristics of the migrant population

Household structure

More migrants tend to live alone than the non-migrant population and there are more lone parents among them but also families with three or more children (Figure 1). While the majority of EU migrants tend not to have children, there seems no significant difference in this respect between migrants from outside the EU and the non-migrant – or 'locally-born' population, around half of both living in households with dependent children. This might reflect the fact that many EU-migrants are working abroad temporarily. The majority of them, therefore, either live alone or in a two-person household. One-person households are particularly prevalent among EU migrants in the Netherlands (87%), Poland (76%), Denmark (65%) and Italy (56%).

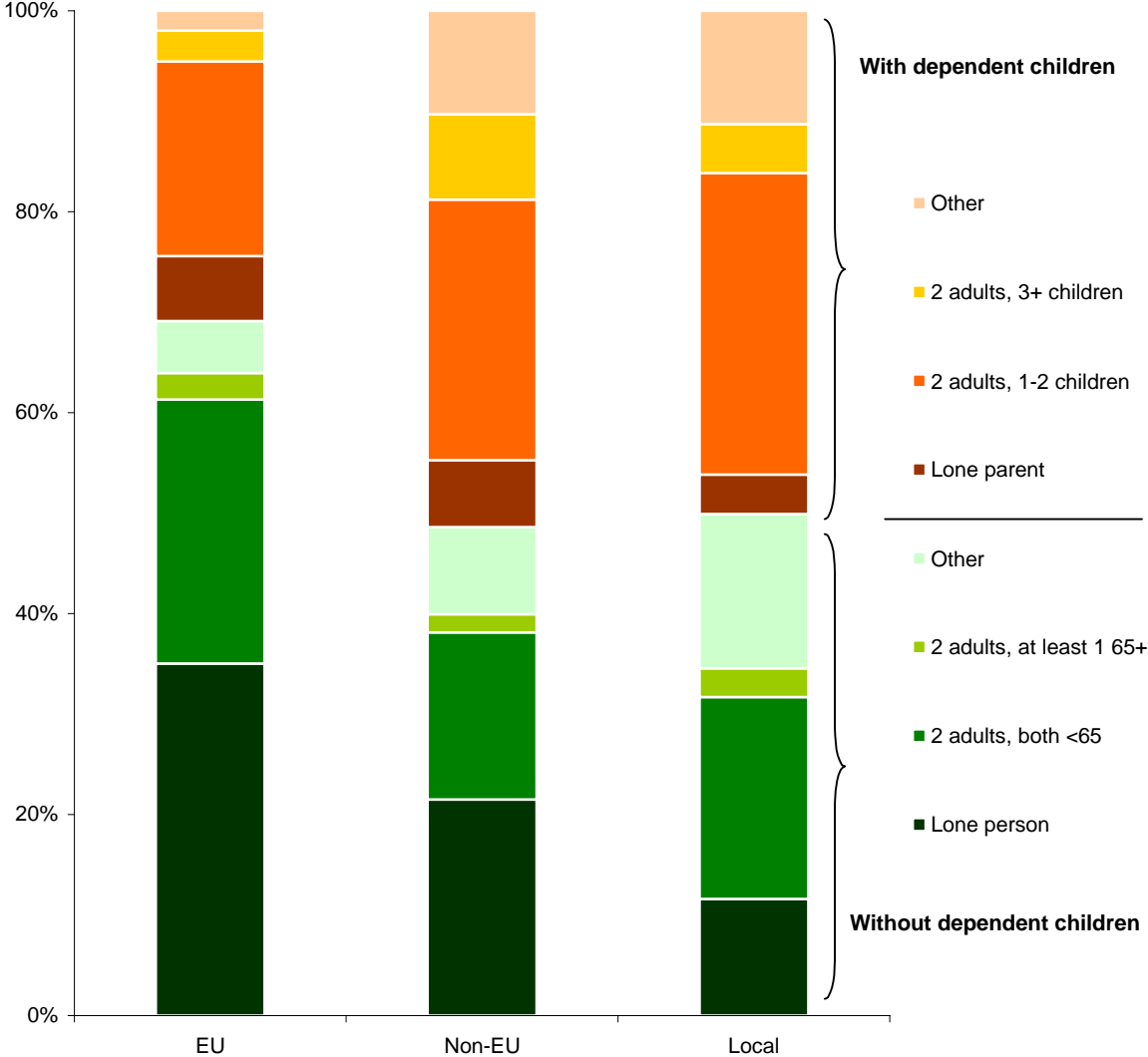
The most typical household formation among -EU-born working age migrants born outside the EU is a two-adult household with one or two children. The share of households with three or more children is higher than in the case of EU migrants or the locally-born population.

Table 1. Proportion of migrants who have acquired citizenship in their country of residence, by country of birth, 2006

	EU	Non-EU
BE	17	52
CZ	62	27
DK	34	45
DE	:	41
EE	:	37
IE	23	8
GR	55	20
ES	17	16
FR	22	41
IT	46	11
CY	3	6
LV	:	24
LT		91
LU	4	12
HU		66
NL	68	94
AT	49	41
PL		60
PT		1
SI	:	:
SK	73	
FI	53	25
SE	46	73
UK		42
Total	31	36

Estimates based on less than 20 sample observations have been omitted.
Source: EU-SILC 2006

Figure 1. Household structure of working-age population by country of birth



Education attainment

Migrants, including both those born in the EU or outside the EU, tend to have high levels of education than the locally-born population (Table 2). This difference is most marked in the case of higher education. While 21% of the locally-born population tends to have tertiary education, this proportion is 25% among non-EU-born migrants and 30% among EU-born migrants. The share of those with upper secondary education, moreover, is at least as high on average across the 24 countries among migrants groups as among the locally-born population.

This is consistent with much migration being of high-skilled labour. The higher education levels of migrants, however, are not reflected in their access to employment or the jobs they do.

Table 2. Highest education level attained of people aged 15-64 by country of birth

	Country of birth											
	EU				Non-EU				Local			
	Age											
	15-24	25-39	40-64	65-80	15-24	25-39	40-64	65-80	15-24	25-39	40-64	65-80
BE	7	24	49	19	17	40	36	6	12	24	41	22
CZ	7	24	36	34	11	39	32	17	14	29	41	16
DK	17	21	34	28	15	43	39	3	12	25	43	20
DE	:	:	:	:	8	22	32	38	14	23	43	20
EE	:	:	:	:	2	7	40	51	18	28	37	18
IE	20	46	24	10	21	59	17	3	22	21	41	16
GR	24	33	29	14	23	32	37	7	12	27	38	23
ES	3	33	42	22	14	50	32	4	13	29	38	20
FR	1	12	43	44	8	33	37	22	14	25	40	21
IT	3	45	34	19	14	51	30	5	11	25	40	24
CY	7	22	51	20	20	44	33	3	18	26	39	16
LV	:	:	:	:	1	7	41	51	17	29	37	18
LT					6	14	38	41	17	26	38	19
LU	10	36	43	11	9	51	32	9	11	23	42	24
HU	5		23	72	10	33	33	24	15	27	41	18
NL	4	31	49	16	18	39	33	11	13	26	44	18
AT	8	23	39	30	19	34	41	6	13	24	42	21
PL		3	30	68	2	6	15	76	18	27	39	16
PT	20	52	16	12	23	57	18	2	13	27	39	22
SI	:	:	:	:	6	17	51	26	14	27	40	19
SK	17	4	49	30					19	25	41	15
FI	17	53	30		16	35	34	15	14	22	44	20
SE	2	14	53	31	19	37	37	8	15	24	40	21
UK	5	2	29	64	12	41	33	14	13	24	41	21
Total	5	20	41	34	11	35	33	21	14	25	41	20

Source: EU-SILC 2006

Italics: low number of observations (20-49)

Estimates based on less than 20 sample observations have been omitted.

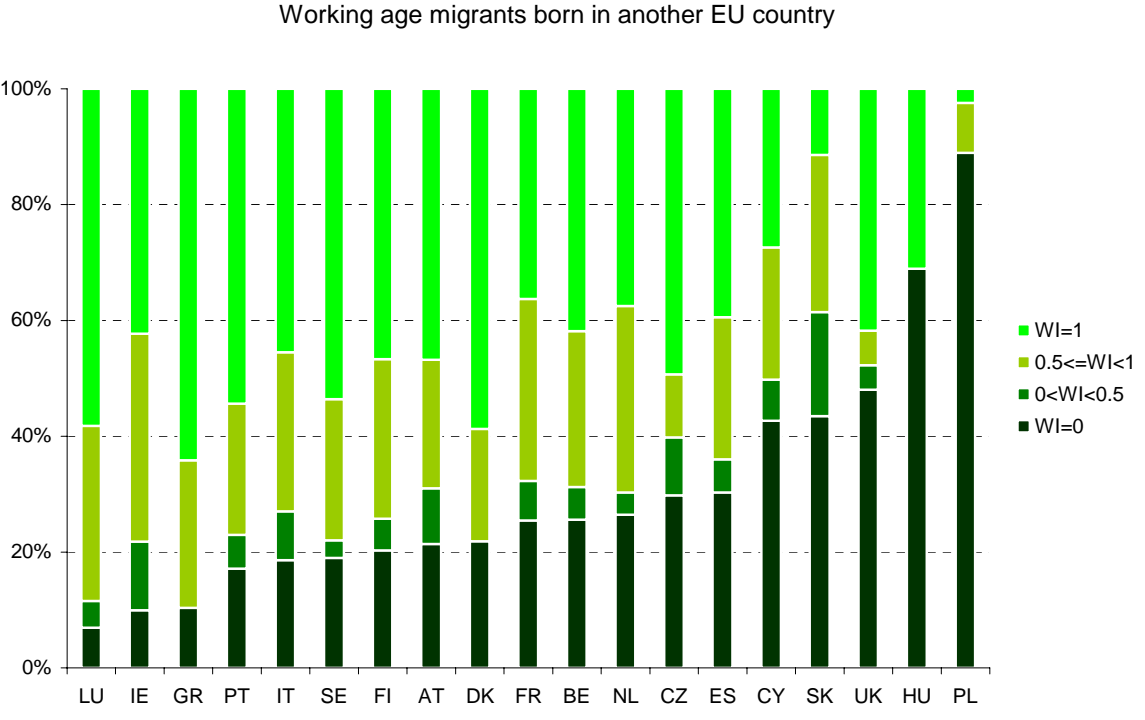
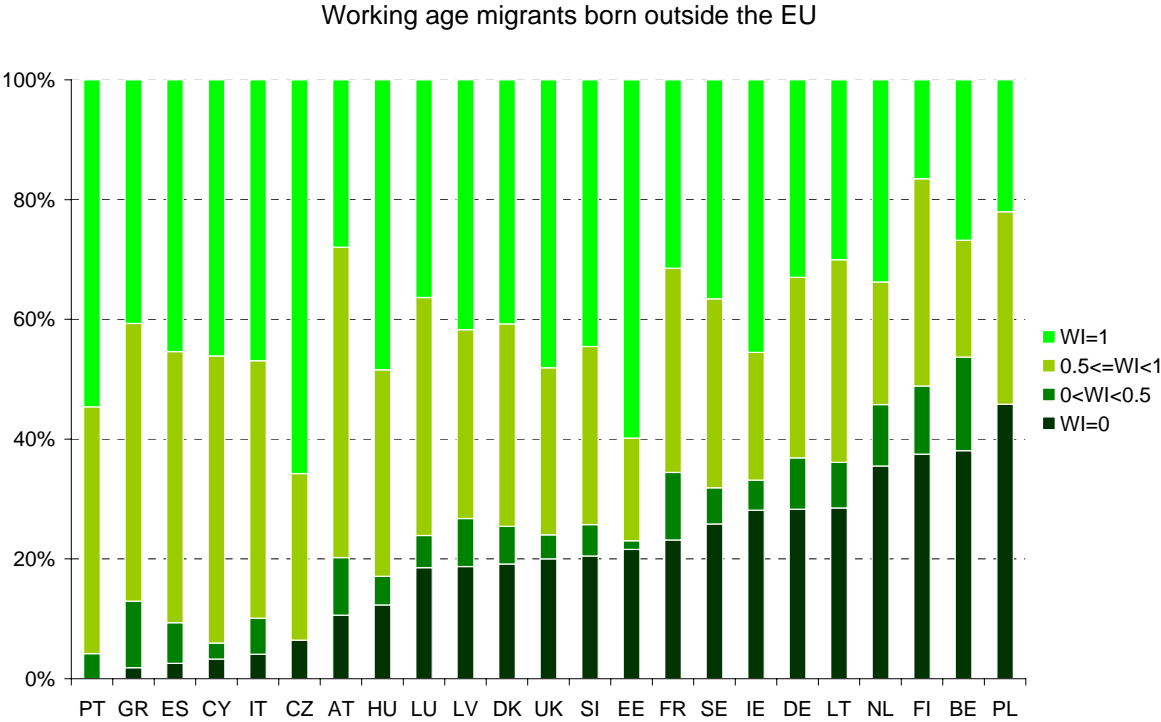
Work intensity

The higher educational level of migrants is not translated, therefore, into greater involvement on the labour market. The work intensity of the households in which migrants live tends to be lower on average than for the locally-born population. In particular, more of them live in workless households and fewer of them live in households where everyone of working age is employed (Figure 2).

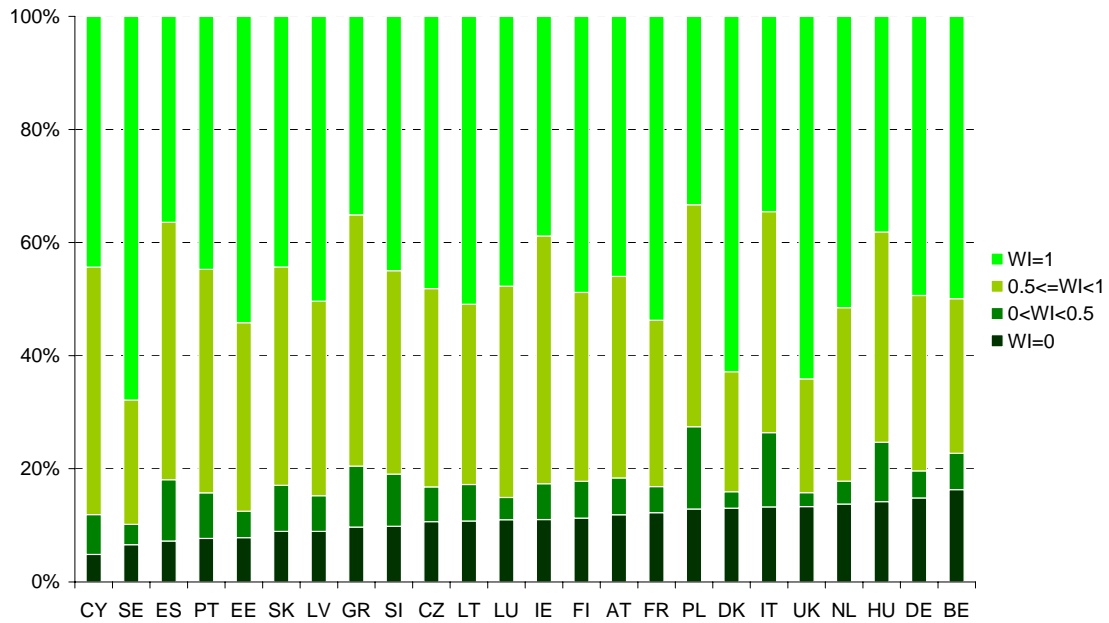
The proportion of migrants living in workless households is particularly large, perhaps unexpectedly, among those born in another EU country, undermining to some extent the view that the main motivation for EU citizens to move to another Member State is employment related. The share of EU migrants living in jobless households is especially large in Poland (89%) and Hungary (69%), though in both cases, the numbers involved are very small.

On the other hand, there are fewer migrants born outside the EU than those born in the EU living in households where work intensity is 1 – i.e. where everyone of working age is in employment (or more precisely was in employment during the year preceding the survey). A large proportion of non-EU migrants (52% in the case of Austria) live in households with a work intensity of between 0.5 and 1, which partly reflects the greater prevalence among them of families with children and a greater tendency for women not work.

Figure 2. Distribution of migrants by work intensity of the household in which they live in



Working age local population

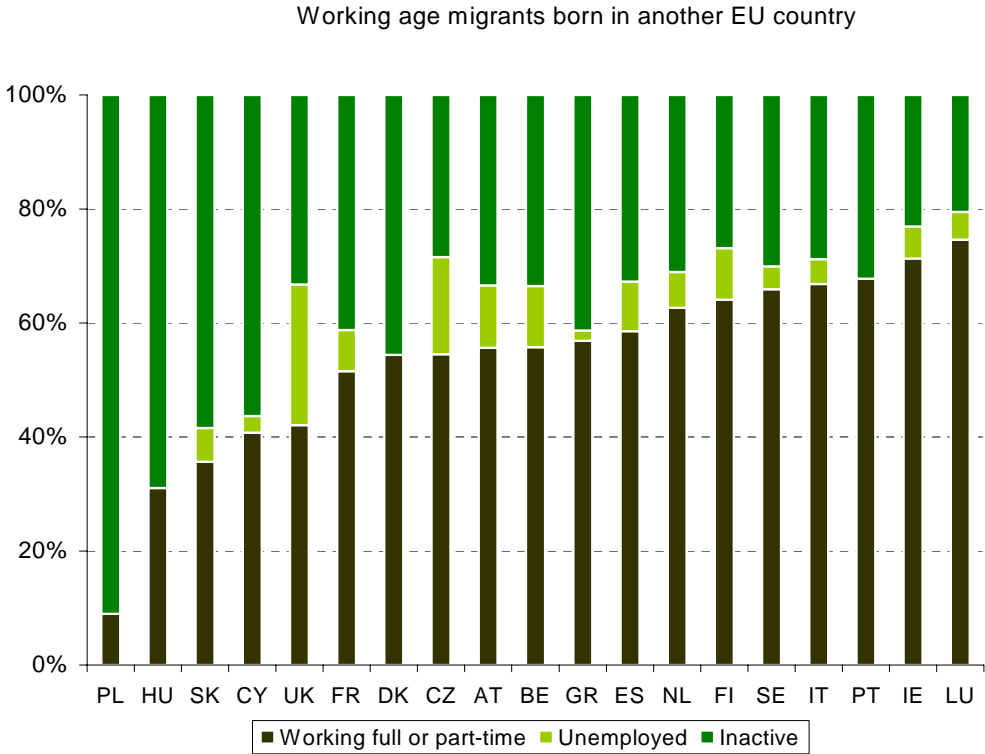
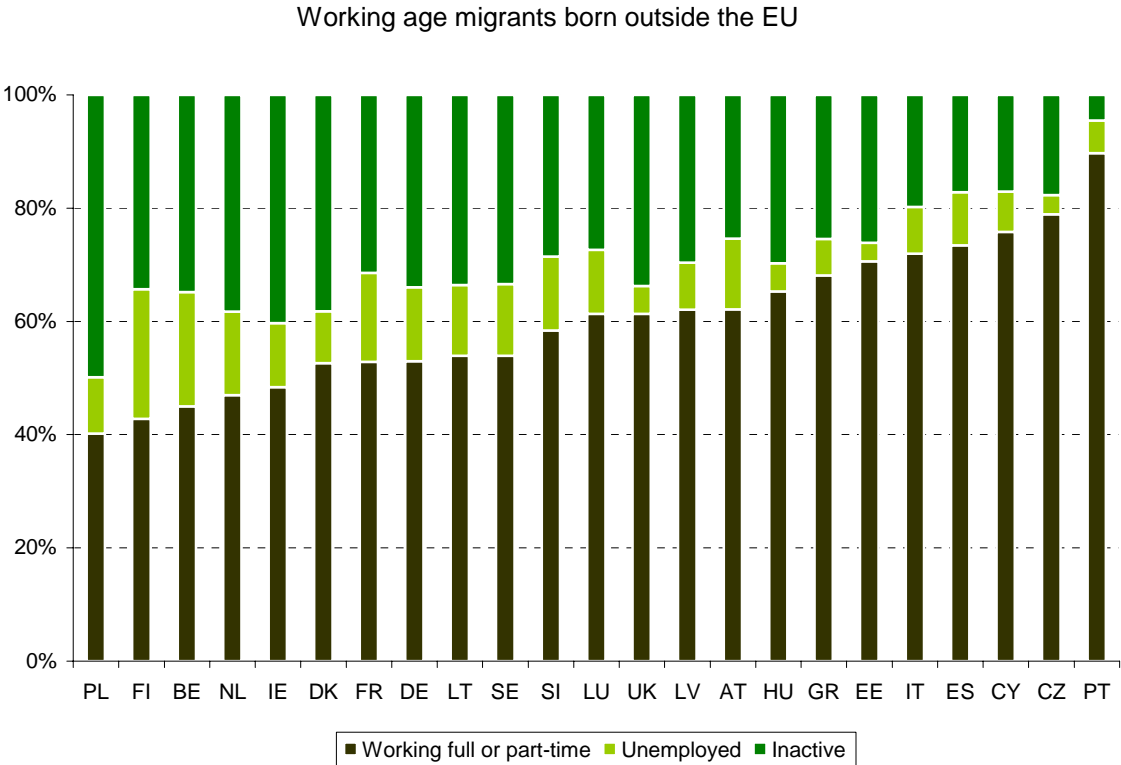


Economic status and occupation

Figure 3 presents the distribution of the working age population by economic status, i.e. those who are in employment, whether working full-time or part-time, and those who are either unemployed or economically inactive for whatever reason – because, for example, they are in full-time education or training, retired or looking after children.

While the majority of migrants of working age, both EU- and non-EU-born, are employed (57% and 60%, respectively), the proportion concerned is lower than that of the non-migrant population (65%) (see Table 3). This is due both to a relatively high rate of unemployment among non-EU migrants, in particular, and to high rate of inactivity. The unemployment rate of migrants born outside the EU is especially large in Finland (23%) and Belgium (20%).

Figure 3. Distribution of population by economic status



Working age local population

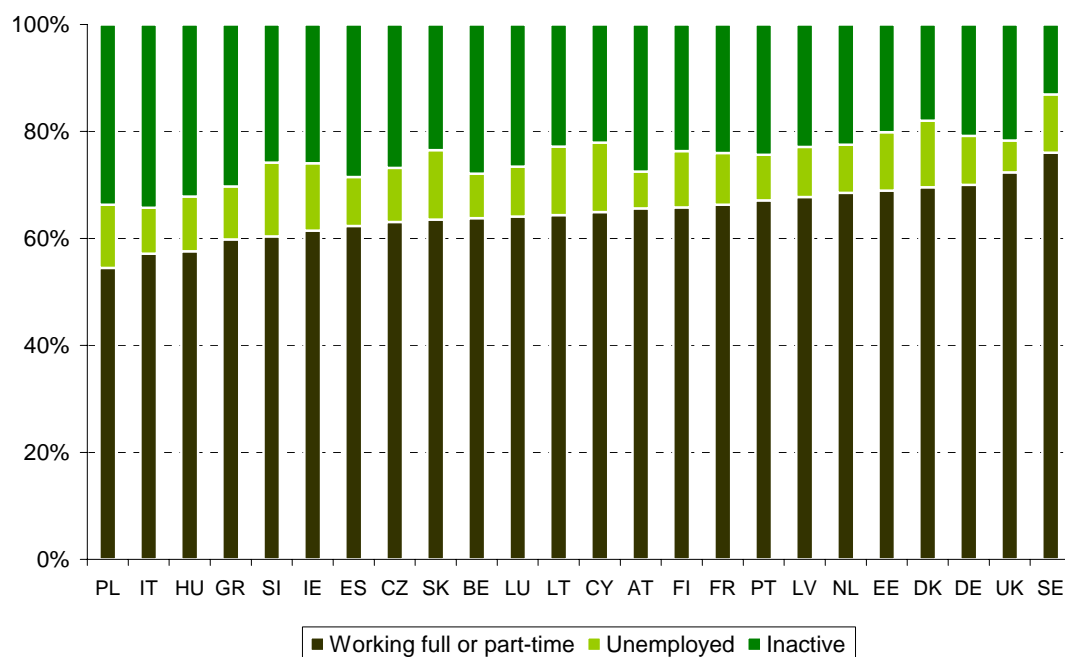


Table 3. Distribution of population aged 15-64 by economic status and country of birth

	Country of birth											
	EU				Non-EU				Local			
	Self-defined current economic status											
	Working full or part-time	Unemployed	Pupil, student	Inactive	Working full or part-time	Unemployed	Pupil, student	Inactive	Working full or part-time	Unemployed	Pupil, student	Inactive
BE	56	11	5	28	45	20	9	26	64	7	8	21
CZ	55	17	3	26	79	3	4	14	63	9	10	18
DK	54		27	19	53	9	17	21	70	4	12	14
DE				0	53	13	8	26	70	7	9	14
EE				0	71	3	1	25	69	5	11	15
IE	71	6	6	17	48	11	20	21	61	4	13	22
GR	57	2	33	8	68	6	10	15	60	7	10	23
ES	59	9	1	32	73	9	5	12	62	8	9	20
FR	52	7	2	39	53	16	7	24	66	6	10	18
IT	67	4	1	28	72	8	4	15	57	7	9	27
CY	41	3	3	53	76	7	6	11	65	3	13	19
LV				0	62	8	1	29	68	7	9	16
LT		100		0	54	13	5	28	64	7	13	16
LU	75	5	5	16	61	11	7	21	64	2	9	25
HU	31			69	65	5	7	23	58	7	10	25
NL	63	6	4	27	47	15	16	23	69	2	9	20
AT	56	11	7	26	62	12	5	21	66	5	7	23
PL	9			91	40	10		50	54	12	12	22
PT	68		12	20	90	6	3	2	67	8	9	17
SI				0	58	13	5	24	60	9	14	17
SK	36	6	9	49	100			0	64	8	13	15
FI	64	9	9	18	43	23	19	15	66	7	11	17
SE	66	4	6	24	54	13	16	17	76	3	11	10
UK	42	25	5	28	61	5	10	23	72	3	6	19
Total	57	8	5	30	60	11	8	21	65	7	9	19

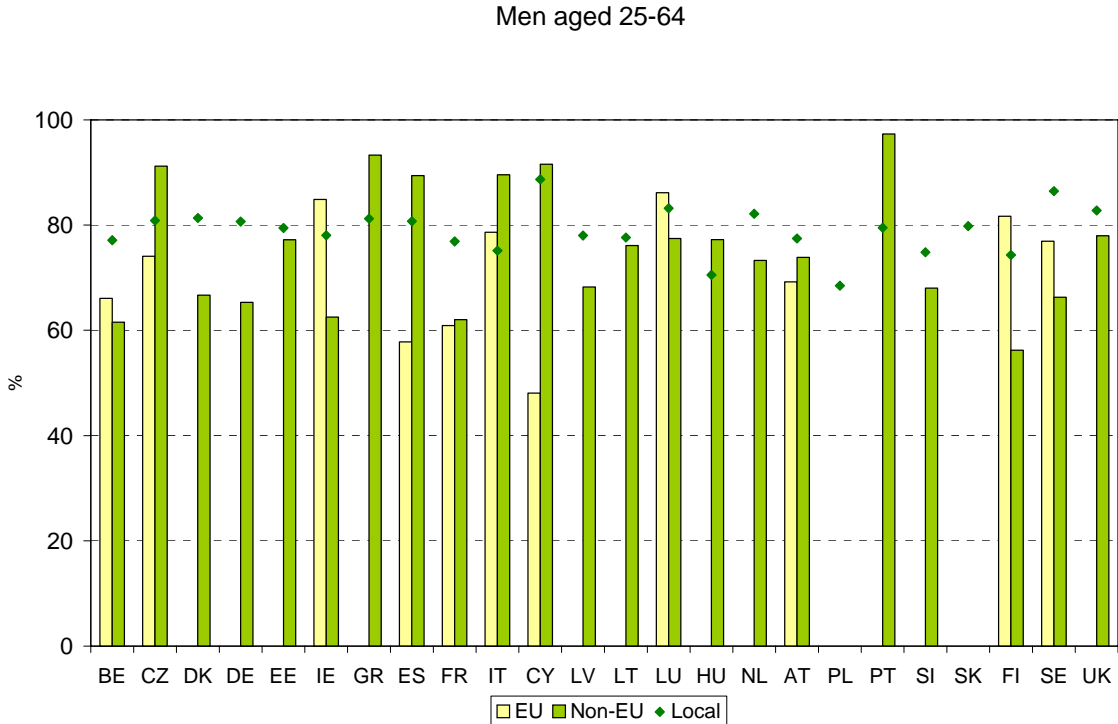
Working age migrants tend to have lower employment rates compared to the locally-born population in the majority of Member States (Figure 4), the difference being particularly large for men in Portugal, Spain and the UK.

Despite the higher levels of education of migrant than the locally-born population described above, migrants are less likely to work as managers and are more likely to do low-skilled

manual jobs (Figure 5). The difference is particularly striking for migrants born outside the EU as compared with the locally-born population. While on average 24% of non-EU migrants are engaged in low-skilled manual jobs, the proportion is only 14% among the locally-born population. In a number of countries – specifically, Belgium, Greece, Cyprus, Spain and Italy – the share of non-EU migrants in such jobs is as large as 30% or more. The number of EU migrants working in manual jobs is particularly high in the Czech Republic, France and Italy.

In most countries, a smaller proportion of migrants born outside the EU are employed in managerial, professional or technical positions than the local population, in a number of cases significantly so, such as Finland and Sweden, in particular.

Figure 4. Employment rate among groups of the migrant population by gender



Women aged 25-64

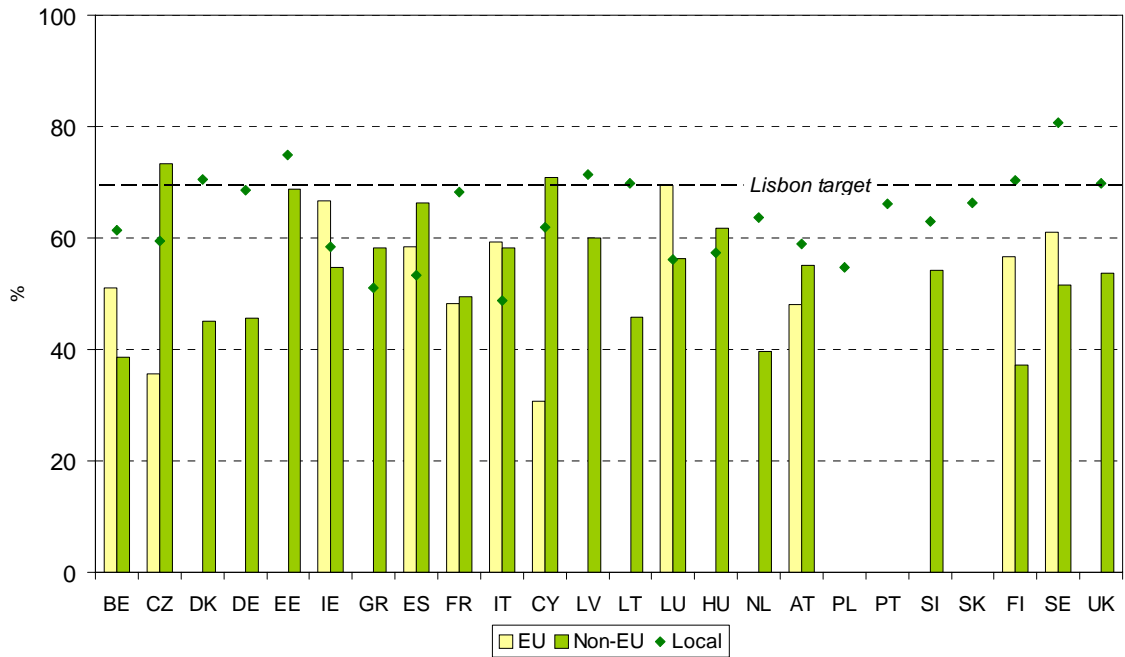
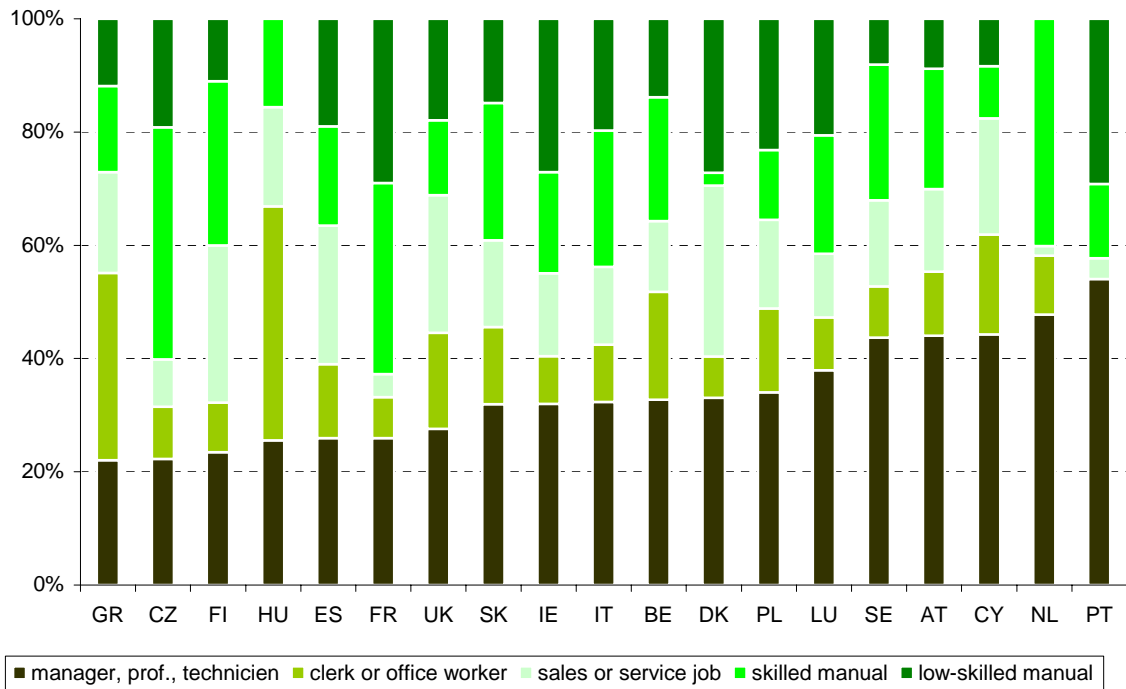
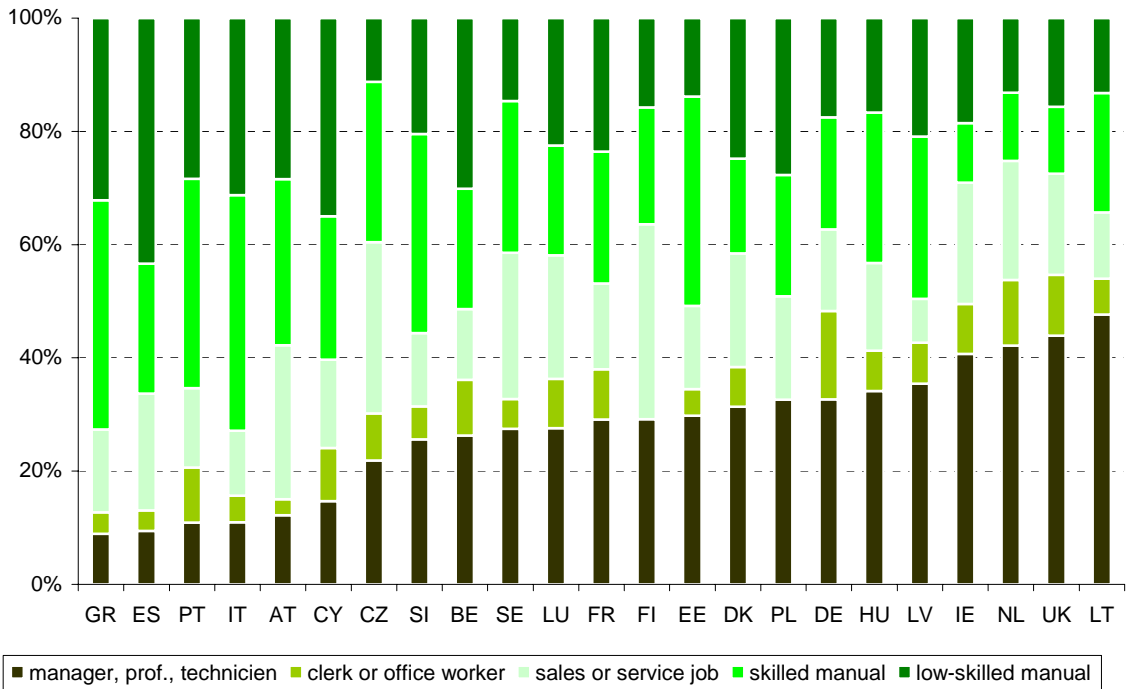


Figure 5. Distribution of migrant groups by occupation

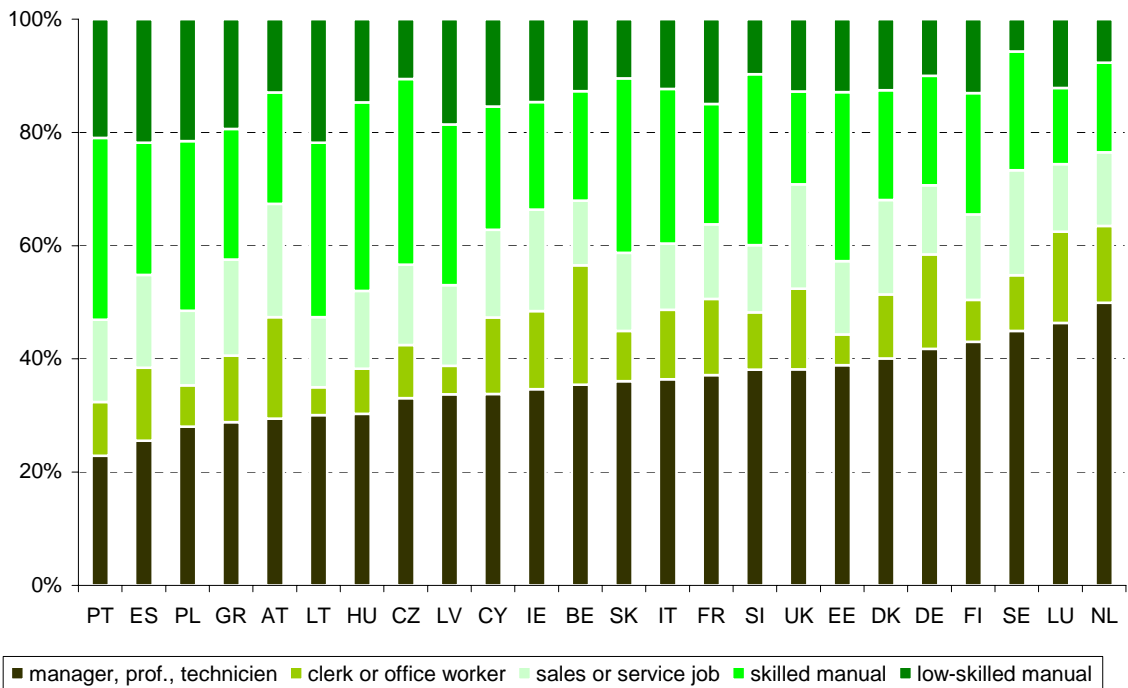
Working age migrants born in another EU country



Working age migrants born outside the EU



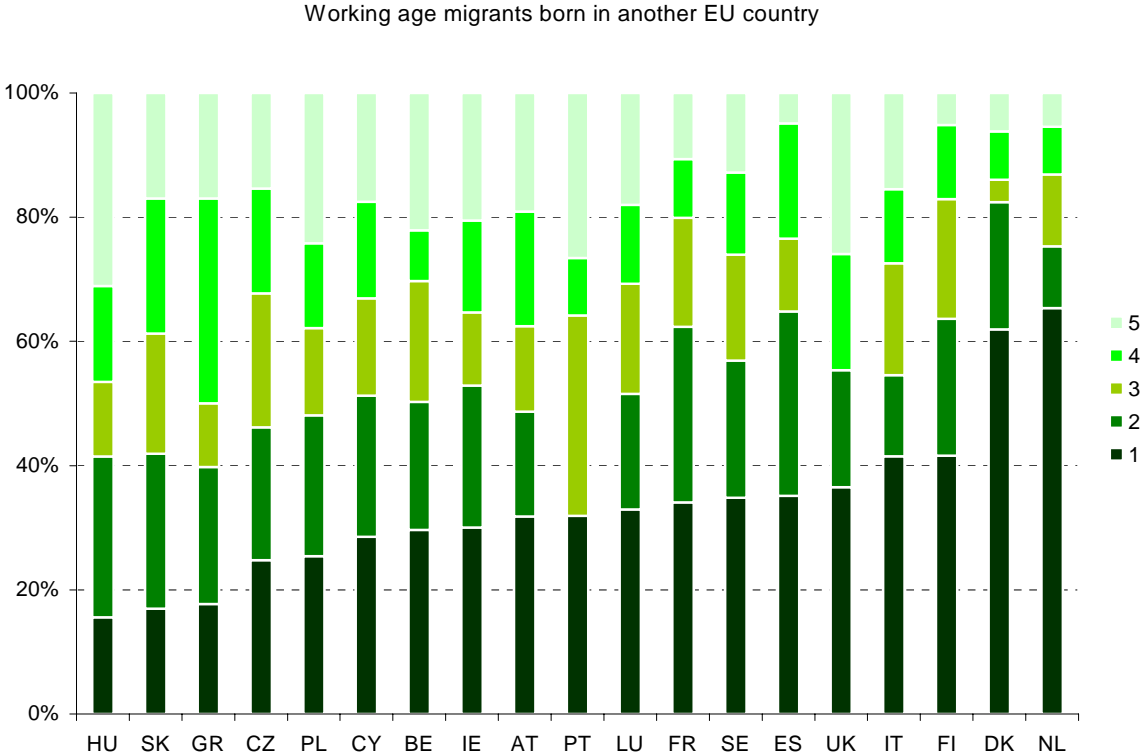
Working age local population



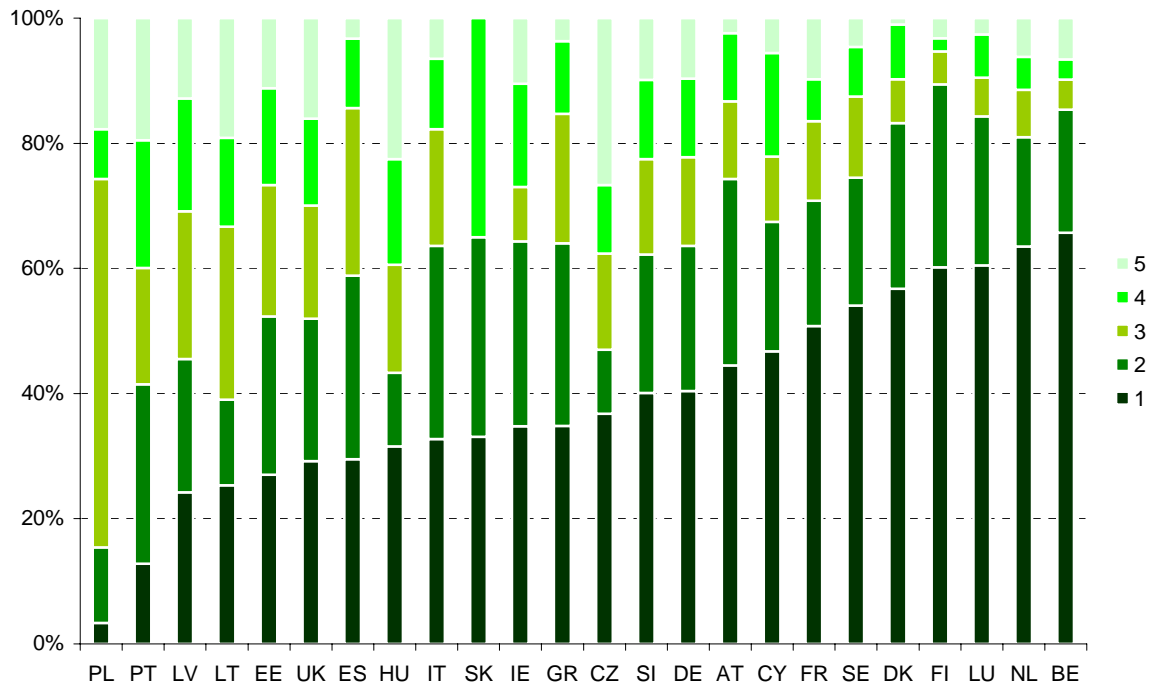
IV. Income levels

A comparison of income levels of the three groups of people (EU, non-EU, locally-born) – measured in terms of net terms and equivalised to take account of differences in the size and composition of households – indicates that those born outside the EU tend to be disproportionately in the lower quintiles of the distribution (Figure 6). More than half of working age migrants born outside the EU are, therefore, in the bottom two income quintiles in 18 out of the 24 countries in 2005.

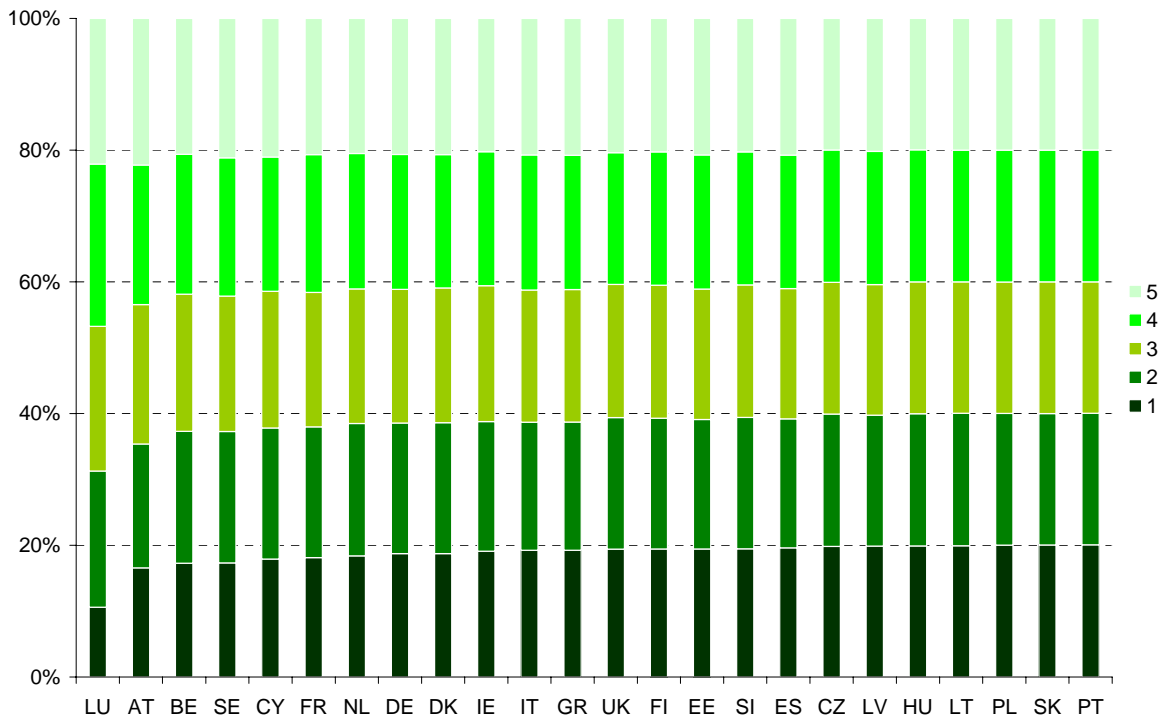
Figure 6. Distribution of migrant groups by income quintiles



Working age migrants born outside the EU



Local working age population



Risk of poverty of migrants

Migrants tend to face a higher risk of poverty, defined in the conventional way as having income below 60% of the median, than people born locally. Risk of poverty rates of both EU and non-EU-born migrants are higher than for those born locally in most of the Member States (Figure 7 and Table 6), though the difference is especially large for those born outside the EU. In particular, the rate of non-EU migrants is 3-4 times higher than that of the locally-born population in the Netherlands and Luxemburg and 2-3 times higher in Belgium, Norway, Sweden and Finland.

In Luxemburg, over 50% of those who were born outside the EU have an income below the poverty threshold, while in Belgium, the figure is over 45%, in Finland, only slightly below and in the Netherlands, over 40%, while in Sweden, Greece and Cyprus, the proportion is over 30% and in Germany, Italy, Latvia and Spain, the figure is only just under 30% (Figure 8).

Figure 7. Risk of poverty of working-age population by country of birth

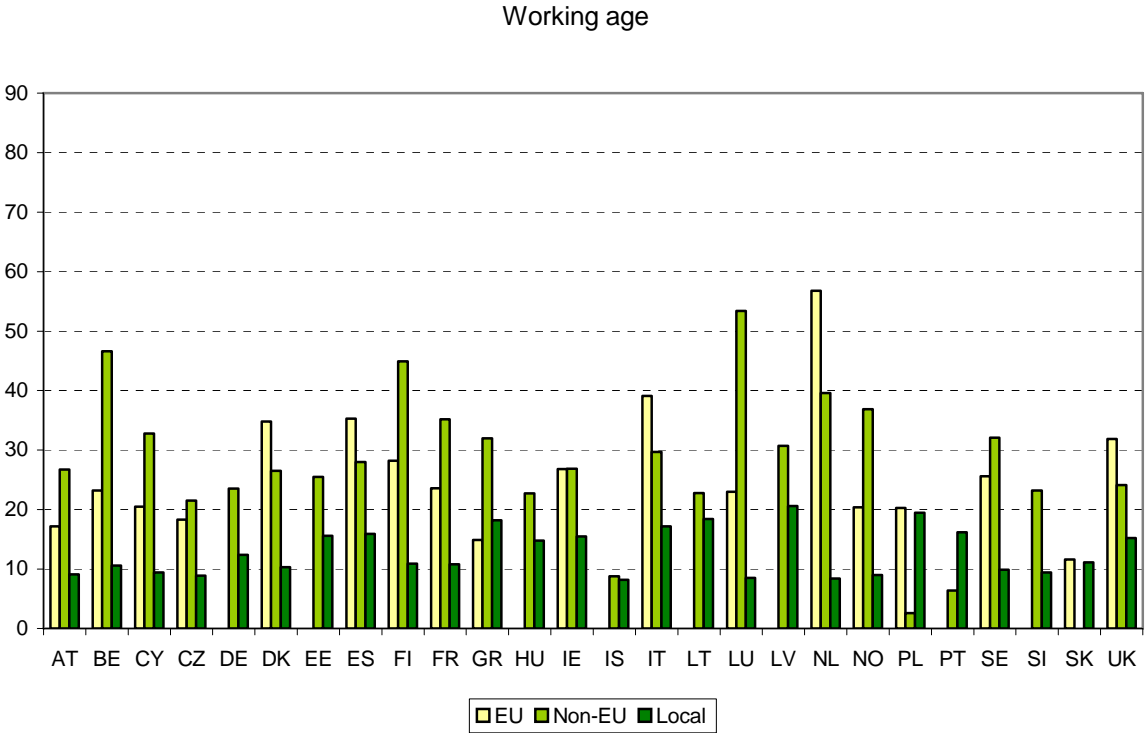


Table 6. At-risk-of-poverty rates among various groups of migrants (defined by country of birth) and the total population, 2005

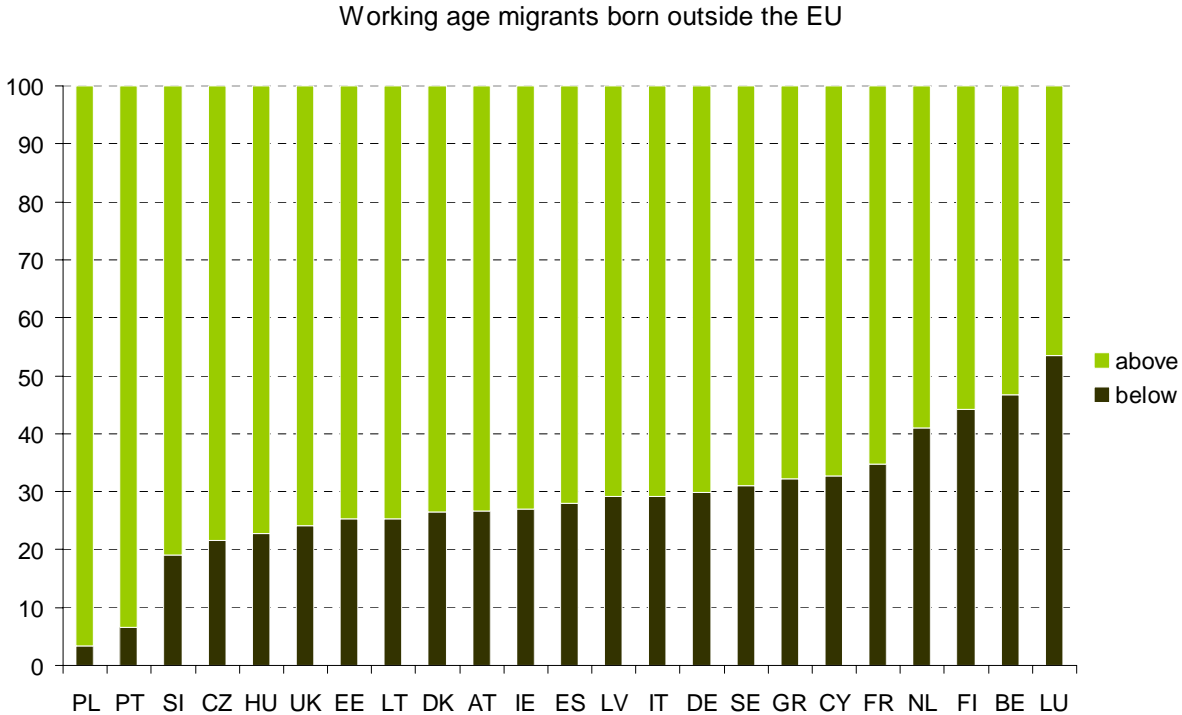
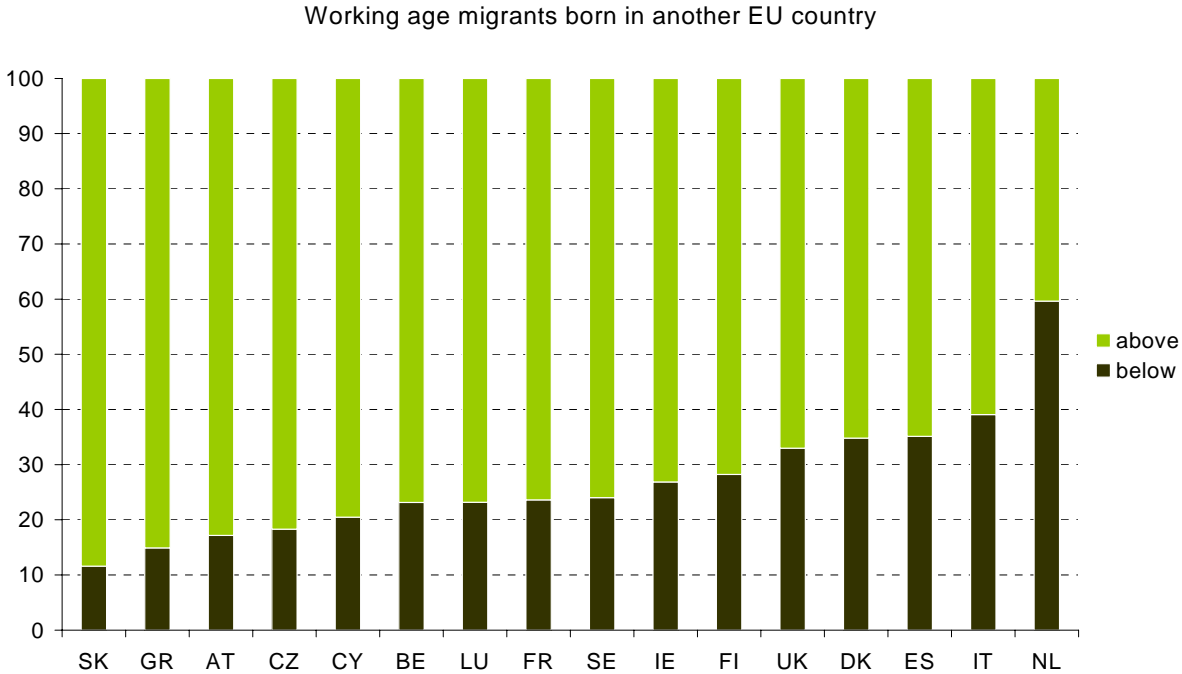
	<i>Migrants by country of birth</i>			Total population	N (total)
	EU	Non-EU	Local		
AT	18.8	27.2	10.7	12.6	14,883
BE	25.2	47.3	12.8	14.6	14,292
CY	21.4	32.7	14.8	15.8	11,069
CZ	16.8	22.2	9.7	9.8	17,830
DE		20.7	12.3	12.7	31,717
DK	28.2	27.7	11.1	11.8	14,549
EE		29.9	17.2	18.3	15,741
ES	39.4	35.8	19.3	19.9	34,183
FI	31.2	51.6	12	12.5	28,039
FR	25	35.9	11.5	12.9	24,726
GR	21.6	35.1	19.9	20.6	15,112
HU	14.9	20.2	15.9	15.9	19,902
IE	27.9	25.4	18	18.5	14,634
IS	46.2	6.6	9.5	9.7	8,563
IT	47.2	29.9	19.1	19.6	54,512
LT		22.1	20	20	12,134
LU	24.2	56.8	8.3	14	10,242
LV		35.2	22.4	23.2	10,892
NL	51.2	42.3	8.7	9.9	23,092
NO	20.5	39.2	10	11.1	15,178
PL	12.9	7.2	19.2	19.1	44,157
PT	42.9	8.7	18.5	18.5	12,042
SE	30	37.2	9.9	12.2	17,043
SI		22.2	11.3	11.7	31,276
SK	11.1		11.6	11.7	15,138
UK	28.9	30	18.5	19.3	22,542

Source: EU-SILC 2006

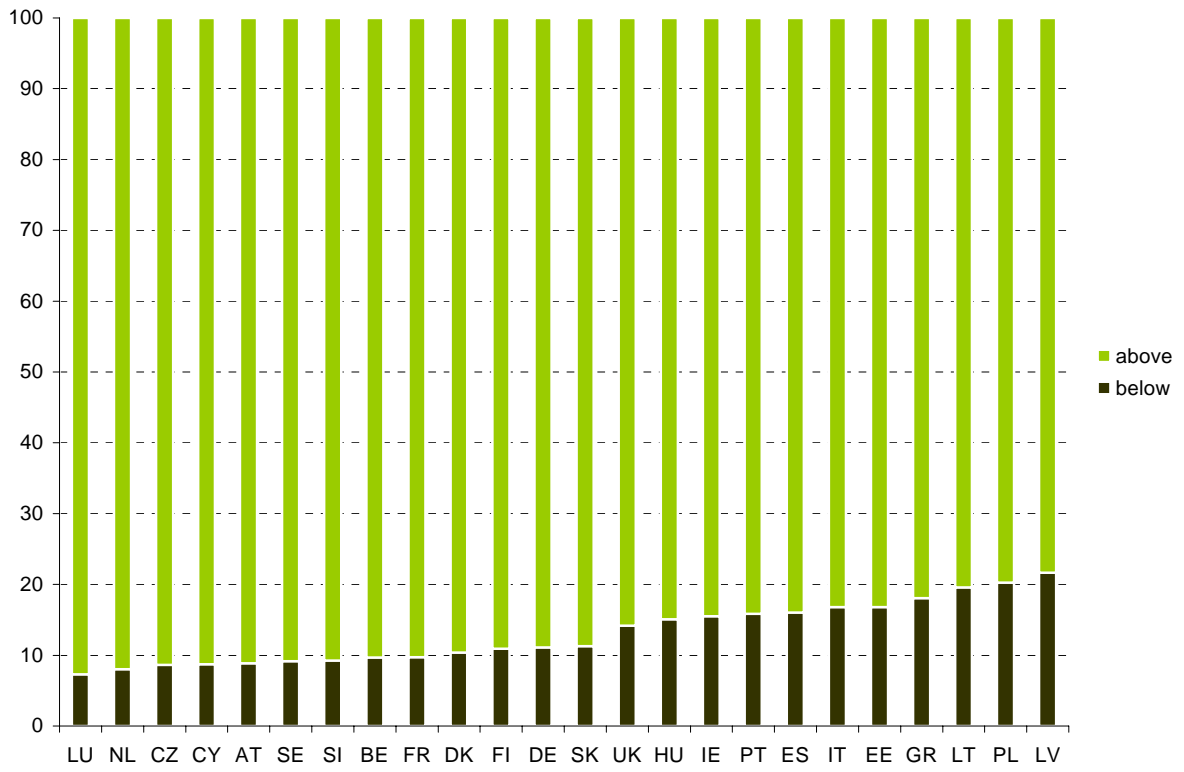
Italics: low number of observations (20-49)

Estimations based on less than 20 sample observations have been omitted.

Figure 8. Proportion of population living in a household with income below/above the poverty threshold



Working age local population



V. Conclusions

The findings earlier in the analysis help to explain the relatively high risk of poverty among migrants of working age. In particular:

- while migrants are more likely than those born locally to have tertiary-level education, this does not translate into higher employment;
- migrant women of working age tend to have significantly lower employment rates not only as compared with migrant men, but also with women born locally;
- despite their relatively higher levels of education, those migrants who are in work are less likely to be employed as managers, professional and technicians and are more likely to be employed in low-skilled manual jobs;
- migrants born outside the EU are more likely to have families with a relatively large number of children.