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There is evidence, much of it piecemeal, that migrants and ethnic minorities are especially vulnerable to the risk of poverty and social exclusion in the EU. Verifying this and estimating the scale of the risk in different parts of the Union, as well as the reasons for it, however, is not straightforward. The most obvious way of identifying migrants in order to assess their relative position as compared to the resident population in different EU Member States is in terms of the inflows of people arriving from outside a country to live and work there. The statistics available on such inflows, however, are, for most Member States, both partial and dated. In addition, they do not always distinguish between their own nationals returning after a spell abroad, and the nationals of other countries arriving in the country for the first time. Such statistics, moreover, are in themselves of limited use for the present purposes, since they give only an indication of the characteristics of migrants and their circumstances at the time they enter the Member State concerned, whereas the concern here is with the situation of migrants living in the country, including those who have been there for some time. In other words, the focus is on the ‘stock’ of migrants in various parts of the EU, rather than on ‘flows’.² There are no statistics, however, which allow migrants to be tracked after they have taken up residence in the country and begun their new lives.

There are similar problems in identifying ethnic minorities, who are not necessarily people that have moved into a particular Member State from outside the EU, but who, in many cases, are born in the EU to families that immigrated into the region many years before or several generations before, in a number of cases. A significant proportion of the ethnic minorities in most parts of the EU, therefore, are second-, third- or fourth-generation migrants, and some are even people whose ancestors migrated several centuries before, such as the Roma in a number of European countries — especially, but not exclusively, in some of the new Member States.

Just as there are no data as such on those with a migrant background, the same is true in most countries of those belonging to ethnic minorities. Indeed, in many European countries, questions on ethnicity may not legally be included in censuses or surveys — something that largely reflects the way that such data have historically

¹ With the assistance of Mayya Hristova and Fadila Sanoussi, Applica; Lucinda Platt was responsible for the section on ethnic minorities and child poverty in the UK.

² For analysis of recent migration flows in Europe, see Lemaître *et al.* (2007) and, on migration from the new Member States and from elsewhere in Central and Eastern Europe, Mansoor and Quillin (2006).

been used (or abused) in certain circumstances. This creates severe difficulties in assessing the relative position of both those with a migrant background and ethnic minorities (all of whom, in a broad sense, are part of this group — though not all of the group, of course, belong to an ethnic minority) so as to gain an understanding of the nature and scale of the problems they face. It also makes it difficult to monitor their position over time, in order to evaluate any policy measures that are taken to improve their lot.

The issues examined and the approach adopted

The concern here is, first, to consider alternative ways of obtaining some indication of the size of the migrant population in the EU and to identify the people in question. Second, it is to examine the characteristics and situation of those identified in terms of income, employment, the jobs they do, their household circumstances and so on, and to compare these with the position of the non-migrant, majority population, in order to assess the extent to which they are disadvantaged as a group and the proximate reasons for this.³

The focus here is on three age groups — people of working age (which is here defined as 25–64 and so excludes those younger than this, many of whom are in work, but many of whom may equally well be students or trainees who have not yet entered the labour market and may be living with their parents); children, or those under the age of 16 (who are divided into two groups: those whose parents have a migrant background and others); and those aged 65 and older (again distinguishing those with a migrant background from others). The situation of those with a migrant background within each of these three groups is examined in turn, in relation to the position of the rest of the population in the same group.

A final section examines the differences between different ethnic groups in the UK — one of the few countries in the EU where data on ethnicity are regularly included as part of the statistical surveys carried out.

Given the absence of data on ethnicity in most European countries, there are two ways of estimating the migrant population living in EU Member States from the data that are available. One is to use information on nationality or citizenship as a proxy; and the other is to use information on country of birth. The problem with the former is that many migrants have citizenship of the country in which they live, having acquired it after a period of residence there, so that the number of nationals in a country tends to understate the number of people with a migrant background. How much it is understated varies from country to country because of the significant differences in the national rules and regulations for acquiring citizenship that exist across the EU. In some countries, children born there automatically acquire citizenship (*jus solis*) while in others they retain the nationality of their parents (*jus sanguinis*), in some cases being granted citizenship when they reach the age of majority. Such differences in regulations make it hard to compare either the size of the migrant population or their situation across countries on the basis of citizenship.

³ It should be noted that a complementary analysis to that contained here is included in EC (2008a), which concentrates on the employment and labour market status of migrants and, on a number of aspects, goes into more detail than here.

The other possible indicator is country of birth, which, unlike nationality, does not change over time, and which, therefore, indicates the number of people who were not born in the country in which they live. This, however, involves the opposite problem, insofar as the number concerned includes some nationals who happened to be born outside the country because their parents were abroad at the time. Accordingly, the indicator tends to overstate the number of people with migrant backgrounds, though the extent again varies across countries, reflecting differences in, for example, the importance of old colonial ties (such as in the case of France, Portugal or the UK) or the strength of a more general tendency for people to live abroad for a time.⁴

In general, however, the number of people wrongly recorded as migrants is likely to be relatively small in most Member States. At the same time, it should be recognised that the number of people born abroad does not capture second-generation immigrants, who, in some cases, may not have citizenship of the country in which they live and/or who might belong to an ethnic minority. The data on nationality do include such people, but only insofar as they do not acquire citizenship of the country concerned at birth or at a particular age. Again, the people in question are likely to be only a very small minority of those recorded as being foreign nationals, and this in itself does not seem to be a strong enough reason for using nationality (or citizenship) as an indicator, rather than country of birth.

It should also be noted that the data on nationality (and on citizenship) available from household surveys, which are the source of the analysis here, do not distinguish between short-stay and long-stay migrants, or between those who are in the country in question on a permanent basis and those whose stay is temporary, such as students. Distinguishing between the two is only possible on the basis of administrative data on residence, but such data are available only for some countries and, in any event, tend not to identify the characteristics or situation of migrants (which is what we are concerned with here). At the same time, it should be recognised that, because of the way they are conducted (i.e. on the basis of household registers), the household surveys in question are unlikely to cover a significant number of short-stay migrants, as is pointed out below.⁵

Data sources

Data from the two main sources used in the analysis give an indication of the number of people recorded by the two alternative measures. The EU-SILC contains information for each Member State (apart from Bulgaria and Romania, where the survey was initiated later than in the other countries) on the income and other characteristics of people born in the country, in another part of the EU, or in a country outside the EU, as well as on nationality broken down in the same way.⁶ The EU Labour Force Survey (LFS) contains data on employment and other characteristics of people, such as their education level — though not their income — broken down in a similar way by country of birth and nationality, but in much

⁴ Dumont and Lemaître (2005).

⁵ On the distinction between permanent and temporary migrants, see Lemaître *et al.* (2007).

⁶ Data for Malta are also not available, in this case because of the non-publication of the microdata. The country is, therefore, excluded from the analysis below, based on the EU-SILC.

more detail than the EU-SILC because of the larger size of the sample covered by the survey.

It is, therefore, possible, on the basis of the LFS data, to distinguish whether those born in another part of the EU were born in a new Member State (i.e. one that entered the Union either in May 2004 or January 2007) or in an EU15 country. It is also possible to distinguish people born in parts of Europe that are outside the EU, as well as in countries in other parts of the world, and to distinguish those born in developing countries in Asia, Africa or Latin America from those born in the US or other developed countries.

Because, however, the LFS contains data only on employment-related aspects, it can give only a partial indication of the situation of migrants. Much of the analysis, therefore, is based on the EU-SILC. The first section below focuses on those aged 25–64, and begins by assessing the number of migrants in relation to the rest of the population, as well as the division of migrants by country or broad region of origin.

Because the number of migrants in most of the new Member States is very small, neither the LFS nor the EU-SILC, given their sample nature, is capable of capturing the characteristics of the people concerned. The main focus here, therefore, is on the EU15 countries, where those with a migrant background are much more numerous. Even then, both surveys almost certainly cover a disproportionately small number of migrants — especially recently arrived ones, since many of them are likely to have been missed from the sampling frame (which, in any case, is not constructed to ensure that people from other countries or with foreign citizenship are suitably represented in the sample of people surveyed — in part because of the absence, in many cases, of reliable information on their numbers).⁷ Accordingly, it is only to be hoped that, despite the apparent understatement of the numbers concerned, the two surveys give a representative indication of the characteristics of those with a migrant background and of their circumstances.

The characteristics and employment situation of migrants of working age

Data from the EU Labour Force Survey provide an insight into the relative size of the migrant population according to the alternative indicators described above (and more so than the EU-SILC, because of the much larger size of the survey sample of the population). They suggest, first, that the number of people aged 25–64 living in EU15 Member States who were born in another country represented around 12.5% of the total population of this age in 2007. This figure, however, varied from only 3% in Finland and around 8% in Greece, Italy and Portugal to around 14% in France and the Netherlands, 15–16% in Spain and Sweden, and 45% in Luxembourg (Table 3.1). (It should be noted that no data on country of birth are available in the LFS for Germany and Ireland, and the totals, therefore, exclude these two countries.)

⁷ The LFS data seem to confirm this, recording, for example, a much smaller number of people born in the new Member States and living in the UK than official estimates suggest (the latter put the figure at over 1 million, whereas the LFS records a figure for those aged 25–64 in 2007 of 460,000).

Table 3.1: Division of population aged 25–64 by country of birth, 2007

| Country | Same as country of residence | EU15 | NMS12 | Other Europe | Central and Eastern Europe | Other developed countries | Other developing countries | Born in EU27 as % migrants |
|--------------|------------------------------|------------|------------|--------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| BE | 87.6 | 5.0 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 1.8 | 0.1 | 4.8 | 45.5 |
| DK | 90.6 | 1.6 | 0.4 | 0.6 | 1.8 | 0.8 | 4.2 | 21.7 |
| GR | 92.0 | 0.6 | 1.1 | 0.0 | 5.3 | 0.2 | 0.8 | 20.7 |
| ES | 84.6 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.1 | 10.2 | 28.5 |
| FR | 86.2 | 3.5 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.7 | 0.2 | 9.0 | 27.4 |
| IT | 91.7 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 1.7 | 0.2 | 3.5 | 27.5 |
| LU | 54.9 | 37.6 | 1.4 | 0.3 | 1.4 | 0.5 | 3.9 | 86.5 |
| NL | 86.3 | 2.4 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 2.2 | 0.3 | 8.2 | 21.1 |
| AT | 81.7 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 0.2 | 8.6 | 0.2 | 3.1 | 34.4 |
| PT | 92.1 | 1.3 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 5.8 | 20.1 |
| FI | 96.9 | 1.1 | 0.4 | 0.0 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 47.8 |
| SE | 83.7 | 4.3 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 2.0 | 0.3 | 7.8 | 34.4 |
| UK | 86.7 | 2.4 | 1.5 | 0.1 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 7.9 | 29.2 |
| EU15* | 87.6 | 2.4 | 1.2 | 0.2 | 1.4 | 0.4 | 6.8 | 28.8 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Notes: NMS12: 12 new Member States; Other Europe: Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland; Central and Eastern Europe: Balkan countries, Turkey and former Soviet Republics.

* EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

Table 3.2: People aged 25–64 living in EU15 and born abroad who have citizenship, 2007

| Country | % of those born abroad in various countries | | | | | |
|--------------|---|-------------|----------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| | EU15 | NMS12 | Central and Eastern Europe | Other Europe | Other developed countries | Other developing countries |
| BE | 27.3 | 31.3 | 57.6 | 30.9 | 38.3 | 59.7 |
| DK | 41.4 | 39.6 | 39.3 | 26.2 | 80.8 | 51.0 |
| GR | 59.8 | 12.3 | 17.2 | 54.2 | 72.6 | 18.6 |
| ES | 35.7 | 0.2 | 2.5 | 85.4 | 34.6 | 17.6 |
| FR | 36.2 | 39.4 | 29.9 | 52.0 | 50.9 | 61.3 |
| IT | 77.7 | 13.8 | 10.3 | 97.8 | 76.5 | 21.0 |
| LU | 7.1 | 8.2 | 13.3 | 20.2 | 4.7 | 16.1 |
| NL | 42.2 | 48.1 | 66.5 | 54.6 | 64.8 | 79.2 |
| AT | 29.8 | 45.1 | 37.8 | 43.1 | 23.8 | 45.6 |
| PT | 73.1 | 3.9 | 2.0 | 64.5 | 33.3 | 54.6 |
| FI | 80.0 | 23.2 | 35.2 | 22.0 | 58.7 | 32.8 |
| SE | 53.5 | 73.2 | 81.1 | 27.0 | 43.0 | 79.3 |
| UK | 24.8 | 15.8 | 35.1 | 27.0 | 25.7 | 55.0 |
| EU15* | 38.7 | 17.2 | 29.9 | 74.0 | 41.2 | 46.5 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

They indicate, second, that around 46% of people aged 25–64 who were born outside the EU have citizenship of the Member State in which they live (Table 3.2).

Measuring migrants through reference to citizenship, or nationality, therefore means focusing on only around half of those who were born outside the EU. Although some of these might be nationals whose parents happened to be living abroad when they were born, it is unlikely that this group constitutes a large number of the people concerned. If this population is divided into those aged 25–39 and those aged 40–64, the data show that the proportion of those born outside the EU with nationality of the country in which they now live is around a third for the younger age group and almost 60% for the older age group, which is consistent with the fact that it takes some years for migrants to obtain citizenship of the country concerned.

The proportion of those born outside the EU who subsequently acquire citizenship of the Member State in which they live, however, varies across the EU — from 90% or more in Latvia and Lithuania, and almost 80% in the Netherlands and Sweden, to only just over 20% in Italy and under 20% in Greece and Spain.

Third, the data indicate that relatively few of those who do not have EU nationality were born in an EU Member State. In the EU15 as a whole, in 2007, the proportion was just 2%. Only in Belgium is the figure much larger (18%), though in the new Member States the figure is larger still — especially (though the actual numbers are very much smaller) in the Baltic states, where it is over 40% in Estonia, around 20% in Latvia and 25% in Lithuania, reflecting the relatively large Russian population. In the EU15 countries, apart from Belgium, the figure is below 5% in all cases except Austria (where it is around 5%) and Finland (where it is 7%), suggesting that nearly all of those born in one of these countries tend to acquire citizenship at birth (though it should be noted that there are no data for Germany). It also suggests that these data cannot be used to identify second-generation migrants. Though the people in question almost certainly fall into this category, the numbers concerned are not large enough to analyse their other characteristics with any degree of reliability.

The data suggest, fourthly, that most people with a migrant background come from countries outside the EU (generally two-thirds or more), rather than from other Member States. The only exceptions to this are Belgium and Finland (where only just over half of migrants come from outside the EU) and Luxembourg, where less than 15% do.

In 2007, only 29% of those living in the EU15 and born in another country came from another Member State. Of those, around two-thirds came from another EU15 country and a third from a new Member State, which is more than their relative population size would imply (although the figures do vary from country to country — in the case of Greece, Spain, Italy and Austria, half or more of those from other parts of the EU come from the new Member States).

Of those born outside the EU, by far the largest proportion came either from low-income countries in other parts of Europe, or from developing countries outside Europe. In the EU15 (again excluding Germany), some 16% came from Central and Eastern Europe (i.e. the Balkans, Turkey or former Soviet Republics), while 78% came from developing countries outside Europe. Only around 6%, therefore, came from other developed countries in Europe, such as Switzerland and Norway, or outside Europe, such as the US (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Division of population born outside EU by country of birth, 2007

| Country | % of total born outside EU | | | |
|--------------|----------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| | Central and Eastern Europe | Other Europe | Other developed countries | Other developing countries |
| BE | 26.4 | 0.7 | 1.6 | 71.4 |
| DK | 23.9 | 7.6 | 11.1 | 57.4 |
| GR | 83.7 | 0.1 | 3.7 | 12.4 |
| ES | 4.7 | 1.6 | 0.7 | 93.0 |
| FR | 6.6 | 1.2 | 2.3 | 89.9 |
| IT | 28.7 | 8.9 | 3.5 | 58.8 |
| LU | 23.3 | 5.1 | 7.6 | 64.1 |
| NL | 20.3 | 0.6 | 3.0 | 76.1 |
| AT | 71.3 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 25.5 |
| PT | 6.2 | 0.8 | 1.7 | 91.3 |
| FI | 61.0 | 2.3 | 1.9 | 34.8 |
| SE | 18.6 | 5.6 | 2.4 | 73.4 |
| UK | 4.9 | 0.8 | 10.6 | 83.8 |
| EU15* | 15.7 | 2.4 | 4.0 | 77.9 |

Source: *EU Labour Force Survey 2007*

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

The data also indicate that there are slightly more women than men among those with a migrant background in the 25–64 age group in the EU15 (in 2007, around 52%, as against 48% of men). They indicate, in addition, that women make up just over half of those who come from developing countries or from low-income parts of Europe, as well as of those who come from other EU Member States, whether from the EU15 countries or the new Member States. At the same time, they show that, within the 25–64 age group, there are proportionately more people aged under 40 among migrants (as defined by their country of birth) than among the rest of the population.

In the following, the focus is, first, on the education levels of migrants, compared with non-migrants, to examine how far they are likely to boost the skill levels of the work force, as well as to indicate their earnings potential; and, second, on their position in the labour market, in terms of both the extent to which they tend to be in employment and the kind of jobs they do. Once again, the analysis is based on data from the LFS rather than the EU-SILC because of the larger sample size.

Educational attainment levels of migrants

Migrants living in the EU are very disparate in terms of their levels of education, and implicitly their skill levels. Those coming from the new Member States into EU15 countries (the focus is once again on these countries, since migration into the new Member States is relatively low) tend to have slightly higher levels of education than those who do not move: in other words, on average, a larger proportion of them have tertiary-level qualifications than the population of the new Member States as a whole (or at least those aged 25–64). At the same time, this proportion is smaller than for other people in the EU15 (i.e. those born there). Migrants who come from outside the EU tend to have a higher level of education than those born

in the EU15 if they come from other developed countries, but much the same level of education if they come from developing countries.

In 2007, therefore, just under 25% of men aged 25–64 living in an EU15 country and born there had tertiary qualifications, as against 29% of men who had moved from another EU15 country, and 17% of men who had moved from a new Member State (Table 3.4). For men who had moved into the EU from outside, the proportion varied from under 14% for those who had moved from Central and Eastern Europe and just under 25% for those who had moved from a developing country outside Europe (i.e. the same as for men born in the EU15) to 41% for those who had moved from a developed country (such as the US or Japan).

Table 3.4: Education levels by country of birth of men aged 25–64 living in EU15 Member States, 2007

| | % of each group | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------------|
| Country of birth | BE | DK | GR | ES | FR | IT | LU | NL | AT | PT | FI | SE | UK | EU15* |
| Same | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 30.6 | 22.7 | 40.3 | 49.8 | 27.4 | 48.3 | 26.6 | 23.6 | 10.3 | 76.8 | 21.5 | 16.6 | 24.2 | 36.0 |
| Medium | 38.7 | 47.6 | 36.1 | 20.1 | 47.7 | 39.0 | 50.2 | 42.3 | 69.3 | 12.8 | 47.8 | 57.3 | 44.7 | 39.5 |
| High | 30.7 | 29.7 | 23.6 | 30.1 | 24.9 | 12.7 | 23.2 | 34.1 | 20.4 | 10.3 | 30.8 | 26.1 | 31.0 | 24.5 |
| EU15 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 40.0 | 12.8 | 18.9 | 33.2 | 50.0 | 42.5 | 38.7 | 15.3 | 7.9 | 51.0 | 14.7 | 23.5 | 20.2 | 34.3 |
| Medium | 28.0 | 41.1 | 41.7 | 22.6 | 36.0 | 38.5 | 28.8 | 49.7 | 44.5 | 22.3 | 65.2 | 48.1 | 45.7 | 37.0 |
| High | 32.1 | 46.1 | 39.5 | 44.2 | 14.0 | 18.9 | 32.5 | 35.1 | 47.6 | 26.7 | 20.1 | 28.4 | 34.1 | 28.7 |
| NMS12 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 24.0 | 11.4 | 42.1 | 19.7 | 22.6 | 24.9 | 6.3 | 5.9 | 10.4 | 27.6 | 23.1 | 11.9 | 21.8 | 21.1 |
| Medium | 47.9 | 39.6 | 47.9 | 59.6 | 52.4 | 70.3 | 14.2 | 53.0 | 68.1 | 43.7 | 62.0 | 58.1 | 63.0 | 61.9 |
| High | 28.0 | 49.0 | 10.1 | 20.7 | 25.0 | 4.8 | 79.5 | 41.1 | 21.6 | 28.7 | 14.9 | 30.1 | 15.2 | 17.1 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 57.7 | 52.2 | 53.7 | 13.9 | 64.1 | 55.5 | 16.2 | 41.7 | 42.9 | 25.0 | 35.2 | 24.7 | 36.1 | 47.4 |
| Medium | 29.1 | 33.0 | 34.1 | 32.3 | 23.9 | 37.5 | 61.0 | 46.2 | 49.0 | 38.6 | 48.2 | 50.9 | 47.2 | 39.0 |
| High | 13.2 | 14.8 | 12.2 | 53.8 | 12.0 | 7.0 | 22.8 | 12.0 | 8.1 | 36.4 | 16.6 | 24.5 | 16.7 | 13.5 |
| Other Europe | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 8.0 | 10.6 | .. | 31.4 | 5.7 | 38.5 | .. | .. | 5.5 | 58.4 | 68.8 | 14.9 | 17.4 | 28.6 |
| Medium | 31.2 | 41.4 | .. | 14.8 | 43.7 | 53.8 | 75.0 | 39.3 | 60.2 | 41.6 | 31.2 | 50.3 | 42.2 | 45.6 |
| High | 60.8 | 48.1 | .. | 53.7 | 50.7 | 7.7 | 25.0 | 60.7 | 34.4 | .. | .. | 34.8 | 40.4 | 25.8 |
| Other developed countries | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 2.4 | 13.0 | 24.0 | 7.8 | 8.8 | 33.1 | .. | 20.4 | .. | 31.5 | .. | 6.1 | 7.7 | 11.8 |
| Medium | 14.2 | 43.0 | 39.0 | 9.2 | 64.3 | 38.1 | 25.4 | 31.3 | 47.4 | 26.8 | .. | 36.6 | 50.0 | 47.1 |
| High | 83.4 | 44.0 | 37.0 | 83.0 | 26.9 | 28.8 | 74.6 | 48.3 | 52.6 | 41.7 | .. | 57.2 | 42.3 | 41.1 |
| Other developing countries | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 40.4 | 28.9 | 61.0 | 46.2 | 41.4 | 56.4 | 28.9 | 32.4 | 30.2 | 60.7 | 30.5 | 21.1 | 22.7 | 39.3 |
| Medium | 30.4 | 39.5 | 29.0 | 35.1 | 31.4 | 33.4 | 34.4 | 42.1 | 44.0 | 23.4 | 40.6 | 47.1 | 43.0 | 36.1 |
| High | 29.2 | 31.7 | 10.0 | 18.7 | 27.3 | 10.2 | 36.7 | 25.5 | 25.8 | 15.9 | 28.9 | 31.8 | 34.4 | 24.6 |

Source: *EU Labour Force Survey 2007*

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

The proportion of men moving into the EU15 with a low level of education (i.e. with no qualification beyond basic schooling) varied in a similar (though generally inverse) way. However, of those coming from the new Member States, relatively

few (only 21%) have only basic schooling. Some 47% of those moving from Central and Eastern Europe have low education, as do 39% of those from developing countries (as against 36% of men born in the EU15).

Table 3.5: Education levels by country of birth of women aged 25–64 living in EU15 Member States, 2007

| Country of birth | % of each group | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------------|
| | BE | DK | GR | ES | FR | IT | LU | NL | AT | PT | FI | SE | UK | EU15* |
| Same | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 30.4 | 25.8 | 39.5 | 50.7 | 29.7 | 47.5 | 38.9 | 29.0 | 23.1 | 71.8 | 17.1 | 11.4 | 31.2 | 37.9 |
| Medium | 35.1 | 39.3 | 39.2 | 18.9 | 41.4 | 37.9 | 42.7 | 41.7 | 62.6 | 12.8 | 41.7 | 51.9 | 36.7 | 35.8 |
| High | 34.5 | 34.9 | 21.3 | 30.4 | 28.9 | 14.6 | 18.4 | 29.3 | 14.3 | 15.3 | 41.2 | 36.7 | 32.1 | 26.3 |
| EU15 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 39.7 | 16.0 | 8.6 | 31.8 | 53.2 | 35.8 | 39.2 | 14.1 | 11.6 | 40.2 | 15.0 | 20.6 | 18.5 | 34.1 |
| Medium | 27.2 | 37.8 | 56.7 | 31.7 | 26.7 | 42.4 | 29.9 | 50.8 | 57.9 | 22.6 | 40.1 | 45.6 | 41.3 | 35.6 |
| High | 33.1 | 46.2 | 34.7 | 36.5 | 20.0 | 21.7 | 30.9 | 35.1 | 30.5 | 37.1 | 44.9 | 33.8 | 40.2 | 30.3 |
| NMS12 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 22.0 | 13.1 | 34.1 | 34.5 | 8.7 | 25.5 | 2.5 | 11.4 | 14.3 | 28.1 | 25.1 | 10.3 | 18.8 | 23.7 |
| Medium | 39.3 | 46.9 | 47.0 | 45.7 | 38.3 | 57.6 | 22.7 | 57.7 | 63.8 | 41.0 | 43.6 | 50.4 | 57.0 | 52.2 |
| High | 38.7 | 40.0 | 19.0 | 19.8 | 53.0 | 16.8 | 74.8 | 30.9 | 21.8 | 30.9 | 31.3 | 39.3 | 24.2 | 24.1 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 61.9 | 47.1 | 42.8 | 6.4 | 55.8 | 44.6 | 27.1 | 52.0 | 60.2 | 12.6 | 16.1 | 27.2 | 31.1 | 44.6 |
| Medium | 20.0 | 39.5 | 40.9 | 24.9 | 21.6 | 38.7 | 41.8 | 34.6 | 33.2 | 27.6 | 35.2 | 35.5 | 46.2 | 34.6 |
| High | 18.2 | 13.4 | 16.2 | 68.7 | 22.7 | 16.7 | 31.2 | 13.4 | 6.6 | 59.9 | 48.7 | 37.3 | 22.7 | 20.8 |
| Other Europe | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 9.5 | 21.3 | .. | 25.6 | 6.3 | 37.4 | 14.1 | 10.6 | 19.4 | 92.1 | .. | 17.6 | 4.0 | 26.8 |
| Medium | 47.5 | 35.3 | 81.0 | 25.7 | 54.2 | 48.4 | 22.8 | 51.4 | 56.5 | 7.9 | .. | 54.7 | 57.3 | 47.0 |
| High | 43.1 | 43.4 | 19.0 | 48.7 | 39.5 | 14.2 | 63.1 | 37.9 | 24.1 | .. | .. | 27.6 | 38.6 | 26.2 |
| Other developed countries | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 11.5 | 17.7 | 9.0 | 3.3 | 12.6 | 28.7 | .. | 10.0 | 5.7 | 19.0 | .. | 5.2 | 8.8 | 12.0 |
| Medium | 15.5 | 42.5 | 53.0 | 1.4 | 17.7 | 40.7 | 5.8 | 44.7 | 13.6 | 26.1 | 67.6 | 39.4 | 43.9 | 36.9 |
| High | 72.9 | 39.8 | 38.0 | 95.3 | 69.7 | 30.6 | 94.2 | 45.3 | 80.8 | 54.9 | 32.4 | 55.4 | 47.3 | 51.1 |
| Other developing countries | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 47.2 | 31.9 | 32.7 | 43.4 | 49.5 | 51.8 | 32.9 | 36.0 | 39.1 | 54.6 | 27.5 | 28.1 | 30.2 | 42.1 |
| Medium | 27.5 | 45.7 | 52.1 | 35.0 | 28.5 | 36.2 | 38.8 | 43.4 | 40.7 | 23.2 | 50.2 | 43.2 | 39.2 | 34.9 |
| High | 25.3 | 22.5 | 15.2 | 21.5 | 22.1 | 12.1 | 28.2 | 20.6 | 20.2 | 22.2 | 22.4 | 28.8 | 30.6 | 23.0 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

The picture is similar for women. A larger proportion of women than men who were born and are resident in the EU15 had tertiary-level education, and the same is true of women from the new Member States. There is, however, a bigger gap than for men between the education levels of women moving into the EU15 from the new Member States (24% of whom had tertiary qualifications) and those of women remaining in the new Member States (18% of whom had such qualifications — not shown in table) (Table 3.5). Moreover, a larger proportion of women who moved into the EU from other Central and Eastern European countries (21%), EU15 countries (30%) and other developed countries (51%) had tertiary-level education than did their male counterparts, suggesting, perhaps, that it is more important

for women who move into the EU15 to have a high level of education than it is for men. On the other hand, the proportion of women from developing countries who moved into the EU with tertiary qualifications (23%) was smaller than for men, and smaller, too, than for women born in the EU15. Again, the picture for women with low education is largely the inverse of this, with some 42% of women who had moved from developing countries having no qualifications beyond basic schooling.

Employment rates of migrants

Among migrants in the EU, employment rates — i.e. the proportion of people in work — are similar to the rates for the rest of the population (i.e. those born in the country concerned), at least so far as men are concerned. In fact, for men who have moved from one of the new Member States into an EU15 country, employment rates tend to be significantly higher. In 2007, therefore, 88% of men aged 25–64 living in the EU15 but born in one of the new Member States were in employment, as opposed to 81% of men born in the country concerned (Table 3.6). At the same time, some 92% of men born in other developed countries were in work, as opposed to only 78% of those coming from developing countries, less than in the case of those born in the country itself. This relatively low figure, moreover, is a consequence almost as much of a high rate of unemployment (over 8% on average for men in this age group, as compared to under 4% for men born in EU15 countries) as of a high rate of inactivity.

Table 3.6: Employment rates of men aged 25–64 by country of birth, 2007

| | BE | DK | GR | ES | FR | IT | LU | NL | AT | PT | FI | SE | UK | EU15* |
|----------------------------|--|------|------|------|-------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|-------------|
| Country of birth | <i>Employment rates (% of men aged 25–64 in work)</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same | 79.0 | 85.3 | 83.1 | 82.1 | 78.3 | 77.6 | 79.2 | 86.2 | 83.4 | 81.0 | 78.2 | 87.0 | 83.3 | 81.0 |
| EU15 | 70.2 | 84.7 | 82.4 | 78.2 | 70.4 | 83.2 | 85.4 | 83.2 | 87.3 | 88.7 | 86.5 | 78.4 | 84.3 | 78.2 |
| NMS12 | 78.7 | 84.0 | 92.5 | 88.4 | 63.8 | 92.2 | 91.5 | 84.6 | 79.6 | 95.6 | 79.4 | 74.8 | 92.6 | 88.1 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | 58.9 | 68.9 | 92.0 | 84.5 | 73.5 | 90.7 | 89.7 | 70.3 | 76.4 | 92.5 | 84.9 | 74.5 | 76.4 | 81.0 |
| Other Europe | 91.7 | 77.3 | 42.9 | 92.9 | 100.0 | 88.7 | 89.5 | 100.0 | 85.1 | 64.5 | 62.6 | 82.1 | 94.3 | 89.3 |
| Other developed countries | 90.0 | 84.4 | 99.0 | 92.2 | 93.3 | 89.5 | 94.1 | 85.7 | 77.7 | 98.1 | 47.0 | 84.8 | 92.7 | 91.5 |
| Other developing countries | 63.5 | 63.9 | 93.4 | 86.4 | 69.9 | 89.2 | 75.9 | 71.6 | 73.7 | 84.5 | 55.1 | 69.7 | 78.8 | 78.2 |
| Country of birth | <i>Unemployment rates (men aged 25–64 unemployed as % of men aged 25–64 in labour force)</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same | 4.4 | 2.2 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 6.2 | 5.0 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 3.6 |
| EU15 | 7.1 | 3.9 | 7.4 | 6.8 | 3.6 | 5.7 | 2.7 | 3.8 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 8.0 | 4.2 | 5.1 | 4.0 |
| NMS12 | 12.1 | 3.8 | 2.9 | 7.0 | 8.8 | 4.3 | 8.5 | .. | 4.6 | 0.7 | 7.1 | 8.7 | 3.3 | 4.8 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | 20.8 | 7.0 | 4.2 | 13.4 | 11.6 | 3.8 | 5.4 | 6.8 | 8.5 | 7.4 | 10.9 | 7.9 | 6.4 | 6.4 |
| Other Europe | .. | 6.7 | .. | .. | .. | 3.3 | .. | .. | 1.2 | 19.7 | .. | 3.6 | 5.7 | 2.6 |
| Other developed countries | 2.6 | 3.2 | .. | 5.1 | .. | 3.1 | .. | 1.5 | 3.9 | 0.4 | 53.0 | 3.6 | 2.3 | 2.1 |
| Other developing countries | 22.0 | 11.2 | 5.1 | 7.7 | 14.6 | 4.9 | 13.7 | 7.8 | 11.8 | 8.1 | 21.1 | 14.1 | 7.1 | 8.3 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

The average picture across the EU15, however, conceals pronounced differences in relative employment rates between Member States, especially as regards men coming from developing countries — or, to a lesser extent, from low-income countries in other parts of Europe — as opposed to those coming from developed countries or born in the EU15 country concerned. Whereas in the four Southern EU15 countries, the employment rate among men born in a developing country was significantly higher than the rate for those born in the country in question, in other EU15 countries the reverse was the case, with the employment rate among men born in the country being, in most cases, over 10 percentage points higher than among those men born in a developing country — and in Belgium and the three Nordic Member States, over 15 percentage points higher.

The differences in female employment rates between migrants and other people in EU15 countries are even more marked. This, moreover, is the case at the EU level, as well as in individual Member States. In 2007, therefore, the employment rate among women in the EU15 aged 25–64 averaged around 64% for those born in the country concerned. The rate was much the same for those born in one of the new Member States or in another developed country. For women born in a developing country, on the other hand, the employment rate averaged only around 57% (Table 3.7).

Table 3.7: Employment rates of women aged 25–64 by country of birth, 2007

| | BE | DK | GR | ES | FR | IT | LU | NL | AT | PT | FI | SE | UK | EU15* |
|----------------------------|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------------|
| Country of birth | <i>Employment rates (% of women aged 25–64 in work)</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same | 64.6 | 77.2 | 53.4 | 57.0 | 69.1 | 51.2 | 60.5 | 71.9 | 69.5 | 67.8 | 74.1 | 82.4 | 70.3 | 63.7 |
| EU15 | 53.4 | 72.2 | 45.4 | 54.7 | 61.7 | 49.3 | 69.1 | 67.8 | 62.6 | 69.0 | 76.6 | 72.1 | 70.1 | 61.8 |
| NMS12 | 54.9 | 64.5 | 63.3 | 67.4 | 54.2 | 61.8 | 79.4 | 62.6 | 60.9 | 66.3 | 66.2 | 69.5 | 70.1 | 64.8 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | 30.9 | 51.2 | 54.3 | 64.5 | 34.3 | 53.7 | 52.1 | 39.6 | 54.3 | 75.3 | 55.0 | 56.5 | 44.1 | 50.3 |
| Other Europe | 60.6 | 67.8 | 55.2 | 66.6 | 51.3 | 59.6 | 58.7 | 68.7 | 72.7 | 23.2 | 52.6 | 74.4 | 64.8 | 61.7 |
| Other developed countries | 54.5 | 73.8 | 49.0 | 45.2 | 48.3 | 56.3 | 69.6 | 62.9 | 65.1 | 56.3 | 66.7 | 72.6 | 70.5 | 63.2 |
| Other developing countries | 39.3 | 49.6 | 53.7 | 66.9 | 51.3 | 53.6 | 56.6 | 54.8 | 54.7 | 74.2 | 53.2 | 56.0 | 53.3 | 56.6 |
| Country of birth | <i>Unemployment rates (women aged 25–64 unemployed as % of women aged 25–64 in labour force)</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same | 6.1 | 3.3 | 11.1 | 9.1 | 6.4 | 6.2 | 3.3 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 8.9 | 5.5 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 5.8 |
| EU15 | 8.2 | 3.1 | 16.5 | 9.0 | 6.2 | 8.8 | 3.3 | 3.4 | 5.7 | 10.8 | 11.7 | 4.4 | 3.6 | 6.2 |
| NMS12 | 16.0 | 7.7 | 9.6 | 13.3 | 26.6 | 10.5 | 4.4 | 2.5 | 9.0 | 11.0 | 11.5 | 9.3 | 7.9 | 11.4 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | 29.0 | 8.4 | 13.3 | 18.5 | 26.2 | 12.7 | 10.3 | 12.6 | 9.6 | 15.0 | 21.1 | 15.5 | 11.0 | 14.4 |
| Other Europe | 1.8 | 7.3 | 25.7 | 11.0 | 10.9 | 6.5 | .. | 7.5 | 3.8 | .. | .. | 2.0 | 13.1 | 7.6 |
| Other developed countries | 13.5 | 3.5 | 7.4 | 4.0 | 6.3 | 7.7 | .. | 4.2 | 3.8 | 1.3 | .. | 2.8 | 5.3 | 5.5 |
| Other developing countries | 22.9 | 9.4 | 11.3 | 10.3 | 16.7 | 11.7 | 13.3 | 8.0 | 12.2 | 11.4 | 19.2 | 15.1 | 8.1 | 11.9 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

As in the case of men, employment rates among women from developing countries were higher in the four Southern Member States than for those born in the country

concerned, though only marginally so in Greece. In the other EU15 countries, the reverse was the case, with the employment rate of women from developing countries being at least 15 percentage points lower, and over 25 percentage points lower in Belgium, Denmark and Sweden. Although this difference reflects similar differences in rates of economic activity, unemployment is also high among women in the EU15 from developing countries. The unemployment rate in 2007 was, therefore, around 12% on average in EU15 countries for such women — double the rate for women born in the EU15. In France and Sweden, moreover, the rate was over 15%, in Finland over 19%, and in Belgium as high as 23%.

Table 3.8: Employment and unemployment rates of men aged 25–64 with tertiary-level education, 2007

| | BE | DK | GR | ES | FR | IT | LU | NL | AT | PT | FI | SE | UK | EU15* |
|----------------------------|--|------|------|-------|-------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------------|
| Country of birth | <i>Employment rates (% of men aged 25–64 with tertiary education in work)</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same | 89.2 | 91.4 | 87.9 | 89.3 | 88.1 | 86.1 | 84.5 | 90.2 | 91.2 | 88.3 | 87.1 | 91.2 | 90.1 | 89.1 |
| EU15 | 88.2 | 84.5 | 84.8 | 79.6 | 68.2 | 93.6 | 92.1 | 93.6 | 91.4 | 94.7 | 91.9 | 89.4 | 88.3 | 84.5 |
| NMS12 | 80.8 | 84.5 | 85.4 | 89.5 | 82.6 | 87.4 | 89.3 | 84.2 | 83.4 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 89.9 | 92.6 | 88.9 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | 69.6 | 80.0 | 86.8 | 75.3 | 85.4 | 91.5 | 89.8 | 78.0 | 86.2 | 96.9 | 83.4 | 83.1 | 88.4 | 83.3 |
| Other Europe | 86.4 | 85.1 | .. | 98.3 | 100.0 | 90.4 | 69.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | .. | .. | 80.2 | 100.0 | 94.4 |
| Other developed countries | 90.9 | 91.4 | 97.2 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 91.3 | 97.3 | 87.3 | 87.8 | 100.0 | .. | 97.5 | 94.5 | 94.5 |
| Other developing countries | 71.3 | 68.7 | 90.9 | 88.1 | 76.9 | 90.7 | 78.4 | 80.0 | 73.0 | 94.9 | 47.3 | 72.8 | 86.8 | 82.5 |
| Country of birth | <i>Unemployment rates (men aged 25–64 unemployed as % of men aged 25–64 with tertiary education in labour force)</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same | 2.5 | 2.6 | 4.0 | 3.4 | 4.2 | 3.0 | 2.0 | 1.8 | 1.3 | 5.4 | 3.2 | 2.7 | 1.8 | 2.7 |
| EU15 | 3.0 | 3.7 | 9.6 | 8.3 | 3.0 | 2.7 | 1.7 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.0 |
| NMS12 | 10.8 | 6.4 | .. | 10.5 | 9.6 | 5.1 | 10.7 | .. | 3.8 | .. | .. | 4.1 | 4.9 | 7.0 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | 19.2 | 3.6 | 7.2 | 21.1 | 14.6 | 2.1 | 10.2 | .. | 4.7 | 2.8 | 11.5 | 8.2 | 11.6 | 9.5 |
| Other Europe | .. | 6.4 | .. | .. | .. | 1.0 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2.7 | .. | 0.8 |
| Other developed countries | 3.0 | 2.5 | .. | .. | .. | 1.6 | .. | .. | 6.4 | .. | .. | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.1 |
| Other developing countries | 16.7 | 11.6 | 7.3 | 6.4 | 11.2 | 4.7 | 12.9 | 5.3 | 12.3 | 3.1 | 28.3 | 14.8 | 4.4 | 6.9 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

Employment rates of migrants by level of education

These differences in employment (and unemployment) rates cannot be explained in terms of men and women migrants from outside the EU having lower levels of education than non-migrants. Although there is a strong inverse relationship between education levels and employment rates, the extent of the difference in education levels between migrants and non-migrants is relatively small, as indicated above. Indeed, differences in employment rates are as evident for those with a given level of education as overall. This is especially the case for those with high levels of education, as indicated below.

Moreover, in all those countries, apart from the Netherlands, the unemployment rates for men with tertiary education born in a developing country were over 11%, as against less than 3% in each case for men born in the EU15 country in question.

The differences in employment rates for women with tertiary education in the EU15 (between those born in the EU15 and those born in a developing country) are even more marked. In 2007, the employment rate for women with this level of education and born in the EU15 averaged just over 83%, compared to only just over 71% for women from developing countries (Table 3.9). In this case (unlike the situation for men), women with tertiary qualifications in the four Southern Member States but born in developing countries also had lower employment rates than did those born in the countries concerned, Greece and Italy substantially so. This was also the case in Belgium and Sweden, where the difference was in excess of 20 percentage points.

These differences suggest not only that both men and women migrants with tertiary education are not being used to the best advantage in the EU economy if they come from developing countries, but also that the problems that arise from having a low level of income may extend much more to those with high education levels among the migrant population than among the population in general.

Table 3.9: Employment and unemployment rates of women aged 25–64 with tertiary-level education, 2007

| | BE | DK | GR | ES | FR | IT | LU | NL | AT | PT | FI | SE | UK | EU 15* |
|----------------------------|--|------|-------|------|------|------|------|-------|------|------|-------|------|------|-------------|
| Country of birth | Employment rates (% of women aged 25–64 with tertiary education in work) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same | 83.6 | 86.5 | 79.3 | 81.7 | 82.8 | 75.8 | 82.9 | 86.3 | 86.9 | 84.1 | 84.4 | 90.0 | 87.4 | 83.4 |
| EU15 | 78.5 | 74.5 | 57.2 | 67.2 | 68.5 | 70.1 | 82.6 | 81.6 | 77.3 | 80.5 | 76.7 | 86.6 | 83.7 | 75.7 |
| NMS12 | 63.6 | 63.7 | 65.0 | 73.6 | 58.3 | 64.2 | 86.3 | 71.8 | 59.8 | 56.5 | 81.9 | 83.7 | 81.0 | 70.3 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | 58.0 | 81.9 | 60.1 | 67.1 | 58.8 | 65.8 | 49.4 | 53.1 | 65.7 | 84.5 | 69.9 | 76.5 | 66.9 | 65.5 |
| Other Europe | 49.2 | 87.3 | .. | 52.0 | 59.7 | 70.9 | 54.8 | 100.0 | 70.0 | .. | .. | 94.9 | 85.6 | 69.0 |
| Other developed countries | 46.5 | 83.4 | 60.9 | 43.7 | 44.8 | 68.3 | 73.9 | 69.6 | 72.4 | 55.3 | 100.0 | 77.4 | 78.0 | 66.3 |
| Other developing countries | 59.3 | 70.6 | 53.2 | 77.8 | 63.1 | 63.6 | 57.9 | 69.5 | 51.4 | 83.4 | 91.5 | 67.1 | 76.5 | 71.4 |
| Country of birth | Unemployment rates (women aged 25–64 unemployed as % of women aged 25–64 with tertiary education in labour force) | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Same | 2.6 | 2.8 | 8.1 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.9 | 3.6 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 7.0 | 2.9 | 2.4 | 1.3 | 3.1 |
| EU15 | 4.1 | 3.0 | 5.9 | 6.2 | 7.7 | 3.3 | 2.4 | 2.5 | 5.2 | 12.7 | 13.9 | 1.5 | 4.0 | 4.0 |
| NMS12 | 12.4 | 8.4 | 7.0 | 10.6 | 33.1 | 8.8 | 4.4 | .. | 15.3 | 30.6 | 18.1 | 5.9 | 6.1 | 10.0 |
| Central and Eastern Europe | 22.0 | 1.1 | 13.0 | 21.6 | 17.5 | 12.3 | 4.8 | 18.7 | 9.3 | 10.6 | 11.3 | 11.8 | 12.1 | 11.8 |
| Other Europe | 4.9 | 63 | 100.0 | 24.5 | 21.1 | 2.7 | .. | .. | 11.8 | .. | .. | 2.6 | 14.4 | 9.6 |
| Other developed countries | 15.5 | 1.6 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 9.4 | 8.3 | .. | .. | 4.2 | .. | .. | .. | 5.6 | 4.0 |
| Other developing countries | 15.4 | 8.8 | 6.6 | 8.4 | 12.9 | 10.7 | 13.6 | 7.6 | 7.0 | 10.4 | 8.5 | 11.5 | 5.3 | 7.0 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

The jobs performed by migrants

It is not simply the case that migrants, especially those from low-income countries, tend to have lower employment rates than the indigenous population (i.e. those born in the EU): rather also those who are in employment tend to work more in lower-level — and lower-paid — jobs than the indigenous population. Once again, this is best seen by focusing on men and women with high education levels, who should be best equipped to obtain high-level jobs.

Table 3.10: Division of men aged 25–64 with tertiary education between broad occupations, 2007

| | % of total men employed by country group | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------------|
| Country of birth | BE | DK | GR | ES | FR | IT | LU | NL | AT | PT | FI | SE | UK | EU 15* |
| Same | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Managers, professionals, technicians | 81.4 | 84.6 | 80.1 | 65.6 | 84.6 | 89.6 | 98.6 | 88.9 | 73.5 | 88.4 | 85.3 | 87.2 | 82.2 | 80.9 |
| Clerks+office workers | 10.6 | 2.4 | 3.8 | 7.6 | 3.7 | 4.8 | 0.3 | 4.2 | 3.3 | 5.1 | 1.4 | 2.1 | 4.6 | 5.0 |
| Sales+service workers | 2.2 | 4.3 | 6.7 | 5.4 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 0.1 | 2.7 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 3.2 |
| Agricultural workers | 0.8 | 1.4 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 2.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 4.2 | 0.5 | 1.5 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.2 |
| Skilled manual workers | 3.5 | 5.1 | 3.7 | 16.8 | 5.6 | 1.2 | 0.2 | 3.0 | 15.7 | 1.4 | 5.4 | 4.1 | 6.6 | 7.3 |
| Elementary occupations | 1.0 | 1.5 | 0.3 | 2.5 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 0.5 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 1.6 | 0.8 | 2.0 | 1.4 |
| Developing country** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Managers, professionals, technicians | 69.1 | 67.9 | 66.8 | 39.0 | 72.6 | 44.0 | 83.2 | 74.8 | 60.3 | 85.2 | 86.4 | 56.7 | 74.5 | 65.0 |
| Clerks+office workers | 6.7 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 6.4 | 4.9 | 6.0 | 4.6 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.6 | 0.0 | 4.6 | 8.3 | 6.3 |
| Sales+service workers | 8.1 | 4.8 | 9.5 | 8.8 | 5.0 | 11.5 | 5.8 | 5.4 | 12.1 | 3.1 | 13.6 | 9.0 | 5.4 | 6.5 |
| Agricultural workers | 0.6 | 0.0 | 3.0 | 3.4 | 0.0 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 0.7 |
| Skilled manual workers | 8.6 | 13.7 | 17.5 | 28.8 | 9.0 | 23.6 | 6.4 | 10.3 | 9.9 | 4.5 | 0.0 | 21.4 | 6.5 | 13.1 |
| Elementary occupations | 6.5 | 12.3 | 3.2 | 13.3 | 8.0 | 14.4 | 0.0 | 4.6 | 12.6 | 1.1 | 0.0 | 7.8 | 5.2 | 8.1 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Notes: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.

** 'Developing country' includes here developing countries in Europe (i.e. the Central and Eastern European countries in the previous tables).

In practice, in the EU15, the great majority of both men and women with tertiary education born in a developing country are employed in high-level jobs as managers, professionals or technicians. In 2007, this was the case for 65% of men aged 25–64 with this level of education from such countries (Table 3.10). This, however, compares with 81% of men with a similar level of education but born in the EU15. Moreover, some 8% of those men with high education who were born in a developing country were employed in elementary occupations (i.e. doing low-skilled manual jobs), in contrast to only just over 1% of men born in the EU15. This difference is common to all Member States, including the four Southern countries. Indeed, the difference is particularly apparent in Spain and Italy, where, in the former, only 39% of those men with high education who were born in a developing

country were employed as managers, professionals or technicians, as compared with 66% of men born in the country (in Italy the figures are 44% as compared to 90%). In both countries, moreover, 13–14% of men with high education worked in elementary occupations if they were born in developing countries, as against under 3% if they were born in the EU15.

Similar differences are evident for women. On average in the EU15, just over 62% of women aged 25–64 with high education and born in a developing country worked as managers, professionals or technicians in 2007, as opposed to just over 78% of those born in the EU15, while 8% of women from developing countries and with tertiary education were employed in elementary occupations, and almost 16% in basic sales or service jobs, as against 1% and 7%, respectively, of women born in the EU15 (Table 3.11).

Once again, the difference is common to all EU15 Member States and, as for men, was particularly large in Spain and Italy, where in both cases the proportion of women with tertiary qualifications and from developing countries who were working in high-level jobs was around 30 percentage points lower than for those born in the EU15. The difference was only slightly smaller (over 20 percentage points) in Denmark, Austria and Sweden.

Table 3.11: Division of women aged 25–64 with tertiary education between broad occupations, 2007

| | % of total women employed by country group | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------------|
| Country of birth | BE | DK | GR | ES | FR | IT | LU | NL | AT | PT | FI | SE | UK | EU 15* |
| Same | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Managers, professionals, technicians | 76.2 | 87.0 | 83.8 | 69.4 | 78.0 | 86.3 | 96.6 | 86.7 | 84.3 | 87.2 | 78.9 | 89.8 | 75.1 | 78.4 |
| Clerks+office workers | 18.5 | 6.5 | 10.4 | 17.0 | 13.3 | 9.0 | 2.6 | 8.1 | 6.9 | 9.2 | 11.9 | 4.2 | 12.5 | 12.3 |
| Sales+service workers | 3.3 | 4.6 | 4.0 | 9.9 | 5.6 | 3.5 | 0.8 | 4.0 | 5.1 | 3.2 | 5.7 | 4.6 | 10.0 | 6.8 |
| Agricultural workers | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 1.4 | 0.2 | 1.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| Skilled manual workers | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.5 | 1.7 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 0.9 | 1.0 |
| Elementary occupations | 0.7 | 1.2 | 0.3 | 1.9 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 1.1 | 1.0 |
| Developing country** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Managers, professionals, technicians | 64.8 | 66.8 | 64.1 | 40.2 | 68.9 | 55.0 | 82.4 | 78.8 | 61.9 | 71.0 | 75.0 | 64.9 | 72.1 | 62.4 |
| Clerks+office workers | 19.2 | 11.0 | 3.7 | 11.5 | 14.3 | 6.6 | 4.3 | 11.7 | 15.3 | 14.3 | 0.0 | 4.9 | 12.3 | 12.1 |
| Sales+service workers | 8.5 | 11.5 | 23.5 | 29.1 | 9.0 | 10.9 | 13.3 | 5.4 | 14.6 | 6.7 | 12.7 | 21.9 | 12.4 | 15.5 |
| Agricultural workers | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Skilled manual workers | 0.0 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 1.9 | 1.3 | 7.6 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 1.4 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 3.2 | 0.7 | 1.5 |
| Elementary occupations | 7.6 | 8.9 | 8.7 | 17.3 | 6.4 | 19.7 | 0.0 | 3.1 | 6.9 | 4.7 | 12.4 | 4.9 | 2.3 | 8.2 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Note: * EU15 — excluding Germany and Ireland.** 'Developing country' includes here developing countries in Europe (i.e. the Central and East European countries in the previous tables).

Differences of this kind are equally apparent for the migrant population as a whole in the EU (i.e. for all education levels), compared to the rest of the population. In 2007, therefore, less than 30% of men from developing countries were employed as managers, professionals or technicians, in contrast to over 40% of those born in the EU15. Similarly, 18% of the former were employed in elementary occupations, compared to just 7% of the latter (Table 3.12).

For women, the difference is even more pronounced. While almost 44% of women in employment and born in the EU country in which they live were employed as managers, professionals or technicians, this was the case for only 27% of those born in a developing country. Moreover, whereas 10% of the former worked in elementary occupations, the figure for the latter was over 30%.

Table 3.12: Division of men and women aged 25–64 in EU15 by broad occupation and country of birth, 2007

| Occupation | % total employed in each group | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| | Men: country of birth | | Women: country of birth | |
| | Same | Developing country | Same | Developing country |
| Managers, professionals, technicians | 42.3 | 26.9 | 43.7 | 27.2 |
| Clerks+office workers | 6.4 | 4.5 | 19.0 | 11.3 |
| Sales+service workers | 6.7 | 10.4 | 19.4 | 24.0 |
| Agricultural workers | 3.6 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 0.4 |
| Skilled manual workers | 32.6 | 38.7 | 5.5 | 6.3 |
| Elementary occupations | 7.2 | 18.0 | 10.2 | 30.6 |

Source: EU Labour Force Survey 2007

Note: Armed forces are not included, so the figures may not sum to 100.

Household circumstances and income of migrants of working age

The above differences are almost certain to be reflected in relative income levels. This is confirmed by data from the EU-SILC, which is the main source of data for the remaining part of the analysis. This examines, first, the household circumstances of people with a migrant background and, second, their levels of disposable income and risk of poverty, in both cases in relation to those of the indigenous population.

It should be noted that the EU-SILC results differ slightly from the LFS in terms of the relative number of migrants (as defined by their country of birth), and their education and employment characteristics, which is not too surprising given the relatively small sample of the population covered by both. It should also be noted that, in the same way as the LFS and for the same reasons, the EU-SILC is likely

to under-record the number of migrants, especially those who have lived in the country concerned for a relatively short period of time.⁸

More importantly, it is also the case that migrants are defined somewhat differently here, in the analysis of the EU-SILC data, than in the LFS. Not only is the focus on a slightly wider age group — those aged 16–64 — but the primary concern here is with income, which is measured on a household rather than on an individual basis, and is assumed to be shared equally between all the household members. Consequently, the income of migrants is affected by the earnings of other people in the household. In order to allow for this, migrants are defined in this part of the analysis as those living in households where all the other adult members were also born outside the country in question. Accordingly, the total number in each country recorded as being migrants is less than in the above analysis.

While the definition adopted for this part of the analysis is more restrictive and covers only a proportion of those with migrant backgrounds (insofar as it excludes those who have married, or are living with, people born in the country to which they have moved), it should give an insight into the extent of disparities between the income of migrants and that of the majority population across the EU.

According to the EU-SILC, therefore, migrants from outside the EU by this definition made up just over 5% of the total population in the EU15 aged 16–64, while migrants from other EU Member States accounted for just under 1%. The former figure varied, however, from 11% in Austria and 7% in the UK, to around only 1% in Portugal and Finland, while the proportion of those from another EU country ranged from 34% in Luxembourg and just under 5% in Ireland, to just 0.2% in Portugal and the UK.

Nevertheless, in general, the picture painted by the two surveys is very similar, despite the difference in the definition of migrants. In particular, the education levels of migrants from other EU Member States tend to be higher than for non-migrants, or the indigenous population, while for migrants from outside the EU, education levels are not much different from those of the indigenous population. (As noted above, the EU-SILC data allow people to be distinguished in terms of their country of birth only very broadly: namely, according to whether they were born in their country of residence, in another EU Member State or outside the EU. As such, unlike the LFS, the EU-SILC data do not allow migrants from the new Member States to be distinguished from migrants from EU15 countries, nor migrants from developing countries outside Europe to be distinguished from those from developed countries.)

Like the LFS, the EU-SILC also indicates that the employment rate for migrants from outside the EU is lower than for non-migrants, and that, equally, those in work tend to be disproportionately employed in lower-level jobs than the indigenous population and, conversely, less employed as managers, professionals and technicians.

⁸ This is certainly the case with regard to citizenship. For example, in Germany, a country with one of the highest migrant populations in Europe, the Central Register of Foreigners (data published by the Federal Statistical Office, Germany), records 6.7 million people with foreign citizenship living in Germany in 2006, of whom 2.2 million had EU citizenship. This implies that around 5.5% of the population had non-EU citizenship, which compares with a figure of around 2% recorded by the EU-SILC.

Accordingly, the same kinds of factor underlie the relative position of people with a migrant background in terms of income levels in the EU-SILC data as in the LFS data.

Household circumstances

The household characteristics of people of working age (here defined as 15–64) with a migrant background in the EU tend to compound their unfavourable position in relation to non-migrants. In most Member States, more of them live alone and, partly because of this, more live in households where no one is in work (i.e. workless households).

Table 3.13: Household circumstances of people aged 15–64 by country of birth, 2006

% total by country of birth

| Country | Born in country of residence | | | | | | Born outside the EU | | | | | |
|-------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| | Single person | Single person with child | Two + adults without children | Two + adults with 1–2 children | Two + adults with 3+ children | Other with children | Single person | Single person with child | Two + adults without children | Two + adults with 1–2 children | Two + adults with 3+ children | Other with children |
| BE | 15 | 5 | 38 | 27 | 8 | 8 | 28 | 8 | 15 | 23 | 15 | 12 |
| DK | 24 | 5 | 34 | 28 | 6 | 2 | 33 | 11 | 14 | 22 | 19 | 2 |
| DE | 19 | 5 | 37 | 28 | 5 | 7 | 28 | 6 | 29 | 24 | 9 | 5 |
| IE | 6 | 6 | 34 | 22 | 11 | 21 | 11 | 17 | 22 | 38 | 9 | 2 |
| GR | 6 | 2 | 46 | 33 | 2 | 11 | 7 | 2 | 29 | 42 | 2 | 18 |
| ES | 4 | 1 | 44 | 32 | 2 | 15 | 7 | 2 | 35 | 25 | 7 | 23 |
| FR | 14 | 5 | 35 | 37 | 5 | 4 | 19 | 9 | 22 | 34 | 11 | 4 |
| IT | 9 | 3 | 40 | 31 | 4 | 14 | 29 | 3 | 21 | 27 | 4 | 16 |
| LU | 15 | 3 | 35 | 35 | 4 | 8 | 20 | 7 | 28 | 19 | 15 | 12 |
| NL | 17 | 3 | 38 | 28 | 8 | 6 | 32 | 8 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 3 |
| AT | 15 | 4 | 39 | 24 | 5 | 13 | 9 | 4 | 30 | 28 | 9 | 19 |
| PT | 3 | 2 | 39 | 34 | 3 | 19 | 7 | 0 | 49 | 19 | 2 | 23 |
| FI | 19 | 4 | 38 | 27 | 8 | 4 | 22 | 13 | 26 | 21 | 13 | 5 |
| SE | 21 | 6 | 31 | 29 | 7 | 5 | 23 | 12 | 16 | 28 | 12 | 9 |
| UK | 13 | 6 | 44 | 25 | 5 | 6 | 19 | 11 | 31 | 21 | 9 | 9 |
| EU15 | 13 | 4 | 39 | 30 | 5 | 9 | 21 | 7 | 27 | 26 | 9 | 10 |

Source: EU-SILC 2006

According to the EU-SILC data for 2006, therefore, some 21% of migrants aged 15–64 born outside the EU but living in an EU15 Member State live alone, as opposed to 13% of those born in the country in which they live (the figure is even larger for migrants from another EU Member State — 34%). (Note that in the analysis here, both Germany and Ireland are included, since the EU-SILC contains data for these.) At the same time, 7% of migrants from both outside and inside the EU were single parents living alone with a child, compared to just 4% of the

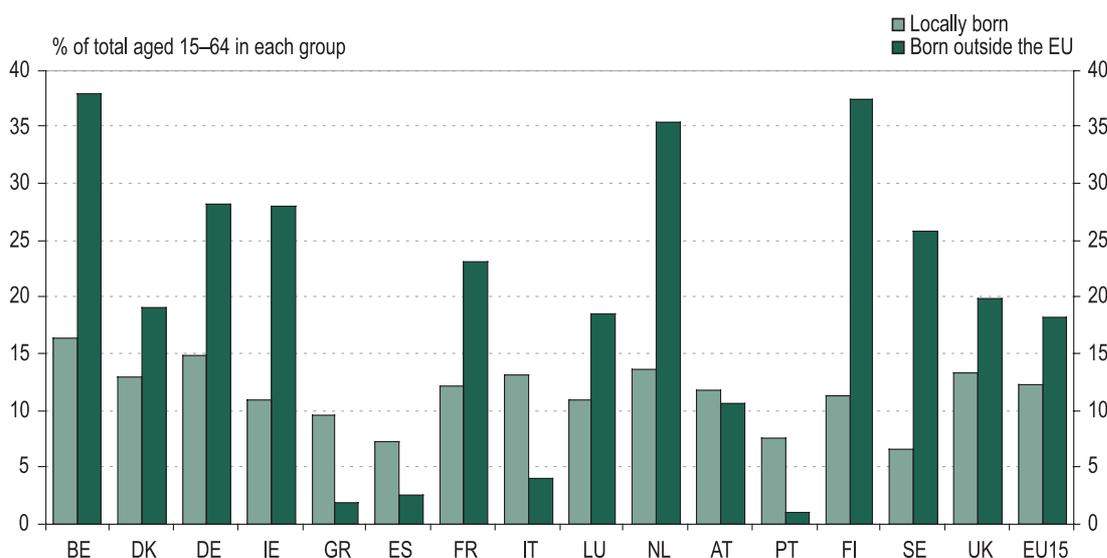
indigenous population. This pattern is repeated in nearly all Member States, the main exception being Austria, where more of the indigenous population live alone than migrants (Table 3.13 — the situation of migrants from other parts of the EU is not included in the table because of the small number of observations for many countries, which makes the figures unreliable).

At the same time, significantly more migrants from outside Europe (though not from inside) had large families of three or more children than did those born in the country concerned. On average, 9% of the migrants in question fell into this category, compared to 5% of the rest of the population. In Belgium, moreover, this figure was as high as 15%, and in Denmark and the Netherlands, 19%. The risk of poverty among migrants, therefore, is increased, on the one hand, by many living alone and, on the other, by many having large numbers of dependent children.

The relative number of people in this age group living in workless households was also higher among migrants than among the indigenous population, reflecting their lower employment rates, as well as the larger proportion living alone. In the EU15 as a whole, in 2006 some 18% of those born outside the EU lived in households where no one was in work, compared to 12% of those born in the country (Figure 3.1).

In Belgium and Finland, this figure was as high as 38%, and in the Netherlands only slightly lower, while in Germany, Ireland and Sweden, it was over 25%.

Figure 3.1: Proportion of population aged 15–64 living in workless households, 2006



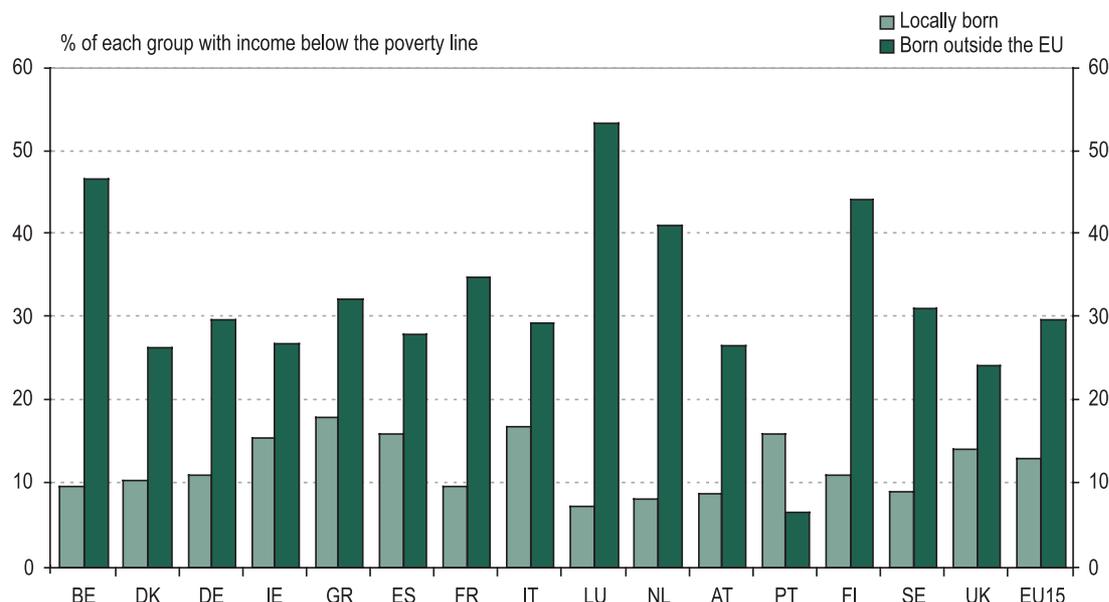
Source: EU-SILC 2006

Disposable income

As implied by the above comparisons, a larger proportion of people in the EU15 with a migrant background had low levels of income than did the rest of the population. Indeed, the relative number at risk of poverty as conventionally measured — i.e. having equivalised disposable income of less than 60% of the national median

— was more than twice as high among those born outside the EU as among those born in the country in which they lived (30% as against 13%) (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2: Risk of poverty among those aged 15–64, 2005



Source: EU-SILC 2006

This pattern is repeated in all Member States, with the sole exception of Portugal, where the risk of poverty was higher among the indigenous population than among migrants. In Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, as well as in Finland, the proportion of migrants from outside the EU at such risk was over 40% in each case — at least four times higher than for non-migrants.

This disparity between those with a migrant background and the indigenous population is equally evident in relation to the distribution of income more generally. If the population aged 15–64 in each country is ranked according to disposable income (again equalised to allow for differences in household size and composition) and divided into five equal groups, or quintiles, each containing 20% of the population, some 39%, on average, of migrants in this age group from outside the EU were included in the bottom quintile in 2006 (i.e. among the 20% with the lowest level of income) and only 9% were in the top quintile (Table 3.14).

The disparity is even wider in a number of Member States. In Belgium, some 66% of those of working age born outside the EU were included in the bottom quintile; in the Netherlands, 63%; and in Finland and Luxembourg, 60%. With the exception of Portugal (13%), in no EU15 Member State was the proportion included in the bottom quintile less than 29% (the UK). Equally, in no EU15 Member State except Portugal (20%) and the UK (16%) was the proportion of those born outside the EU and in the top quintile more than 10%, and in six Member States (Denmark, Greece, Spain, Luxembourg, Austria and Finland) it was less than 5%.

Table 3.14: Distribution of those aged 15–64 born outside the EU, by income quintile, 2005

% of population aged 15–64 in each quintile

| Country | Income quintiles of total population aged 15–64 | | | | |
|-------------|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| | 1st | 2nd | 3rd | 4th | 5th |
| BE | 66 | 20 | 5 | 3 | 7 |
| DK | 57 | 26 | 7 | 9 | 1 |
| DE | 40 | 23 | 14 | 13 | 10 |
| IE | 35 | 30 | 9 | 17 | 10 |
| GR | 35 | 29 | 21 | 12 | 4 |
| ES | 30 | 29 | 27 | 11 | 3 |
| FR | 51 | 20 | 13 | 7 | 10 |
| IT | 33 | 31 | 19 | 11 | 7 |
| LU | 60 | 24 | 6 | 7 | 3 |
| NL | 63 | 17 | 8 | 5 | 6 |
| AT | 45 | 30 | 12 | 11 | 2 |
| PT | 13 | 29 | 19 | 20 | 20 |
| FI | 60 | 29 | 5 | 2 | 3 |
| SE | 54 | 20 | 13 | 8 | 5 |
| UK | 29 | 23 | 18 | 14 | 16 |
| EU15 | 39 | 25 | 16 | 11 | 9 |

Source: EU-SILC 2006

As is evident below, the low income levels of migrants from outside the EU have implications for the income — and risk of poverty — of children. Before we examine their position, however, we look at the situation of migrants among older people.

Household circumstances and income of migrants aged 65 and older

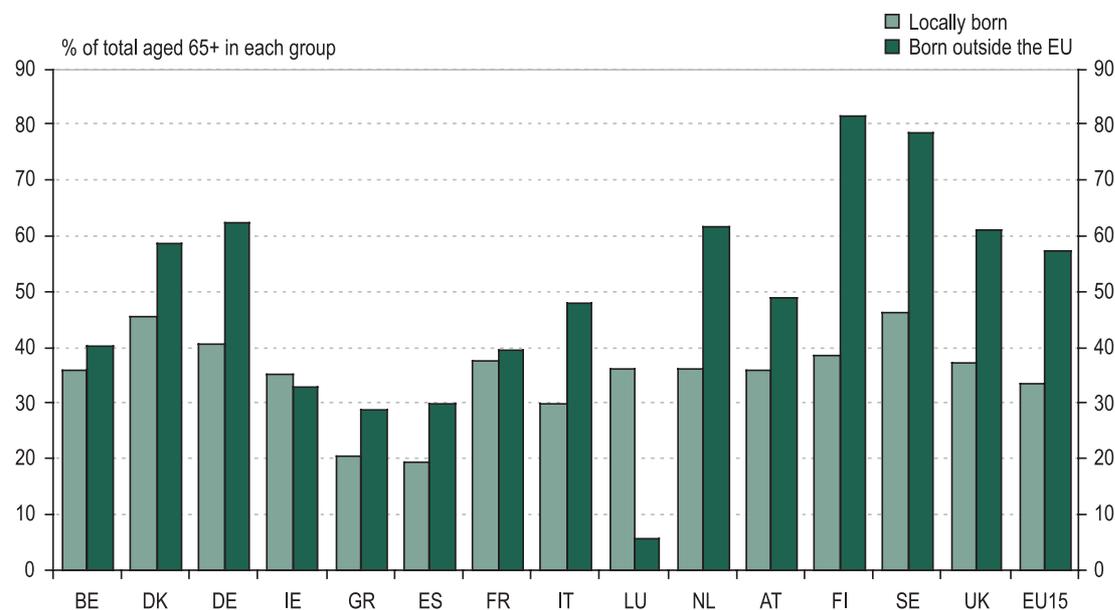
The relative number of people in the EU with a migrant background among the older age group — those aged 65 and older — is recorded by the EU-SILC as being smaller than for those of working age, though only slightly so. On average across the EU15, migrants from outside the EU (defined here to include only those living in households where all adult members were from outside the EU) made up 4.5% of the population of this age in 2006, according to the EU-SILC, while those from other EU Member States accounted for just over 1%.

Household circumstances

As with those of working age, more migrants in this age group from outside the EU live alone than do those of the same age who were born in the country of residence — 57% in the EU15 as a whole, compared to 34% (Figure 3.3). Although the proportion varies across countries — up to around 80% in Finland and Sweden

— in all EU15 Member States, apart from Ireland and Luxembourg, the figure was higher for migrants than for the indigenous population. This might pose a social problem in the countries where this proportion is particularly high, since it has potential implications — in particular, for income support and caring — and so raises possible policy issues.

Figure 3.3: Proportion of those aged 65+ living alone, 2006



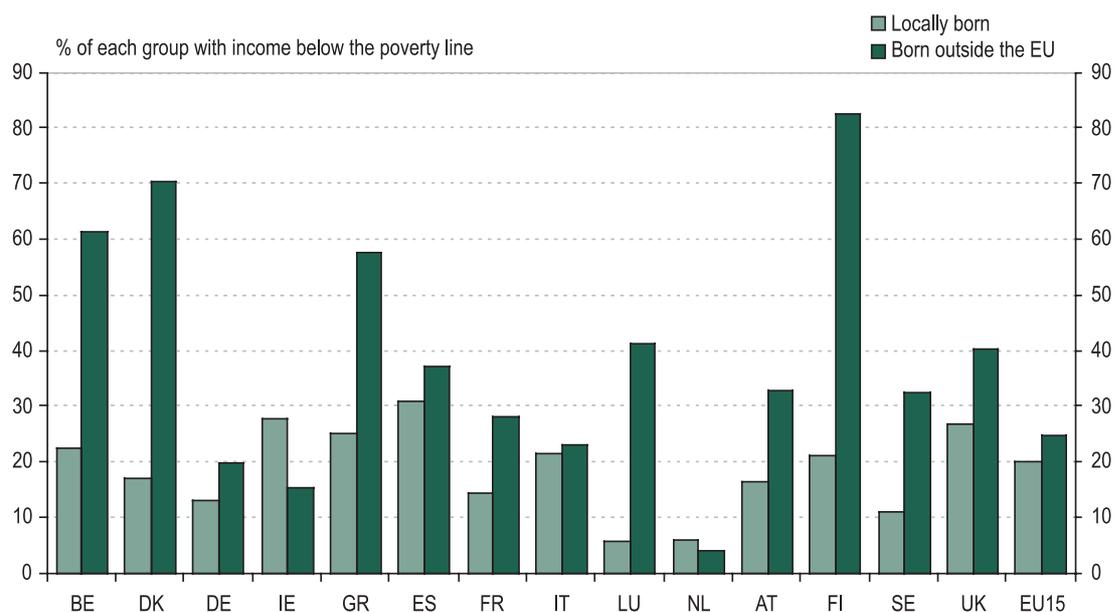
Source: EU-SILC 2006

Note: Data for Portugal too sparse to be reliable.

Disposable income

Between migrants and non-migrants, there is less of a difference in the distribution of income for those aged 65 and older than is the case for people of working age. This applies equally to the relative numbers at risk of poverty. In the EU15 as a whole, some 25% of migrants from outside the EU had disposable income below the poverty line in 2005 (defined as 60% of the national median), while this was the case for 20% of those born in the country in which they lived (Figure 3.4). The proportion at risk of poverty defined in this way was, in fact, larger among migrants from other EU Member States, amounting to some 28%.

Figure 3.4: Risk of poverty among those aged 65+, 2005



Source: EU-SILC 2006

Note: Data for Portugal too sparse to be reliable.

The proportion at risk, however, particularly for migrants from outside the EU, varied markedly between Member States, exceeding 80% in Finland, 70% in Denmark and 60% in Belgium — in each case, considerably larger than for the indigenous population in this age group. On the other hand, in Ireland and the Netherlands, the relative number with income below the poverty line was smaller among migrants from outside the EU than among non-migrants, while in Italy, it was much the same.

The generally higher risk of poverty among those aged 65 and over and born outside the EU (compared to those born in the country in which they live) is reflected in the relative income levels of the two groups: some 27% of those in this age group from outside the EU on average had income in the bottom quintile of the distribution in the EU15, while only 15% had income in the top quintile (the quintiles being defined in terms of the income of the total population aged 65 and over) (Table 3.15).

Once again, the figures varied widely between Member States, though only in Ireland were proportionately fewer people aged 65 and over from outside the EU included in the bottom quintile (16%) than if income levels were the same as for the indigenous population (i.e. less than 20%, which would be expected if the people concerned were distributed across the income quintiles in the same way as the total population). As for the risk-of-poverty rates, the proportion of those born outside the EU with income in the bottom quintile was particularly high in Belgium, Denmark and Finland (over 60% in each case), and in each case relatively few had income in the upper quintiles. Indeed, in all these countries, under 30% of those from outside the EU were included in the top 60% of people in this age group ranked in terms of their income. On the other hand, in Ireland, Italy and the

Netherlands, the proportion of those born outside the EU in the top 60% was much the same as for the indigenous population.

Table 3.15: Distribution of those aged 65+ born outside the EU, by income quintile, 2005

% of those born outside the EU in each quintile

| Country | Income quintiles of population aged 65+ | | | | |
|-------------|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | 1st | 2nd | 3rd | 4th | 5th |
| BE | 62 | 18 | 7 | 8 | 6 |
| DK | 71 | 0 | 16 | 0 | 13 |
| DE | 24 | 20 | 18 | 20 | 17 |
| IE | 16 | 43 | 21 | 0 | 21 |
| GR | 44 | 25 | 14 | 6 | 11 |
| ES | 31 | 10 | 35 | 22 | 2 |
| FR | 29 | 22 | 15 | 19 | 14 |
| IT | 23 | 14 | 19 | 18 | 26 |
| LU | 44 | 0 | 25 | 19 | 13 |
| NL | 23 | 16 | 18 | 25 | 17 |
| AT | 39 | 21 | 14 | 16 | 10 |
| FI | 83 | 7 | 11 | 0 | 0 |
| SE | 50 | 21 | 19 | 9 | 2 |
| UK | 31 | 24 | 15 | 21 | 8 |
| EU15 | 27 | 21 | 18 | 20 | 15 |

Source: EU-SILC 2006

Household circumstances and the income of children of migrant families

The above differences in the income of people of working age — between those living in the EU but born outside and the indigenous population — will tend to be reflected in the relative incomes that the children of migrant families have access to. The degree to which this is the case, of course, depends on how far the relative income levels of migrants of working age with children are the same as for those without children. This is the focus of this part of the analysis, which examines the situation of the children of parents born outside the Member State in which they live, and most especially of those born outside the EU.

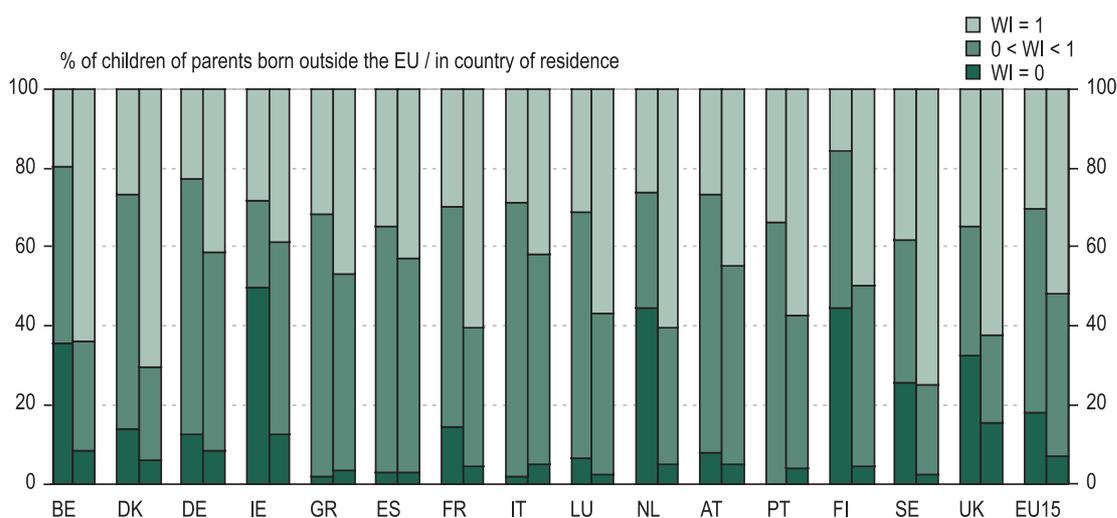
Again, the analysis is based on data from the latest EU-SILC, collected in 2006, but which, in the case of income, relate to the preceding year. The focus is, first, on the household characteristics of the children of migrant parents, compared to those of other children, and specifically on how many live in workless households; second, on the relative number of the children concerned who live in households with an income level that puts them at risk of poverty; and, third, on the household circumstances of those who have income of this level.

Household circumstances

As indicated above, there is a significant difference in employment rates in the EU between migrants of working age and the indigenous population. This difference is translated into a similar difference in the relative number of children living in workless households, or in those households in which not everyone of working age has a job.

In 2006, therefore, in the EU15 as a whole, some 18% of the children of parents who were born outside the EU lived in households where no one was in work, compared to just 7% of the children whose parents were born locally (i.e. in the country of residence). Only in three Member States — Greece, Spain and Italy, where the relative number of people living in workless households was small (5% or less) — was the proportion of children living in workless households the same (or smaller) for those whose parents were born outside the EU as for those whose parents were born locally. In Ireland, the Netherlands and Finland, 45% or more of the children of migrant parents lived in workless households, while in Belgium and the UK the figure was a third or more — a considerably larger proportion than for the children of non-migrants (Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.5: Children of parents born outside the EU and in country of residence by the work intensity (WI) of households in which they live, 2005



Source: EU-SILC 2006

Note: Left bar: born outside the EU; right bar: born in country of residence.

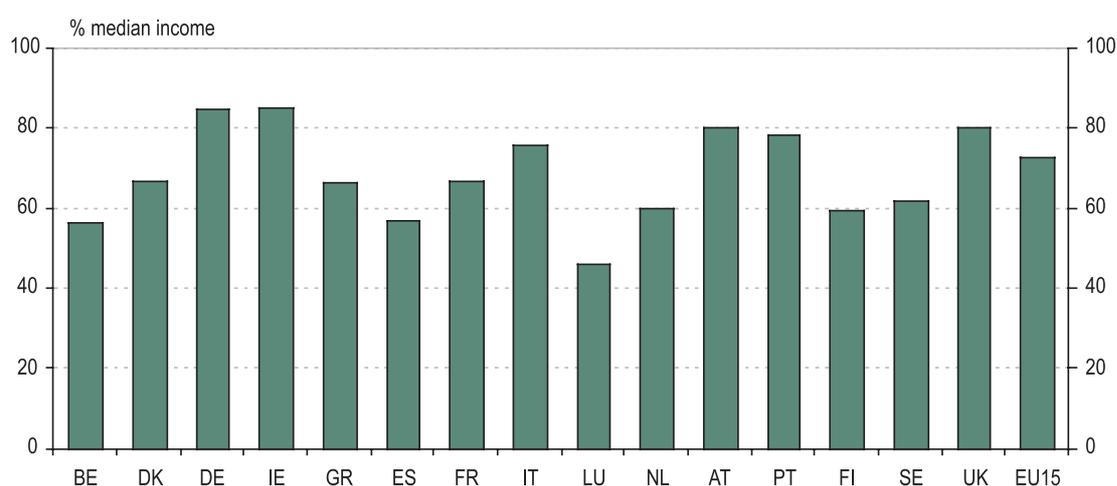
Moreover, while 52% of the children of locally born parents in the EU lived in households where everyone of working age was in employment throughout the year, this was the case for only 30% of children whose parents were born outside the EU. This difference is repeated in all EU15 Member States. In none of them did the proportion of children of migrant parents living in households where all adult members were in work exceed 40%, and only in Sweden did it exceed 35%. In Belgium, Germany and Finland, the proportion was under 25% (in the last, only 15%). By contrast, in none of the EU15 countries (with the sole exception of Ireland, where the figure was 39%) did less than 40% of the children of locally born parents

live in households where everyone was employed, and in six of the countries the figure was over 60%.

Relative income levels

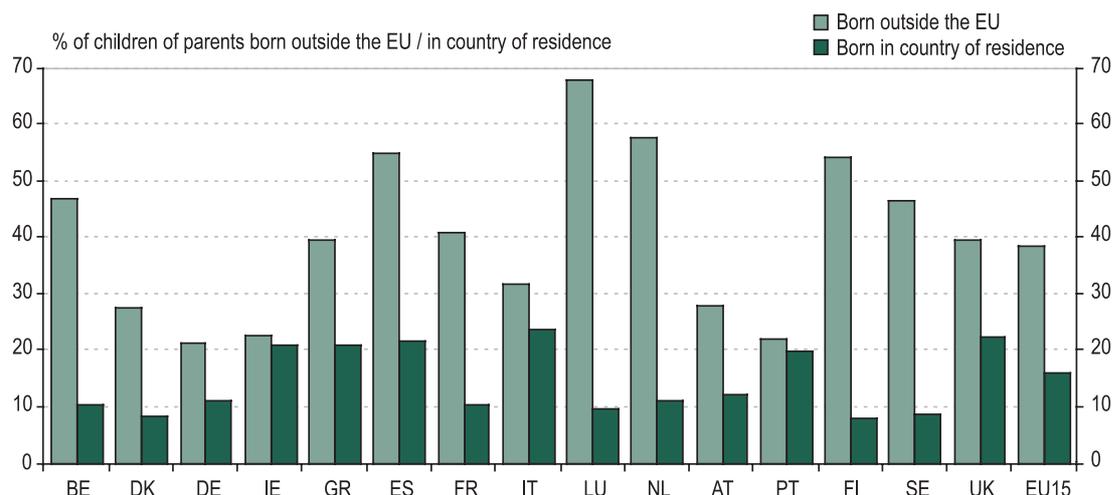
The difference in the work intensity (WI) of the households in which migrant children live, as compared to the WI of households in which children of locally born parents live, is reflected in differences in the income to which children have access. On average, across the EU in 2005 (i.e. the year preceding the EU-SILC survey for 2006), the median equivalised disposable income of the children of parents born outside the EU was some 17% less than among the children of locally born parents (i.e. assuming children have an equal share of the households in which they live). In Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain and Finland, it was over 40% less, and in none of the EU15 Member States was the difference under 15% less (Figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6: Median income of children of parents born outside the EU relative to that of those with parents born in country of residence, 2005



Source: EU-SILC 2006

This difference in median income levels is associated with a markedly higher risk of poverty among the children of migrant parents than among those whose parents were born locally. In the EU15 Member States taken together, some 38% of children whose parents were born outside the EU had equivalised income below the poverty line, as conventionally measured (i.e. below 60% of the national median), compared to 16% of the children of locally born parents (Figure 3.7).

Figure 3.7: Proportion of children with income below the poverty line, 2005

Source: EU-SILC 2006

Only in Germany, Ireland and Portugal was the proportion of the children of migrant parents with this level of income under 25% (but over 20% in each case), and apart from these three countries, only in Denmark, Italy and Austria was the proportion much under 40%. Well over half the children of migrant families in four countries — Finland (54%), Spain (55%), the Netherlands (58%) and Luxembourg (68%) — had income below the poverty line; in three of them (all except Spain) this is in sharp contrast to the relatively small proportion of children of locally born parents with income this low (8–11% — in Spain, the figure was 22%).

As indicated above, the risk of poverty among people of working age, taking those with and without children together, is significantly higher among those born outside the EU than among those born inside. Since the risk is also much higher among migrant families with children than among other families, this raises the question of the extent to which migrant families with children are more likely to have a poverty level of income than are migrants without children. It also raises the question of the degree to which children in themselves contribute to the low income of the families concerned. To assess this, migrant households can be divided into those with and those without children, and the extent to which each group has income below the poverty line can be compared to the equivalent group of non-migrant households.

In practice, households where the members were born outside the EU have a significantly higher risk of poverty if they have children than if they do not. It is still the case, however, that even those without children have a much higher risk than equivalent households where the members were born locally (i.e. in the country of residence). In 2005, in the EU15 as a whole, therefore, some 34% of households with children where the parents were born outside the EU had income below the poverty line, compared to 15% of households with children where the parents were born locally, a difference of 19 percentage points (Table 3.16 — note that the poverty rates shown in the table differ from those presented in Figure 3.7 because they relate to households rather than children). At the same time, 26% of households without children whose members were born outside the EU had

poverty-level income, as opposed to 17.5% of those whose members were born locally — a difference of 8.5 percentage points: still significant but less than half the difference for households with children.

Table 3.16: Comparison of risk of poverty of households with and without children, 2005

| Country | Households with people born in country | | Households with people born outside EU | | Born outside EU minus born in country | |
|-------------|--|------------------|--|------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------|
| | With children | Without children | With children | Without children | With children | Without children |
| | % of households with income below poverty line | | | | % point difference | |
| BE | 9.7 | 17.1 | 46.2 | 46.9 | 36.5 | 29.8 |
| DK | 7.1 | 17.8 | 23.6 | 37.1 | 16.5 | 19.2 |
| DE | 10.8 | 16.5 | 19.9 | 22.9 | 9.1 | 6.4 |
| IE | 18.2 | 25.7 | 22.7 | 34.4 | 4.5 | 8.8 |
| GR | 20.0 | 20.1 | 37.2 | 23.1 | 17.1 | 3.0 |
| ES | 20.4 | 22.1 | 41.5 | 21.1 | 21.1 | -0.9 |
| FR | 9.9 | 13.2 | 39.3 | 26.6 | 29.4 | 13.4 |
| IT | 22.0 | 18.7 | 33.4 | 29.6 | 11.4 | 10.9 |
| LU | 8.7 | 8.4 | 66.0 | 49.1 | 57.3 | 40.7 |
| NL | 9.3 | 9.7 | 51.3 | 21.7 | 42.0 | 12.0 |
| AT | 11.1 | 15.2 | 25.3 | 32.3 | 14.2 | 17.1 |
| FI | 7.0 | 20.6 | 43.4 | 61.3 | 36.4 | 40.7 |
| SE | 8.8 | 14.6 | 37.8 | 29.8 | 29.0 | 15.1 |
| UK | 19.9 | 20.5 | 33.6 | 27.3 | 13.7 | 6.8 |
| EU15 | 15.2 | 17.5 | 34.2 | 26.0 | 19.0 | 8.5 |

Source: EU-SILC 2006

This pattern is common to most Member States, though to varying extents. The presence of children, therefore, adds markedly to the risk of poverty among migrants in Greece, Spain, France, Sweden and, most especially, the Netherlands. By contrast, there are four EU15 Member States — Denmark, Ireland, Austria and Finland — where the risk of poverty was less among people born outside the EU with dependent children than among those without.

Ethnic minorities and child poverty in the UK

The above analysis treats people with a migrant background, many of whom will constitute an ethnic minority in the EU, as a homogeneous group — in large part because the lack of data prevents any other approach. In practice, however, such people may well differ in terms of their characteristics and circumstances, according to which country or part of the world they come from and which minority group they belong to. Distinguishing empirically between the people concerned,

however, is not possible from the data so far collected by the EU-SILC and, as indicated at the outset, in most EU countries there are no national sources of data to fill the gap.

The UK is the exception. Here data are routinely collected on ethnicity — in large measure to inform policy-making and to serve as a basis for assessing the policies in place; this makes it possible to examine the position of different ethnic groups in terms of their household circumstances, their income and risk of poverty. These data show that there are pronounced differences in the position of these different groups, which should caution against treating people who have migrated to the EU from various parts of the world without distinction (although how far the conclusions reached from analysing these data can be generalised to other EU Member States is open to question). Nevertheless, despite the caveats, the situation in the UK is of interest, since it is at least indicative of the kinds of difference between the various groups concerned that might exist across the EU, and highlights the need to take such differences into account when framing policy that is intended to reduce poverty rates or to tackle problems of social exclusion.

According to the latest data available, minority groups, including white minorities, make up around 12% of the population of Great Britain (i.e. the UK excluding Northern Ireland) and some 15% of children. However, they account for 25% of children with income below the poverty line, as conventionally measured, or 24% if housing costs are excluded (Table 3.17).

Table 3.17: Children with income below 60% of the median by ethnic group

| Ethnic group | % of all children | % below poverty line | % below poverty line after housing costs |
|-----------------|-------------------|----------------------|--|
| White British | 84.8 | 75.3 | 75.9 |
| Indian | 2.3 | 3.2 | 2.7 |
| Pakistani | 2.3 | 5.6 | 4.5 |
| Bangladeshi | 1.0 | 3.1 | 2.6 |
| Black Caribbean | 1.4 | 1.9 | 1.9 |
| Black African | 1.7 | 2.9 | 3.4 |

Source: From *Households Below Average (HBA) income data, 2003/04–2005/06*

These disproportionate shares reflect the relatively high poverty rates among children of ethnic minority families. However, these vary markedly between the different groups concerned. In particular, Pakistani and Bangladeshi groups are much more at risk of poverty than are Indian or Black Caribbean groups, though these, in turn, are at greater risk than the White British population (Table 3.18).

Table 3.18: Risk-of-poverty rates by ethnic group, Great Britain, average 2003/04–2005/06

| Ethnic group | Children | | Working-age adults | | All individuals | |
|-----------------|----------|-----|--------------------|-----|-----------------|-----|
| | BHC | AHC | BHC | AHC | BHC | AHC |
| White British | 19 | 26 | 13 | 17 | 16 | 19 |
| Indian | 30 | 34 | 20 | 23 | 24 | 26 |
| Pakistani | 53 | 57 | 48 | 55 | 49 | 54 |
| Bangladeshi | 64 | 73 | 54 | 65 | 57 | 66 |
| Black Caribbean | 30 | 39 | 22 | 29 | 25 | 31 |
| Black African | 37 | 57 | 27 | 43 | 29 | 47 |

Source: See Table 3.17.

Note: BHC=including housing costs income, AHC=excluding housing costs.

Particular ethnic groups are more likely to have characteristics that place them at a higher risk of poverty than others. Black Caribbean and Black African children, for example, are more likely to be living in lone-parent families, while Bangladeshi and Pakistani children are more likely to be living in large families (Tables 3.19 and 3.20, first and fourth columns).

Nevertheless, the risks of poverty that come from living in different household types are not constant across the groups. For example, lone-parent families have a high risk of poverty across all groups, but for Pakistani and Bangladeshi children the risk is greater for those living in couple-parent families (Table 3.19 — i.e. the figure in the third column is greater than the figure in the first column). The combined effect of the different distribution of children between couple-parent families and lone parents, and the specific risk of poverty in each of these, means that the shares of children with income below the poverty line living in particular family circumstances varies markedly between the different ethnic groups. Whereas, for example, some 76% of Black Caribbean children at risk of poverty are being brought up by lone parents, over 90% of Bangladeshi children at risk are in families with two parents.

Table 3.19: Children by family type and risk of poverty by family type and ethnic group, Great Britain, 2003/04–2005/06

| Ethnic group | Couple-parent families | | | Lone-parent families | | |
|-----------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | % in type (1) | % (risk) poor in type (2) | Share of poor in type (3) | % in type (4) | % (risk) poor in type (5) | Share of poor in type (6) |
| White British | 75 | 14 | 55 | 25 | 36 | 45 |
| Indian | 90 | 28 | 83 | 10 | 48 | 17 |
| Pakistani | 83 | 55 | 85 | 17 | 49 | 15 |
| Bangladeshi | 87 | 66 | 91 | 13 | 45 | 9 |
| Black Caribbean | 43 | 17 | 24 | 56 | 39 | 76 |
| Black African | 53 | 29 | 42 | 47 | 46 | 58 |

Source: See Table 3.17.

Note: Poverty is measured BHC.

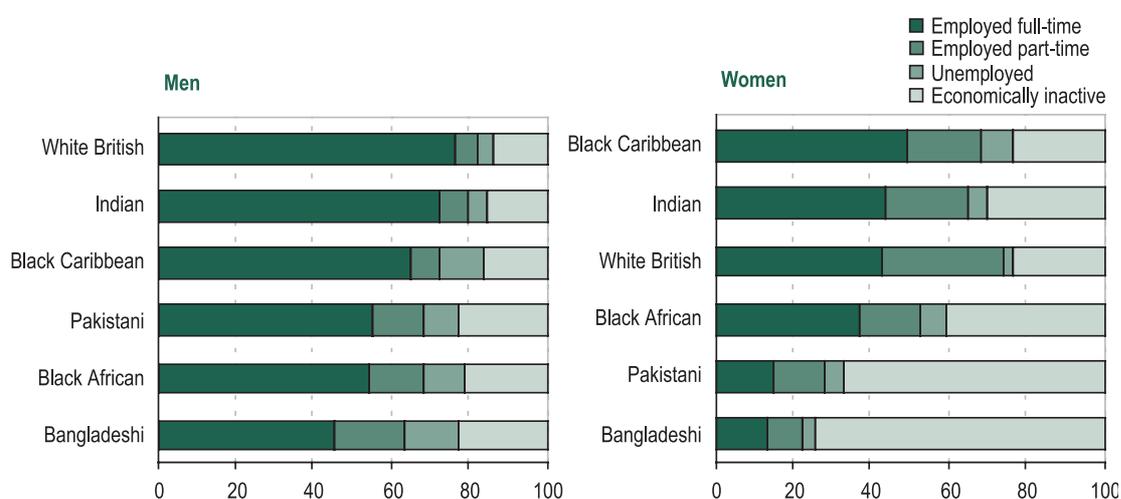
Table 3.20: Children by family size and risk of poverty by family size and ethnic group, Great Britain, 2003/04–2005/06

| Ethnic group | One or 2 child families | | | Three or more child families | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| | % in type (1) | % (risk) poor in type (2) | Share of poor in type (3) | % in type (4) | % (risk) poor in type (5) | Share of poor in type (6) |
| White British | 71 | 17 | 62 | 29 | 25 | 38 |
| Indian | 70 | 23 | 54 | 30 | 46 | 46 |
| Pakistani | 40 | 49 | 36 | 61 | 55 | 64 |
| Bangladeshi | 33 | 41 | 21 | 67 | 75 | 79 |
| Black Caribbean | 69 | 27 | 62 | 31 | 37 | 38 |
| Black African | 50 | 26 | 36 | 50 | 47 | 64 |

Source: See Table 3.17.

Note: Poverty is measured BHC.

A further factor underlying the differences in poverty rates is the wide variation in employment rates between ethnic groups, especially among women but also among men (Figure 3.8). These variations are clear to see, and would be expected to have a decided impact on poverty and child poverty rates across the groups concerned.

Figure 3.8: Rates of employment and economic activity by ethnic group, Great Britain, 2002–05

Source: UK Labour Force Survey 2002–05

Differential employment rates are only part of the story. The extent to which earnings from employment are coming into the household is also a factor. The risk of poverty is, therefore, higher (as is usual) in workless households: 60% or more of those living in such households have income below the poverty line for all the ethnic groups (Table 3.21). Nevertheless, for some ethnic minorities, the presence of someone in work in the household does not reduce the risk of poverty

substantially. For children in Bangladeshi families, in particular, the risk of poverty is more than 60% even if someone in the household is employed, which is much the same as the risk for children in White British households where no one is working. Other aspects, such as whether the work is part time or full time and wage levels, are clearly important in this regard.

Table 3.21: Distribution of children by worker status of household, risk of poverty and share of those at risk of poverty by worker status of household and by ethnic group, Great Britain, 2003/04–2005/06

| Ethnic group | No worker | | | One or more workers | | |
|-----------------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| | % in type | % (risk) poor in type | Share of poor in type | % in type | % (risk) poor in type | Share of poor in type |
| White British | 15 | 60 | 48 | 85 | 12 | 52 |
| Indian | 12 | 70 | 29 | 88 | 24 | 71 |
| Pakistani | 27 | 77 | 39 | 73 | 44 | 61 |
| Bangladeshi | 27 | 72 | 30 | 73 | 61 | 70 |
| Black Caribbean | 25 | 71 | 59 | 75 | 16 | 41 |
| Black African | 37 | 62 | 63 | 63 | 21 | 37 |

Source: See Table 3.17.

Note: Poverty is measured BHC.

Understanding of these patterns of poverty by ethnic group is limited by lack of research in the past. There are signs, however, that this is changing.⁹ It also appears that policy-makers in the UK are beginning to recognise the ethnic dimension of child poverty and the part that it plays in reinforcing disparities in life chances between different groups in society.¹⁰

Concluding remarks

The above analysis indicates that people with a migrant background in all age groups tend to have a lower level of income and a higher risk of poverty than those born locally — i.e. the indigenous population — almost throughout the EU, or at least in those countries for which the data available are reasonably reliable (mostly the EU15 countries). For those of working age, this cannot easily be put down to lower levels of education, since there does not appear to be a significant difference between them and the rest of the population, especially as regards the relative number with tertiary, or university-level, education. On the other hand, there are marked differences in the extent to which they are in employment and (if they are) in the kinds of job they do — and the potential earnings from these — even in the case of those with tertiary-level qualifications. This is especially so for women, whose employment rate in most EU15 countries is much lower than among their locally born counterparts and who tend disproportionately to be employed in low-level jobs.

⁹ See, for example, Bradshaw *et al.* (2005), pp. 71–108; Magadi and Middleton (2007).

¹⁰ The Government Child Poverty Unit has commissioned a new study on ethnicity and child poverty. See Platt (2009).

The relatively unfavourable situation of migrants on the job market — reflected in the disproportionate number living in workless households, as well as in couple households where only one person is in work — seems to be a major cause of their low income levels, and this feeds through into the equally disadvantaged situation of children in migrant families. While children do in themselves contribute to the higher risk of poverty faced by migrant families (in the sense that there are proportionately more migrant families with three or more children than among the indigenous population), they do not seem to be the main cause. Migrants without children, therefore, also face a higher risk of poverty than do people born locally in a similar situation. The large numbers of children in low-income families among the migrant population, however, is a particular cause for concern, given the potentially damaging effect on their future life chances.

The factors underlying the higher risk of poverty faced by those aged 65 and over with a migrant background are less apparent, though it may be a reflection of the low levels of income — and earnings — they had before they retired. Moreover, they may have relatively limited entitlement to pension because of less-complete contribution records than people of the same age born in the country in question. At the same time, the difference in their risk of poverty, as compared to the indigenous population, is less than in the case of migrants of working age, which might suggest that they have access to a higher level of income support (such as from minimum pensions) than do their younger compatriots.

Finally, evidence from the UK demonstrates the wide disparities in income, household circumstances and access to employment that exist between different ethnic groups within those with a migrant background.