Migrant integration | 2017 edition

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Abstract

'Migrant integration statistics' presents different aspects of the European Union (EU) statistics on the integration of migrants. The successful integration of migrants into society in the host country is key to maximising the opportunities of legal migration and making the most of the contributions that immigration can make to EU development. In this publication, migrant integration is measured in terms of employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship in the host country. The analysis is based on 2015 statistics from the Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) and Eurostat's migration statistics.

In addition, this publication provides an analysis on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants based on the outcomes of the 2014 ad-hoc module of EU-LFS.

Data are presented for the European Union and its Member States as well as for the EFTA countries.

Editors

Piotr Juchno, Eurostat, Unit F2 — Population and migration
Mihaela Agafitei, Eurostat, Unit F1 — Social indicators: Methodology and development; Relations with users

Contact details

Eurostat
Bâtiment Joseph Bech
5, rue Alphonse Weicker
L-2721 Luxembourg
LUXEMBOURG
E-mail: estat-user-support@ec.europa.eu

Production

This publication was produced by William Helminger, Carla Martins and Peter Pospíšil — CRI (Luxembourg) S.A.; Edouard Henderyckx and Bruno Scuvée

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Introduction

Introduction

Changing migratory patterns, which may occur suddenly and vary greatly in terms of size and composition, pose great challenges to host societies and policymakers, who need quality information on which to base their decisions. Information on the basic demographic characteristics of migrants is not sufficient to fulfil those needs. More specific socio-economic statistics on migrants and their descendants are of utmost relevance to reflect the complexity of these patterns and the nature of the migrant integration process.

This publication provides an overview of the European Union (EU) statistics on the integration of migrants. Successful migrant integration into the society of host countries is the key to maximising the opportunities of legal migration and making the most of the contributions that immigration can bring to EU development.

Statistical measurement of the level of migrant integration is aimed at providing policy-makers with reliable and comparable statistical information. This in turn facilitates reaching appropriate and targeted policy decisions. Based on available data, migrant integration in this publication is presented in terms of employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship in the hosting country.

This publication is made up of this introduction and two main chapters. The introduction provides information on the development of EU migrant integration policy, indicators to monitor migrant integration, key concepts, data sources and their limitations. In addition, it provides a brief insight into latest migratory patterns in the EU including migration flows and stocks of immigrant population. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to EU statistics on the integration of migrants. Chapter 2 is based on data collected by Eurostat from the 2014 Labour force survey ad-hoc module on the 'Labour market situation of immigrants and their immediate descendants'. The previous 2008 LFS Ad-hoc module on the 'Labour market situation of immigrants' was also used to compare data over time.

Policy background

The continued development and integration of the European migration policy remains a key priority to meeting the challenges and harnessing the opportunities that migration represents globally. The integration of third-country nationals living in EU Member States legally has gained importance in the European agenda in recent years.

The Common Basic Principles for the Immigrant Integration Policy, which were adopted by the Justice and Home Affairs Council in November 2004 and reaffirmed in 2014, form the foundations of the EU's policy cooperation on integration. They also form the basis for the member countries to assess their own efforts. They include the main aspects of the integration process, including employment, education, access to institutions, goods and services, and to society in general. Most importantly, the Common Basic Principles define integration as a two-way process of mutual accommodation by all migrants and by residents of the EU Member States.

In July 2011, the Commission proposed a European agenda for the integration of third-country nationals, focusing on actions to increase economic, social, cultural and political participation by migrants and emphasising local action. This new agenda highlights challenges that need to be addressed if the EU is willing to fully benefit from the potential offered by migration and the value of diversity.

On 7 June 2016 the European Commission adopted an Action Plan on the integration of third-country nationals. The Action Plan provides a comprehensive framework to support Member States' efforts in developing and strengthening their integration

policies, and describes the concrete measures the Commission will implement in this regard. While it targets all third-country nationals in the EU, it contains actions to address the specific challenges faced by refugees.

The Plan includes actions across all policy areas that are crucial for integration:

- Pre-departure and pre-arrival measures, including actions to prepare migrants and the local communities for the integration process;
- Education, including actions to promote language training, participation of migrant children to early childhood education and care, teacher training and civic education;
- Employment and vocational training, including actions to promote early integration into the labour market and migrant entrepreneurship;
- Access to basic services such as housing and healthcare;
- Active participation and social inclusion, including actions to support exchanges with the receiving society, migrant participation in cultural life and fighting discrimination.

Measuring migrant integration

The 2009 Stockholm Programme for the period 2010–14 embraced the development of core indicators for monitoring the results of integration policies in a limited number of relevant policy areas (e.g. employment, education and social inclusion).

The Zaragoza declaration adopted in 2010 by the European Ministerial Conference on Integration in Zaragoza identified a number of policy areas relevant to migrant integration and agreed on a set of common indicators to monitor the situation of immigrants and the outcome of integration policies.

In 2011, the European Commission in the pilot study Indicators of immigrant integration examined proposals for common integration indicators and reported on the availability and quality of the data from agreed harmonised sources necessary for the calculation of these indicators. The following report Migrants in Europe — A statistical portrait of the first and second generation provided a statistical analysis on a broad range of characteristics of migrants living in the EU and EFTA countries.

The proposals in the pilot study were further developed and elaborated in a project, the conclusions of which were presented in the report Using EU indicators of immigrant integration published in 2013. The project's objectives were to boost the monitoring and assessment of the situation of migrants, along with the relative outcomes of integration policies.

In July 2015, the European Commission, jointly with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), released the report 'Indicators of Immigrant Integration 2015 — Settling In'. While in the thematic chapters of this publication the analysis is focused on the foreign-born population, there is a specific chapter dealing with the situation of non-EU citizens in the EU, aimed specifically at monitoring the Zaragoza indicators.

Key concepts

Key concepts of migrant integration statistics are explained at the beginning of each chapter where they are used.

For the purpose of this publication the data on migrants are generally presented for the following age categories:

- 15–29: this group represents the population of young migrants and is targeted by the EU Youth Strategy
- 20–64: this group has been selected because it is relevant to the first Europe 2020 target (employment of 75 % of this population by 2020);
- 25–54: this is considered as the most appropriate group for the analysis of the situation of migrants of working age as it minimises the effect of migration for non-economic reasons (e.g. study or retirement) and forms a more homogeneous group, large enough to produce reliable results;
- 55–64 and 55 years or over: these age groups focus on the older migrants.

Data sources

Data used for the indicators on migrant integration come mainly from the EU labour force survey (EU-LFS) and the EU statistics on income and living conditions survey (EU-SILC), complemented by administrative data sources.

As regards the dimensions of employment and education, the data are based on the results of the EU-LFS. The EU-SILC covers topics relevant to social inclusion: people at risk of poverty or social exclusion, income distribution and monetary poverty, living conditions and material deprivation. The EU-SILC also provides data on the health status of the foreign population, in the form of 'selfperceived health status'.

EU migration statistics are collected on an annual basis and are supplied to Eurostat by the national statistical authorities of the EU Member States. Most EU Member States base their statistics on administrative data sources such as population egisters, registers of foreigners, registers of residence or work permits.

The EU labour force survey

The main source of information on the structure and trends of the EU for labour market is the EU-LFS. EU-LFS is a large quarterly sample survey that covers the resident population aged 15 and above in private households in the EU, EFTA (except Liechtenstein) and candidate countries. It provides population estimates for the main labour market characteristics, such as employment, unemployment, inactivity, hours of work, occupation, economic activity and other labour related variables, as well as important socio-demographic characteristics, such as sex, age, education, household characteristics and regions of residence. Regulations set by the European Council, the European Parliament and the European Commission define how the LFS is carried out, whereas some countries have their own national legislation for the implementation of this survey.

The LFS 2014 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants

The LFS 2014 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants was an improvement of the LFS 2008 ad hoc module on the labour market situation of migrants, aiming at boosting the quality of the data, and in particular the cross-country comparability and implementability of the module. The target population of the LFS 2014 ad hoc module consisted of all persons aged 15–64. The ad hoc module variables were collected for all persons in the household in the target group age. The collection of data on the COB of the father and the mother enabled the identification of second-generation migrants. Other variables of the LFS 2014 ad hoc module relevant to the migrant integration indicators are:

- level of educational attainment of the parents;
- over-qualification;
- obstacles to getting suitable jobs;
- language skills in the host country language and participation in language courses.

EU statistics on income and living conditions

The EU-SILC survey is the main source for the compilation of statistics on income, social inclusion and living conditions. It provides comparable micro data on income, poverty, social exclusion, housing, labour, education and health. EU-SILC is implemented in the EU Member States, Iceland, Norway, Switzerland and Turkey. It provides two types of annual data: cross-sectional data pertaining to a given time or a certain time period with variables on income, poverty, social exclusion and other living conditions and longitudinal data pertaining to individual-level changes over time, observed periodically over a four-year period.

Eurostat migration statistics

Eurostat produces statistics on a range of issues related to international migration flows, non-national population stocks and the acquisition of citizenship. Data are collected on an annual basis and are supplied to Eurostat by the national statistical authorities of the EU Member States.

Since 2008 the collection of data has been based on Regulation (EC) No 862/2007. Together with the Commission Implementing Regulation (EU) No 351/2010, they define a core set of statistics on international migration flows, population stocks of foreigners, the acquisition of citizenship, residence permits, asylum and measures against illegal entry and stay. Although EU Member States may continue to use any appropriate data according to national availability and practice, the statistics collected under the Regulation must be based on common definitions and concepts. Most EU Member States base their statistics on administrative data sources such as population registers, registers of foreigners, registers of residence or work permits, health insurance registers and tax registers. Some countries use mirror statistics, sample surveys or estimation methods to produce migration statistics.

Data sources: advantages and limitations

As already mentioned, the production of migrant integration indicators is generally based on sample surveys or on population registers/registers of resident foreign citizens. A key advantage is the exploitation of data from the EU-LFS and EU-SILC. Both surveys are highly harmonised and optimised for comparability. However, for both types of data sources (administrative and survey data) there are certain limitations.

With regard to survey data, limitations arise with respect to the coverage of migrant populations. By design, both the EU-LFS and EU-SILC target the whole resident population and not specifically the migrants. Coverage issues of survey data arise in the following cases:

- Recently arrived migrants: this group of migrants is missing from the sampling frame in every hosting country resulting in under-coverage of the actual migrant population in the EU-LFS and EU-SILC.
- Collective households: the EU-SILC only covers private households. Persons living in collective households and in institutions for asylum seekers and migrant workers are excluded from the target population. This also results in under-coverage of migrants in the survey.
- Non-response of migrant population: a significant disadvantage of the surveys is the fact that a high percentage of the migrant population does not respond to them. This may be due to language difficulties, misunderstanding of the purpose of each survey, arduousness in communicating with the interviewer, and fear on behalf of migrants of a possible negative impact on their authorisation to remain in the country after participating in the surveys.
- Sample size: given the nature of the EU-LFS and EU-SILC as sample surveys, these cannot fully capture the characteristics of migrants in EU Member States with very low migrant populations.
- Information on COC and COB: this information is asked from all persons in private households sampled in the EU-LFS, whilst in the EU-SILC this information is collected only for those aged 16 and over, resulting in an under-estimation of the number of migrants by COC and COB.

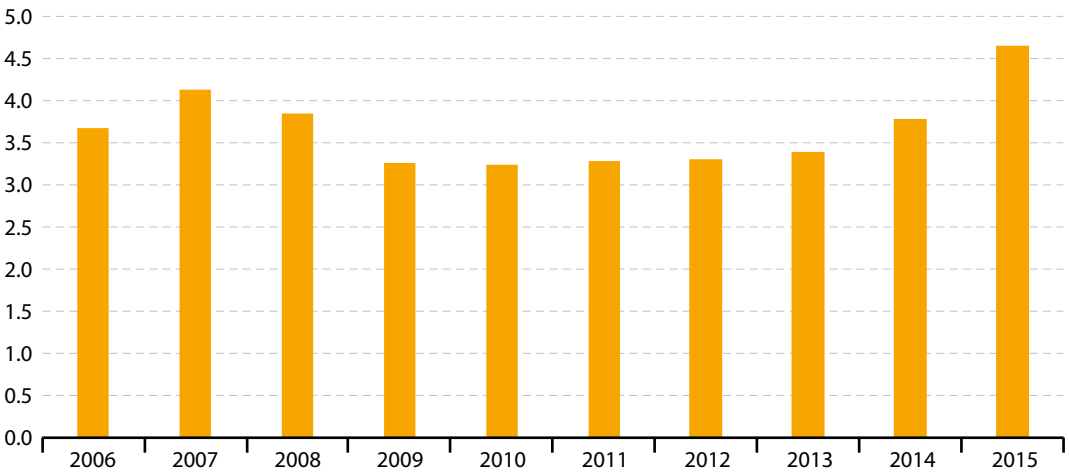
With regard to administrative data, one main problem refers to the comparability of the data used to estimate migrant integration indicators. The administrative data sources are not harmonised and there are also variations in methods and definitions. For example, some countries produce estimates for the migrant population to account for non-response, while others leave this problem untreated. Coverage gaps are reported by certain EU Member States with regard to some types of excluded international migrants (e.g. asylum seekers). In other cases, there are significant numbers of departed migrants not covered by the registration systems.

Immigration in the EU-28

Migration is influenced by a combination of economic, environmental, political and social factors: either in a migrant's country of origin (push factors) or in the country of destination (pull factors). Historically, the relative economic prosperity and political stability of the EU are thought to have exerted a considerable pull effect on immigrants.

In destination countries, international migration may be used as a tool to solve specific labour market shortages. However, migration alone will almost certainly not reverse the ongoing trend of population ageing experienced in many parts of the EU.

Figure I: Number of immigrants, EU-28, 2006–15
(millions)



Source: Eurostat (online data codes: migr_imm1ctz)

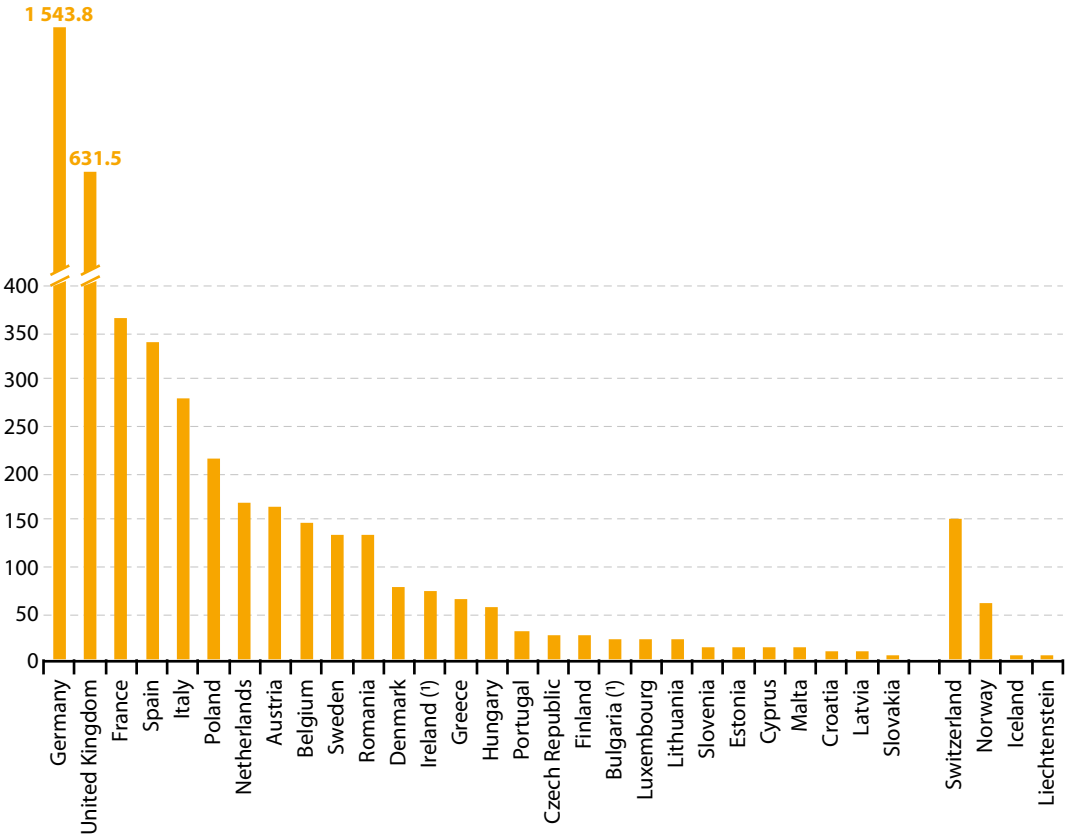
A total of 4.7 million people immigrated to one of the EU-28 Member States during 2015, while at least 2.8 million emigrants were reported to have left an EU Member State. These total figures do not represent the migration flows to/from the EU as a whole, since they also include flows between different EU Member States.

Over the last decade, intensity of immigration flows varied. About 3.7 million people immigrated to one of the EU-28 Member States during 2006. This number increased to 4.1 million during 2007 when it reached its peak. Over the following two years the number of immigrants gradually decreased and in 2010 it levelled off at 3.3 million where it remained until 2012. In 2013 the number of immigrated people started increasing again, with growth accelerating in 2014 and 2015. During 2015 the number of immigrants reached 4.7 million, representing the highest value since 2006 as well as the highest year to year increase (+ 900 thousand compared with 2014).

Among the 4.7 million immigrants of 2015, there were an estimated 2.4 million non-EU citizens, 1.4 million citizens of a different EU Member State from the one to which they immigrated, around 860 thousand people who migrated to an EU Member State of which they had the citizenship (for example, returning nationals or nationals born abroad), and some 19 thousand stateless persons.

Germany reported the largest total number of immigrants (1 543.8 thousand) in 2015, followed by the United Kingdom (631.5 thousand), France (363.9 thousand), Spain (342.1 thousand) and Italy (280.1 thousand). Germany reported the highest number of emigrants in 2015 (347.2 thousand), followed by Spain (343.9 thousand), the United Kingdom 299.2 thousand), France (298.0 thousand) and Poland (258.8 thousand). A total of 17 EU Member States reported more immigration than emigration in 2015, but in Bulgaria, Ireland, Greece, Spain, Croatia, Cyprus, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Latvia and Lithuania, the number of emigrants outnumbered the number of immigrants.

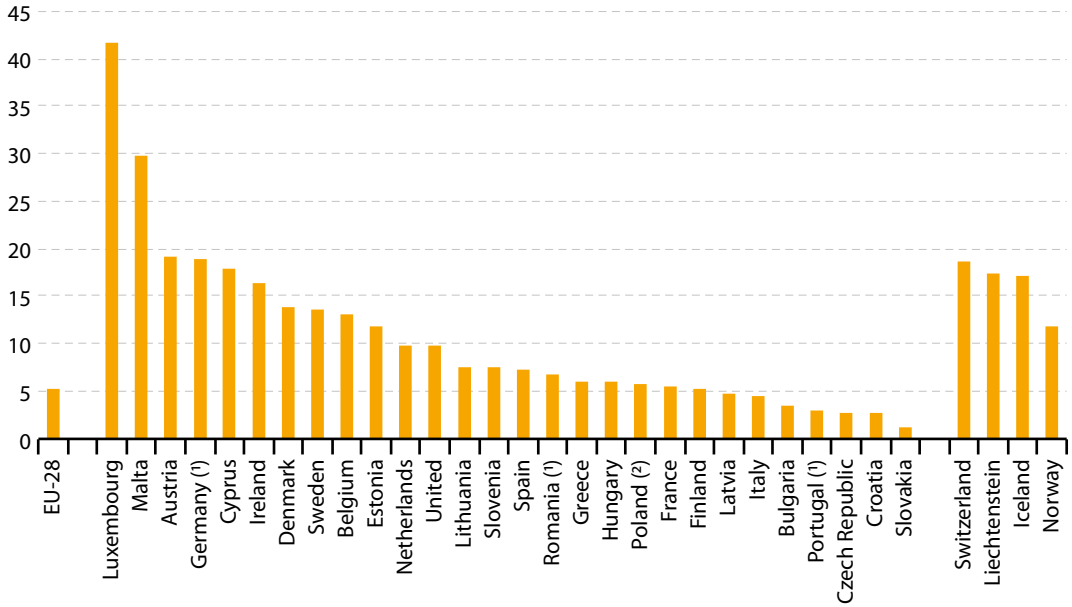
Figure II: Number of immigrants, 2015
(thousands)



(1) Provisional.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: migr_imm1ctz)

Figure III: Number of immigrants, 2015
(per 1 000 inhabitants)



(1) Estimated.
(2) Provisional.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: migr_imm1ctz and migr_pop1ctz)

Relative to the size of the resident population, Luxembourg recorded the highest rates of immigration in 2015 (42 immigrants per 1 000 persons), followed by Malta (30 immigrants per 1 000 persons) and Germany (19 immigrants per 1 000 persons) — see Figure III. The highest rates of emigration in 2015 were reported for Luxembourg (22 emigrants per 1 000 persons), Cyprus (20 emigrants per 1 000 persons) and Malta (20 emigrants per 1 000 persons).

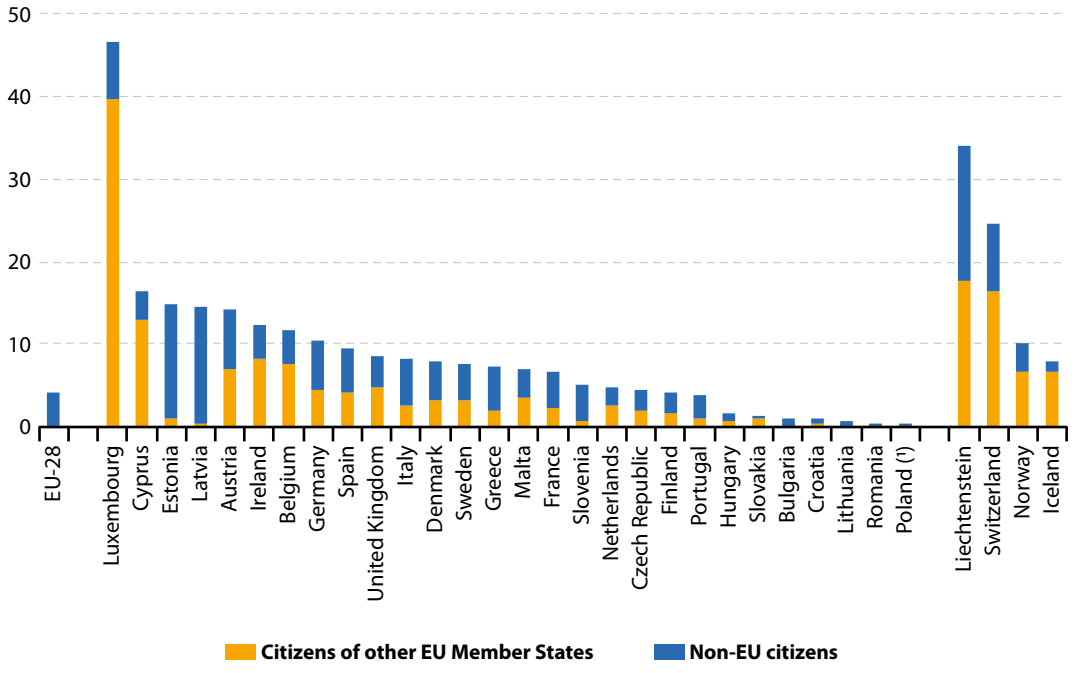
There were 35.1 million people born outside the EU-28 living in an EU Member State on 1 January 2016, while 19.3 million people had been born in a different EU Member State than the one they were residing in. In Hungary, Ireland, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Cyprus, the number of persons born in another EU Member State was higher than the number born outside the EU-28.

The number of people residing in an EU Member State with non-EU citizenship on 1 January 2016 was 20.7 million, representing 4.1 % of the EU-28 population. In addition, 16.0 million persons were living in an EU Member States on 1 January 2016 with the citizenship of another EU Member State.

In absolute terms, the largest number of non-nationals living in the EU Member States on 1 January 2016 was found in Germany (8.7 million), the United Kingdom (5.6 million), Italy (5.0 million), Spain (4.4 million) and France (4.4 million). Non-nationals in these five Member States collectively represented 76 % of the total number of non-nationals living in all of the EU Member States, while the same five Member States had a 63 % share of the EU-28's population.

In relative terms, the EU Member State with the highest share of non-nationals was Luxembourg, as non-nationals accounted for 47 % of its total population. A high proportion of non-nationals (10 % or more of the resident population) was also observed in Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Austria, Ireland, Belgium and Germany.

Figure IV: Share of non-nationals in the resident population, 1 January 2016
(%)



(1) Provisional.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: migr_pop1ctz)

1 Migrant integration

Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to the EU statistics on the integration of migrants. The successful integration of migrants into the society of the host country is key to maximising the opportunities of legal migration and making the most of the contributions that immigration can make to EU development. Migrant integration is measured in terms of employment, health, education, social inclusion and active citizenship in the host country.

Two different concepts can be used to define the migrant population:

- the concept of country of birth (COB);
- the concept of country of citizenship (COC).

Based on these concepts, two broad groups of migrant population can be defined. The data analysis in the articles on migrant integration is performed either by COB or COC, based on data availability and reliability per case.

According to the concept of COB, the population can be divided into the following groups:

- Native-born: the population born in the reporting country;
- Foreign-born: the population born outside the reporting country, of which
  - EU-born: the population born in the EU, except the reporting country;
  - Non-EU-born: the population born outside the EU.

Foreign population by COB is the population most commonly described as migrants, as these persons have migrated to their current country of residence at some stage during their lives. It includes persons with foreign citizenship as well as persons with the citizenship of their country of residence, either from birth or acquired later in life.

According to the concept of COC, the population can be divided into the following groups:

- Nationals: the citizens of the reporting country;
- Foreign citizens: the non-citizens of the reporting country, of which
  - EU citizens: the citizens of the EU Member States, except the reporting country;
  - Non-EU citizens: the citizens of non-EU Member States.

Foreign population by COC are foreign citizens residing in the EU Member States and EFTA countries. As citizens of another country, the members of this group are in a different situation than nationals with regard to their legal rights. This is particularly the case for non-EU citizens (third-country nationals). Persons in this group may have migrated into their country of current residence or may have been born there.

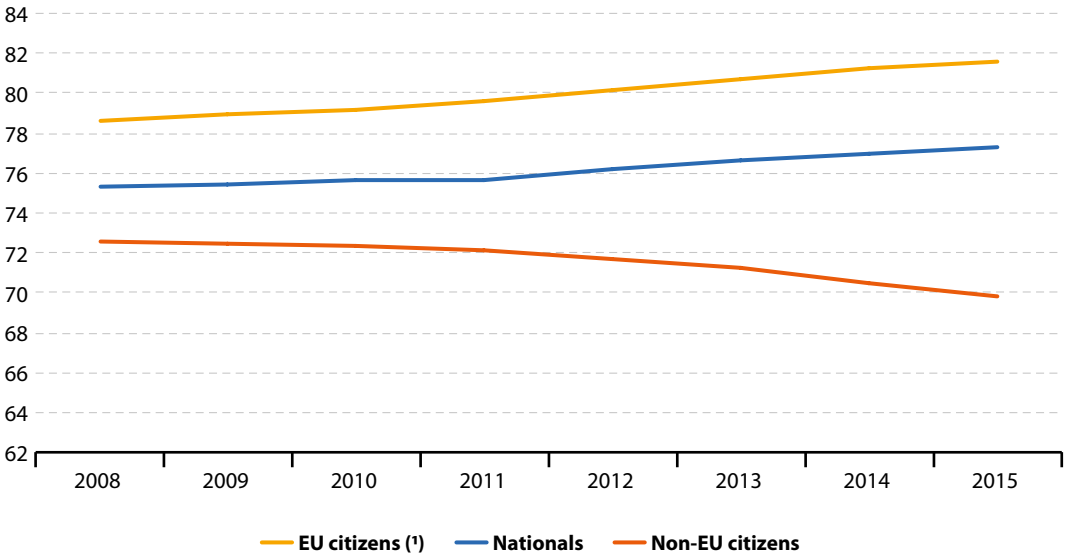
1.1 Labour market

The activity rate represents the economically active population (i.e. employed and unemployed persons) as a percentage of the total population.

The activity rate of the EU-28 population varies significantly according to citizenship. As illustrated in Figure 1.1, during the last eight years, citizens of non-EU countries have systematically recorded lower activity rates than the nationals and mobile foreign EU citizens. Since 2009, this gap has been increasing noticeably. Comparing nationals and non-EU citizens, the gap increased from 3 percentage points (pp) in 2008 to 8 pp in 2015 (and from 6 pp in 2008 to 12 pp in 2015 compared with mobile EU citizens).

In 2015, the activity rate of non-EU citizens amounted to 69.8 % (a decrease compared with 70.5 % in 2014). There is an opposite trend amongst mobile EU citizens, for whom the activity rate increased from 81.3 % in 2014 to 81.6 % in 2015.

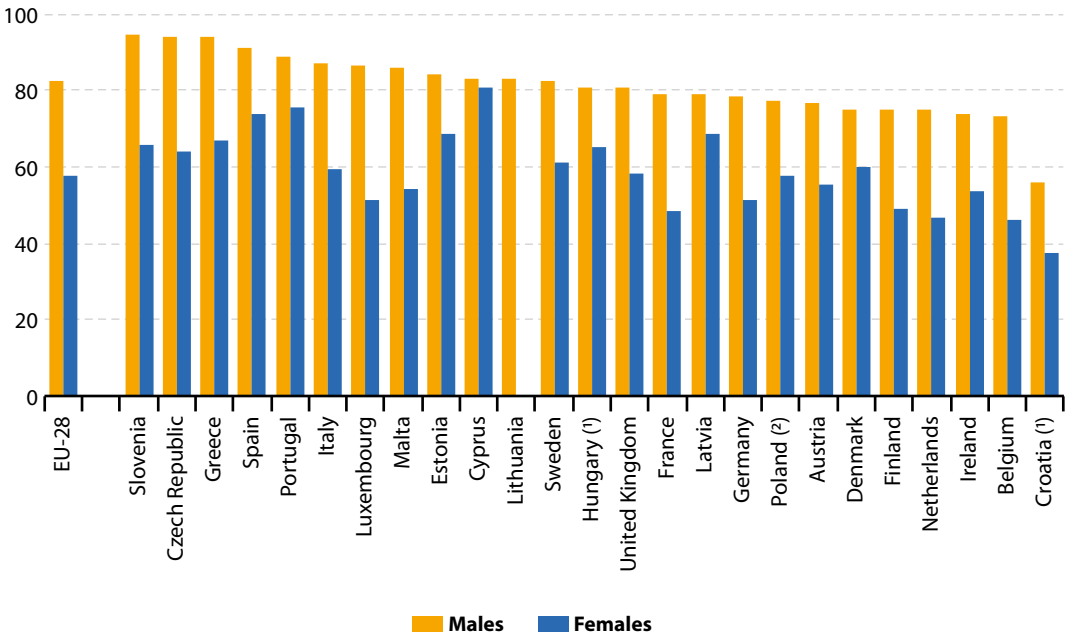
Figure 1.1: Evolution of activity rates of the population (aged 20–64), by groups of country of citizenship, EU-28, 2008–15
(%)



(1) Except reporting country.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_argan)

In 2015, the activity rate of mobile EU citizens was 4 pp higher than that of the nationals, indicating greater labour market participation for this group of migrants. The activity rates of both these groups have increased, and the gap between them has become larger over the last eight years from 3 pp in 2008 to 4 pp in 2015.

Figure 1.2: Activity rates of non-EU citizens (aged 20–64), by sex, 2015
(%)



Note: ranked on highest activity rate of 'Males' Data for Bulgaria, Romania and Slovakia not available. Data on females not available for Lithuania..

(1) Low reliability.
(2) Low reliability for females.

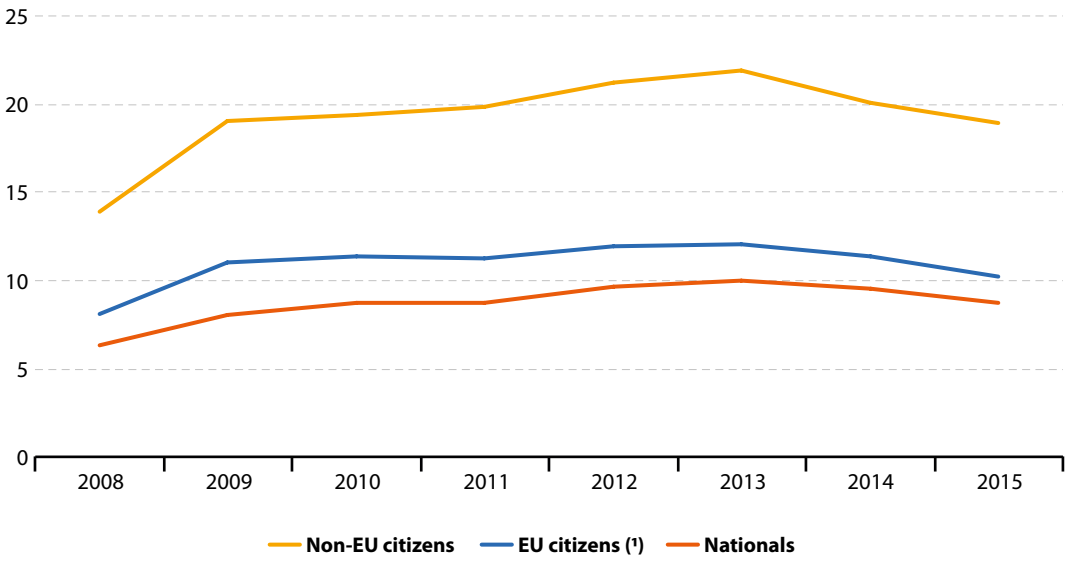
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_argan)

The activity rate of women in 2015 was generally lower than that of men, regardless of their country of residence. This highlights that gender equality in employment integration has not yet been fully achieved.

This is even more evident for migrant women, since at EU-28 level, women with non-EU citizenship have a lower activity rate than male non-EU citizens by 25 pp, illustrating a wide gap in the labour participation of the migrant population by sex (see Figure 1.2). At country level, in 2015, the largest gender gaps in labour participation for non-EU citizens were observed in Luxembourg (35 pp), Malta (32 pp) and France (31 pp). The countries with the smallest gender gap for the non-EU citizen population were Cyprus (2 pp), Latvia (10 pp) and Portugal (14 pp).

Figure 1.3: Evolution of unemployment rates of the population (aged 20–64), by groups of country of citizenship, EU-28, 2008–15

(%)



(1) Except reporting country.

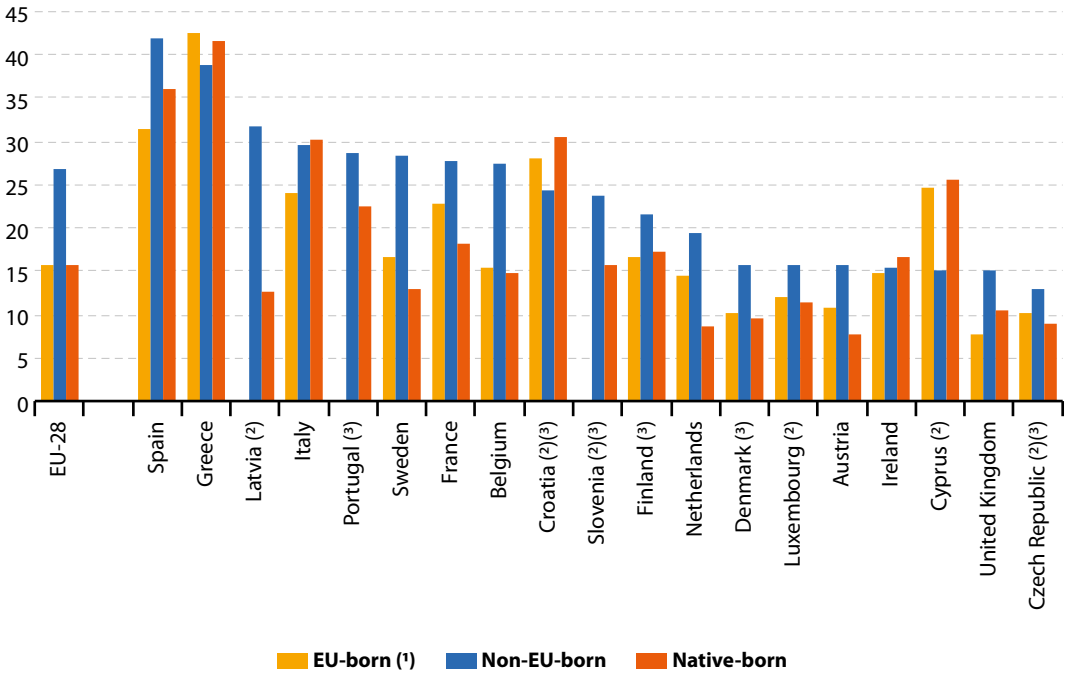
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_urgan)

The unemployment rate is the number of unemployed people as a percentage of the economically active population (i.e. both employed and unemployed persons, but excluding economically inactive persons, such as students and pensioners).

The overall EU-28 unemployment rate, in 2015, for the 20–64 age group, reached 9.2 %, a decrease of 0.8 pp compared with 2014.

In 2015, the unemployment rate of non-EU citizens was 18.9 %. This group experienced the largest increase in unemployment over the 2008–15 period (see Figure 1.3) and also the largest decrease — along with EU citizens — from 2014 to 2015. The unemployment rate of non-EU citizens was around 12 pp higher than that of the nationals during 2011–13, but the gap was reduced to 10 pp in 2015. The unemployment rate was also higher for mobile EU citizens compared with nationals: 1.5 pp more in 2015.

Figure 1.4: Youth unemployment rate in the population (aged 15–29), by groups of country of birth, 2015
(%)



Note: ranked on highest unemployment rate of 'non-EU-born' Data for Bulgaria, Germany, Estonia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Romania and Slovakia only available for native-born population.

(1) Except reporting country.
(2) Low reliability for EU-born.
(3) Low reliability for non-EU-born.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: yth_empl_100)

For the Member States for which data are available, the highest unemployment rate of the young non-EU-born population was recorded in Spain (42.0 %) and Greece (38.7 %) (see Figure 1.4). With 13.0 %, the unemployment rate of the young non-EU-born population in the Czech Republic was the lowest in the EU.

The EU-28 unemployment rate of the young EU-born population was identical to that of the native-born population aged 15-29 (15.7 %).

In France, the Netherlands, Austria and Sweden, the unemployment rate of the young EU-born population was substantially higher than for the native-born population while in Spain, Croatia, Italy and the United Kingdom, the unemployment rate of the native-born population was substantially higher than for the EU-born population.

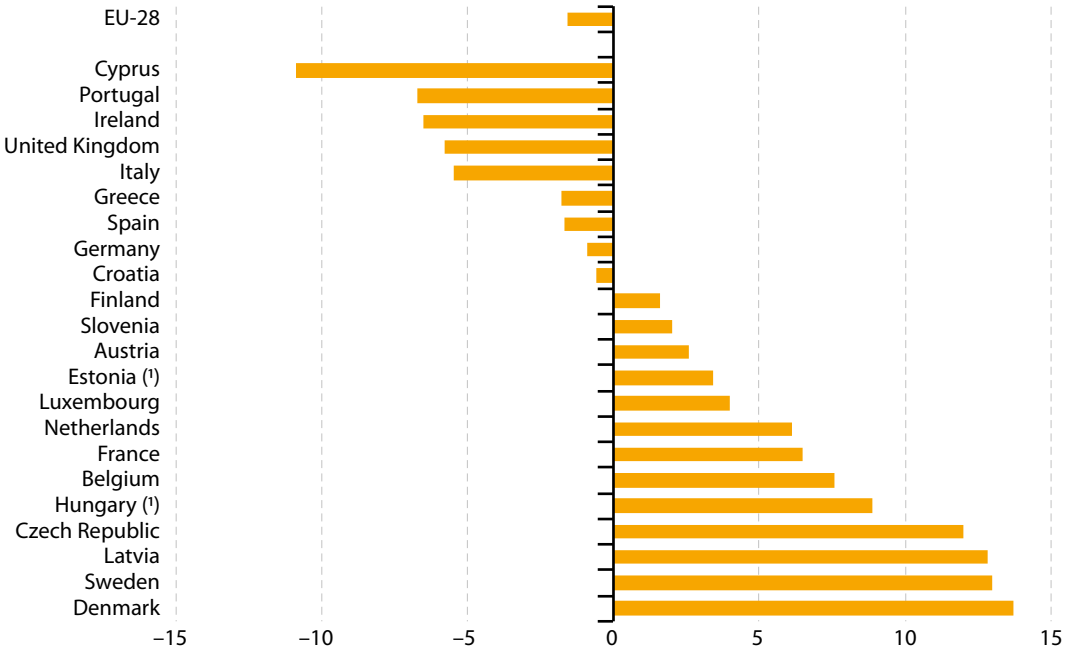


Figure 1.5: Gap in long-term unemployment between foreign-born and native-born populations, 2015
(percentage points)

Note: Data for Bulgaria, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania and Slovakia not available.

(1) Low reliability for foreign-born.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_upgacob)

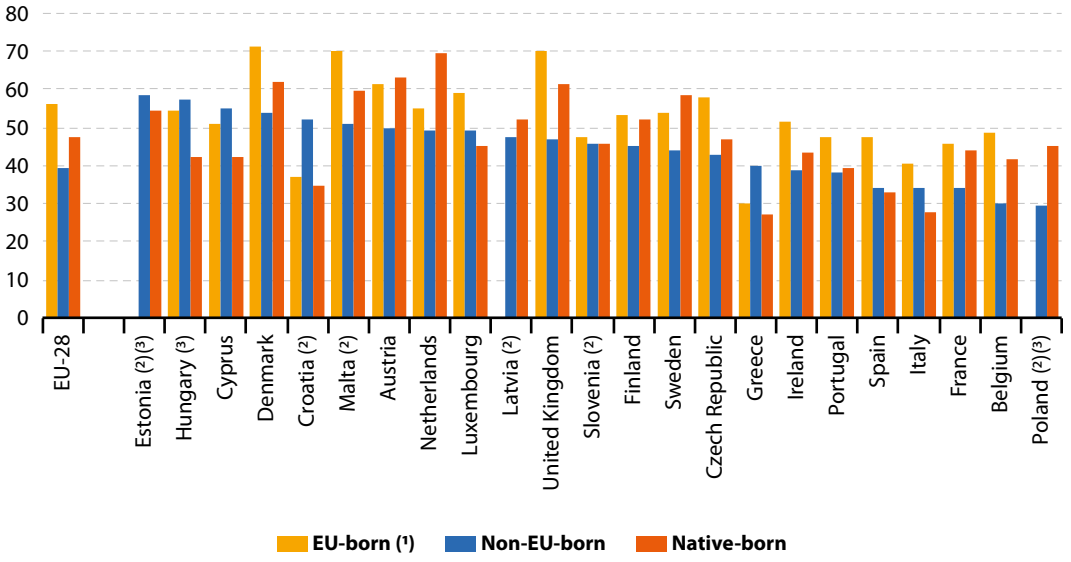
Long-term unemployment refers to the number of people who are out of work and have been actively seeking employment for at least a year.

Long-term unemployment, as a percentage of total unemployment, has increased for the foreign-born population from 36.6 % in 2009 to 48.9 % in 2015, after a decrease from 2008 to 2009.

The cross-country comparison of the share of long-term unemployment in 2015 depicts a situation that varies significantly across those EU Member States for which data are available. In nine countries in particular, the share of long-term unemployment was lower for the foreign-born population aged 20–64 compared with the native-born population. By far the most significant gap in long-term unemployment between foreign-born and native-born population was observed in Cyprus, where the percentage of long-term unemployment of the foreign-born population was almost 11 pp lower than for the native-born.

In the majority of the other EU Member States however, the foreign-born population has been more affected by long-term unemployment than the native-born population. The largest gaps were found in Denmark (14 pp), Sweden and Latvia (both 13 pp) and the Czech Republic (12 pp) (see Figure 1.5).

Figure 1.6: Youth employment rate (population aged 15–29), by groups of country of birth, 2015 (%)



Note: ranked on highest employment rate of 'non-EU-born' .Data for Bulgaria, Germany, Lithuania, Romania and Slovakia only available for native-born population.

(1) Except reporting country.
(2) Low reliability for EU-born.
(3) Low reliability for non-EU-born.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: yth_empl_020)

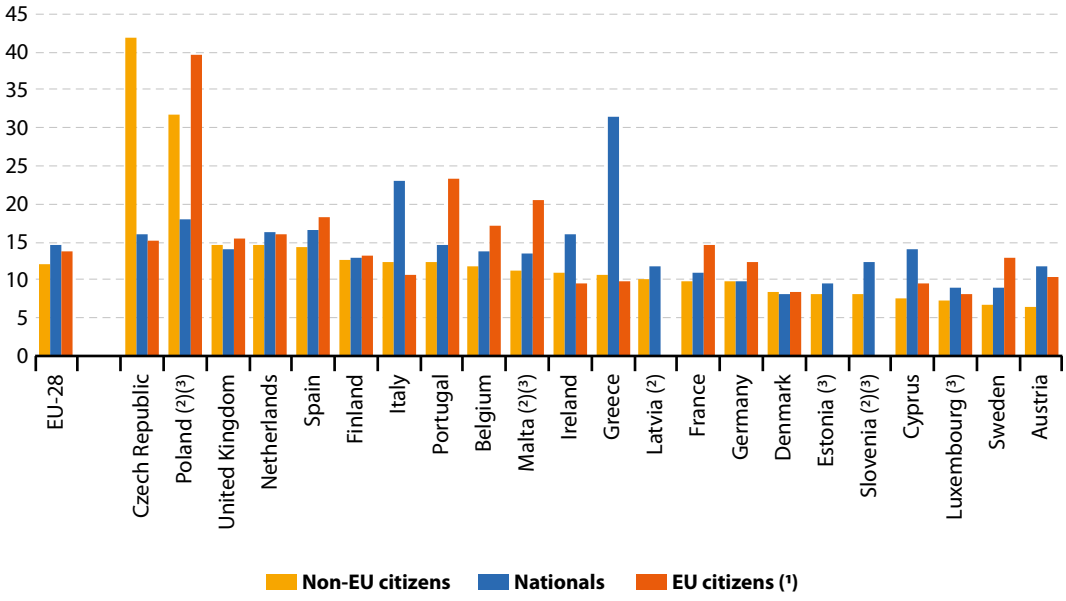
The EU-28 employment rate of the young non-EU-born population (39.4%) was lower than for the EU-born (56.4%) and native-born (47.2%) populations. With 58.6% Estonia was the EU Member State that reported the highest employment rate among young non-EU-born, followed by Hungary (57.6%) and Cyprus (54.9%) (see Figure 1.6). The lowest employment rates of young non-EU-born migrants were observed in Spain, Italy, France, Belgium and Poland (all under 35%).

In Hungary, Cyprus, Croatia and Greece, the youth employment rate of non-EU-born migrants was higher than that of young people born in another EU country (EU-born). In the case of Croatia the employment rate of the non-EU-born was even higher than that of the native-born youth (by 18 pp). In Hungary, Cyprus and Greece youth employment rates among the non-EU-born were also higher than among native-born by more than 12 pp. In Italy, Estonia, Luxembourg and Spain the non-EU-born had a higher youth employment rate compared with the young native-born as well, but the differences were below 7 pp.

The youth employment rates of native-born were higher than those of the non-EU-born population in 15 EU Member States. This difference was highest in the Netherlands, Poland, the United Kingdom, Sweden and Austria, where the gap ranged from 20 pp in the Netherlands to 14 pp in Austria.

1.2 Employment conditions

Figure 1.7: Share of self-employment, by groups of country of citizenship, 2015
(%)



Note: ranked on share of self-employment of 'non-EU citizens'. Data for Bulgaria, Croatia, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania and Slovakia only available for nationals.

(1) Except reporting country.
(2) Low reliability for EU citizens.
(3) Low reliability for non-EU citizens.

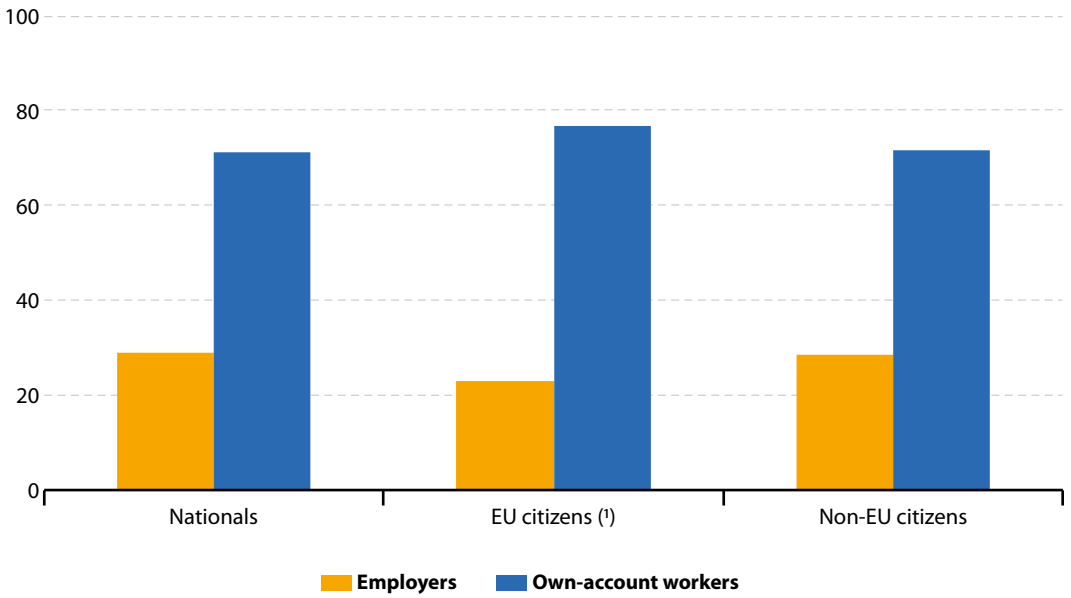
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: lfsa_esgan and lfsa_pganws)

The share of self-employed as a share of employed persons among non-EU citizens increased by 2 pp from 2008 to 2015, reaching 12 % (see Figure 1.7).

At Member State level, the highest self-employment shares of non-EU citizens were recorded in the Czech Republic and Poland (41.9 % and 31.7 % respectively). In both countries, the gap in self-employment between non-EU citizens and nationals was the highest in the EU (26 pp and 14 pp respectively). A completely reverse pattern was observed in Greece and Italy, where the self-employment rate of nationals was significantly higher than that of non-EU citizens (21 pp and 11 pp respectively).

Looking at the self-employment status for the year 2015, it appeared mostly as a matter of own-account work, since the share of own-account workers (1) in the total self-employed population was 71.2 % for nationals, 77.0 % for mobile EU citizens and 71.6 % for non-EU citizens. The share of self-employed persons with employees was less than 29 % of the total self-employed population in all cases (see Figure 1.8).

Figure 1.8: Shares of self-employed persons, by status and citizenship, EU-28, 2015
(%)



(1) Except reporting country.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_esgan)

Part-time and temporary employment may be considered either as a threat or an opportunity for employees, since these indicators can be seen either as a means of social integration or as an indicator of under-employment.

(1) Own-account workers are persons working on own account (in their own business, farm or professional practice) who are sole owners of the unincorporated enterprises in which they work.

Table 1.1: Temporary employees as percentage of the total number of employees, by age and groups of country of citizenship, 2015
(%)

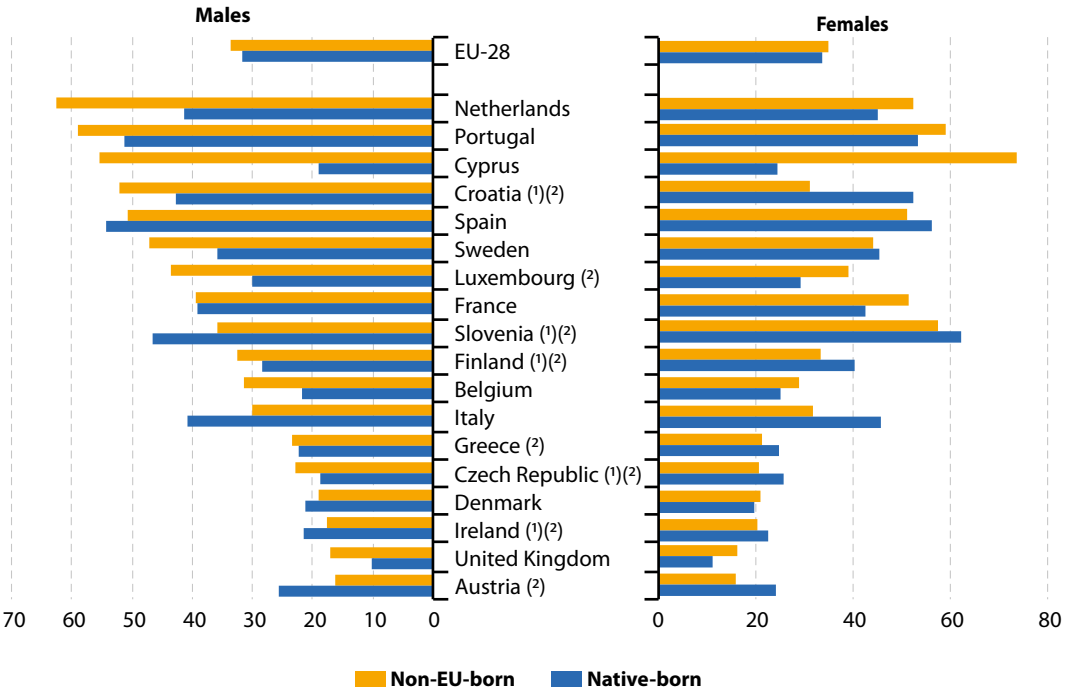
	Nationals			Foreign citizens			Of which:					
							EU citizens (1)			Non-EU citizens		
	population at age											
	20–64	of which		20–64	of which		20–64	of which		20–64	of which	
		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64
EU-28	12.9	11.6	6.3	18.7	18.1	10.3	15.9	15.3	8.5	21.4	20.6	12.2
Belgium	7.6	6.2	3.0	15.9	15.7	:	13.4	13.4	:	21.3	20.4	:
Bulgaria	4.3	4.1	3.5	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	9.7	8.6	7.0	15.0	13.5	:	15.7	14.4	:	14.0	12.4	:
Denmark	7.4	6.2	3.0	10.7	10.3	:	9.3	9.2	:	12.2	11.3	:
Germany	10.6	8.7	3.4	17.8	16.6	6.4	17.1	16.7	5.3	18.6	16.6	8.3
Estonia	2.8	2.4	:	5.6	6.6	:	:	:	:	5.7	6.8	:
Ireland	7.8	6.4	5.1	8.2	7.2	:	6.9	6.1	:	11.4	9.9	:
Greece	10.8	10.0	8.4	21.9	21.7	:	24.4	25.7	:	21.4	20.8	:
Spain	23.5	23.5	9.5	36.8	35.5	27.3	32.2	30.4	23.6	39.6	38.6	29.7
France	15.1	12.5	8.3	25.3	25.5	15.1	16.9	17.7	:	30.6	30.2	21.0
Croatia	19.8	18.8	8.3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	13.5	12.8	5.5	16.4	15.9	9.3	19.7	19.0	12.1	14.7	14.3	8.1
Cyprus	11.2	10.5	6.5	45.7	46.7	:	19.0	18.8	:	80.2	81.1	:
Latvia	3.5	2.8	3.9	3.8	:	:	:	:	:	3.9	:	:
Lithuania	2.0	1.6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Luxembourg	7.5	4.8	:	11.3	10.1	:	10.5	9.5	:	20.1	17.1	:
Hungary	11.2	10.2	10.8	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Malta	6.7	5.4	6.3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Netherlands	16.3	14.2	6.0	26.2	24.8	:	21.9	21.1	:	32.2	29.9	:
Austria	5.8	4.7	2.6	8.9	8.2	:	9.2	8.6	:	8.4	7.7	:
Poland	27.6	25.6	16.6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Portugal	21.1	19.7	10.8	38.0	36.6	:	32.2	30.3	:	39.7	38.4	:
Romania	1.4	1.2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovenia	16.5	13.6	8.6	32.8	31.3	:	:	:	:	32.1	30.7	:
Slovakia	10.4	9.4	7.5	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	13.7	12.4	7.0	21.4	21.6	:	17.0	17.3	:	26.1	26.0	:
Sweden	13.9	11.0	6.8	30.8	30.3	16.2	19.2	19.3	:	41.6	40.1	:
United Kingdom	5.0	4.0	4.7	9.5	8.9	6.7	8.8	8.1	:	10.7	10.2	:

(1) Except reporting country.
': ' – data not available, not reliable or confidential.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_etpgan)

At EU-28 level, temporary employment of persons aged 20–64 was higher for non-EU citizens (21.4 %) than for national employees (12.9 %). The largest difference was observed in Cyprus, where 80.2 % of employees with non-EU citizenship were temporary workers, compared with only 11.2 % for the nationals. Out of 22 EU Member States for which data are reliable, large gaps in temporary employment between non-EU citizens and nationals were also reported in Sweden (28 pp), Poland (21 pp), Portugal (19 pp), Spain (17 pp), the Netherlands and Slovenia (both 16 pp). In the other EU Member States, the differences were below 15 pp. In all reporting countries the share of non-EU migrant temporary workers was higher than that of the nationals. In 2015, Ireland was the only EU Member State where the share of temporary employees in the group of foreign EU citizens was lower than for the country's nationals (a difference of 1 pp).

In addition, for countries for which data are available, a strong age pattern may be observed within temporary employment data, since there is a strong over-representation of the younger population (aged 25–54) in temporary employment within the employed population. This is even more evident amongst foreign citizens (see Table 1.1).

Figure 1.9: Young temporary employees (aged 15–29) as percentage of the total number of employees, by sex and groups of country of birth, 2015
(%)



Note: ranked on highest percentage of young temporary employees for 'non-EU-born' males. Data for non-EU-born young people not available for: Bulgaria, Germany, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Romania and Slovakia.

(1) Low reliability for non-EU-born males.
(2) Low reliability for non-EU-born females.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: yth_empl_050)

At EU-28 level, temporary employment decreased from 35.7 % in 2008 to 34.3 % in 2015 for the young non-EU-born population and from 26.5 % in 2008 to 24.0 % in 2015 for the young EU-born population. By contrast, the proportion of temporary employment for the young native-born population increased slightly, from 29.7 % in 2008 to 32.6 % in 2015.

At Member State level different patterns stand out when COB and gender are analysed (see Figure 1.9). The highest proportions of temporary employment in the young non-EU-born population were found in the Netherlands (62.6 % for men), Cyprus and Portugal (both around 60 % of total employment for both genders, regardless of the COB — the rate for young women in Cyprus even exceeded 70 %).

In 2015, 35.0 % of non-EU-born young women were temporary workers versus 33.6 % of native-born young women. In the case of young men, the non-EU-born group (33.7 %) had a higher share of temporary workers compared with 31.7 % for the native-born group. In Cyprus, regardless of gender, the gap in youth temporary employment between native- and non-EU-born was the highest of all countries for which data are available (around 36 pp for men and 49 pp for women).

From the perspective of population groups by COC, the proportion of part-time employment among the foreign employed population (mobile EU and non-EU citizens) was higher than for nationals. At EU level, foreign citizens held a significantly higher proportion of part-time employment at the age of 20–64 than the nationals (25.8 % vs 18.4 %, respectively). Furthermore, the highest percentages of part-time employees were observed for foreign citizens with non-EU citizenship (28.3 %).

However, in some EU Member States the trends were reversed (see Table 1.2). Belgium, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Cyprus, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Slovenia and the United Kingdom reported higher part-time employment among the employed nationals than among foreign citizens, with differences reaching a high of 7 pp in Luxembourg. For the age group 55–64, part-time employment was higher for employed nationals than for foreign citizens in seven of the EU Member States where data was available. Two Benelux countries had the highest differences within the 55–64 age group (10 pp in Luxembourg and 7 pp in Belgium) followed by Austria (5 pp).

Table 1.2: Part-time employment, by groups of country of citizenship and age group, 2015
(%)

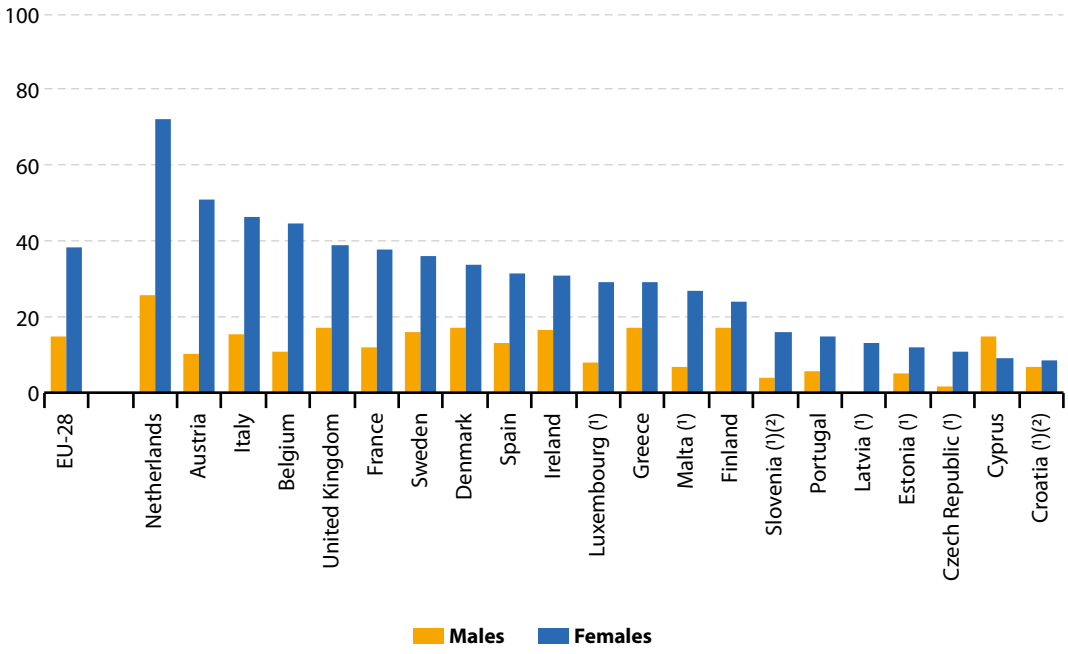
	Nationals			Foreign citizens			Of which:					
							EU citizens (1)			Non-EU citizens		
	population at age											
	20–64	of which		20–64	of which		20–64	of which		20–64	of which	
		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64
EU-28	18.4	16.9	21.8	25.8	25.2	28.8	23.2	22.5	27.2	28.3	27.6	30.7
Belgium	24.1	22.3	34.2	23.8	22.9	26.8	23.4	22.4	25.3	24.7	24.0	:
Bulgaria	2.1	1.8	2.8	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	5.2	4.4	7.7	4.7	4.3	:	:	:	:	5.2	:	:
Denmark	20.5	15.9	19.9	24.6	21.9	:	21.8	18.4	:	27.3	25.2	:
Germany	26.5	25.9	30.1	29.9	29.8	31.8	26.3	26.0	29.3	33.8	33.7	36.2
Estonia	9.6	8.5	9.2	6.7	5.1	11.4	:	:	:	6.5	4.9	:
Ireland	21.3	19.0	25.9	21.5	20.6	25.7	19.8	19.0	27.9	25.5	24.3	:
Greece	8.4	8.0	7.3	22.4	21.5	24.0	20.6	21.3	:	22.9	21.5	26.8
Spain	14.7	14.2	11.6	22.0	21.2	28.2	21.0	19.9	27.9	22.7	22.0	28.6
France	17.8	16.4	22.0	26.2	25.2	29.4	21.2	20.4	24.1	29.5	28.2	36.1
Croatia	5.8	4.9	8.9	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	16.9	17.3	12.6	29.5	29.0	32.0	27.4	27.0	25.9	30.5	30.1	34.6
Cyprus	13.5	11.6	16.6	10.4	10.0	:	12.9	12.5	:	7.2	6.9	:
Latvia	7.0	5.9	10.0	7.8	8.4	:	:	:	:	8.0	8.6	:
Lithuania	7.6	6.4	11.1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Luxembourg	21.6	20.2	30.0	14.4	13.7	20.3	14.4	13.5	20.9	14.4	14.8	:
Hungary	5.6	4.6	10.3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Malta	13.6	12.9	13.7	16.6	14.1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Netherlands	47.1	43.6	49.2	42.1	39.7	47.0	38.9	36.6	46.8	46.6	44.0	47.4
Austria	27.4	27.3	29.4	29.8	30.2	24.5	28.8	29.2	23.2	31.2	31.8	:
Poland	6.6	5.4	10.4	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Portugal	9.4	7.3	16.5	15.0	14.4	:	:	:	:	15.1	15.0	:
Romania	8.5	6.9	15.1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovenia	9.3	6.9	13.4	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovakia	5.7	5.0	7.3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	12.6	9.4	15.4	16.8	16.1	:	11.9	12.6	:	22.0	19.6	:
Sweden	22.8	19.9	24.6	27.2	25.9	25.4	22.6	21.8	22.4	31.8	29.8	32.0
United Kingdom	23.9	21.7	31.1	22.8	21.9	28.2	19.9	19.1	28.2	27.7	26.4	28.3

(1) Except reporting country.
' : ' – data not available, not reliable or confidential.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_eppgan)

Comparing the 2015 part-time employment of the non-EU-born male and female population, across the EU Member States for which data are available, the proportions of part-time employment for females were higher than for males (see Figure 1.10). The widest gender gaps were found in the Netherlands (47 pp), Austria (41 pp), Belgium (34 pp) and Italy (31 pp), while the narrowest were in Croatia (2 pp) and Finland (7 pp). Cyprus is an exception with part-time employment higher in the male population (men: 15 %; women: 9 %).

Figure 1.10: Part-time employment as a percentage of the total employment of the non-EU-born population aged 20–64, by sex, 2015
(%)



Note: ranked on highest percentage of part-time employment of 'Females'. Data for Bulgaria, Germany, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Slovakia not available.

(1) Low reliability for males.
(2) Low reliability for females.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_eppgacob)

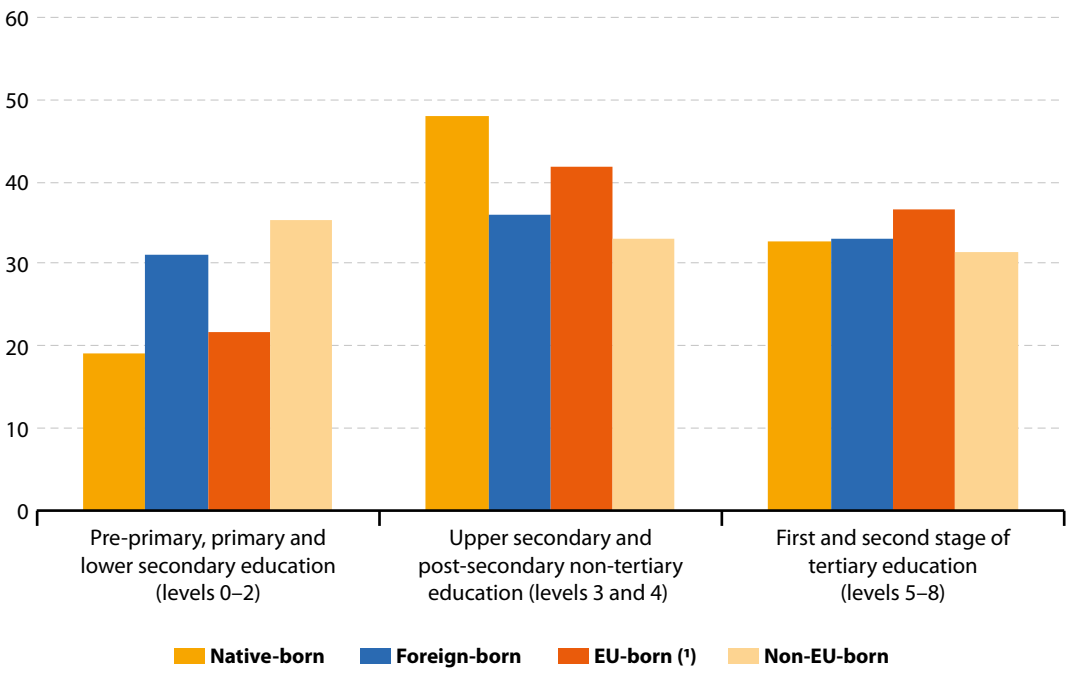
1.3 Education

The analysis of the educational attainment level (2) focuses on the population aged 25–54 in the EU-28 Member States by COB. As can be observed in Figure 1.11, the highest proportion of people having completed at most lower secondary education (i.e. having attained only pre-primary, primary or lower secondary education) was observed among the non-EU-born population (35.5 %) in 2015. This share was 16 pp higher than for the native-born and 14 pp higher than the EU-born (except the reporting country) population.

The proportions were reversed for educational attainment at the level of upper secondary and post-secondary education, at 33.2 % for the non-EU-born population, 15 pp lower than for the native-born population.

At the level of tertiary education, the EU-born population recorded the highest share of such graduates (36.7 %). This proportion was 4 pp higher than for the native-born population and 5 pp higher than for the non-EU-born population.

Figure 1.11: Population (aged 25–54) by educational attainment level and groups of country of birth, EU-28, 2015
(%)

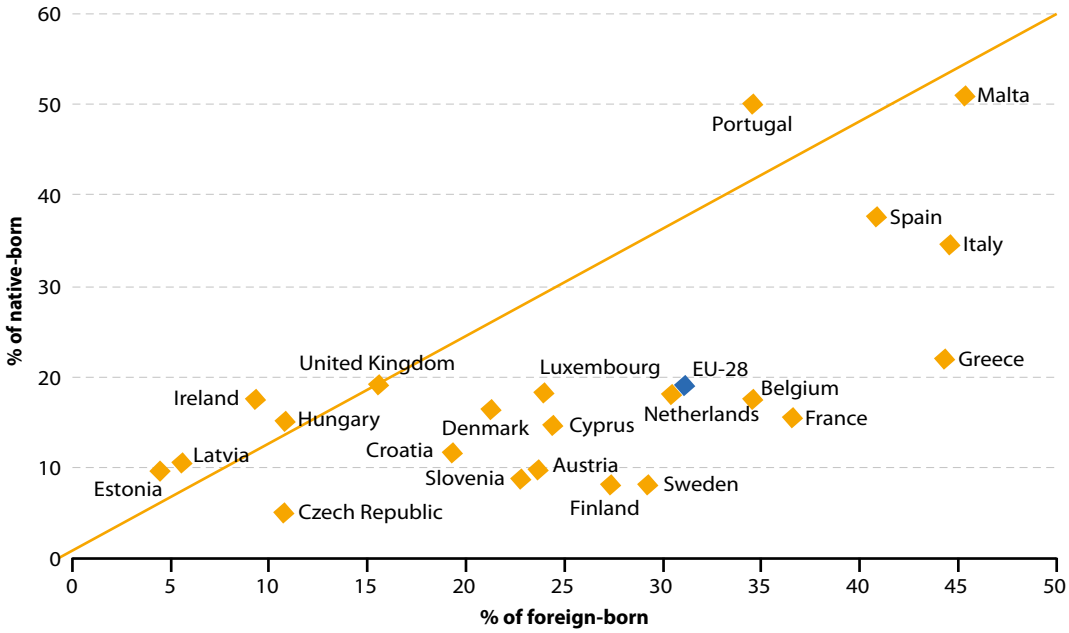


(1) Except reporting country.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: edat_lfs_9912)

(2) The highest level of education completed successfully is associated with obtaining a certificate or a diploma, when there is a certification. In cases where there is no certification, successful completion is associated with full attendance.

Figure 1.12: Rates of pre-primary, primary and low secondary education — comparison of foreign-born with native-born population (aged 25–54), 2015
(%)

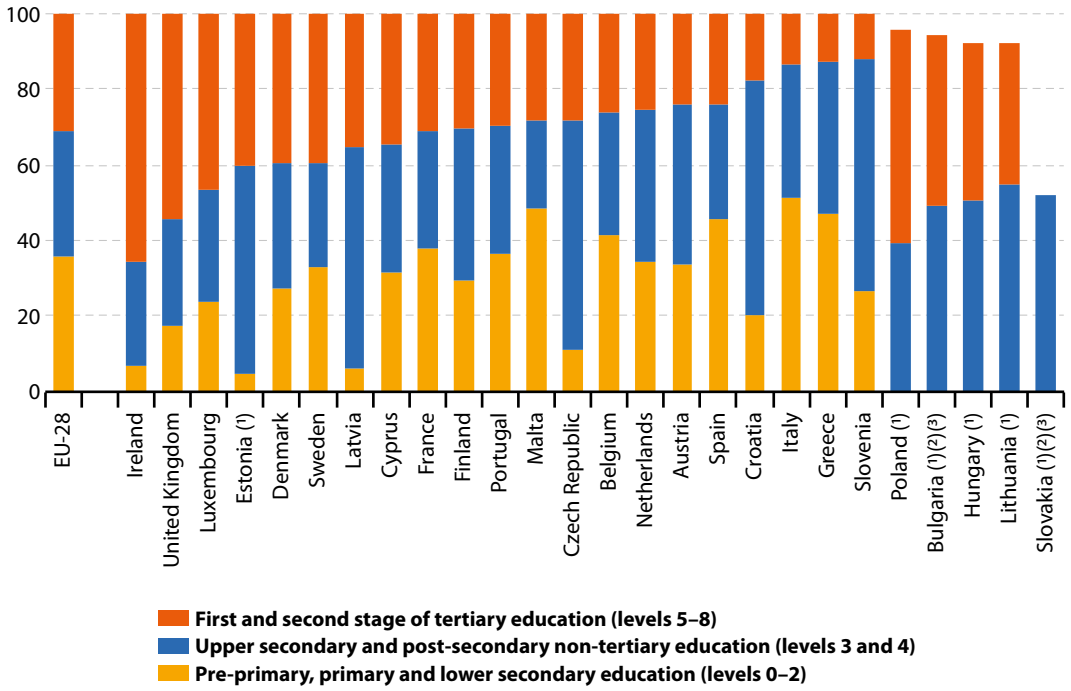


Note: Bulgaria, Germany, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and Slovakia: low reliability or confidential for data on foreign-born; Germany: data for foreign-born not available.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: edat_lfs_9912)

Comparing the native- with the foreign-born population, Figure 1.12 shows the situation in the EU Member States in 2015 for the population aged 25–54 having low educational attainment (i.e. who only attained pre-primary, primary or lower secondary levels of education). Malta (45.3 %), Italy (44.6 %), Greece (44.3 %) and Spain (40.9 %) had the highest proportions of foreign-born people with low educational attainment. The gap between the shares of foreign- and native-born population with low educational attainment were the highest in Greece (22 pp), Sweden and France (both 20 pp) and Finland (19 pp).

Figure 1.13: Educational attainment level of non-EU-born population (aged 25–54), 2015
(%)



Note: ranked on decreasing share of 'first and second stage of tertiary education (levels 5–8)' attainment level. Germany: data not available; Romania: low reliability or confidential.

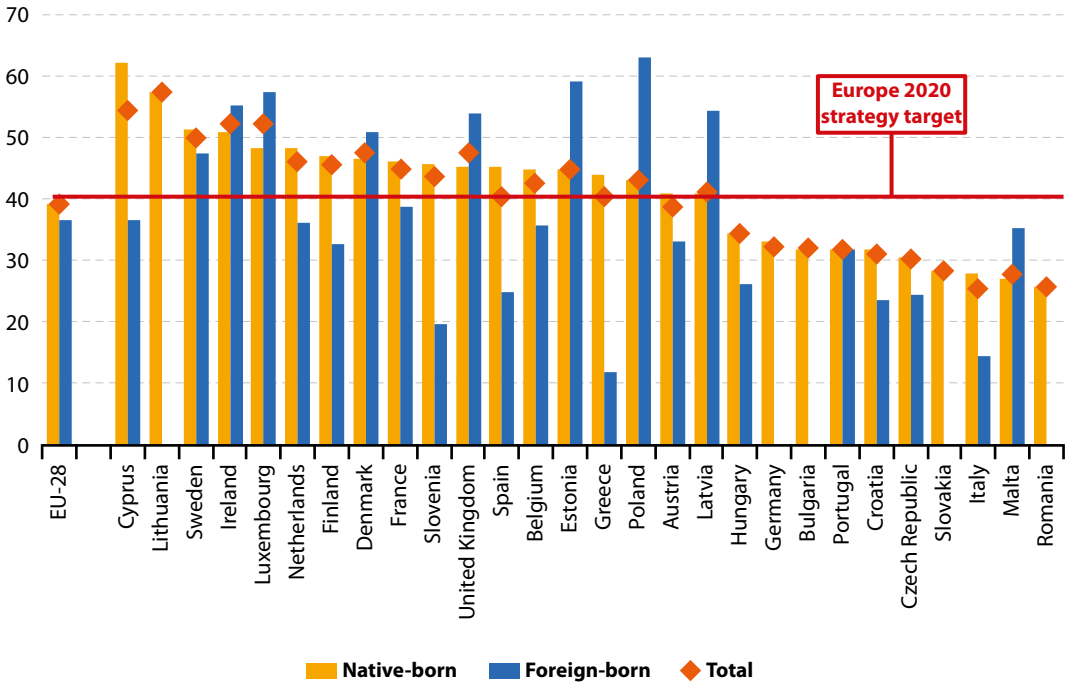
(1) Low reliability for data on pre-primary, primary and/or lower secondary education.
(2) Low reliability for data on upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education and first and second stage of tertiary education.
(3) Low reliability for data on first and second stage of tertiary education.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: edat_lfs_9912)

Focusing on the non-EU-born population by level of educational attainment, Figure 1.13 shows that the EU Member States attracting proportionally higher numbers of highly educated non-EU-born migrants were Ireland, Poland and the United Kingdom with shares of tertiary education among the non-EU-born population in 2015 of 65.3 %, 56.7 % and 54.3 % respectively. On the other hand, Italy, Greece and Slovenia recorded the lowest shares of tertiary educational attainment within the non-EU-born with 13.5 %, 12.7 % and 12.0 % respectively.

In contrast, Italy (51.0 %), Malta (48.7 %), Greece (47.1 %) and Spain (45.5 %) recorded the highest shares of the non-EU-born population having attained only pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education, while the lowest shares were registered in the Czech Republic (10.8 %), Ireland (6.6 %), Latvia (5.9 %) and Estonia (4.6 %).

Figure 1.14: Share of population (aged 30–34) with tertiary educational attainment, by country of birth, 2015
(%)



Note: ranked on decreasing share of 'native-born' population with tertiary degree.
Bulgaria, Estonia, Croatia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia: low reliability for data on foreign-born. Germany and Romania: data not available.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: edat_lfs_9912 and edat_lfs_9913)

One of the objectives of the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training and the Europe 2020 Strategy is to make sure that the proportion of 30–34-year-olds with tertiary educational attainment should reach at least 40 % by 2020. Migrants will have a vital role to play in reaching this goal since in some EU Member States they form a significant proportion of the resident population. As can be observed in Figure 1.14, in some EU Member States such as Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Poland, Sweden and the United Kingdom, the abovementioned target has already been met by both the native- and foreign-born populations. ([3])

In eight EU Member States the foreign-born population made up an even higher proportion of the 30–34-year-olds with tertiary education than their peers in the native-born population.

([3]) However, it has to be noted that these results refer to the given cohort (i.e. people that are currently in the age group 30–34) which by the year 2020 will no longer be represented in the target age group.

The countries with the largest gaps in that regard were Poland (63.2 % vs 43.3 %), Estonia (59.2 % vs 44.7 %), Latvia (54.6 % vs 40.8 %) and Luxembourg (57.4 % vs 48.5 %). These were followed by the United Kingdom, Malta, Denmark and Ireland. The lowest shares of tertiary educated foreign-born were recorded in Croatia (23.6 %), Slovenia (19.9 %), Italy (14.4 %) and Greece (12.1 %).

It should be noted that in several EU Member States, no information is available on the shares of tertiary educated foreign-born population (for 30–34-year-olds) as data for the foreign-born population are not reliable.

The participation rate in lifelong learning is expressed as the percentage of people who received education or training (formal or non-formal) during the four weeks preceding the survey.

In 2015, the Nordic EU Member States (Denmark, Sweden and Finland) reported by far the highest participation rates in lifelong learning among the population aged 25–54, regardless of their COB, with close to one third of the native-born in this age category participating in lifelong learning (see Figure 1.15).

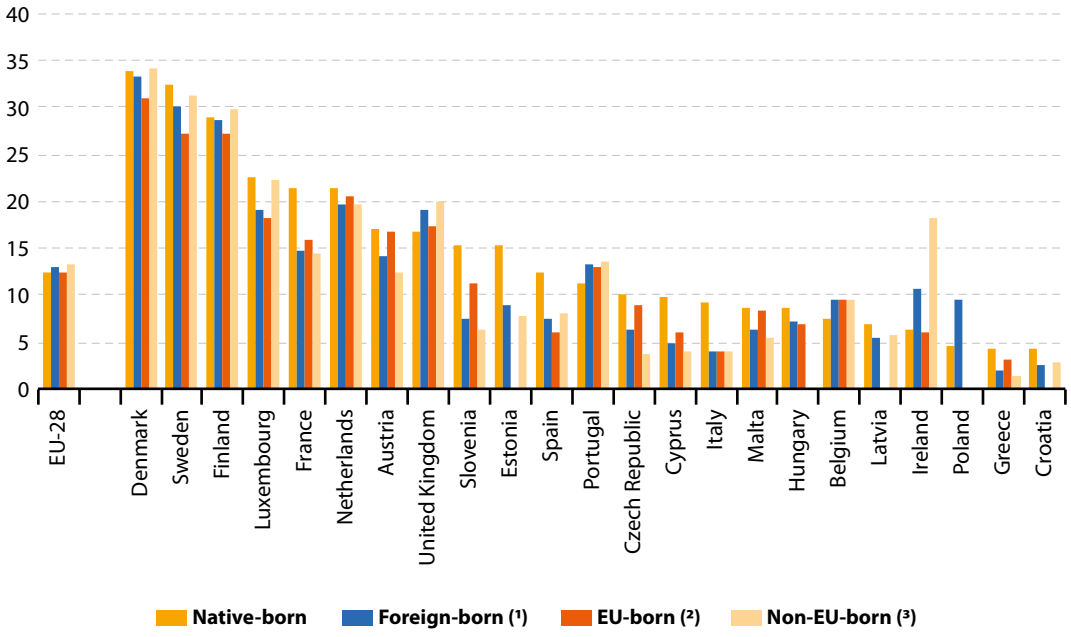
Available data showed that in Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Portugal and the United Kingdom, more non-EU-born people aged 25–54 participated in lifelong learning than the native-born.

Note that the participation in language courses and other integration-focused learning activities was also included in the concept of lifelong learning.

The lowest rates (in EU Member States for which data are available) for the non-EU-born population aged 25–54 were reported iwn Cyprus (4.0 %), the Czech Republic (3.6 %), Croatia (2.8 %) and Greece (1.5 %).

Figure 1.15: Participation in lifelong learning of population (aged 25–54), by country of birth, 2015

(%)



Note: ranked on participation in lifelong learning of the 'native-born'. Bulgaria, Germany, Lithuania, Romania and Slovakia: foreign-born data not available or confidential.

(1) Poland: low reliability.
(2) Except reporting country. Estonia, Greece, Croatia, Latvia, Malta, Poland and Slovenia: low reliability or confidential.
(3) Croatia, Hungary, Malta and Poland: low reliability or confidential.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: trng_lfs_13)

Table 1.3: Early leavers (aged 18–24) from education and training, by country of birth, 2015 (%)

	Native-born	Foreign-born		
		Total	EU-born	Non-EU-born
EU-28	10.1	19.0	17.1	19.8
Belgium	9.0	18.2	16.3	19.4
Bulgaria	13.5	:	:	:
Czech Republic	6.1	:	:	:
Denmark	7.7	:	:	:
Germany	8.6	:	:	:
Estonia	11.3	:	:	:
Ireland	7.0	6.8	:	:
Greece	6.8	24.1	:	24.9
Spain	17.5	33.3	36.1	32.6
France	8.7	16.5	:	16.6
Croatia	:	:	:	:
Italy	12.7	31.3	26.4	33.0
Cyprus	3.1	16.7	:	:
Latvia	10.0	:	:	:
Lithuania	5.5	:	:	:
Luxembourg	6.9	15.6	15.6	:
Hungary	11.6	:	:	:
Malta	19.9	:	:	:
Netherlands	8.0	9.7	:	11.4
Austria	5.5	19.0	:	24.5
Poland	5.3	:	:	:
Portugal	13.5	16.2	:	16.1
Romania	19.1	:	:	:
Slovenia	4.3	:	:	:
Slovakia	6.9	:	:	:
Finland	8.7	:	:	:
Sweden	5.9	13.9	10.9	14.4
United Kingdom	11.2	7.6	11.8	4.5

' : ' – data not available, not reliable or confidential.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: edat_lfse_02)

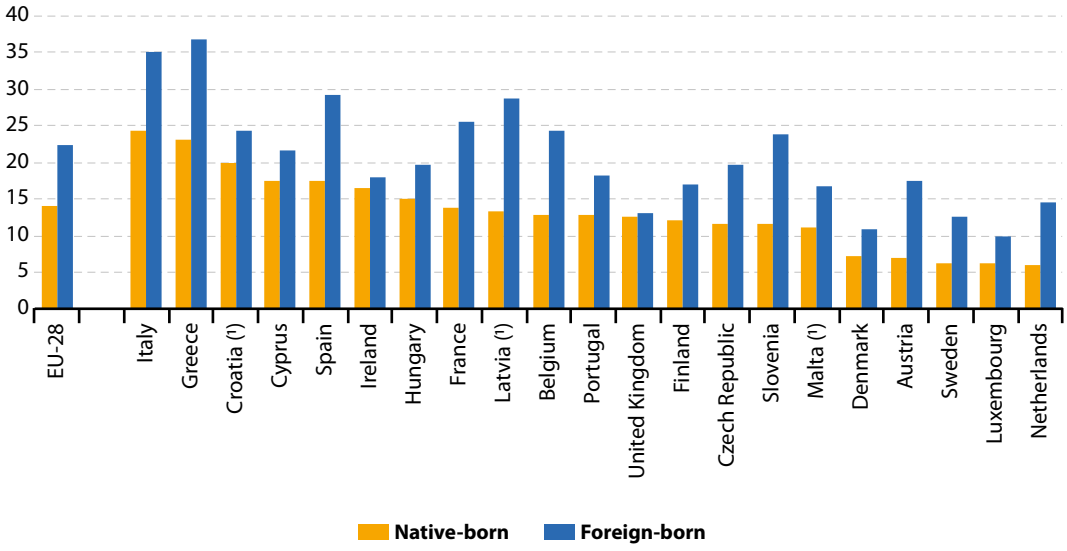
Early leavers from education and training are defined as persons aged 18–24 having attained at most lower secondary education and not being involved in further education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey.

Early leavers from education and training are defined as persons aged 18–24 having attained at most lower secondary education and not being involved in further education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey.

In 2015 among EU Member States for which data are available, the highest shares of foreign-born early leavers from education and training were found in Spain (33.3 %), Italy (31.3 %) and Greece (24.1 %). Due to small sample sizes or low reliability of data, a more detailed analysis of the statistics at country level is very limited. Taking into account only the EU Member States with reliable data, the most significant differences between the foreign-born and native-born populations were reported in Italy (19 pp higher for the foreign-born), Greece (17 pp) and Spain (16 pp). In Spain, the young EU-born made up the highest share of early leavers from education and training (around 36 %) of all the population groups for which reliable data are available.

As shown in Table 1.3, the share of native-born young early leavers from education and training was only higher than that of their foreign-born counterparts in the United Kingdom (11.2 % vs 7.6 %) and Ireland (7.0 % vs 6.8 %).

Figure 1.16: Young people (aged 15–29) neither in employment nor in education and training, by country of birth, 2015
(%)



Note: ranked on decreasing share of 'Native-born' young people neither in employment nor in education and training.
Bulgaria, Germany, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and Slovakia: data for foreign-born not available.

(!) Foreign-born: low reliability.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: edat_lfse_28)

The indicator of young people neither in employment nor in education and training (NEET) corresponds to the percentage of the population of a given age group (in this case aged 15–29) who are not employed and not involved in further education or training.

The indicator of young people neither in employment nor in education and training (NEET) corresponds to the percentage of the population of a given age group (in this case aged 15–29) who are not employed and not involved in further education or training.

In 2015, about 14 % of the native-born young people aged 15–29 in the EU-28 were NEET. This share was significantly higher for the foreign-born young population and in particular for those not born in the EU, for which it exceeded 24 % (see Figure 1.16).

According to the available data at country level in 2015, the highest shares of foreign-born young people (aged 15–29) NEET were observed in Greece (36.9 %), Italy (35.2 %) and Spain (29.2 %), while the lowest rates were registered in Sweden (12.7 %), Denmark (10.8 %) and Luxembourg (10.0 %). In all the EU Member States for which data are available, NEET rates were higher for the foreign-born than for the native-born population, with the largest gaps recorded in Latvia (15 pp), Greece (14 pp) and Slovenia (12 pp).

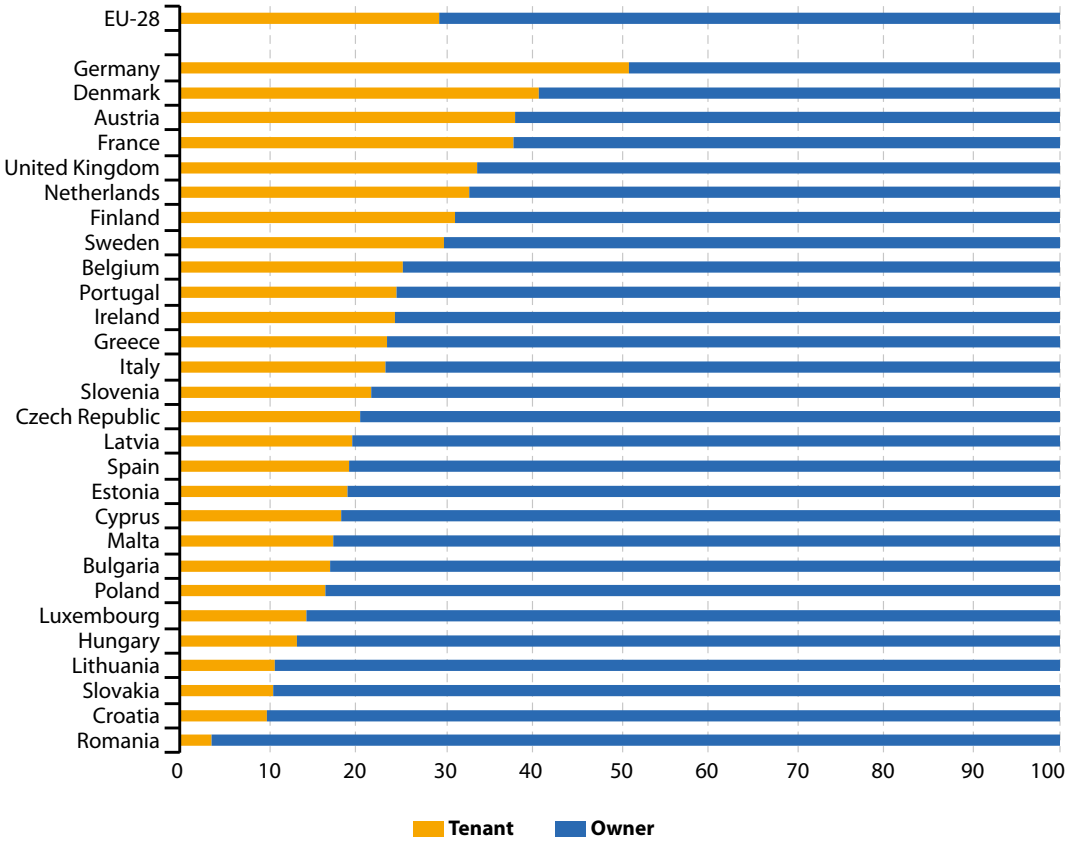
1.4 Housing and living conditions

Housing is an important element for the well-being of individuals. The evaluation of the quality and cost of each person's living space is crucial for measuring living standards and social inclusion.

In 2015 in the EU-28, 70.5 % of nationals aged 20–64 lived in owner-occupied dwellings, compared with 32.1 % of all foreign citizens of the same age group (see Figures 1.17 and 1.18).

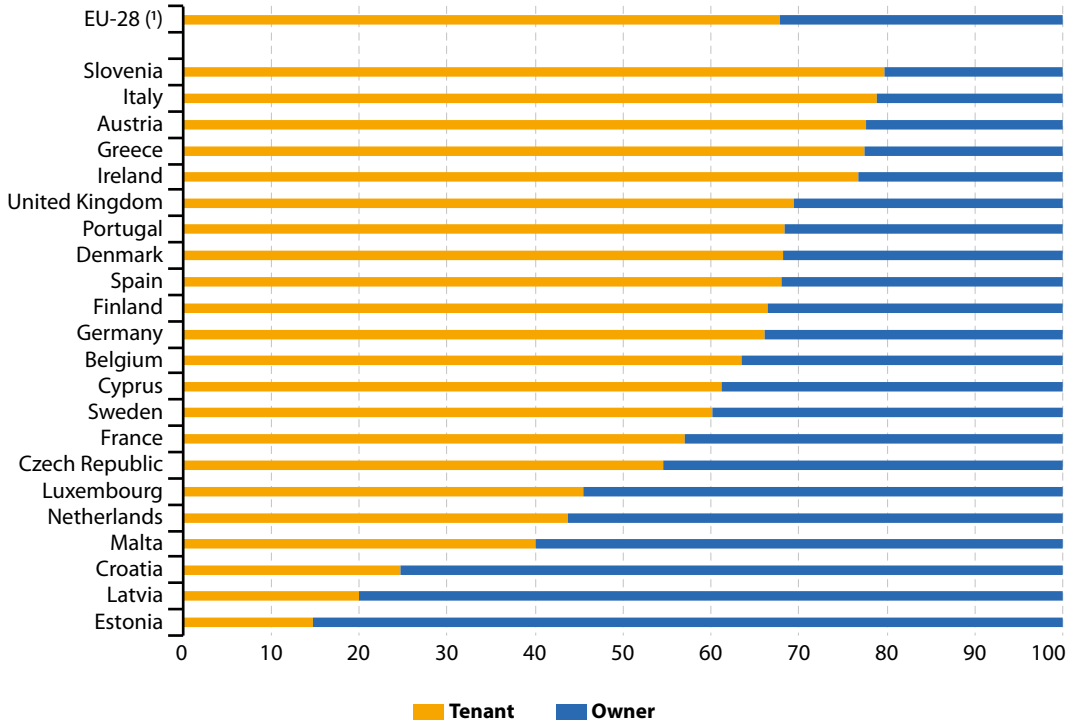
Tenure status is generally an important indicator of social inclusion. However, it needs to be cautiously considered with other characteristics that are specific to the country of residence and certain features of that country's entire population. Available statistics show that while less than one third of nationals in the EU are tenants, the proportion of tenants in the population of foreign citizens is significantly higher. Around two out of three foreign citizens live in rented dwellings, while the remaining are owners.

Figure 1.17: Tenure status of nationals aged 20–64 of the reporting country, 2015
(% of total population)



Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvps15)

Figure 1.18: Tenure status of foreign citizens aged 20–64, 2015
(%)



Note: Data with low reliability are not presented in this figure. Data not available for Romania.

(1) Estimated data.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvps15)

At the EU Member State level in 2015, 51.0 % of nationals in Germany were tenants, followed by Denmark, Austria and France (40.8 %, 38.1 % and 38.0 %, respectively), while in Romania only 3.7 % of nationals were tenants, followed by Croatia (9.9 %), Slovakia (10.7 %) and Lithuania (10.8 %).

The highest proportion of tenants in 2015 within the population of foreign citizens was observed in Slovenia, where 79.7 % of the foreign citizens were tenants, followed by Italy (78.9 %), Austria (77.6 %), Greece (77.5 %) and Ireland (76.7 %). By contrast, the highest proportions of owners within the population of foreign citizens — among EU Member States with reliable data — were recorded in Estonia (85.3 %), Latvia (80.0 %) and Croatia (75.3 %).

Table 1.4: Overcrowding rate by groups of country of birth and age groups, 2015
(%)

	Native-born			Foreign-born			Of which:					
							EU-born (1)			Non-EU born		
	population at age											
	20–64	of which		20–64	of which		20–64	of which		20–64	of which	
		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64
EU-28	16.5	17.3	9.9	*22.2*	*23.2*	*11.7*	*17.9*	*18.7*	:	*24.5*	*25.6*	:
Belgium	0.9	1.0	0.6	4.2	4.7	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.1	6.3	7.1	1.0
Bulgaria	42.9	47.1	23.6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	17.7	19.4	8.4	29.5	31.4	14.5	23.0	26.2	9.9	39.0	38.0	:
Denmark	8.8	7.8	2.0	17.1	17.6	2.3	8.6	7.6	0.8	21.1	21.2	4.0
Germany	6.7	6.7	4.0	15.8	16.5	7.5	13.7	15.1	5.5	17.7	17.6	10.9
Estonia	12.7	13.7	5.8	11.2	13.9	8.2	:	:	:	11.4	14.4	8.5
Ireland	2.1	2.2	0.8	6.3	6.0	3.5	5.1	4.7	2.6	9.8	9.5	:
Greece	28.0	28.2	18.8	50.8	50.3	46.9	34.5	34.6	:	54.0	53.3	53.5
Spain	4.4	4.5	2.7	10.7	10.5	5.6	3.4	3.6	0.0	14.1	13.7	9.0
France	6.5	6.8	2.3	15.6	17.3	9.0	6.1	6.4	3.1	19.3	21.6	11.4
Croatia	42.9	44.5	29.4	43.8	46.7	35.3	39.8	43.0	:	44.5	47.5	36.3
Italy	27.4	28.4	17.9	47.1	48.4	31.2	43.1	45.5	19.2	48.8	49.6	36.8
Cyprus	1.2	1.1	0.6	2.9	2.2	1.6	2.4	1.7	0.0	3.4	2.8	3.7
Latvia	41.3	43.5	24.6	38.2	45.3	31.1	29.7	:	:	39.2	47.8	31.2
Lithuania	26.4	27.0	13.4	23.7	32.5	15.4	:	:	:	23.9	35.0	15.0
Luxembourg	3.1	3.5	1.1	11.2	10.8	9.4	9.7	9.5	7.6	16.1	15.1	18.4
Hungary	40.4	45.3	21.4	51.2	52.6	:	49.4	52.4	:	:	:	:
Malta	3.3	3.4	2.3	4.5	4.5	2.6	2.1	2.8	:	6.7	5.9	:
Netherlands	3.5	2.9	0.9	6.4	6.2	2.5	3.8	4.2	2.7	7.2	6.7	2.5
Austria	9.0	8.8	5.0	36.3	37.1	23.1	23.5	21.4	17.9	43.4	45.5	25.7
Poland	42.1	44.8	28.5	42.6	:	:	:	:	:	42.8	:	:
Portugal	9.5	10.2	4.4	15.9	14.5	11.9	8.5	7.4	:	18.5	17.4	12.9
Romania	50.8	54.5	30.1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovenia	12.6	13.4	6.6	28.9	31.8	20.5	14.0	15.8	9.1	33.3	36.2	24.7
Slovakia	38.4	40.5	21.5	36.3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	7.0	6.8	3.9	13.5	12.2	6.2	11.8	11.2	:	14.4	12.9	5.5
Sweden	11.4	10.2	3.3	24.1	25.8	6.9	12.7	13.7	3.0	28.6	29.6	10.4
United Kingdom	4.7	4.8	1.9	19.8	20.4	6.4	23.5	22.5	6.3	17.6	19.0	6.4

(1) Except reporting country.
' : ' – data not available, not reliable or confidential.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvho16)

The overcrowding rate is defined as the percentage of the population living in an overcrowded household.

A person is considered as living in an overcrowded household if the household does not have at its disposal a minimum of rooms equal to:

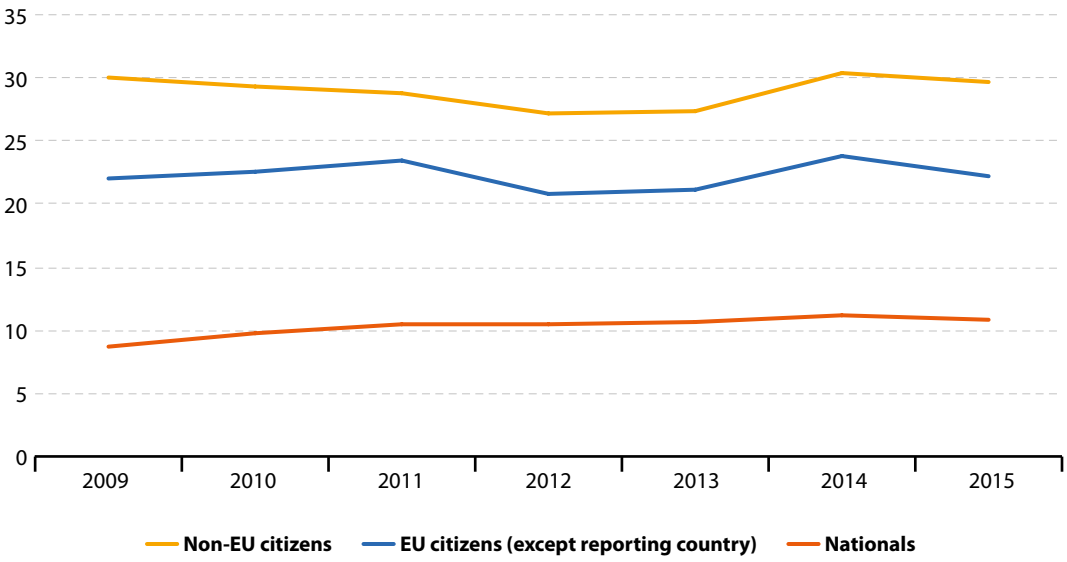
- **one room for the household;**
- **one room per couple in the household;**
- **one room for each single person aged 18 and more;**
- **one room per pair of single people of the same gender between 12 and 17 years of age;**
- **one room for each single person between 12 and 17 years of age and not included in the previous category;**
- **one room per pair of children under 12 years of age.**

The foreign-born population is generally more likely to live in an overcrowded household than the native-born population. The overcrowding rate is usually correlated with other social inclusion indicators, in particular on income, and similarly to those indicators this rate is higher for the foreign-born population.

In 2015 in the EU, the overcrowding rate for the foreign-born population aged 20–64 was 22.2 % compared with 16.5 % for the native-born population. Among the foreign-born, the non-EU-born population recorded a significantly higher overcrowding rate (24.5 %) than the migrants born in one of the EU Member States (17.9 %) (see Table 1.4).

The highest overcrowding rates for the foreign-born population were observed in Hungary (51.2 %), Greece (50.8 %) and Italy (47.1 %). In contrast, Cyprus (2.9 %), Belgium (4.2 %), Malta (4.5 %), Ireland (6.3 %) and the Netherlands (6.4 %), with rates below 10 %, reported the lowest overcrowding rates of the foreign-born.

Figure 1.19: Evolution of housing cost overburden rate by groups of country of citizenship (total population aged 20–64), EU-28, 2009–15
(%)



Note: EU-27 for 2009.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvho25)

The housing cost overburden rate is defined as the share of the population living in households where the total cost of housing accounts for more than 40 % of a household's disposable income.

The rate illustrates changes to the living conditions of individuals, e.g. decreases in disposable income or increases in living costs. The evolution of the housing cost overburden rate is thus used to illustrate the changes in housing cost during the last seven years for which data are available (see Figure 1.19). The housing cost overburden rates for nationals were significantly lower than those of non-EU citizens. The gap in the housing costs overburden rates between nationals and non-EU citizens decreased regularly from 2010 to 2013, falling from 21.4 to 16.7 pp. However, from 2013 to 2014 the housing cost overburden for non-EU citizens increased substantially (far more than for nationals), resulting in the widening of the gap to almost 2010 levels (19.3 pp). During the following year the gap slightly closed and in 2015 it stood at 18.8 pp.

Table 1.5: People living in households with very low work intensity by groups of country of citizenship and age groups, 2015
(%)

	Nationals			Foreign citizens			Of which:					
							EU citizens (1)			Non-EU citizens		
	population at age											
	18–59	of which		18–59	of which		18–59	of which		18–59	of which	
		25–59	55–59		25–59	55–59		25–59	55–59		25–59	55–59
EU-28	11.0	11.1	20.6	*12.4*	*12.2*	:	:	:	:	*14.9*	*14.8*	:
Belgium	13.8	13.9	26.7	26.3	26.2	34.3	17.2	17.5	28.9	41.2	40.6	:
Bulgaria	11.0	10.6	15.1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	6.4	6.7	15.8	6.7	6.2	:	14.1	12.8	:	0.5	0.6	:
Denmark	13.0	13.0	19.8	18.1	18.7	:	13.8	12.3	:	20.5	22.4	:
Germany	10.2	10.7	18.8	13.1	12.6	19.4	8.6	8.1	:	18.6	18.4	:
Estonia	6.4	6.4	15.1	10.8	11.0	16.0	:	:	:	11.0	11.1	16.2
Ireland	19.1	18.8	25.4	16.2	15.7	:	14.8	14.1	:	23.2	24.2	:
Greece	19.0	18.6	34.4	16.5	16.3	24.2	25.0	25.7	:	15.0	14.6	22.8
Spain	17.0	16.4	26.7	13.1	12.3	13.1	13.5	12.0	:	12.8	12.5	:
France	8.6	8.6	22.0	16.1	15.2	24.5	7.6	7.8	:	20.9	19.5	:
Croatia	15.0	15.6	26.6	15.7	16.8	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	13.4	13.3	22.4	6.5	6.8	11.2	6.5	6.9	:	6.5	6.7	8.6
Cyprus	11.2	11.0	23.9	12.2	12.3	23.8	10.9	11.1	25.6	14.2	14.2	:
Latvia	7.3	7.5	12.6	12.1	12.1	17.8	:	:	:	12.0	12.0	17.7
Lithuania	9.5	10.3	20.4	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Luxembourg	7.6	8.2	25.9	5.6	5.4	17.7	5.6	5.4	19.0	5.6	5.1	:
Hungary	8.9	9.2	19.6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Malta	8.5	8.8	17.0	13.5	13.4	:	12.5	13.1	:	14.7	13.9	:
Netherlands	11.6	11.2	19.2	8.5	7.3	:	10.3	7.9	:	6.3	6.5	:
Austria	7.3	8.0	19.0	14.1	14.5	36.9	10.5	9.9	:	16.6	17.7	:
Poland	8.0	8.4	19.2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Portugal	11.6	11.7	25.3	9.0	9.5	:	10.1	10.4	:	8.8	9.3	:
Romania	7.9	8.2	21.8	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovenia	8.7	9.1	25.6	6.0	6.3	:	11.2	10.1	:	5.0	5.5	:
Slovakia	6.8	6.9	14.4	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	11.7	11.3	17.9	24.9	23.4	:	12.2	12.2	:	34.3	32.5	:
Sweden	5.1	5.2	7.4	19.9	17.9	:	10.9	9.7	:	25.1	22.9	:
United Kingdom	10.8	10.7	15.5	11.1	11.4	25.8	8.0	7.8	28.9	15.9	16.7	:

(1) Except reporting country.
' : ' – data not available, not reliable or confidential.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvhl15)

People living in households with very low work intensity are those living in households where the adults have worked less than 20 % of their total work potential during the past year.

Using available data for 2015 for the age group 18–59, the rate of people living in households with very low work intensity in the EU was 11.0 % for nationals, compared with 12.4 % for all foreign citizens and 14.9 % for non-EU citizens (see Table 1.5).

At country level, the highest rates of foreign citizens living in households with very low work intensity were reported in Belgium (26.3 %) and Finland (24.9 %). Luxembourg (5.6 %), Slovenia (6.0 %), Italy (6.5 %) and the Czech Republic (6.7 %) reported the lowest rates among the EU Member States.

As regards non-EU citizens, the highest rates — among EU Member States with reliable data — were observed in Belgium (41.2 %) and Finland (34.3 %), while the lowest rates were found in the Czech Republic (0.5 %) and Slovenia (5.0 %).

1.5 At risk of poverty and social exclusion

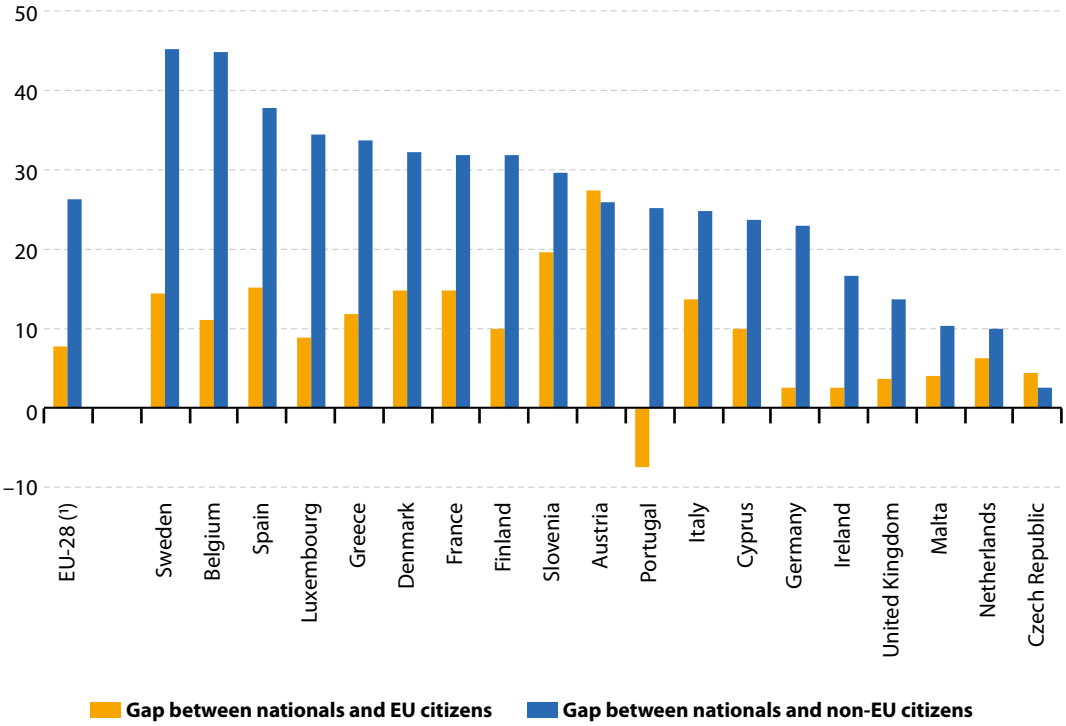
The 'at risk of poverty or social exclusion' (AROPE) refers to the situation of people who are either at risk of poverty, or severely materially deprived or living in a household with a very low work intensity. The AROPE rate, the share of the total population at risk of poverty or social exclusion, is the headline indicator monitoring the EU 2020 poverty target. It is defined as the share of people with an equivalised disposable income (after social transfer) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers. This indicator does not measure wealth or poverty, but low income in comparison to other residents in that country, which does not necessarily imply a low standard of living.

From the perspective of COC, according to available data (see Figure 1.20), the greatest gaps in AROPE rates between citizens of the reporting country (nationals) and non-EU citizens were generally observed in Sweden (45.0 pp), Belgium (44.9 pp), followed by Spain (37.8 pp), Luxembourg (34.3 pp) and Greece (33.7 pp). By contrast, the AROPE gaps were the smallest in the Czech Republic (2.7 pp), the Netherlands (10.0 pp) and Malta (10.3 pp).

The AROPE rate for foreign citizens aged 20–64 in the EU was significantly higher (39.5 %) than the corresponding rate for nationals (23.4 %) (see Table 1.6). The population of non-EU citizens was particularly affected by the high AROPE rate (48.4 %).

One of the headline targets of the Europe 2020 Strategy is the reduction of poverty by lifting at least 20 million people out of poverty or social exclusion.

Figure 1.20: Gaps of AROPE rates between nationals, EU citizens and non-EU citizens, 2015
(percentage points)



Note: Romania: data not available. Countries with unreliable data are not displayed.
(1) EU citizens: low reliability; non-EU citizens: estimate.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_peps05)

Table 1.6: People AROPE by groups of country of citizenship and by age group, 2015
(%)

	Nationals			Foreign citizens			Of which:					
							EU citizens (1)			Non-EU citizens		
	population at age											
	20–64	25–54	55 and over	20–64	25–54	55 and over	20–64	25–54	55 and over	20–64	25–54	55 and over
EU-28	23.4	21.9	20.2	*39.5*	*38.5*	:	:	:	:	*48.4*	*47.6*	:
Belgium	18.6	17.0	18.3	41.3	39.4	38.7	29.4	26.0	32.3	61.7	59.6	:
Bulgaria	37.0	35.4	46.6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	13.3	12.6	12.7	16.6	17.1	:	17.8	16.3	:	15.6	17.8	:
Denmark	19.7	16.5	11.5	42.3	42.0	20.3	33.3	28.3	26.3	48.6	49.4	:
Germany	20.9	18.4	20.6	31.4	31.3	27.3	22.8	22.2	20.0	42.7	42.4	42.8
Estonia	19.2	17.1	31.4	30.8	30.4	37.8	:	:	:	31.3	31.0	37.9
Ireland	25.7	23.9	20.9	28.2	27.0	34.3	25.5	24.0	34.8	41.7	41.2	:
Greece	37.2	35.2	28.3	63.8	64.4	58.1	48.4	48.5	27.6	66.7	67.1	66.5
Spain	28.6	28.0	18.5	53.1	51.4	45.5	40.0	38.3	39.6	61.9	60.0	57.6
France	17.5	15.6	13.2	39.4	38.4	40.9	24.9	22.7	38.8	48.3	46.9	44.2
Croatia	28.2	26.9	32.5	36.7	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	28.2	27.9	22.1	47.7	47.0	47.9	39.8	39.4	31.9	51.1	50.3	55.3
Cyprus	27.3	24.9	25.5	43.1	42.7	24.9	38.9	38.6	22.6	49.9	48.8	:
Latvia	25.9	24.2	36.7	33.6	31.7	40.9	:	:	:	33.8	31.9	40.8
Lithuania	26.2	24.4	34.2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Luxembourg	13.5	11.2	10.8	25.4	24.1	21.8	21.4	20.0	20.0	47.5	44.9	:
Hungary	28.6	27.0	24.1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Malta	20.1	19.0	23.8	25.8	23.4	29.4	22.3	17.8	29.2	30.7	29.5	:
Netherlands	18.5	16.2	11.2	24.7	23.4	19.7	23.1	19.7	22.9	26.7	27.6	:
Austria	14.4	12.2	15.2	39.8	39.6	42.5	38.2	35.8	54.0	41.0	42.5	35.4
Poland	23.8	22.7	21.7	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Portugal	26.7	24.7	25.8	45.3	42.4	37.2	20.8	:	:	49.9	47.3	:
Romania	35.0	34.1	34.1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovenia	18.5	16.1	22.8	47.1	46.3	45.2	39.9	36.3	:	48.6	48.5	45.3
Slovakia	17.5	17.2	15.2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	17.3	14.7	15.0	37.7	36.7	40.0	26.9	24.3	:	46.1	46.0	:
Sweden	13.3	11.2	15.1	46.0	46.3	33.3	28.2	28.9	23.3	57.9	56.3	:
United Kingdom	21.8	20.2	18.8	28.3	26.3	32.3	23.2	20.2	32.5	36.1	35.2	31.9

(1) Except reporting country.
' : ' – data not available, not reliable or confidential.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_peps05)

Table 1.7: Median income by groups of country of citizenship and age groups, 2015
(EUR)

	Nationals			Foreign citizens			Of which:					
							EU citizens (1)			Non-EU citizens		
	population at age											
	20–64	of which		20–64	of which		20–64	of which		20–64	of which	
		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64		25–54	55–64
EU-28	17 131	17 305	17 584	*15 380*	*15 683*	:	:	:	:	*13 162*	*13 325*	:
Belgium	24 348	24 736	23 653	16 731	16 979	17 629	20 662	21 411	18 538	12 590	12 664	:
Bulgaria	3 726	3 767	3 749	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	8 037	8 186	7 760	7 273	7 172	:	8 018	8 018	:	7 063	6 696	:
Denmark	30 633	31 371	33 514	22 402	23 059	28 939	23 533	25 816	:	21 365	21 288	:
Germany	22 101	22 653	21 395	18 842	18 845	20 325	21 467	21 769	21 411	15 019	15 019	:
Estonia	9 370	9 672	8 781	7 304	7 617	6 917	:	:	:	7 283	7 631	6 911
Ireland	23 479	24 170	23 273	19 836	20 054	19 097	20 247	20 803	18 377	18 163	17 665	:
Greece	7 954	7 980	8 359	4 826	4 826	4 464	5 833	5 767	:	4 633	4 667	4 050
Spain	14 357	14 373	15 588	8 754	8 912	10 346	10 602	10 864	11 370	7 694	7 865	:
France	22 132	22 145	23 617	16 416	16 308	16 487	21 824	21 134	23 320	14 734	14 763	14 823
Croatia	5 831	5 955	5 536	4 934	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	17 247	17 178	18 388	11 490	11 639	10 800	12 003	12 211	12 720	11 282	11 480	9 579
Cyprus	15 336	15 554	15 600	10 680	10 547	13 856	11 261	10 889	14 794	9 700	9 814	:
Latvia	6 638	6 798	6 077	5 914	6 070	5 697	:	:	:	5 886	6 036	5 697
Lithuania	5 909	6 093	5 546	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Luxembourg	41 255	41 980	42 160	29 171	29 403	30 738	30 537	30 876	31 087	21 520	22 122	:
Hungary	4 729	4 789	4 813	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Malta	14 790	14 954	13 926	14 111	14 463	:	14 924	15 478	:	12 271	12 677	:
Netherlands	22 474	22 691	23 336	20 369	20 369	:	21 226	21 226	:	18 586	18 904	:
Austria	25 977	25 869	26 918	17 057	17 293	16 686	18 877	19 735	:	16 402	16 256	16 683
Poland	5 728	5 791	5 722	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Portugal	8 804	8 877	8 880	7 178	7 620	:	10 881	:	:	6 530	7 255	:
Romania	2 459	2 462	2 670	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovenia	12 783	13 004	12 127	8 680	8 798	9 194	9 504	10 933	:	8 439	8 608	9 194
Slovakia	7 366	7 349	7 584	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	25 705	26 462	26 937	19 519	20 465	21 025	22 708	23 512	:	16 510	17 094	:
Sweden	29 208	28 905	35 112	18 660	18 660	24 741	24 755	25 767	:	15 486	15 864	:
United Kingdom	23 313	23 923	23 488	21 170	22 235	19 991	21 732	22 469	19 991	21 094	21 350	:

(1) Except reporting country.
' : ' – data not available, not reliable or confidential.

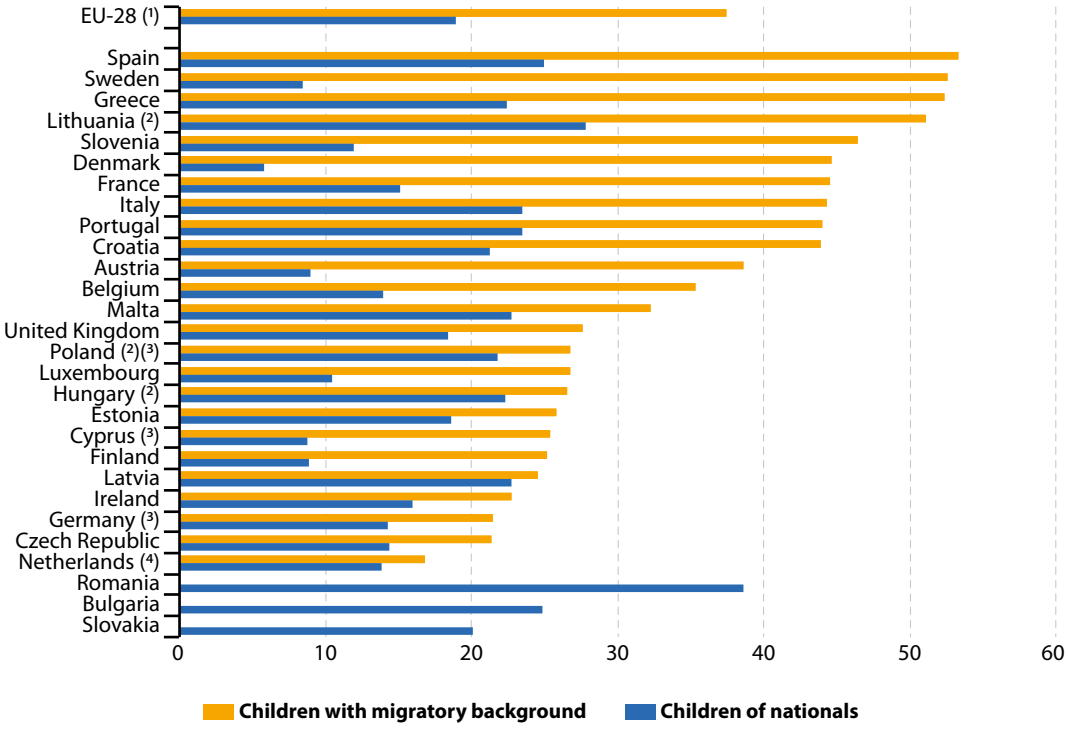
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_di15)

While foreign EU citizens have higher median incomes than the nationals, the median incomes of non-EU citizens seem considerably lower. As shown in Table 1.7, at EU level (4) the median income of nationals was higher (EUR 17 131) than the corresponding income of the foreign citizens (EUR 15 380) in 2015.

Looking at individual EU Member States, the greatest gaps between median income of the nationals and foreign citizens were found in Luxembourg (EUR 12 084), Sweden (EUR 10 548), Austria (EUR 8 920) and Denmark (EUR 8 231). The smallest gaps (below EUR 900) were observed in Malta, Latvia, the Czech Republic and Croatia. As for the gap in the median income among the foreign citizens' population, in all EU Member States for which data were available, the foreign EU citizens aged 20–64 had a higher median income than the non-EU citizens.

Figure 1.21: At-risk-of poverty rate of children aged 0–17, by groups of country of citizenship of their parents, 2015

(%)



Note: Bulgaria, Romania and Slovakia: data not available for foreign children.

(1) Children with migratory background: estimate.

(2) Children with migratory background: low reliability.

(3) 2014.

(4) Provisional.

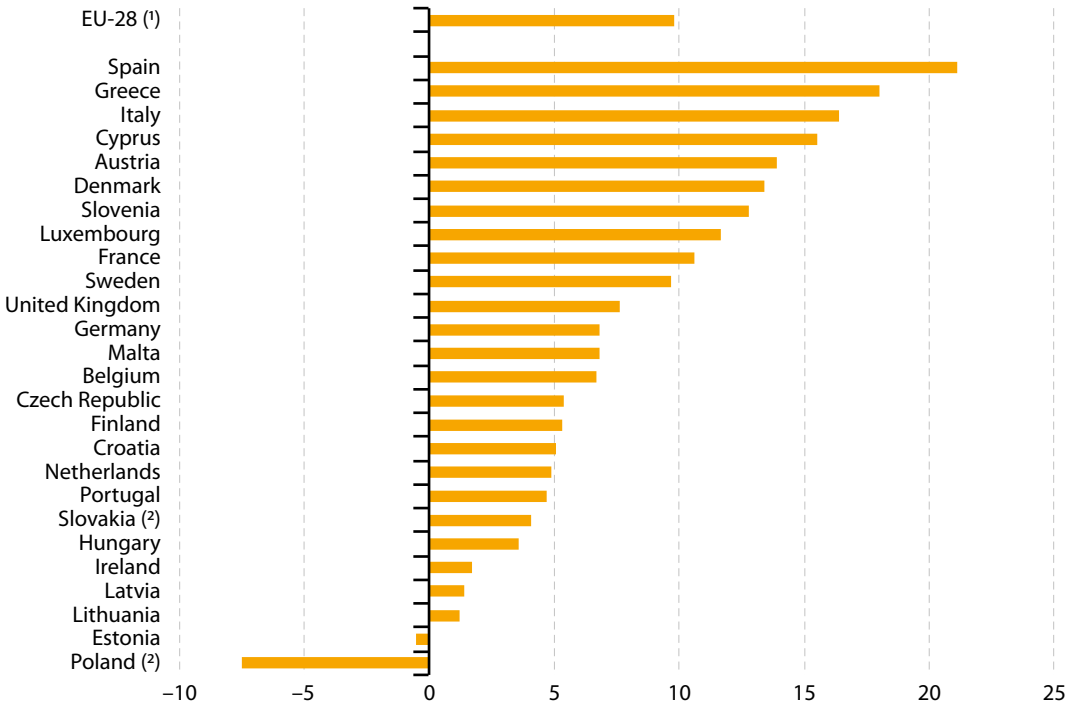
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_li33)

(4) The income reference period is a fixed 12-month period (such as the previous calendar or tax year) for all countries except the United Kingdom for which the income reference period is the current year of the survey and Ireland for which the survey is continuous and income is collected for the 12 months prior to the survey.

Children (aged 0–17) with a migratory background are exposed to a particularly high risk of poverty. A child is considered to have a migratory background if at least one of the parents living with him/her is a foreign citizen. A child is considered to be national if both parents living in the household are nationals or, if there is only one parent in the household, that parent is a national. As children usually do not have incomes of their own, they are assumed to share the income of their parents and others in the household. The at-risk-of-poverty rates for children with a migratory background are significantly higher than for children whose parents are both nationals at the EU level and in most of the EU Member States. While the at-risk-of-poverty rate for children of nationals was 18.9 % in 2015, the corresponding rate for children with migratory background stood at 37.4 % (see Figure 1.21).

Spain (53.3 %), Sweden (52.6 %) and Greece (52.4 %) reported the highest at-risk-of-poverty rates for children with migratory background. On the other hand, the children's poverty rate was lowest in the Netherlands (16.8 %). It should be noted that in Latvia and the Netherlands children with migratory background had the smallest gaps in at-risk-of-poverty rates compared with children of nationals, while the largest gaps between migrant children and children of nationals were recorded in Sweden, Denmark, Slovenia and Greece.

Figure 1.22: In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate, gap between native and foreign-born population aged 20–64, 2015
(percentage points)



Note: Data not available for Bulgaria and Romania.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_iw16)

(1) Foreign-born population: estimate.
(2) Foreign-born population: low reliability.

The in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate is the share of persons who are at work and have an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income.

The in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate represents the employed population facing the risk of poverty. In 2015 in the EU it stood at 8.4 % for the native-born population aged 20–64 compared with 18.2 % for the foreign-born population, i.e. the rate of the foreign-born population was 9.8 pp higher than that of the native-born population (see Figure 1.22).

The greatest differences between foreign- and native-born populations were found in Spain (21.1 pp), Greece (18.0 pp), Italy (16.4 pp) and Cyprus (15.5 pp). However, Ireland, Latvia and Lithuania had differences below 2.0 pp, meaning that both foreign- and native-born populations were exposed to a similar level of in-work at-risk-of-poverty rates.

The material deprivation rate is an indicator that expresses the inability to afford some items considered by most people to be desirable or even necessary to lead an adequate life. It distinguishes between individuals who cannot afford a certain good or service, and those who do not have this good or service for another reason, e.g. because they do not want or need it.

The indicator represents the percentage of the population that cannot afford at least three of the following nine items:

- **pay their rent, mortgage or utility bills;**
- **keep their home adequately warm;**
- **face unexpected expenses;**
- **eat meat or proteins regularly;**
- **go on holiday;**
- **television set;**
- **washing machine;**
- **car;**
- **telephone.**

Those who are unable to afford four or more items are considered to be severely materially deprived.

Material deprivation plays a key role in defining the poverty and social exclusion goal of the Europe 2020 Strategy, which is to reduce the number of people at risk of poverty by 20 million.

As seen in Table 1.8, foreign citizens tended to face higher rates of severe material deprivation in the EU than the nationals, with the highest rates for foreign citizens in Greece (52.4 %). In Malta, Ireland and the United Kingdom the patterns were inverted, with the nationals having slightly higher rates of severe material deprivation.

Within the population of foreign citizens, severe material deprivation tended to be most widespread among non-EU citizens (17.9 %). Among the countries with sufficiently reliable data, by far the highest rates of severe material deprivation of non-EU citizens were observed in Greece (55.6 %), followed by Portugal (29.8 %), Belgium (29.4 %) and Italy (25.2 %). The lowest were recorded in Sweden (5.3 %), the Czech Republic (6.7 %), Malta (8.3 %) and the United Kingdom (8.8 %).

Table 1.8: Severe material deprivation rate by groups of country of citizenship and age groups, 2015
(%)

	Nationals			Foreign citizens			Of which:					
							EU citizens (1)			Non-EU citizens		
	population at age											
	20–64	25–54	55 and over	20–64	25–54	55 and over	20–64	25–54	55 and over	20–64	25–54	55 and over
EU-28	7.9	7.7	6.4	*12.7*	*12.8*	:	:	:	:	*17.9*	*17.8*	:
Belgium	4.7	4.9	2.6	15.0	14.7	10.7	6.6	5.2	7.3	29.4	29.0	:
Bulgaria	31.6	30.5	37.7	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	5.3	5.1	5.0	8.4	8.9	:	10.4	9.6	:	6.7	8.4	:
Denmark	3.8	3.5	1.5	13.8	15.2	5.9	3.9	3.0	4.4	20.5	21.9	:
Germany	4.8	4.8	3.2	5.9	5.8	4.3	2.6	2.0	2.5	10.2	10.2	8.6
Estonia	3.5	3.1	4.7	9.9	9.3	10.3	:	:	:	10.3	9.7	10.5
Ireland	7.6	7.9	4.1	6.9	6.8	5.6	6.3	5.8	5.9	9.8	11.3	:
Greece	20.9	20.6	16.3	52.4	52.8	47.3	35.3	36.8	15.8	55.6	55.5	55.9
Spain	5.7	5.8	3.2	17.7	17.5	7.3	14.2	15.3	2.6	20.1	19.0	16.7
France	4.3	3.9	3.0	16.0	16.6	10.2	10.6	11.1	6.0	19.3	19.6	16.7
Croatia	13.6	13.0	14.9	23.2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	10.9	10.5	9.1	22.5	22.8	20.5	16.1	15.5	13.4	25.2	25.9	23.7
Cyprus	15.9	15.5	8.7	18.9	19.1	7.8	19.9	20.8	6.3	17.4	16.6	:
Latvia	14.8	13.8	17.6	20.0	18.3	21.0	:	:	:	20.1	18.5	21.1
Lithuania	12.4	10.9	17.0	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Luxembourg	1.0	1.2	0.4	3.2	2.7	2.1	1.8	1.7	1.1	11.0	7.6	:
Hungary	19.0	18.5	16.7	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Malta	8.4	8.0	6.3	6.6	6.1	2.5	5.5	4.5	2.2	8.3	7.9	:
Netherlands	3.0	3.1	1.7	9.5	8.9	4.0	6.3	3.0	6.4	13.5	15.6	:
Austria	2.8	2.6	2.1	10.1	9.3	10.8	9.4	9.6	2.8	10.6	9.1	15.6
Poland	7.9	7.4	8.6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	0.0	:
Portugal	9.1	8.3	9.5	27.6	26.8	18.4	16.4	:	:	29.8	29.0	:
Romania	21.0	20.8	20.6	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovenia	5.7	5.2	6.8	12.7	11.7	19.9	12.6	11.8	:	12.8	11.7	22.4
Slovakia	8.2	7.8	8.9	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	2.4	2.4	1.5	8.1	5.4	10.5	3.9	0.8	:	11.3	8.9	:
Sweden	0.6	0.6	0.4	3.8	3.7	1.0	1.6	2.3	0.0	5.3	4.4	:
United Kingdom	6.1	6.2	2.4	5.7	5.6	9.6	3.6	3.6	11.3	8.8	8.6	6.4

(1) Except reporting country.
' : ' – data not available, not reliable or confidential.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_mddd15)

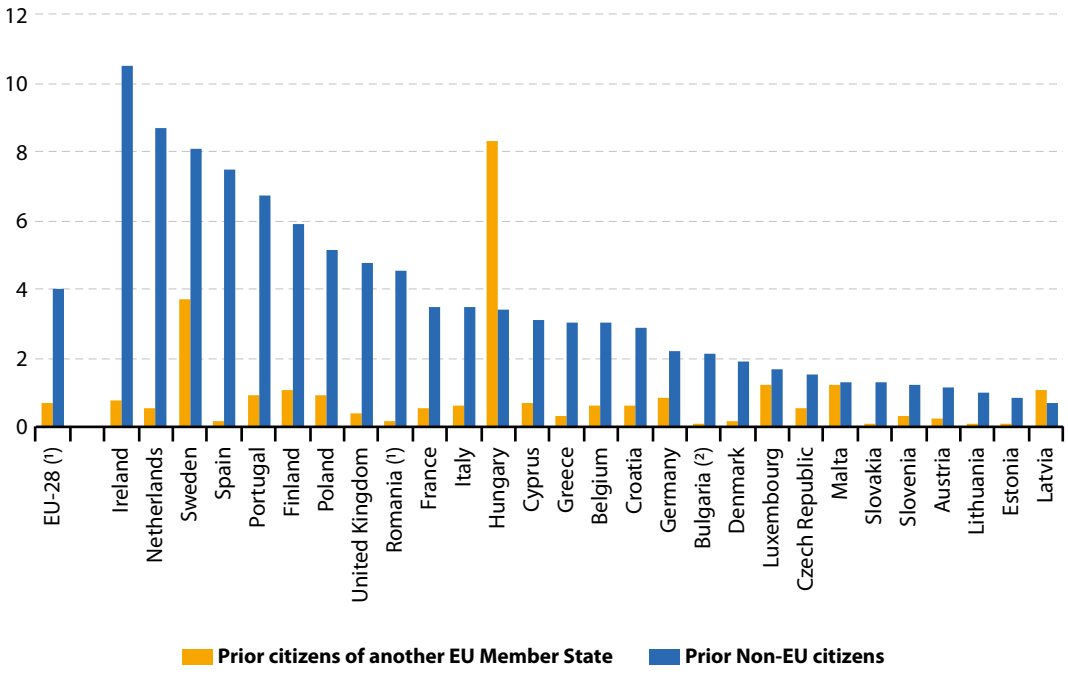
1.6 Active citizenship

The acquisition of citizenship represents evidence of effective migrant integration and recognition in the hosting countries, offering them fully active citizenship rights. In 2014 around 890 thousand foreign citizens received citizenship of the hosting country out of a total of 34 million foreign citizens residing in EU-28 Member States (stateless and unknown citizenship categories included). The ratio between these two categories, defined as the naturalisation rate, was 2.6 % in 2014, slightly lower than the 3.0 % recorded in 2013.

Ireland with 10.5 % and the Netherlands with 8.7 % were the two EU Member States which recorded the highest naturalisation rates of prior non-EU citizens, while two other Member States had a naturalisation rate above 7 %: Sweden (8.1 %) and Spain (7.5 %). The highest naturalisation rate for prior EU citizens was observed in Hungary (8.3 %), followed by Sweden (3.7 %), while Luxembourg, Malta, Finland and Latvia also presented naturalisation rates of at least 1.0 %.

Only Hungary and Latvia recorded a higher naturalisation rate for prior EU citizens than for prior non-EU citizens (see Figure 1.23).

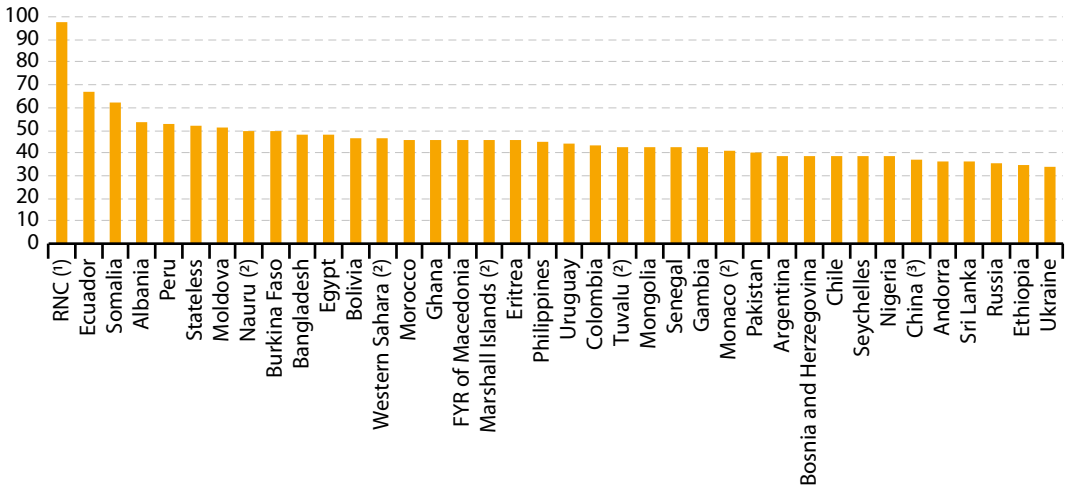
Figure 1.23: Naturalisation rate by broad groups of former citizenships, 2014
(%)



(1) Estimates.
(2) Provisional.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: migr_acqs)

Figure 1.24: Top citizenships with share of long-term residents higher than 30 % at EU-28 level, 2015
(%)



Note: Long-term residents in the United Kingdom not included.

(1) Recognised non-citizens.
(2) Low numbers of long-term residence permits: Nauru 6, Tuvalu 7, Marshall Islands 11, Monaco 17, Western Sahara 86.
(3) Including Hong Kong.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: migr_resvalid and migr_reslong)

At the end of 2015 around 7.7 million non-EU citizens were long-term residents in the EU, representing more than 40 % of all non-EU citizens with valid residence permits.

Non-EU citizens are usually granted a residence permit with a certain length of validity in the host country, depending on the national legal framework. A long-term residence permit is understood to have a validity length of 5 years or more and consequently offers safer residence status to non-EU citizens and by extension, more similar socio-economic rights and responsibilities to nationals (advanced active citizenship rights). Around 7.7 million long-term residence permits were issued to non-EU citizens and were valid in the EU at the end of 2015, i.e. 12 % more than at the end of 2014 when 6.9 million long-term residence permits were valid.

The ratio between the number of long-term residents and the total of residents with residence permits at the end of the year i.e. 'the share of long-term residents' was 40.9 % in 2015, slightly higher than in 2014 and 2013 (38.8 % and 36.3 % respectively).

Figure 1.24 presents the share of long-term residence for nearly 40 different citizenships which recorded shares of long-term residence of over 30 % at EU level. Recognised non-citizens represent a special category of non-EU citizens, living mainly in Estonia and Latvia, having similar rights as nationals (with some exceptions related for instance to the exercise of EU rights like free travel within the Schengen area). This explains a high share of long-term residents (97 %) of this category at EU level. Ecuador was the citizenship with the second highest share of long-term residents at EU-28 level with 67 %, followed by other seven citizenships with a significant share (with 50 % or greater): Somalia, Albania, Peru, stateless, Moldova, Nauru and Burkina Faso.

2 First- and second-generation immigrants

Introduction

This chapter looks at the first- and second-generation immigrant populations living in the EU and analyses separately those of EU and non-EU background.

'First-generation immigrants' are people born in a country other than their country of residence and whose residence period in the host country is, or is expected to be, at least 12 months. 'Second-generation immigrants' are native-born persons with at least one foreign-born parent.

In addition to this breakdown by generation, the chapter looks into the differences between people with an EU and a non-EU migration background. In this context, the migration background of first-generation immigrants are based on their country of birth as follows:

- 'EU background' if the country of birth is in the EU and
- 'non-EU background' if it is not.

'EU mobile citizens' refers to people born in the EU, who live in another Member State than the one they were born in as a result of the free movement rights granted to EU citizens. Therefore, the terms 'first-generation immigrant born in the EU' and 'EU mobile citizens' are used interchangeably in this chapter.

The migration background of a native-born resident is based on the country of birth of her/his parents as follows:

- if neither parent is foreign-born, the native-born resident has a native background.
- if at least one parent is foreign-born, the native-born resident is considered to have:
  - an EU background if at least one parent is born in the EU (including in the reporting country), and
  - a non-EU background if both parents are born outside the EU.

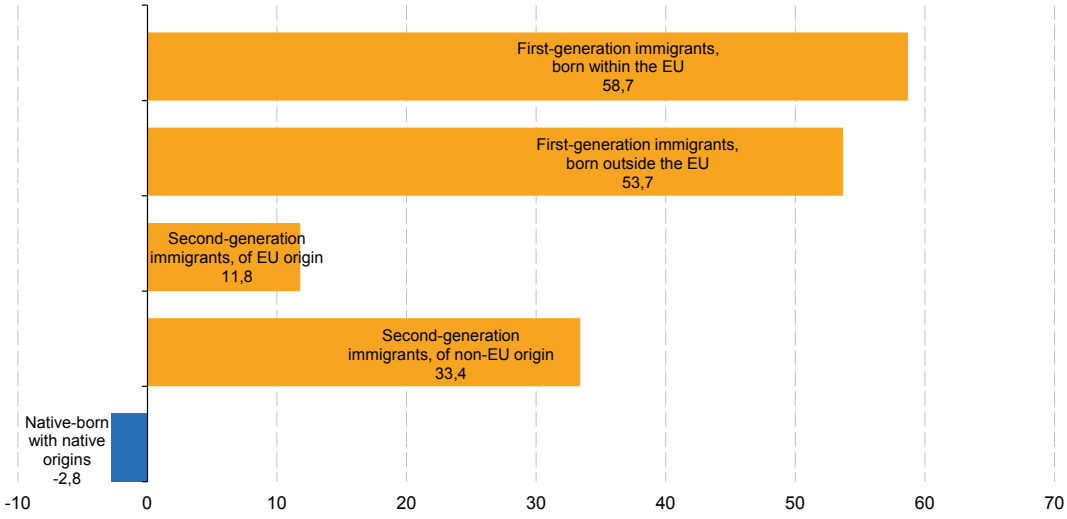
In summary, a person's migration status together with their migration background results in the following five immigrant populations:

- **first-generation immigrants born in the EU** (born in a country other than their country of residence and whose residence period in the host country is, or is expected to be, at least 12 months);
- **first-generation immigrants born outside the EU** (e.g. born in a non-EU country);
- **second-generation immigrants of EU origins** (e.g. native-born population with at least one foreign parent where at least one parent is born in an EU country, including the reporting one);
- **second-generation immigrants of non-EU origins** (e.g. native-born population with both parents born outside the EU);
- **native-born of native background** (i.e. native-born population whose parents are both also native-born).

2.1 Main characteristics

The EU immigrant population (1) (including those born abroad and their immediate descendants) reached about 55 million in 2014, up from about 40 million in 2008. This period comes immediately after the flow of East European immigrants following the EU enlargements in 2004 and 2007. Accordingly, the EU immigrant population increased by almost two fifths (37.2 %) between 2008 and 2014, while the EU native-born population with native origins decreased by 2.8 % during the same period (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Relative difference across time by migration status and background, 2014 compared with 2008
(%)



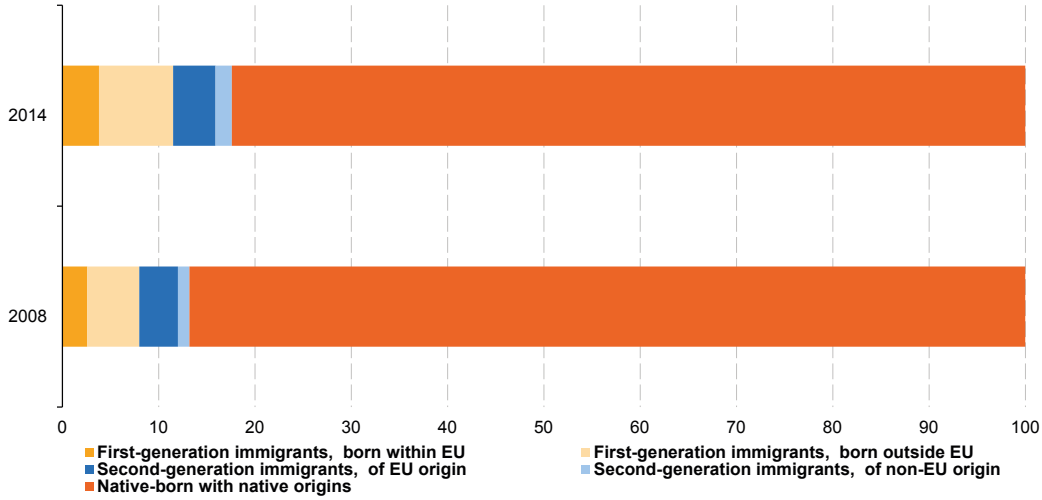
Note: missing data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.

Source: Eurostat, 2008 and 2014 LFS ad hoc module

(1) Because Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands did not participate in the 2014 LFS ad hoc module, the data for these countries are excluded from the EU aggregates when analysing the absolute differences across time (i.e. 2014 compared with 2008). When comparing the structural distributions, all participating countries are included in the EU aggregates, irrespective of the reference year or whether the data are provided for both reference years.

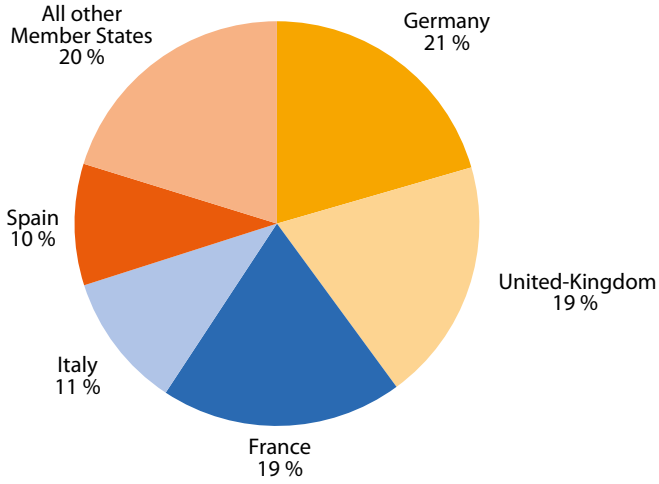
Overall, in 2014, at least one in six people (or 17.6 %) residing in the EU was an immigrant, compared with about one in seven people (or 13.2 %) in 2008 (see Figure 2.2). Analysing the immigrant population as a whole shows that 44 out of every 100 immigrants in the EU were first-generation immigrants born outside the EU. This was the largest group of immigrants, and accounted for 7.7 % in the total EU population. By contrast, second-generation immigrants of non-EU origin were the smallest of the four groups of immigrants: only ten in a hundred immigrants (or 9.5 %) were second-generation of non-EU origin. In 2008, this figure was only 0.4 pp higher (9.9 %). This actually represents a 33.4 % increase in numbers for this category, as the proportion of the immigrant population as a whole in the total has increased significantly. In 2014, second-generation immigrants represented 6.1 % of the total population in the reporting countries, 0.9 pp more than in 2008. The total numbers of first-generation immigrants of both EU and non-EU origins on the other hand increased by at least 50%, and combined they represent 11.5 % of the total population of the reporting countries in 2014. This represents 3.5 pp more compared to 2008.

Figure 2.2: EU population distribution by migration status and background, 2008 and 2014
(%)



Note: for 2014, all EU aggregates do not include data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
Source: Eurostat, 2008 and 2014 LFS ad hoc module

Figure 2.3: Distribution of EU-28 immigrant population by residence country, 2014
(%)

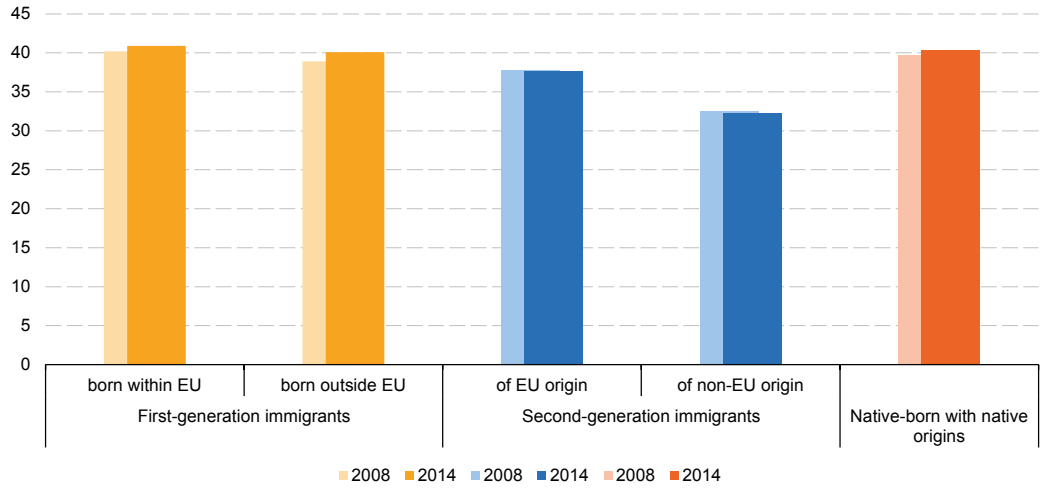


Note: data not available for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module (online data code: lfso_14pcobp)

In 2014, almost four fifths (or 79.7 %) of immigrants in the EU were living in just five Member States, namely Germany (20.5 %), the United Kingdom (19.4 %), France (19.3 %), Italy (10.8 %) and Spain (9.7 %) (see Figure 2.3). These five were also the largest Member States in terms of population, and together they accounted for 65 % of the total population aged from 15 to 64 and living in the 25 Member States that took part in the survey.

Comparing the median age of the five migration groups shows that, in both reference years, the youngest group was second-generation immigrants whose parents were both born outside the EU. At EU level, 2014 estimates indicate that these immigrants' median age was 32.3 years, compared with 40.4 years for the native-born population without any migration background (see Figure 2.4). On average, the second-generation immigrant population was younger than all other migrant groups, despite the fact that those of EU origin were significantly older than those of non-EU origin (37.6 years and 32.3 years, respectively). Moreover, this migration group was the only one whose median age decreased slightly between 2008 and 2014, while for 'first-generation immigrants' the median age increased by up to 1.2 year. The median age of the first-generation immigrant population and the native-born population with a native background were similar.

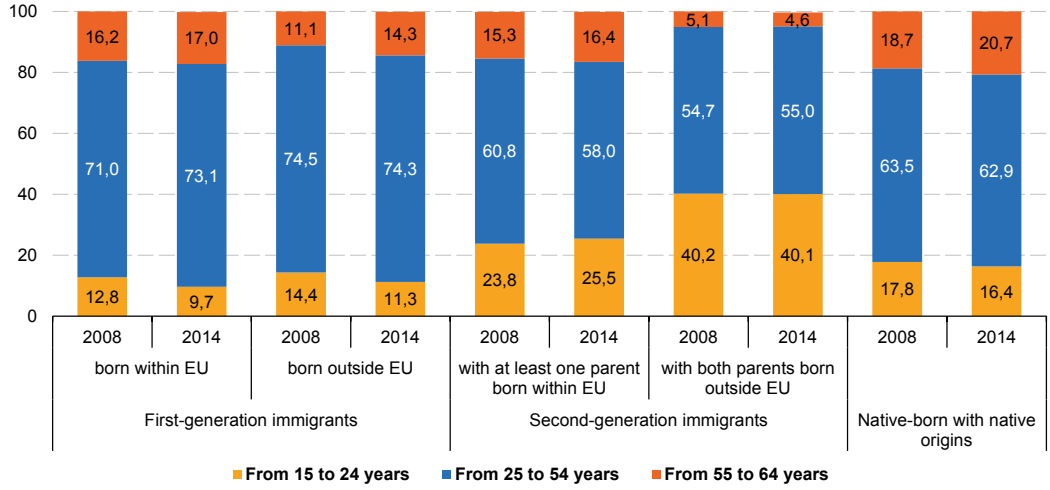
Figure 2.4: Median age by migration status and background, EU, 2008 and 2014
(years)



Note: for 2014, all EU aggregates do not include data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
Source: Eurostat, 2008 and 2014 LFS ad hoc module

In 2014, native-born immigrants of non-EU origin were about eight years younger (median age) than both the foreign-born population and the native-born population with a native background. As a natural consequence of this, the share of the core working-age (25–54) population among native-born immigrants of non-EU origin was lower than among the other two populations. On average, 57.2 % of second-generation immigrants were aged from 25 to 54, compared with about 73.9 % of first-generation immigrants and 62.9 % of the native-born population with a native background (see Figure 2.5). Furthermore, the second-generation immigrant population of non-EU origins had the lowest share of young workers (54–64) with only 4.6 % compared with 20.7 % in the native-born population with a native background, which was the highest share.

Figure 2.5: Distribution by age group, migration status and background, EU, 2008 and 2014 (%)



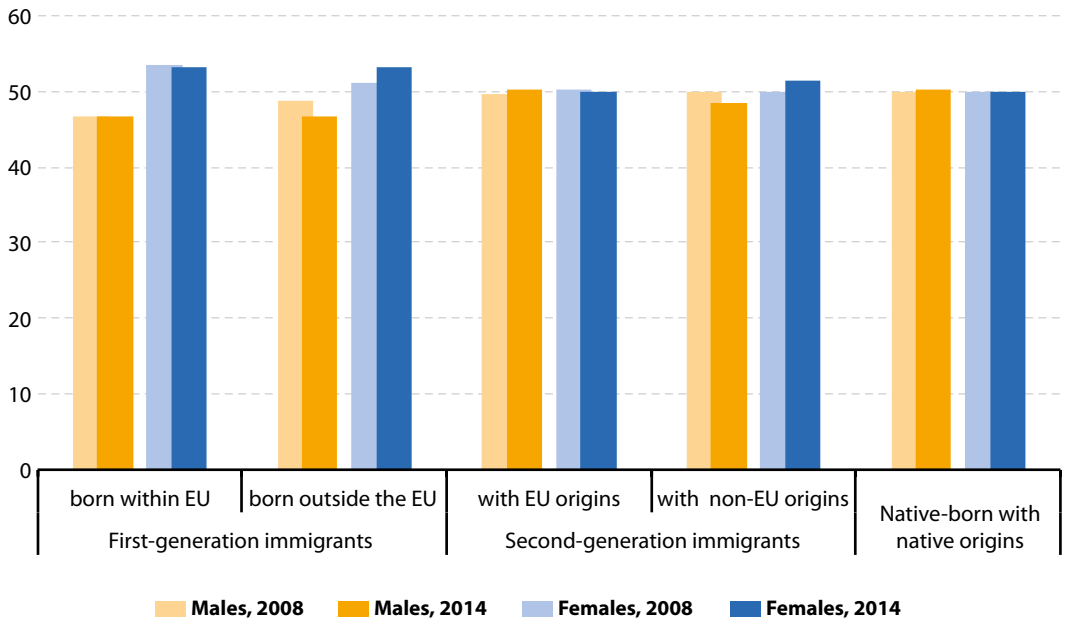
Note: all EU aggregates do not include data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
The difference up to 100 % is given by non-response and unknown cases.

Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module (online data code: lfso_14pcobp)

The fact that the first-generation immigrant population had a larger share of core working-age workers (25–54) at the expense of both young workers (15–24) and older workers (55–64) was the main factor differentiating them from the native-born population with a native background. Thus, 74.3 % of first-generation immigrants born outside the EU were in the core working-age group (25–54), which is 1.2 pp more than among first-generation immigrants born in the EU and 11.4 pp more than among native-born people with a native background. In a similar way to median age, the share of young workers (15–24) increased slightly between 2008 and 2014 for second-generation immigrant of 'EU origin' (1.7 pp), while being approximately constant for those of 'non-EU origin' and decreasing for all other groups."

In 2014, the gender ratio for the native-born population of native origin was balanced, with only 0.2 pp more men than women (see Figure 2.6). By contrast, the proportion of women among the immigrant population, irrespective of the generation or migration background, was clearly higher than the proportion of men. The only exception was among second-generation immigrants of EU origin, where there were 0.2 pp more men than women. Therefore, there were about 3 pp more women than men among second-generation immigrants of non-EU origin, while for the foreign-born population, irrespective of migration background, the difference doubled to 6.6 pp (also in favour of women).

Figure 2.6: Distribution by sex, migration status and background, EU-28, 2008 and 2014
(%)



Note: the EU aggregates do not include data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
The difference up to 100 % comes from non-response and unknown cases.

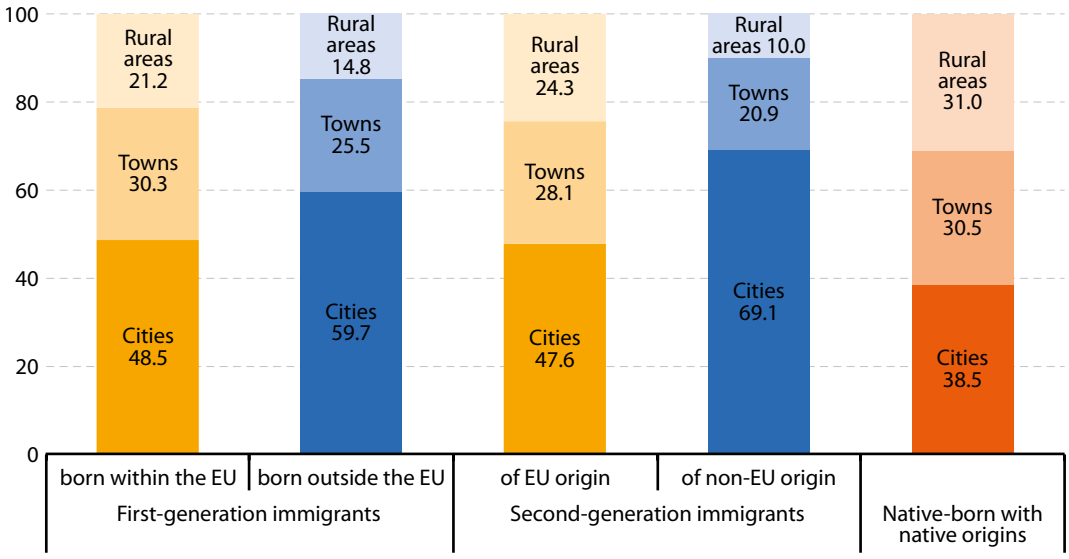
Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module (online data code: lfso_14pcobp)

Looking at the trends over time, we see that the gender ratio was more balanced in 2008 than in 2014. Only the native-born population of native and EU origin was stable over time with an almost perfect gender balance. In contrast, the proportion of women in all migration groups except 'first-generation immigrants' increased. The increase was greatest among first-generation immigrants born outside the EU where the relative difference between women and men almost tripled from 2.4 pp in 2008 to 6.6 pp in 2014.

Figure 2.7 indicates the strong tendency of the immigrant population towards settling in cities where labour markets are larger and infrastructure (e.g. hospitals, schools, universities, commodities) is better consolidated. Thus, in 2014 about three fifths (61.3 %) of immigrants of non-EU background were living in cities as opposed to almost a quarter (24.7 %) in towns and one seventh (13.9 %) in rural areas. Just under a half (47.6 %) of immigrants of EU origin were also living in cities compared with only about two fifths (38.5 %) of the native-born population without any migration background.

A little more than half of each generation (56.3 % of first-generation and 53.1 % of second-generation) was settled in cities. This preference becomes clear when considering that, at EU level, the native-born population with native background was distributed more or less proportionally across the three urban areas, with only a very slight preference for cities (38.5 % in cities, 30.5 % in towns and 31.0 % in rural areas). The share of immigrants living in towns differed only slightly across the four migration groups, but immigrants of EU origin, irrespective of the generation, were more likely to settle in rural areas than those of non-EU origin: 23.0 % of immigrants of EU background and 13.9 % of immigrants of non-EU background were living in rural areas. Some 18.2 % of the total immigrants in the EU lived in rural areas. This was 12.9 pp less than among the native-born population with a native background.

Figure 2.7: Distribution by degree of urbanisation, migration status and background, EU-28, 2014
(%)

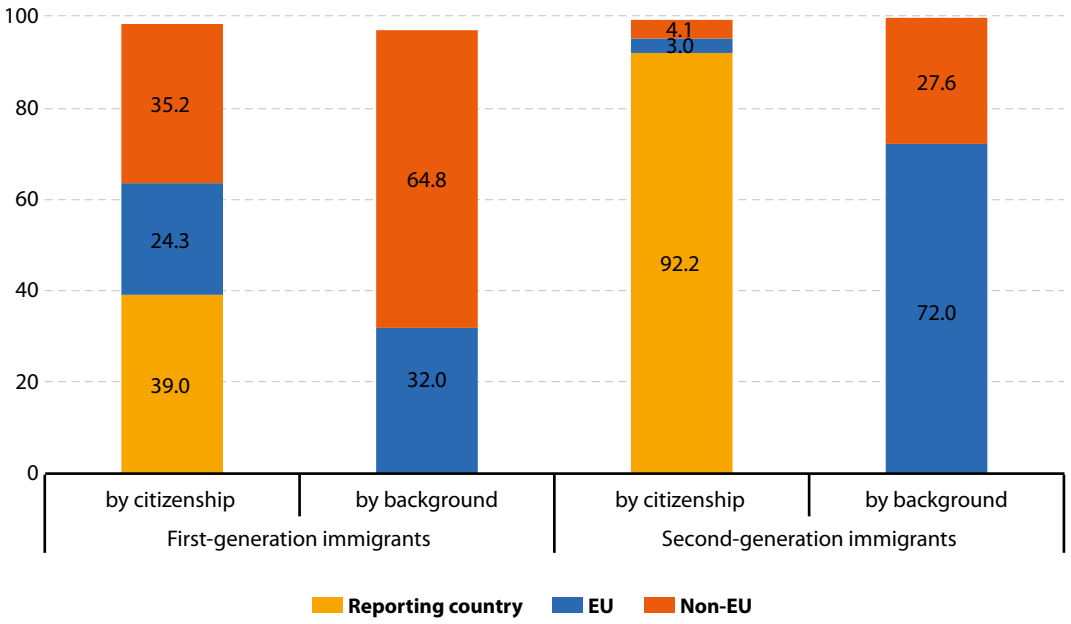


Note: all EU aggregates do not include data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module (online data code: lfso_14purb)

Citizenship expresses the relationship between an individual and a state and gives the individual specific legal rights and duties. The most important rights associated with citizenship are the protection by the state and unrestricted access to the territory and implicitly to the labour market. Even if alternative statuses (e.g. residence permit, work permit) may provide sufficient security of residence and strong protection against expulsion, ultimately it is 'naturalisation' that transforms a foreigner (2) into a citizen. Citizenship also brings additional privileges, such as diplomatic protection, the right to vote and access to public sector jobs, to name but a few.

In the EU, not all foreigners have the same interest in obtaining the citizenship of their host country. More exactly, the acquisition of citizenship only secondarily concerns foreigners who are already EU citizens (i.e. citizens of an EU Member State). This is because EU citizens are already protected by legislation in force in all Member States and, with a few exceptions, should have largely the same legal rights as the citizens of the reporting country. Thus, the citizenship issue primarily concerns foreigners who are not EU citizens.

Figure 2.8: Distribution by migration status, migration background and citizenship, EU-28, 2014 (%)



Note: all EU aggregates do not include data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
The difference up to 100% comes from non-response and unknown cases.

Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module (online data code: lfso_14purb)

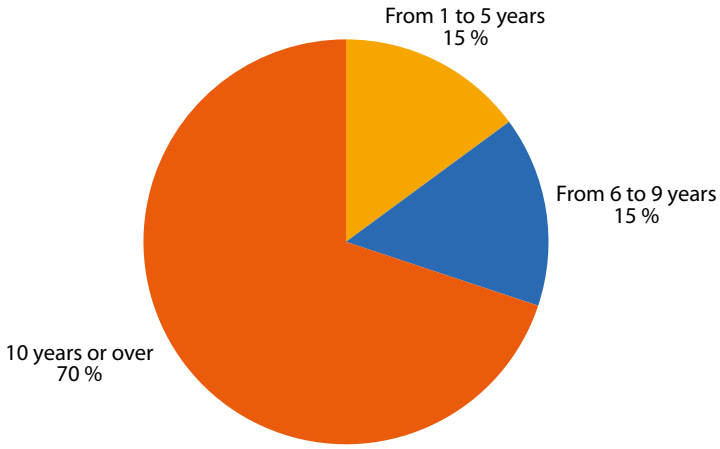
(2) Foreigners are defined as people who do not hold the citizenship of the country of residence, regardless of whether they were born in that country or elsewhere.

Figure 2.8 shows that slightly over half of the first-generation immigrants born outside the EU were not EU citizens (they were citizens of a country outside the EU). It can then be approximated that the other half of first-generation immigrants born outside the EU obtained the citizenship of their host country. It is also possible that some of them obtained the citizenship of an EU Member State other than the country of residence, giving them the right to circulate freely inside the EU. But it is reasonable to assume that these cases are negligible. Following the same reasoning, a quarter of first-generation immigrants born in the EU also obtained the citizenship of their host country, which confirms the expectation that there is little incentive for EU citizens to acquire the citizenship of another EU Member State (in which they reside).

In the overwhelming majority of cases, second-generation immigrants received the citizenship of the country in which they were born: 92.2 % of native-born immigrants with foreign origins were citizens of their reporting countries. At the same time, some 3 % of second-generation immigrants were citizens of an EU country other than the reporting one and another 4.1 % were citizens of a country outside the EU.

Almost five in seven foreign-born immigrants had been living in the country for 10 years or more (69.4 %). The rest were almost equally divided between those who arrived in the country in the last five years (14.8 %) and those who had lived in the country for between 5 and 10 years (15.1 %) (see Figure 2.9).

Figure 2.9: **First-generation immigrants by length of stay, EU-28, 2014**
(%)



Note: all EU aggregates do not include data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
The difference up to 100 % comes from non-response and unknown cases.

Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module (online data code: lfso_14b1dr)

Mainly social reasons made people move from their country of birth. In 2014, about half (49.5 %) of the people who decided to move from their country of birth to another country did so for the purpose of family reunification (see Table 2.1). The economic reason came in second: about three in ten (29.2 %) foreign-born people decided to move in order to find work in a country other than their country of birth. Many of them migrated without having previously found a job (20.4 %), while a few had already found one (8.8 %). The third reason to migrate was for educational purposes (6.6 %) followed closely by international protection and asylum (5.1 %).

The order of reasons to migrate remains the same when analysing jointly the reason to migrate by sex and by length of stay, separately. However, the proportions differ.

Thus, the proportion of foreign-born women (58.2 %) who decided to migrate for family reasons was a fifth (17.8 pp) more than the corresponding proportion among foreign-born men (40.4 %). Conversely, 15.1 pp fewer foreign-born women than men decided to migrate for work. In addition to this, we note that the proportion of foreign-born men who decided to migrate for family reunification (40.4 %) was similar to the proportion migrating for work (36.9 %), while the proportion of foreign-born women who decided to migrate for family reunification (58.2 %) was almost three times higher than the proportion migrating for work (21.9 %).

Breaking down the reason to migrate by duration of stay shows that foreign-born immigrants who have been living in a country for less than 10 years migrated in similar proportions for both family reunification (39.8 % for less than five years and 34.3 % for six to nine years) and work (42.6 % for less than five years and 42.5 % for six to nine years). However, the proportion of foreign-born immigrants who have been living in the country for 10 years or more and who migrated for family reunification (53.7 %) was double the proportion of those who migrated for work (25.5 %). Also, the proportion of foreign-born immigrants who have been living in the country for 10 years or more and who migrated for educational purposes (4.9 %) was at least half of the corresponding proportion of those who migrated for education purposes and arrived in the country during the last five years (13.9 %).

Table 2.1: First-generation immigrants by reason for migrating, sex and length of stay, EU-28, 2014
(%)

Reason for migrating	First-generation immigrants	of which		of which		
		Males	Females	from 1 to 5 years	from 6 to 9 years	10 years and over
Family reasons	49.5	40.4	58.2	39.8	42.6	53.7
Work, no job found before migrating	20.4	25.4	15.9	19.0	28.3	19.1
Work, job found before migrating	8.8	11.5	6.0	15.2	14.2	6.4
Other reasons	7.1	6.8	7.4	6.4	5.1	7.6
Education reasons	6.6	7.3	5.9	13.9	6.5	4.9
International protection or asylum	5.1	6.3	4.1	3.5	2.5	5.8
No answer	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.1	0.8	2.6

Note: all EU aggregates do not include data for Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module (online data code: lfso_14b1dr)

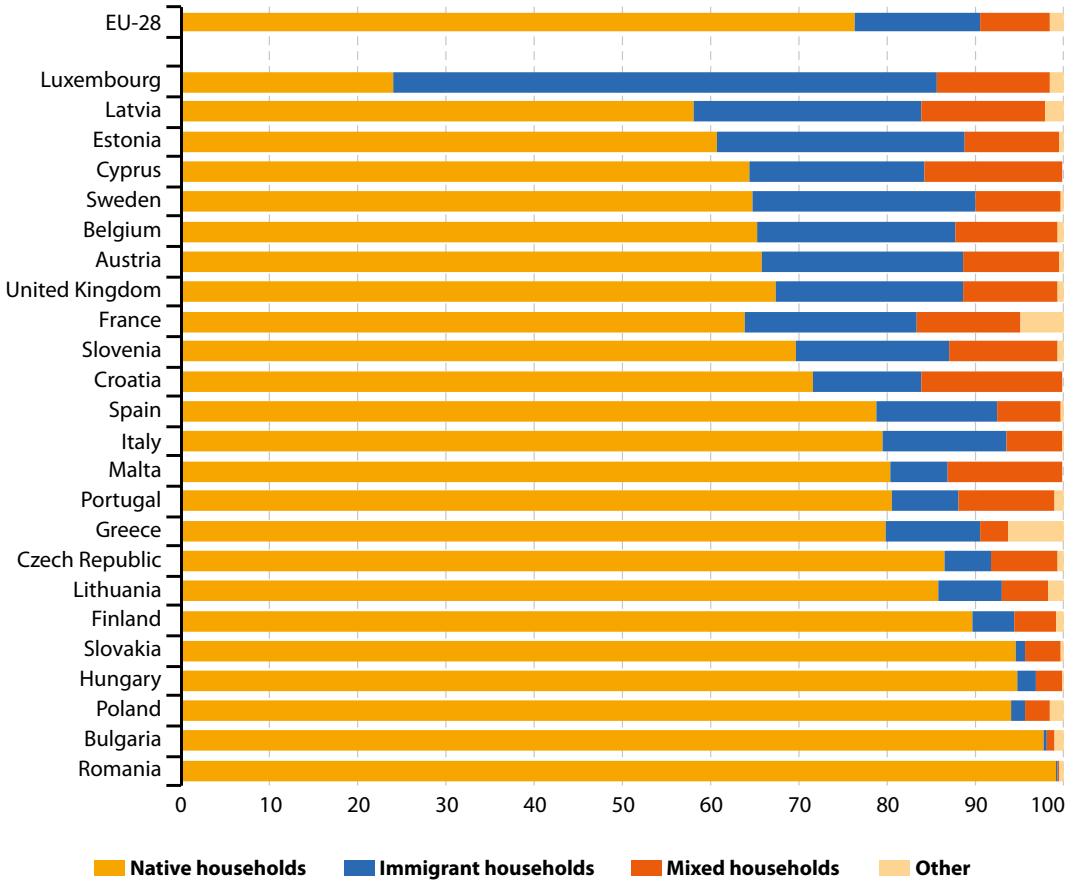
2.2 Households

Various types of households encompassing the main characteristics of immigrants are analysed. Two separate household definitions are used, each of them being presented in detail in the glossary.

In 2014, the EU had around 55 million immigrants aged 15–64, which made up 17.7 % of the corresponding EU population. These people lived in around 16.7 million 'immigrant households' and 9.4 million 'mixed households'. These households made up 14.2 % and 8.0 % respectively of all households in the EU (see Figure 2.10).

Looking at the national share of households with at least one immigrant adult, regardless of generation (i.e. 'immigrant households' and 'mixed households' taken together), Luxembourg recorded by far the highest proportion of such households, with about three quarters of all households in the country (74.4 %) belonging to this category. However, Luxembourg accounted for only 0.5 % of the total households in the EU with at least one immigrant adult. In the remaining countries for which data are available, the national share of households with at least one immigrant adult ranged from about two fifths in Latvia (39.8 %) and Estonia (38.8 %) to 0.3 % in Romania. The large share of 'immigrant households' observed in Latvia and Estonia is largely explained by the high proportion of what are called recognised non-citizens (mainly former Soviet Union citizens who are permanent residents in these countries but have not acquired Latvian/Estonian citizenship or any other citizenship) in these two Baltic countries.

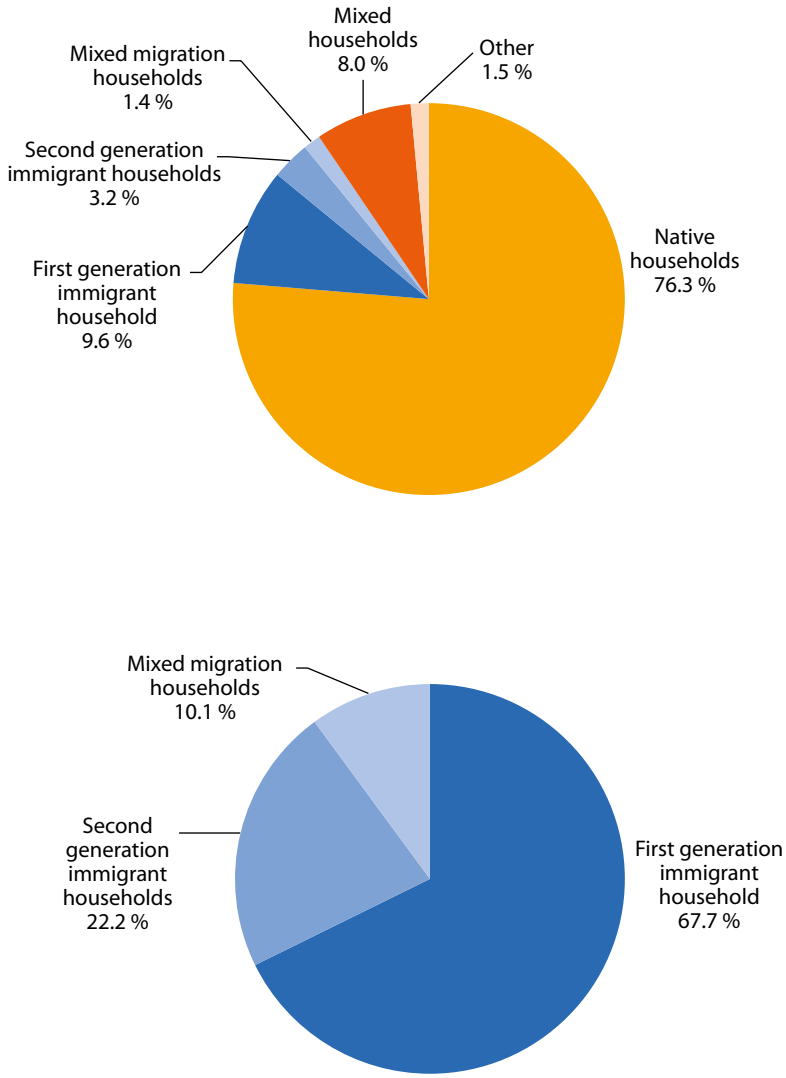
Figure 2.10: Household distribution by country and migration status of the household, 2014
(%)



Note: in descending order by total households with at least one immigrant adult (i.e. immigrant households and mix households taken together). Missing countries: Germany, Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfso_14hhcompcob)

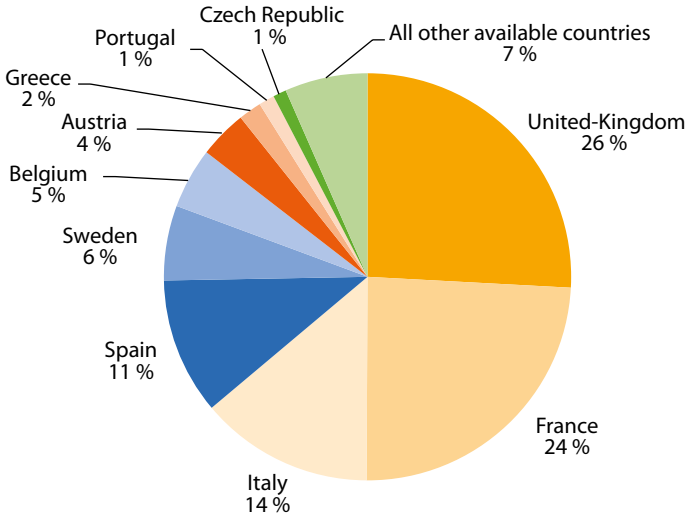
Figure 2.11: Distribution of EU households by migration status of a household, EU-28, 2014
(%)



Note: missing countries: Germany, Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfso_14hhcompcob)

Looking at EU level, households consisting solely of foreign-born adults represented 67.7 % of all EU 'immigrant households' and 9.6 % of all households in the EU (see Figure 2.11). Households consisting of both native-born adults with native background and immigrant adults, irrespective of generation, represented 8 % of all households in the EU.

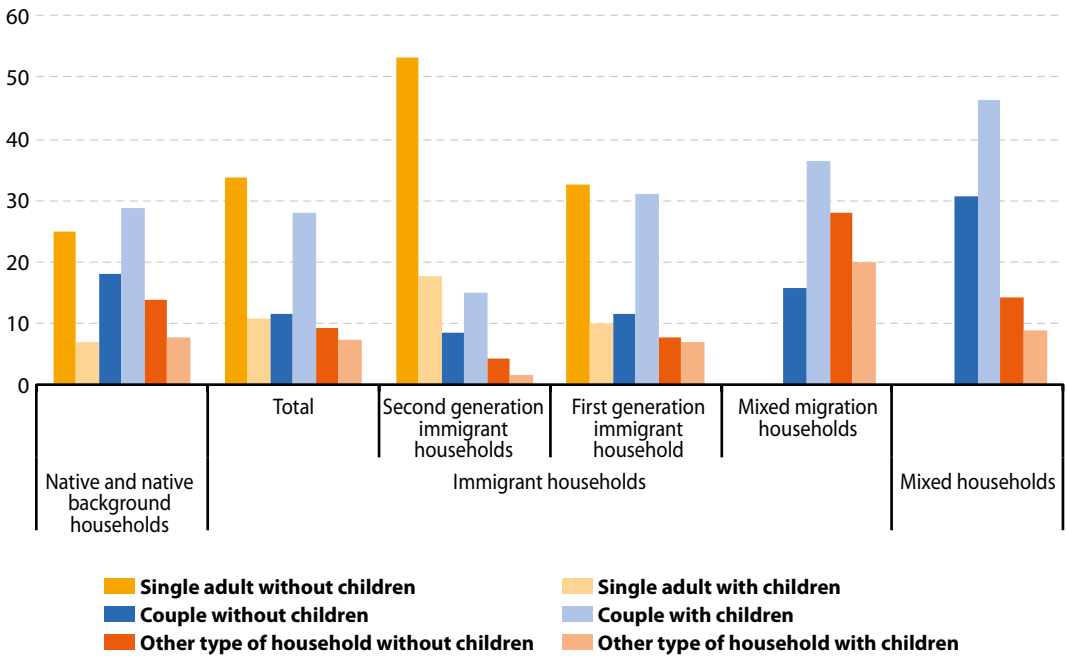
Figure 2.12: National share of immigrant households in total number of immigrant households living in the EU-28, 2014
(%)



Note: missing countries: Germany, Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfso_14hhcompcob)

Similarly to immigrant distribution across countries, households consisting only of immigrants (regardless of generation and combination of generations) were unevenly distributed across Member States. This is due to the fact that three quarters of them were hosted by just four reporting countries: the United Kingdom, France, Italy and Spain. To put the statistic into context, these four countries accounted for 60 % of all households in the Member States that took part in the survey (see Figure 2.12). Moreover, 14 out of the 24 Member States with available data each held 1 % or less of the total 'immigrant households' living in the EU and all together accounted for only 6.6 % of all 'immigrant households' living in the EU. This compares with 23.5 % of all households in the 24 reporting Member States.

Figure 2.13: Household composition by migration status of a household, EU-28, 2014
(%)



Note: missing countries: Germany, Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfso_14hhcompcob)

Looking at household composition, households consisting solely of immigrants tended more to be 'single-adult households' than the households consisting solely of natives with native background. Among 'immigrant households', the 'second-generation immigrant households' showed the largest proportion of 'single-adult households', namely 71 %, which is 39.1 pp higher than among 'native households' (see Figure 2.13).

'Mixed immigrant households' and 'mixed households' cannot be 'single-adult households'. This is because they are composed of a minimum of two adult members. For 'mixed immigrant households', this could mean at least one first-generation immigrant and at least one second-generation immigrant. For 'mixed households', this could mean at least one native-born adult with native background and at least one immigrant adult, regardless of the generation. Nevertheless, 'mixed households' tended to be couples (76.9 %) more than 'mixed immigrant households' (52.2 %) did. The predominance of this type of household composition came at the expense of other types of households (i.e. with a minimum of two adults in the household for this particular case, but with no family links or links other than marital links). Among all household groups where all compositions are possible, 'native households' and 'first-generation immigrant households' were mostly couples.

The largest proportion of 'couples with children' (46.2 %) was observed among 'mixed households' (i.e. consisting of immigrant adults alongside native-born adults with native background). By contrast, the largest proportion of 'single adults without children' (53.2 %) was noted among 'second-generation immigrant households'. This is probably

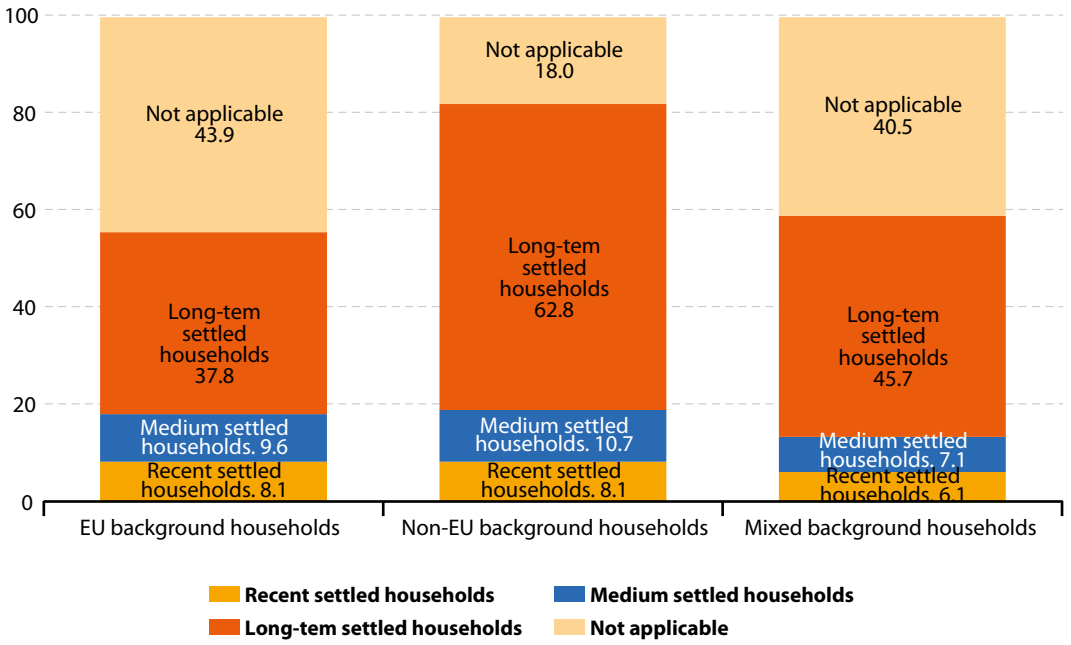
because second-generation immigrants tended on average to be younger. A little more than half of 'first-generation immigrant households' had no children (52.0 %), which was 4.8 pp less than in households consisting solely of native-born adults with native background.

As regards background (i.e. the country of birth of foreign-born adults in the households and of parents of native-born adults in the household), it is noteworthy that almost two thirds (or 62.8 %) of households consisting solely of adults with a non-EU background were 'long-term settled households' (see Figure 2.14). The 'EU background households' and 'mixed background households' were also mainly 'long-term settled households' (37.8 % and 45.7 % respectively).

The share of 'recently settled' and 'medium-term settled households' was very similar across

Figure 2.14: Household distribution by background of a household and duration of stay, EU-28, 2014

(%)



Note: missing countries: Germany, Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfso_14hhwkmg)

all households with at least one adult with a foreign background. The proportion of 'recently settled households' ranged from 7.1 % in 'mixed background households' to 10.7 % in 'non-EU background households', while for 'medium-term settled households' the range was from 6.1 % in 'mixed background households' to 8.1 % in EU and in 'non-EU background households'.

2.3 Labour market indicators

The activity rate represents the economically active population (i.e. employed and unemployed persons) as a percentage of the total population.

For the population aged 25–54, the activity rate in 2014 was 86.2 % for the 'native-born with a native background' or 0.7 pp higher than in 2008. Similar activity rates were found amongst 'second-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins' (recording a slightly higher activity rate of 87.4 %) and 'first-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins' (85.6 %). For both, increases were recorded from 2008 to 2014 (of + 0.4 and + 1.8 pp respectively).

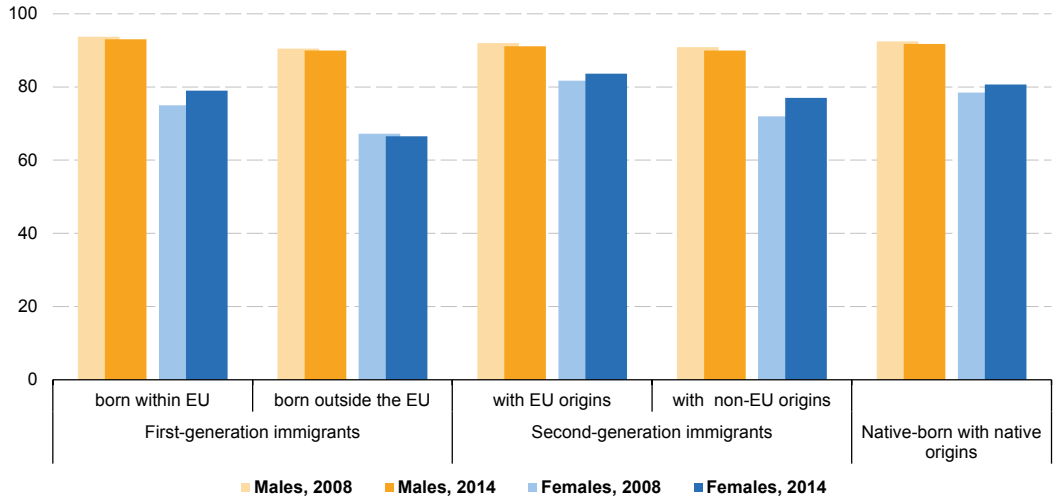
On the other hand, activity rates of the 'non-EU' migrant groups were significantly below the figures for the 'native-born with a native background' (8.4 pp lower for the immigrants born in a non-EU country and 2.9 pp for 'second-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origins'). While foreign-born residents of non-EU origin registered a decrease between 2008 and 2014 (– 0.8 pp), the native-born residents of non-EU origin registered an increase (+1.7 pp).

When analysing data by sex (see Figure 2.15), in 2014 the activity rates of males aged 25–54 stood at more than 90 % for all the groups analysed, ranging from 90 % for both 'first' and 'second-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origins' to 93 % for 'first-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins'. The activity rate of those 'native-born with a native background' was in between, at 91.7 %. Overall for males there was a slight decrease compared with 2008, which impacted 'second-generation immigrants' the strongest in absolute terms (– 0.9 pp).

The labour market participation of women, on the other hand, although slightly higher than in 2008 for all categories except 'first-generation immigrants' born outside the EU, was still much lower than that of men in 2014 for all the migration statuses analysed. Specifically in 2014 this gap ranged from 7.5 pp for 'second-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins' to 23.4 pp for 'first-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origins'. The percentage of women in the latter category active on the labour market stood at 66.5 % in 2014 (down from 67.2 % in 2008), compared with 79.0 % for the women born in another EU country and 80.7 % of the 'native-born with a native background'.

Another interesting feature when analysing the activity rates by migration status and gender is that activity rates slightly decreased for men across all the migration statuses, while in the case of women significant increases (above 1.9 pp) were recorded in all statuses except the 'first-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origin'.

Figure 2.15: Activity rates by migration status, country of birth (1) and sex, EU, 2008 and 2014 (2)
(%)



Note: population aged 25–54.

(1) Origin of first-generation immigrants: country of birth; origin of second-generation immigrants: country of birth of parents.

(2) 2008: second-generation immigrants do not include Denmark, Germany, Ireland or the Netherlands. 2014: estimates do not include Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands or Sweden, and include estimates for Germany by citizenship.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

The employment rate is the percentage of employed persons in relation to the comparable total population.

In 2014, an estimated 81.1 % of the active population aged 25–54 belonging to 'second-generation immigrants' with 'at least one parent born in the EU' was employed (see Figure 2.16). This employment rate was 2.5 pp above the rate presented by the 'native-born with a native background' and 15.6 pp higher than the employment rate of 'first-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origins'. Immigrants with 'EU origins' presented higher employment rates than immigrants with 'non-EU origins' in both the first (11.6 pp difference) and second-generation (7.1 pp more) groups.

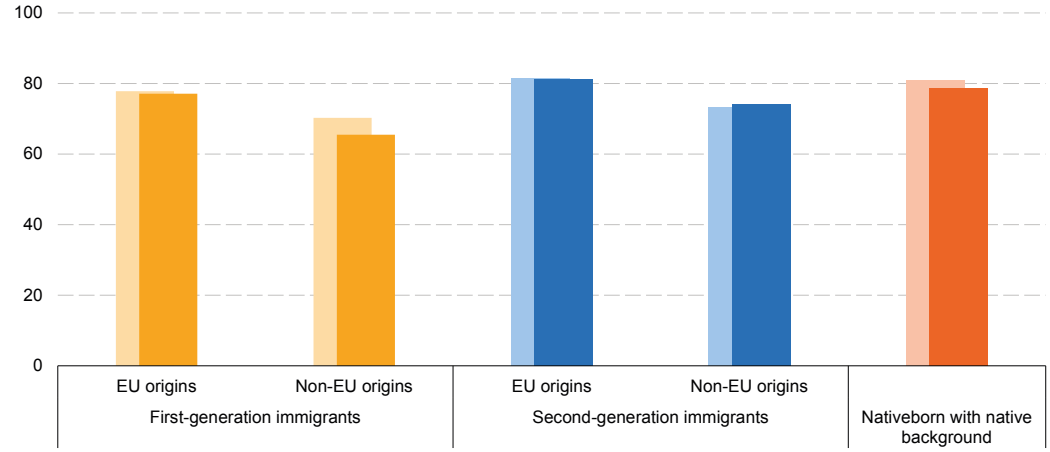
Between 2008 and 2014, the ranking did not change among the various migration statuses and origins, and the overall EU employment rate decreased in all groups except for foreign-born of non-EU origin for which there was an +0.7 pp increase. The decrease magnitudes were specific to the 'first-generation immigrants' of 'non-EU origin' (–4.7 pp). The decrease in employment rates was less apparent within the migrant groups with 'EU origins' (less than 1.0 pp), while the 'native-born with native background' experienced a 2.2 pp drop between 2008 and 2014.

When looking at trends in the employment rates of those 25–54 by educational attainment (see Figure 2.17), all groups experienced decreases in employment rates between 2008 and 2014, with the exception of 'second-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins' with a 'high' level of educational attainment (for which there was an increase of 0.5 pp). Natives and 'first-generation immigrants' with a 'low' level of education registered sharp decreases in their already low employment rates (reaching 7.4 pp for the 'first generation' with 'non-EU origins' and 7.1 pp for the native-born with native background). The decreases were more moderate for those with a higher level of education, ranging from 3.8 pp in the case of 'second-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origins' to 1.5 pp for 'first-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins'. Highly educated 'second-generation immigrants' with 'EU origin' even registered a small increase of +0.5 pp. The impact of the global financial and economic crisis was strongest on the immigrants with 'non-EU origins' and lowest on those with 'EU origins'.

These findings can be translated into increases in the gap between those with 'low' and 'high' educational attainment levels in most migration statuses (except the 'second-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins'), confirming the main tendency of greater employability within the population pursuing higher academic education.

In 2014, the employment rates of the population 25–54 with 'low' educational attainment varied from 54.6 % to 55.5 % in 'first' and 'second-generation immigrants' of 'non-EU origins' to 65.5 % to 68.2 % in 'first' and 'second-generation immigrants with 'EU origins'. The employment rate of 'native-born with native background' with at most lower secondary education completed stood between that of immigrants with 'EU origins' and 'non-EU origins' (60.1 %). In the case of the highly qualified, employment rates were higher than 85 % for 'second-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins' and 'native-born with native background' (89.4 % and 87.1 % respectively) and lower than 75 % for those born in a non-EU country (namely 74.3 %).

Figure 2.16: Employment rates by migration status and by origin (1), EU, 2008 and 2014 (2)
(%)



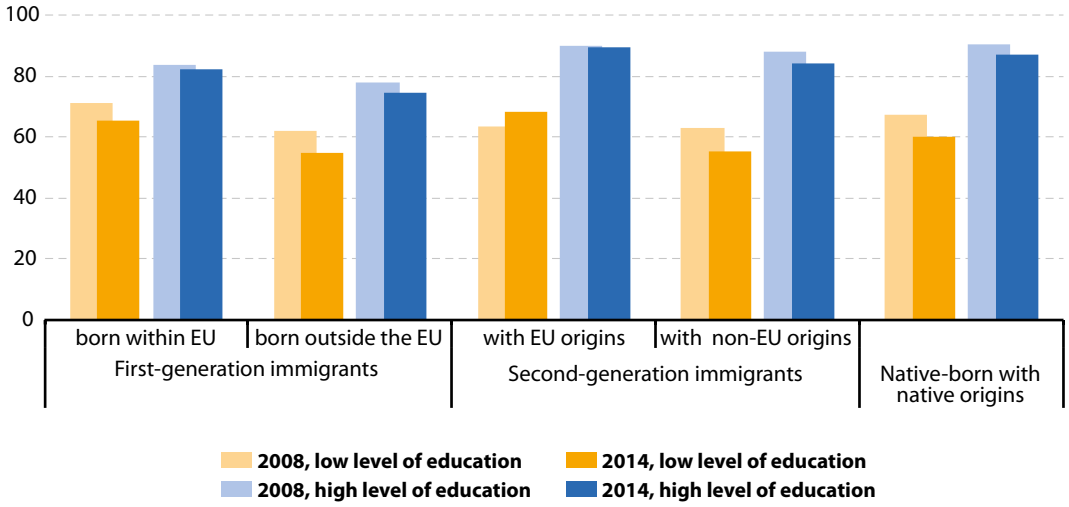
Note: population aged 25–54.

(1) Origin of first-generation immigrants: country of birth; origin of second-generation immigrants: country of birth of parents.

(2) 2014: estimates do not include Denmark, Germany, Ireland or the Netherlands.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

Figure 2.17: Employment rates of population, by migration status, by origin (1) and by educational attainment, EU, 2008 and 2014 (2)
(%)



Note: population aged 25–54.

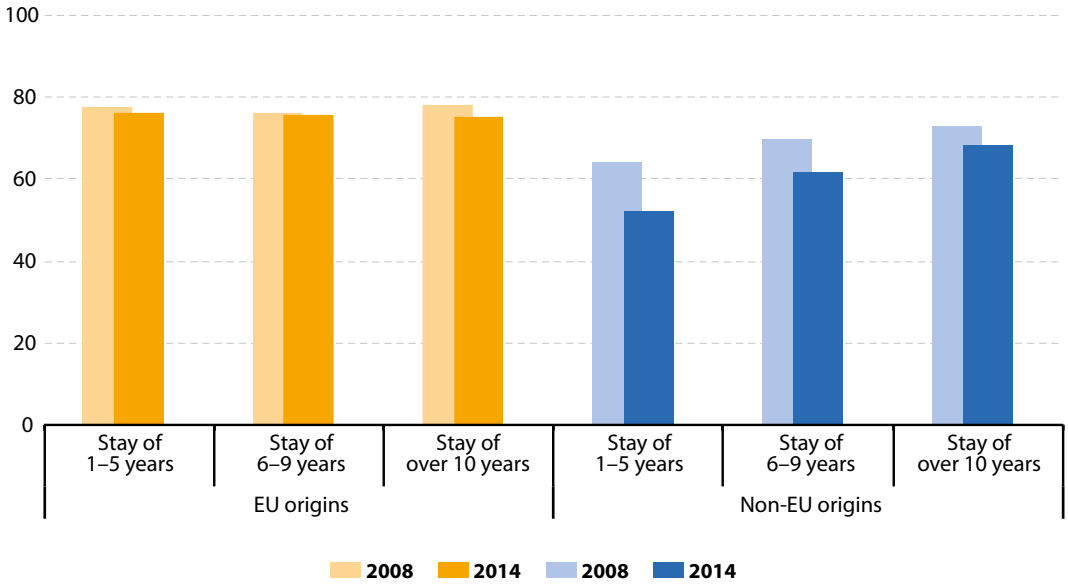
(1) Origin of first-generation immigrants: country of birth; origin of second-generation immigrants: country of birth of parents.

(2) 2014: estimates do not include Denmark, Germany, Ireland or the Netherlands.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

Figure 2.18: Employment rates of 'first-generation immigrants', by duration of migration, EU-28, 2008 and 2014

(%)



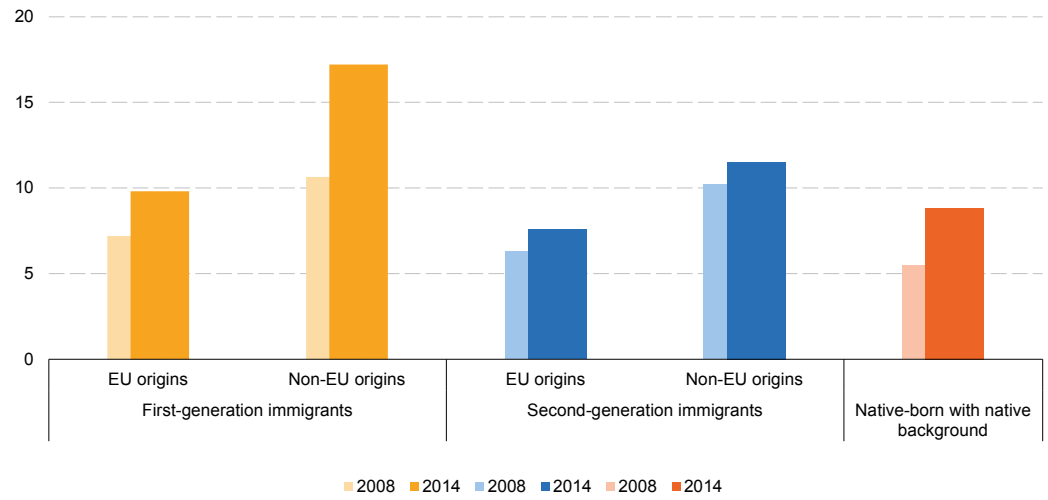
Note: population aged 25–54. 2014: estimates do not include Germany.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

Figure 2.18 presents the employment rates of first-generation immigrants by the duration of their stay in the resident country and also their 'EU' or 'non-EU origins'. In 2014, the employment rates of 'first-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origins' increased substantially with their duration of stay, from 52.1 % for those having been in the country for less than 5 years to 68.3 % for those that already resided for more than 10 years. This was not the case for immigrants born in another EU country, as their employment rates were relatively stable (from 75.6 % to 76.3 %) and did not vary much based on their duration of stay. The same patterns can also be observed for the year 2008. In terms of trends, an overall decrease in the employment rates between 2008 and 2014 can be noted for all the groups analysed, but it was particularly steep for immigrants with 'non-EU origins'. The magnitude of the decrease lowers with the time spent in the resident country, as it ranges from – 12.0 pp for the most recently settled (less than 5 years) to – 4.6 pp for the ones that have spent more than 10 years in the host country. Comparatively, for the intra-EU immigrants the impact varied between – 3.1 pp for the most settled immigrants (more than 10 years) and only 0.2 pp for those having spent between 6 and 9 years in the host country.

The unemployment rate is the number of unemployed people as a percentage of the economically active population (i.e. both employed and unemployed persons, but excluding economically inactive persons, such as students and pensioners).

Figure 2.19: Unemployment rates of population, by migration status and country of birth (1), EU, 2008 and 2014 (2)
(%)



Note: population aged 25–54.

(1) Origin of first-generation immigrants: country of birth; origin of second-generation immigrants: country of birth of parents.

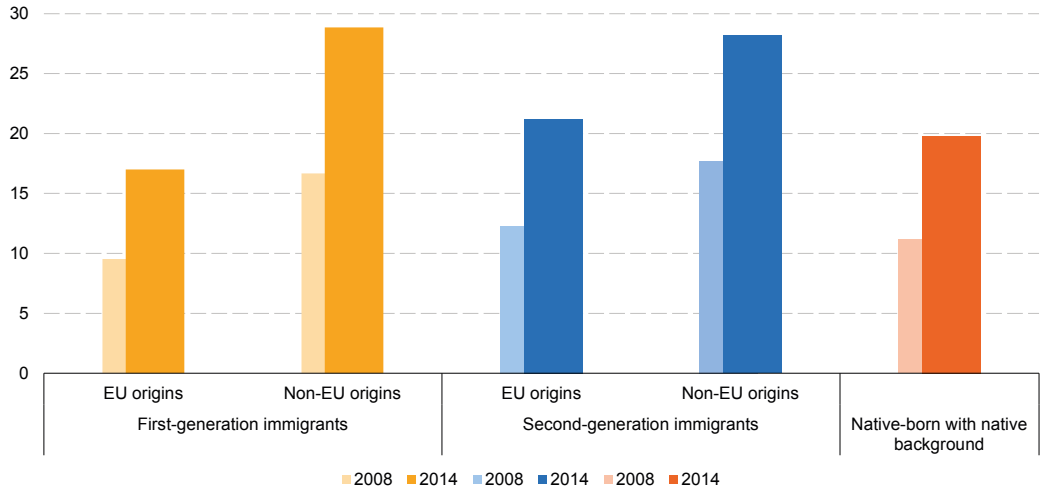
(2) 2014: estimates do not include Denmark, Ireland or the Netherlands and include estimates for Germany by citizenship.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

In 2014, the unemployment rate of the EU population aged 25–54 ranged from 17.2 % in the case of 'first-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origins' to 7.6 % for 'second-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins' (see Figure 2.19). Unemployment rates were higher among both groups with 'non-EU origins' while the immigrants with 'EU origins' and the 'native-born with native background' presented unemployment rates below 10 %. Between 2008 and 2014, the unemployment rates increased for all categories. The steepest increase was observed for 'first-generation immigrants' with 'non-EU origins (+6.6 pp), while 'second-generation immigrants' with both 'EU and non-EU origins' taken separately only registered a 1.3 pp increase, the lowest among the migration statuses analysed. This small increase meant that in 2014 'second-generation immigrants' with 'EU origins' had the smallest unemployment rate (7.6 %) while in 2008 the lowest rate belonged to the 'native-born with a native background' (5.5 %), indicating a stronger resilience of the first group in facing the global financial and economic crisis.

Looking at the unemployment rates of the population aged 15–29, the patterns were very similar to the ones of the older age group (25–54), and the discrepancy was strongest among the young cohort (see Figure 2.20). In fact the unemployment rate in the 15–29 age class was more than double the rate of the 25–54 age group for the 'native-born with a native background' (19.8 % compared with 8.8 %) and also for 'second-generation immigrants' in 2014. It was higher than 17 % for all migration statuses, reaching as high as 28.9 % for immigrants with 'non-EU origins'. Another general characteristic of youth unemployment, observed in all migration statuses, was the steeper increase of the unemployment rates between 2008 and 2014, as the unemployment rate almost doubled for this age group, while it was slightly more moderate for those aged 25–54. On the other hand, a similar trend as for those aged 25–54 was observed, as the highest increases in the unemployment rates were noted for immigrants with 'non-EU origins', regardless of the generation (of around 10.5 pp to 1.2 pp).

Figure 2.20: Youth unemployment rates (population aged 15 to 29) by migration status and by country of birth (1), EU, 2008 and 2014 (2)
(%)



(1) Origin of first-generation immigrants: country of birth; origin of second-generation immigrants: country of birth of parents.

(2) 2014: Estimates do not include Denmark, Ireland or the Netherlands. Estimates for native and first-generation immigrants include estimates for Germany by citizenship. Estimates for second-generation immigrants do not include Germany.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

2.4 Employment

The International standard classification of occupations (ISCO) classifies the occupation status of employed persons into 10 major categories. Four broader categories of employees can be distinguished (armed forces are excluded):

- **high-skilled white collar (ISCO codes 1,2 and 3) includes legislators, senior officials and managers, professionals and technicians and associate professionals;**
- **low-skilled white collar (ISCO codes 4 and 5) includes clerks and service workers and shop and market sales workers;**
- **high-skilled blue collar (ISCO codes 6 and 7) includes skilled agricultural and fishery workers and craft and related trades workers;**
- **low-skilled blue collar (ISCO codes 8 and 9) includes plant and machine operators and assemblers and elementary occupations.**

In terms of occupational structure, the 'native-born with native background' and the 'second-generation immigrants' showed a more similar pattern, while the comparison with 'first-generation immigrants' was more divergent (see Figure 2.21). This difference comes from the general tendency of 'first-generation immigrants' to work in less qualified jobs (elementary occupations and service workers were the two most common occupational categories for them in 2014), while both 'second-generation immigrants' and 'native-born with native background' were engaged in a larger proportion in jobs requiring higher qualifications (especially professionals and technicians). 'Second-generation immigrants' were much more often employed in highly skilled occupational categories (which frequently require tertiary education), even when comparing with the 'native-born with native background' (52.4 % work in ISCO codes 1–3 occupations, compared with 42.0 % of the natives). On the other hand, 'second-generation immigrants' tend to be younger, and therefore more qualified on average, compared with the 'native-born with native background'.

In 2014, more than one in four 'first-generation immigrants' in the EU was employed in 'unskilled blue collar occupations' ('plant and machine operators and assemblers and elementary occupations'). These occupational categories include jobs which in general require a low level of qualifications (i.e. primary education). By comparison, in both the 'second-generation immigrants' and 'native-born with native background' groups, only 13 or 16 out of every hundred employees undertook this kind of occupation.

On the other hand, almost 1 in 3 'first-generation immigrants' in the EU were employed in highly skilled office occupations ('senior officials, managers', 'professionals' and 'technicians'). These occupational groups consist generally (but not always) of highly qualified workers with a first or second stage of tertiary education, leading to an advanced research qualification. By contrast, a little more than half of 'second-generation immigrants' and 4 in 10 'natives with native background' worked in these highly qualified occupations. This shows that the labour market conditions of 'second-generation immigrants' were much better compared with those of the first generation.

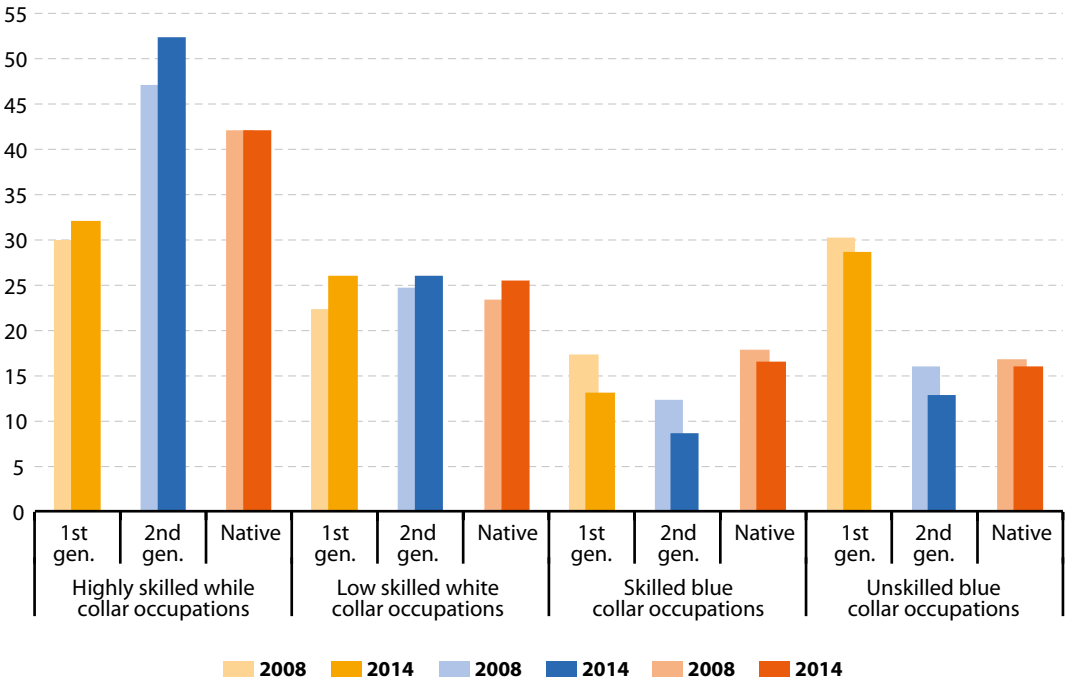
It is interesting to note that, while the percentage of those employed in low skilled white collar occupations (administrative and service jobs) was the same for all the migration statuses (around 26.0 %), a smaller share of immigrants, especially of 'second-generation' worked in skilled blue collar occupations (8.7 % and 13.1 %, compared with 16.5 %). The latter comprises the categories

'skilled agricultural and fishery workers' and 'craft and related trade workers'. Part of the explanation could be that these activities are linked to family labour force and to resources (land, ships and tools) passed down through generations of 'native-born with native background'. Another possibility is that the labour force working in these areas (especially skilled agricultural and fishery workers) is more concentrated in countries in which fewer immigrants exist.

The structural change of the economy over the 2008–14 period had a stronger impact on the occupational structure of immigrants (especially the second generation), while for 'native-born with native background' the changes were minimal. The general trend consisted of an increase in more professionalised and service oriented jobs (so called 'white-collar' jobs), accompanied by a decrease in low skilled occupations linked to production and other manual jobs, noted especially in the case of immigrants.

The proportions of those employed in 'white-collar occupations' presented an increase within all migration statuses, reaching a growth of 5.1 pp among 'second-generation immigrants' for highly skilled non-manual jobs and 3.7 pp among 'first-generation immigrants' and 2.3 pp among natives for the low skilled ones. On the other hand, the percentages of people working in 'unskilled blue collar occupations' was lower in 2014 than in 2008, especially for the second (– 3.0 pp) and first (– 1.5 pp) generations of immigrants. The same trend can be noticed for skilled manual jobs, for which the decrease was even stronger in both relative and absolute terms (– 3.6 pp for the second generation and – 4.3 pp for the first one).

Figure 2.21: Occupation of employees by migration status and year, EU-28, 2008 and 2014
(%)



Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

Table 2.2: Top three activities of first-generation immigrant employees, 2014

	First	Second	Third
EU-28	**Manufacturing**	**Wholesale and retail trade**	**Human health and social work activities**
Belgium	Administrative and support service activities	Wholesale and retail trade	Manufacturing
Bulgaria	:	:	:
Czech Republic	Manufacturing	Wholesale and retail trade	Construction
Denmark	:	:	:
Germany	:	:	:
Estonia	Manufacturing	Wholesale and retail trade	Transportation and storage
Ireland	:	:	:
Greece	Accomodation and food service activities	Wholesale and retail trade	Construction
Spain	Activities of households as employers	Accomodation and food service activities	Wholesale and retail trade
France	Human health and social work activities	Wholesale and retail trade	Construction
Croatia	Manufacturing	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade
Italy	Manufacturing	Activities of households as employers	Construction
Cyprus	Activities of households as employers	Wholesale and retail trade	Accomodation and food service activities
Latvia	Manufacturing	Transportation and storage	Education
Lithuania	Manufacturing	:	:
Luxembourg	Financial and insurance activities	Activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies	Professional
Hungary	Wholesale and retail trade	Manufacturing	Accomodation and food service activities
Malta	Accomodation and food service activities	Wholesale and retail trade	:
Netherlands	:	:	:
Austria	:	:	:
Poland	Manufacturing	Wholesale and retail trade	:
Portugal	Manufacturing	Wholesale and retail trade	Human health and social work activities
Romania	:	:	:
Slovenia	Manufacturing	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade
Slovakia	Manufacturing	:	:
Finland	Manufacturing	Human health and social work activities	Wholesale and retail trade
Sweden	Human health and social work activities	Education	Wholesale and retail trade
United Kingdom	Human health and social work activities	Wholesale and retail trade	Manufacturing

Note: population aged 25–54. 'Wholesale and retail trade' also includes 'repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles'.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

When analysing the distribution of employment by type of activity among the three migration statuses, the difference between 'first-generation immigrants' and 'second-generation immigrants' was less than when analysing their occupational structure.

As can be seen in Table 2.2, in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Croatia, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Slovakia and Finland the most common activity sector of a 'first-generation immigrant' worker was 'manufacturing'.

Hungary was the only Member State where 'wholesale and retail' ranked first and only Italy, Latvia, Lithuania and Luxembourg did not have it in their top three activity sectors. It was the second most common activity sector for 'first-generation immigrants' to be employed in the overall EU aggregate.

France, Sweden and the United Kingdom were the EU Member States where it was more likely for 'first-generation immigrants' to work in 'human health and social work activities'. The high number of immigrants in France and the United Kingdom placed this activity sector in third place within the EU aggregate.

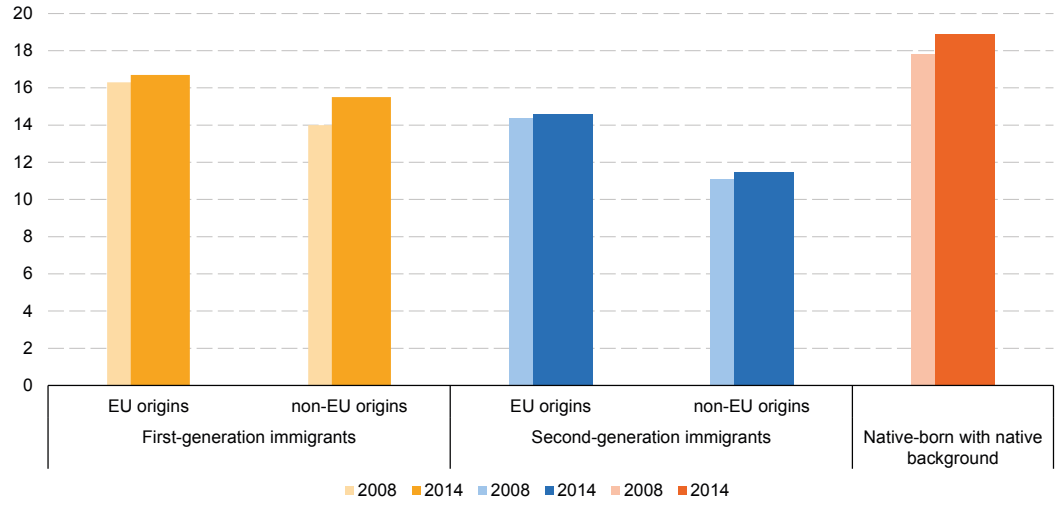
The 'activities of household as employers' were the most common for 'first-generation immigrants' in Spain and Cyprus, and the second most common in Italy. Greece and Malta had the greatest share of their foreign-born immigrants working in 'accommodation and food activities' — linked to the importance of the tourist sector in these economies.

Luxembourg's situation was particular among EU Member States with its top three activities reflecting the predominance of its specific and specialised economy: 'financial and insurance activities', 'activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies' and 'professional' activities.

Self-employed persons work in their own business or professional practice; in 2014, they made up 18.9 % of the employed EU 'native-born with native background' population — the highest value among the five migration statuses being analysed (see Figure 2.22). 'Second-generation immigrants' were the group least likely to be self-employed (ranging from 14.6 % for those of 'EU origins' to 11.5 % for those with both parents born outside the EU). The self-employment share of 'first-generation immigrants' was also higher among immigrants of 'EU origins' (16.7 %) than among those of 'non-EU origins' (15.5 %).

Since 2008, there has been a general tendency towards an increasing share of self-employment, 'first-generation immigrants' of 'non-EU origins' presenting the largest increase (from 14.0 % in 2008 to 15.5 % in 2014) while for 'second-generation immigrants' of 'non-EU origins' only a slight increase (+0.2 pp) was observed.

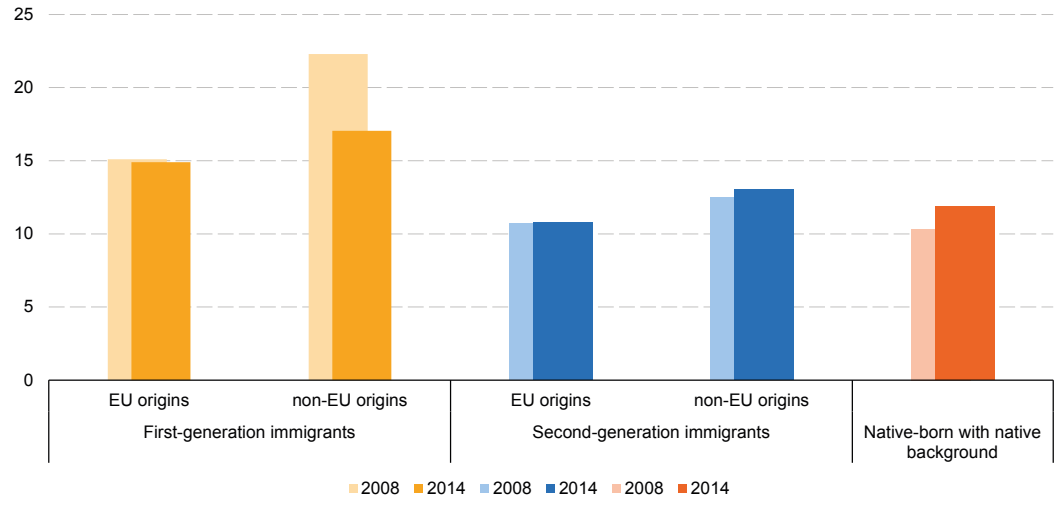
Figure 2.22: Self-employment by migration status and origin, EU, 2008 and 2014
(%)



Note: population aged 25–54.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

Figure 2.23: Temporary contract by migration status and origin, 2008 and 2014
(%)



Note: population aged 25–54.

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

In 2014, 11.9 % of the EU employees who were 'native-born with native background' had a temporary contract, meaning that their main job would terminate after a pre-defined period, or after the completion of a given task (see Figure 2.23). This value was only lower in the case of 'second-generation immigrants' of 'EU origins' (10.8 %). For 'second-generation immigrants' of 'non-EU origins' the share of employees with temporary contracts was 13.0 % while in the case of 'first-generation immigrants', the values were 14.9 % for those of 'EU origins' and peaked at 17.0 % for those of 'non-EU origins'. Regardless of the generation, immigrants of 'non-EU origins' were more likely than those of 'EU origins' to hold temporary employment contracts. It should be noted that 'first-generation immigrants', regardless of their origin, were more likely to have a temporary employment contract as opposed to 'second-generation immigrants' or 'native-born with native background'.

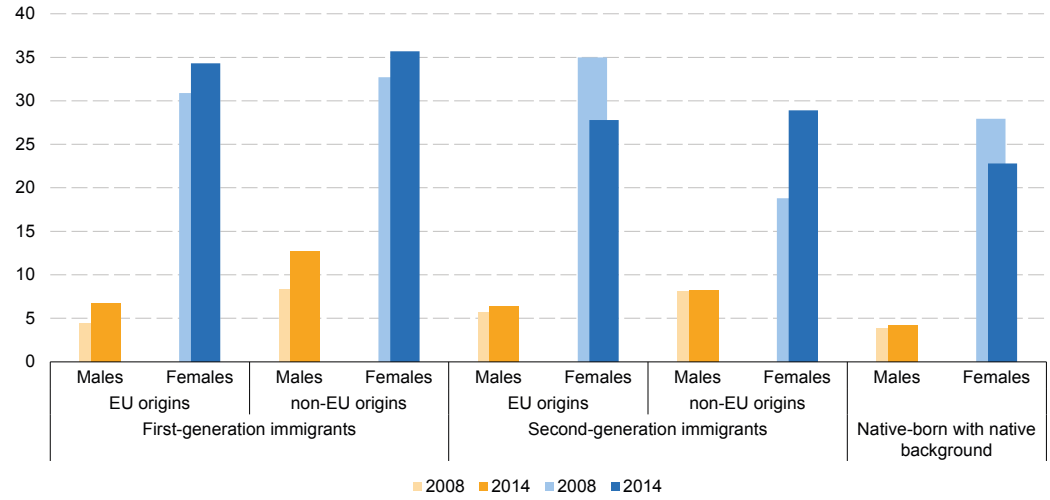
From 2008 to 2014, there was a slight increase in the share of temporary contracts among 'native-born with native background' employees, while there were contradictory trends among the immigrant groups. The outcome was more positive in the case of 'first-generation immigrants', given the decrease in the share of temporary contracts. The opposite was true for 'second-generation immigrants', for whom the proportion of those having a temporary contract increased from 10.7 % to 10.8 % ('EU origins') and from 12.5 % to 13.0 % ('non-EU origins'). Although the trend is positive, amongst 'first-generation immigrants' of 'non-EU origin' there is still the highest proportion of temporary contract amongst employees.

Part-time employees are persons whose usual working hours are less than the normal working hours. It can be either voluntary (e.g. for family reasons) or involuntary (when the person would like to work more hours but cannot find a suitable contract). This analysis does not distinguish between the two because of sample size limitations.

Figure 2.24 shows the predominance of part-time work in the EU female population across all immigrant statuses, with differences always exceeding 18 pp compared with the male population. 'First-generation immigrants' of both 'EU origins' and 'non-EU origins' showed the highest rates of part-time employment, reaching over one third in the case of female employees and 6.7 % ('EU origins') and 12.7 % ('non-EU origins') of male employees in 2014. Among men, the 'first-generation immigrants' of 'non-EU origins' were the category with the highest share of part-time work, which was more than triple that of the native men of native origin. The share of part-time workers amongst employees was higher for 'second-generation immigrants' than in the case of 'native-born with native background' and lower than amongst 'first-generation immigrants'. This was the case regardless of the gender, with the exception of men whose both parents were born outside the EU and accounted for the second highest share of part-timers. Also, regardless of the gender and the generation, the proportion was higher amongst immigrants of 'non-EU origins' than those of 'EU origins'. Given these patterns, it is likely that the share of the employees working part-time who are not in this situation by choice is higher in the case of immigrants, particularly when they only have 'non-EU origins'.

The prevalence of part-time work increased in all categories except for 'native-born with native background' and 'second-generation immigrant' women of 'EU origins', for which it decreased. The gender gap showed diverging trends, as it increased for 'second-generation immigrants' of 'non-EU origin' (by 10 pp) and 'first-generation immigrants' of 'EU origins' (by 1.1 pp only), while it decreased for the other categories.

Figure 2.24: Part-time employment by migration status, sex and origin, EU, 2008 and 2014
(%)



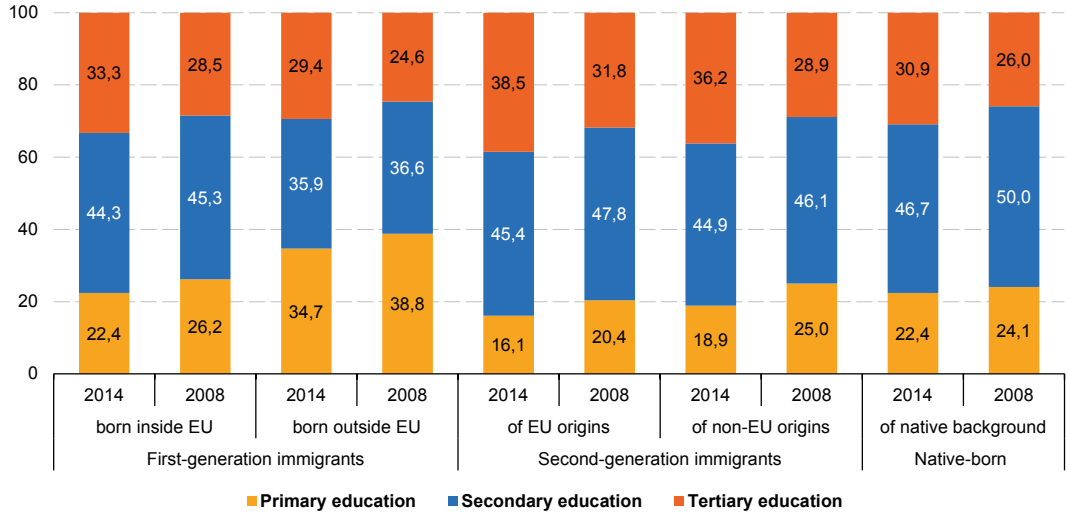
Note: population aged 25–54.
Source: Eurostat, EU LFS AHM2014/2008

2.5 Education and obstacles to work

People need skills and qualifications if they are to participate successfully in the labour market; this is particularly true for immigrants. Skills can be acquired through education and training (including training on the job). Data on qualifications, measured by highest level of educational attainment, are an important indicator of the skills on offer in the labour market, as they provide a wide range of information on individuals' attributes and chances of getting a good job.

When looking at the highest level of educational attainment, significant differences can be noticed between first- and second-generation immigrants and native-born residents with native backgrounds (see Figure 2.25). In 2014, the highest proportion of tertiary graduates was observed among second-generation immigrants (38.5 % for those of EU and 36.2 % for those of non-EU origin), while the lowest was among first-generation immigrants born outside the EU (29.4 %). The proportion of tertiary graduates among EU mobile citizens was between that of native-born residents with foreign and those with native backgrounds. Overall, the EU attracts quite a high proportion of highly skilled immigrants.

Figure 2.25: Educational attainment level distribution by migration status and background, 25–55 age group, EU-28, 2008 and 2014
(%)



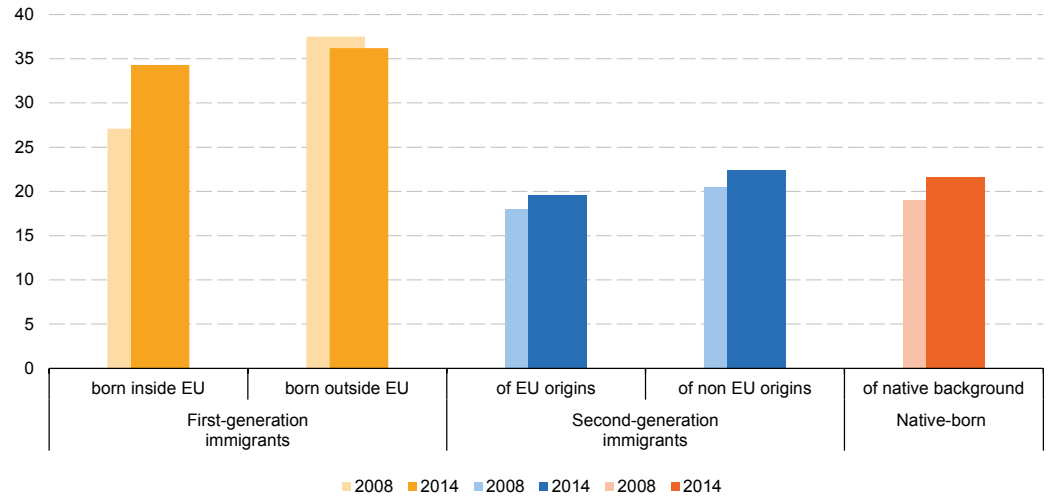
Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

The proportion of low skilled workers is particularly high (34.7 %) among first-generation immigrants born outside the EU, the same for native-born residents and EU mobile citizens (22.4 %), and lower for second-generation immigrants (16.1 % for those of EU and 18.9 % for those of non-EU origin).

The trend over time is similar for all groups, in line with the general increase in the proportion of tertiary graduates and a decrease in the proportion of those with up to lower secondary education. The biggest relative increase was among second-generation immigrants of both 'EU origin' (+ 6.7 pp) and 'non-EU origin' (+7.3 pp). The increase was similar (around +5.0 pp) for foreign-born and native-born residents of native origin.

Figure 2.26: Objective over-qualification by migration status and background, 25–54 age group, 2008 and 2014

(%)



Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

Over-qualification is the state of being skilled or educated beyond what is necessary for a job. The over-qualification rate is the number of over-qualified people as a percentage of the labour force.

Two indicators of over-qualification are presented:

- **objective over-qualification (the proportion of tertiary graduates working in jobs for which a degree is not required, ISCO levels 4–9); and**
- **subjective over-qualification (the proportion of employed persons declaring that their qualifications and skills would allow them to carry out more demanding tasks).**

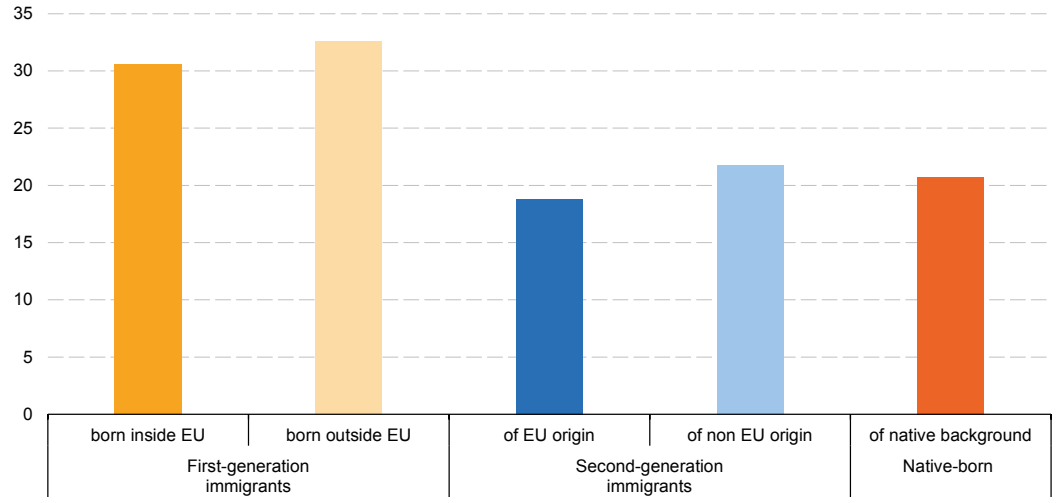
In 2014, over a third of first-generation immigrants with a tertiary degree worked in a job that did not require that level of education (ranging from 34.3 % for those born in the EU to 36.2 % for those born elsewhere), as compared with around a fifth of native-born residents with native backgrounds and second-generation immigrants (see Figure 2.26). Compared with 2008, this applied to slightly fewer first-generation immigrants born outside the EU (–1.3 pp), but significantly more EU mobile citizens (+ 7.2 pp). This may be related to the increased number of citizens from the countries that joined the EU most recently (Romania, Bulgaria and Croatia) who were subject to labour market restrictions in some countries until 2014. There was also an increase in the proportion of over-qualified native-born residents (+ 1.6 pp) and second-generation immigrants of whom both parents were born outside the EU (+ 1.9 pp).

Figure 2.27 shows the percentage of people in each migration group who perceived themselves as over-qualified for their main current job, based on a comparison of their qualifications and skills with the tasks they carry out. All respondents who had a job were asked about this, regardless of whether they were actually doing it in the reference week. At aggregate level, the resultant values and pattern seem to be very similar to those obtained by analysing objective over-qualification, even though the reference populations differ (all the employed population for the subjective and employed tertiary graduates for the objective measure) and the coverage is therefore not the same in all cases.

First-generation immigrants are much more likely to declare themselves as being over-qualified for their job (almost a third, as compared with around a fifth of those born in their country of residence, regardless of background). The percentage declaring themselves to be over-qualified is slightly higher among first- and second-generation immigrants of non-EU origin than among those of EU origin. Second-generation immigrants with at least one parent born in the EU are the migration group with the lowest percentage.

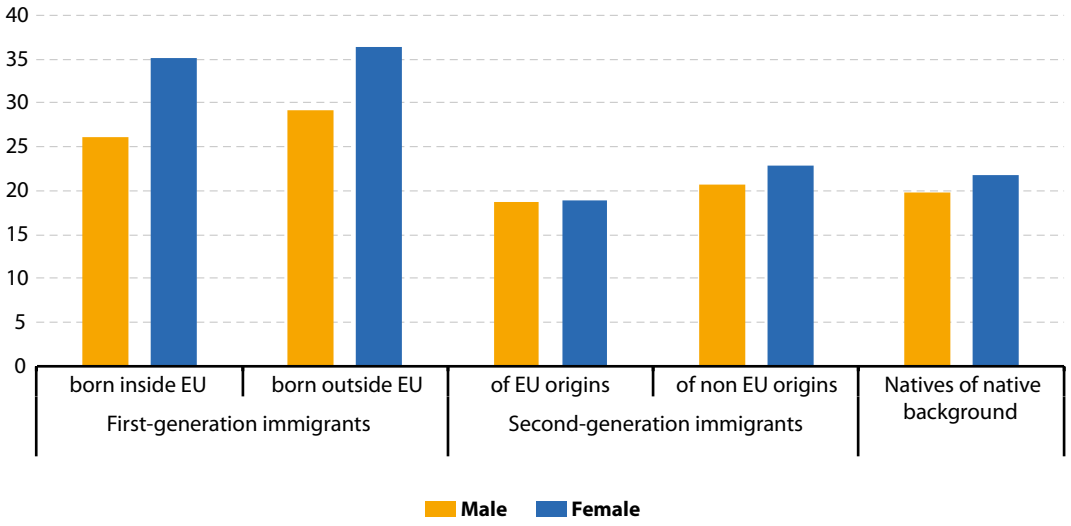
Figure 2.27: Subjective over-qualification by migration status and background, 25–54 age group, 2014

(%)



Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

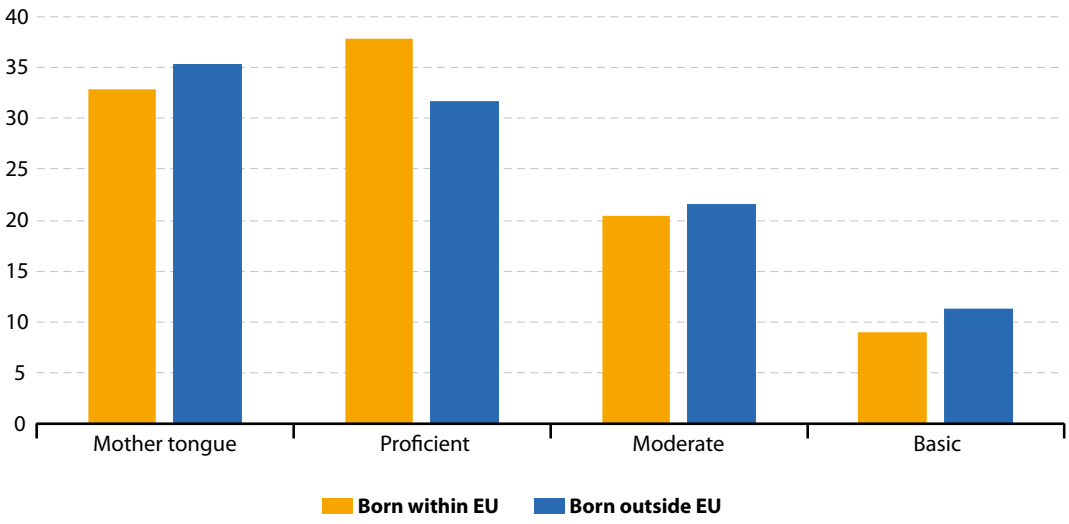
Figure 2.28: Subjective over-qualification by migration status, background and sex, 25–54 age group, 2014
(%)



Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

Women are much more likely than men to feel that they are over-qualified, particularly when one looks at first-generation immigrants (see Figure 2.28). Only 26.0 % to 29.3 % of male first-generation immigrants declared themselves to be over-qualified, as against 35.1 % to 36.5 % of their female counterparts. Similar, but smaller differences (2 pp) apply to native-born residents with native backgrounds and second-generation immigrants with both parents born outside the EU, while for those with an intra-EU background the percentage is similar for men and women.

Figure 2.29: Language skills of first-generation immigrants by migration background, 15–64 age group, 2014
(%)

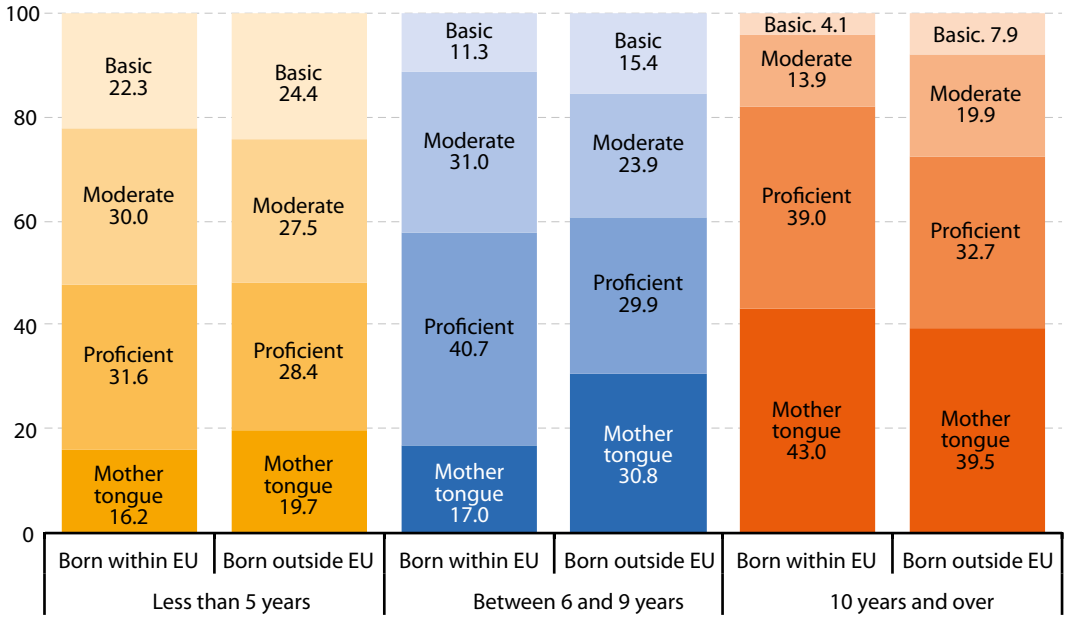


Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

The information in the next paragraphs refers to respondents' self-perceived command of their host country's main language. Where a country has more than one official language, it refers to the language of which the respondent has the best command. Around a third of first-generation immigrants moved to countries in which their mother tongue was spoken, while another third (or slightly more in the case of those born in another EU country) claimed to be proficient in the official language of their host country (see Figure 2.29). Only 9 % of those born in another EU country and 12 % of those born in a non-EU country saw themselves as having only basic knowledge of the host country's main language.

As Figure 2.30 shows, and as is to be expected, first-generation immigrants' language skills improved over time: the longer they lived in their host country, the less they declared only having basic skills. However, even among people who have lived in their host country for 10 years or more, 4.1 % of those born in another EU country and 7.9 % of those born in a non-EU country declared only having basic skills in the language(s) of their host country. It is also interesting to note that the percentage of those declaring that the host country's language is also their mother tongue was higher (about double in relative terms) among those who had settled (arrived over 10 years ago).

Figure 2.30: Language skills of first-generation immigrants by number of years spent in the country and migration background, 15–64 age group, 2014
(%)



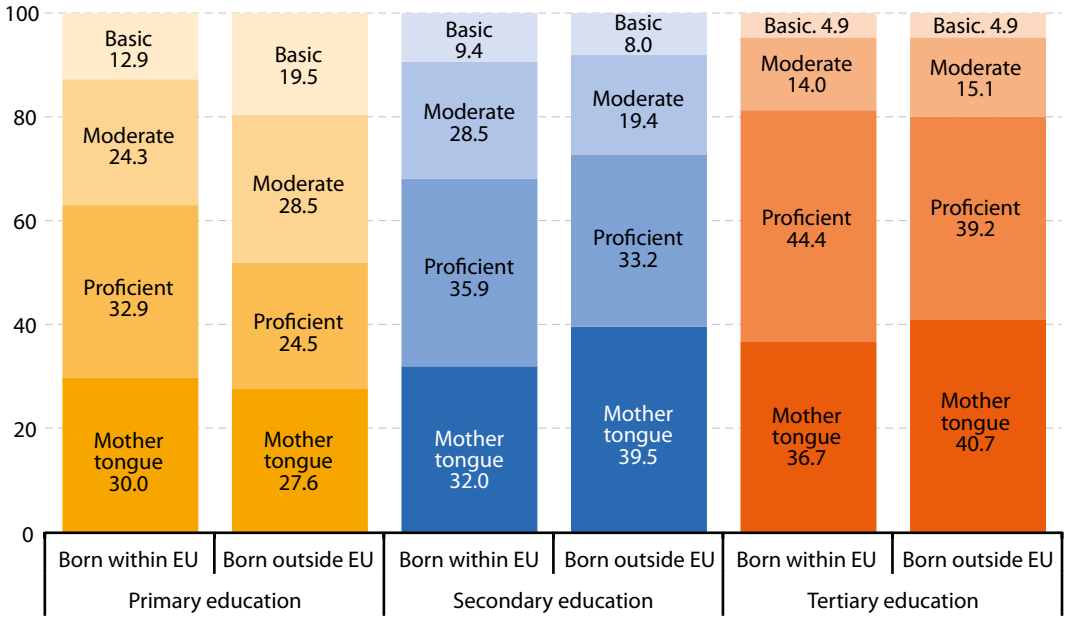
Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

As expected, there was a correlation between better language skills and educational attainment, but it was less evident than that between better language skills and time spent in the host country (see Figure 2.31). On average, around 80 % of tertiary graduates were native or proficient speakers of the host country's main language, while this applied to just over one half of foreign-born residents with only primary education. The differences by migration background were insignificant.

In 2014, the proportion of highly skilled persons was higher among immigrants than among native-born with native background. Despite a high level of education, two major indicators showed difficulties which immigrants, especially first-generation immigrants, faced on the EU labour market: their unemployment and over-qualification rates were higher than those of native-born residents with native background. Migration-specific work obstacles like language and communication barriers, lack of recognition of foreign credentials and experience, restricted rights to work and discrimination on social and religious grounds may have contributed to this situation.

With regard to work obstacles, there were substantial differences between first- and second-generation immigrants. As second-generation immigrants were raised and educated in the host country, they did not face the same obstacles as their immigrant parents or other first-generation immigrants. Therefore, the two generations should be dealt with separately.

Figure 2.31: Language skills of first-generation immigrants by education attainment level and migration background, 15–64 age group, 2014
(%)



Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

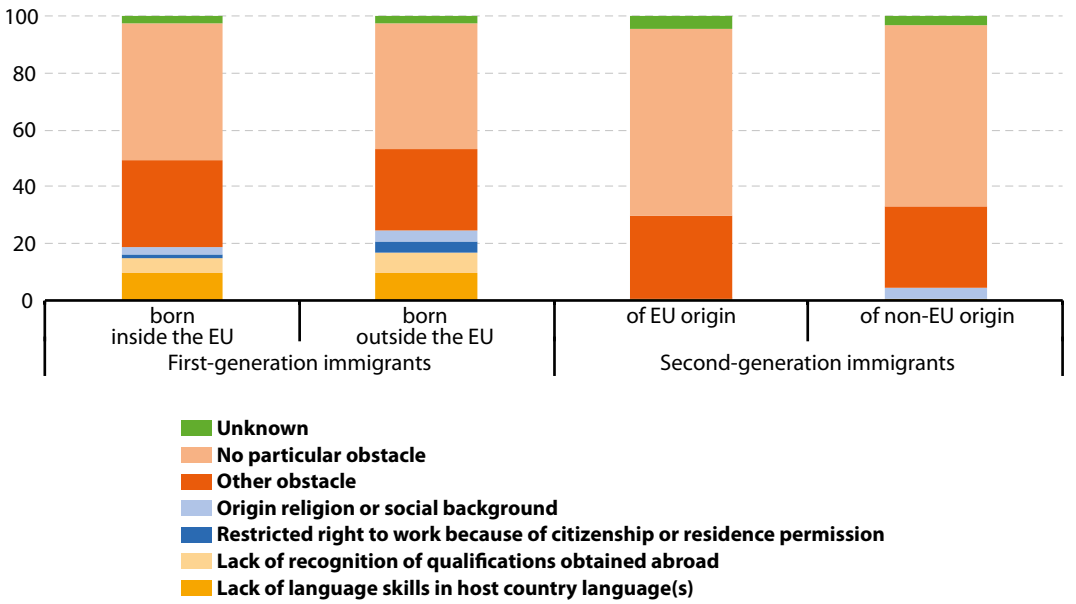
However, both generations had two things in common. About half of first-generation immigrants and about two thirds of second-generation immigrants did not mention any particular obstacle to finding a suitable job, this being the most common response for both generations (see Figure 2.32). Also, just under a third of both generations, regardless of having EU or non-EU origins, encountered a work obstacle other than the four migration-specific ones.

As the analysis from this point on will primarily look at specific difficulties faced by immigrants in finding a suitable job, we disregarded the groups' responses of 'no particular obstacle', 'other obstacle' and 'unknown'. That being said, we noted that the lack of language skills was the most common obstacle preventing first-generation immigrants from finding a suitable job, affecting about 1 in every 10 foreign-born immigrants, irrespective of where they came from.

Regarding the lack of recognition of qualification obtained abroad — the second most common migration-specific work obstacle — it is interesting to note that first-generation immigrants born outside the EU were more affected than their counterparts born within the EU, which is not surprising given the progress on standardising European degrees under the Bologna system. In any event, the relative difference was small, at 2 pp.

Similarly, first-generation immigrants born outside the EU were more affected by work restrictions as they do not have the same civil and work rights as EU/EEA citizens. Only 1.4 % of EU mobile citizens ( ) cited this as their major problem in finding a suitable job, compared with 3.7 % of first-generation immigrants born outside the EU. However as an obstacle, work restrictions came after discrimination on social and religious grounds, which affected 2.4 % of EU mobile citizens and 4.3 % foreign-born residents of non-EU origin.

Figure 2.32: Work obstacles by migration status and background, 15–64 age group, 2014
(%)



Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

Just little over 2% of first-generation residents encountered obstacles to work but could not identify a specific/main one.

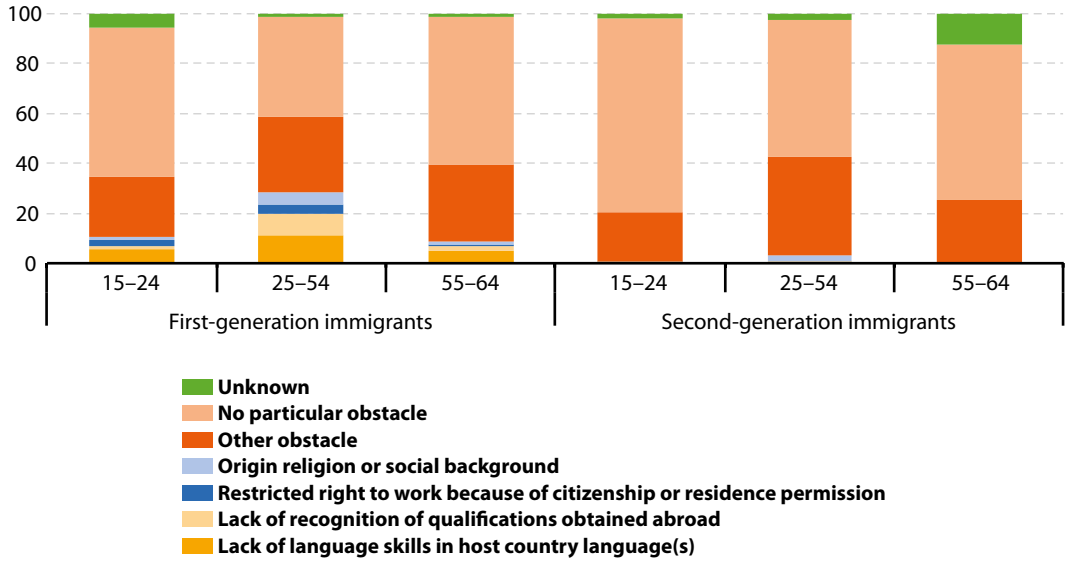
The situation was very different for second-generation immigrants. Less than 1% experienced language or communication barriers. This could be due to their level of education rather than migration background. However, the fact that 3.5% of second-generation immigrants with at least one parent born outside the EU faced discrimination on social and religious grounds can surely be explained by their migration background. The proportion of second-generation immigrants who encountered obstacles to work without identifying a specific/main one is about twice that of those facing no particular obstacle.

Analysis of the different age groups reveals that about three fifths of both young (aged 15–24) and older (aged 55–64) foreign-born workers faced no particular obstacle, compared with two fifths of foreign-born workers in the core working age group (aged 25–54) (see Figure 2.33).

As for the first-generation immigrants who are in the core working age (aged 25–54) or older workers (aged 55–64), the structural distribution of the four migration-specific obstacles analysed follows the overall pattern: the most common obstacle was the lack of language skills, followed by lack of recognition of qualifications, discrimination on social and religious grounds and restricted right to work. By contrast, young foreign-born workers (aged 15–24) faced mainly language or communication problems and to a similar extent problems related to lack of qualifications, work restrictions and social and religious discrimination.

The few second-generation immigrants who faced one of the four migration-specific obstacles were concentrated in the core-working age group (aged 25–54). Similarly with first-generation immigrants, mainly younger (aged 15–24) and older workers (aged 55–64) among second-generation immigrants faced no particular obstacles.

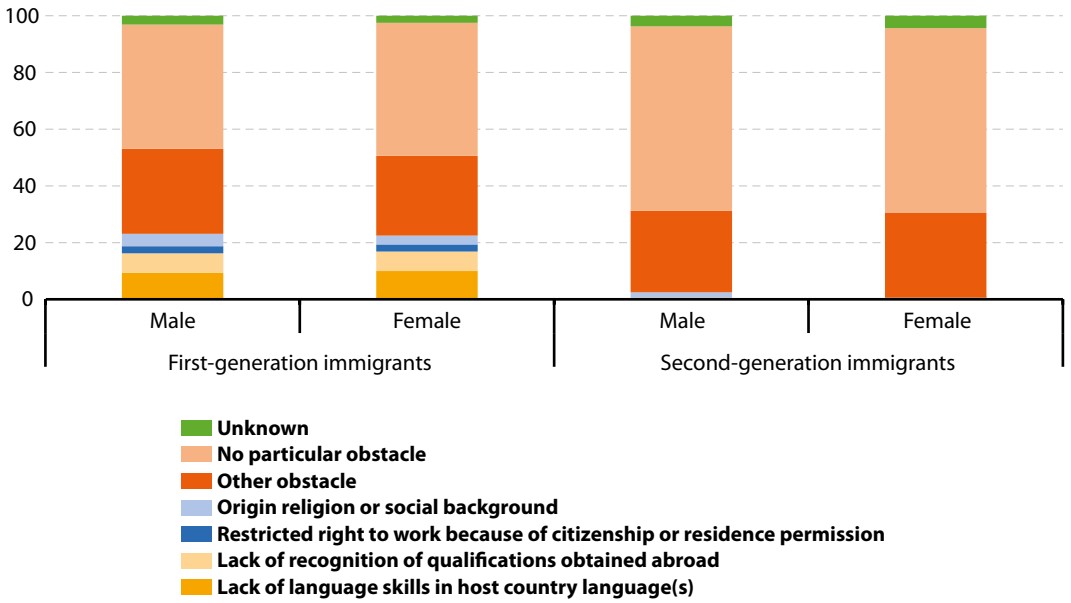
Figure 2.33: Work obstacles by migration status and age group, 2014
(%)



Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

Figure 2.34 shows that there was no notable difference between men and women when analysing obstacles to work as a result of migration background. The only difference arose when looking at second-generation immigrants encountering social and religious discrimination, where men seemed to be somewhat more affected than women.

Figure 2.34: Work obstacles by migration status and sex, 15–64 age group, 2014
(%)

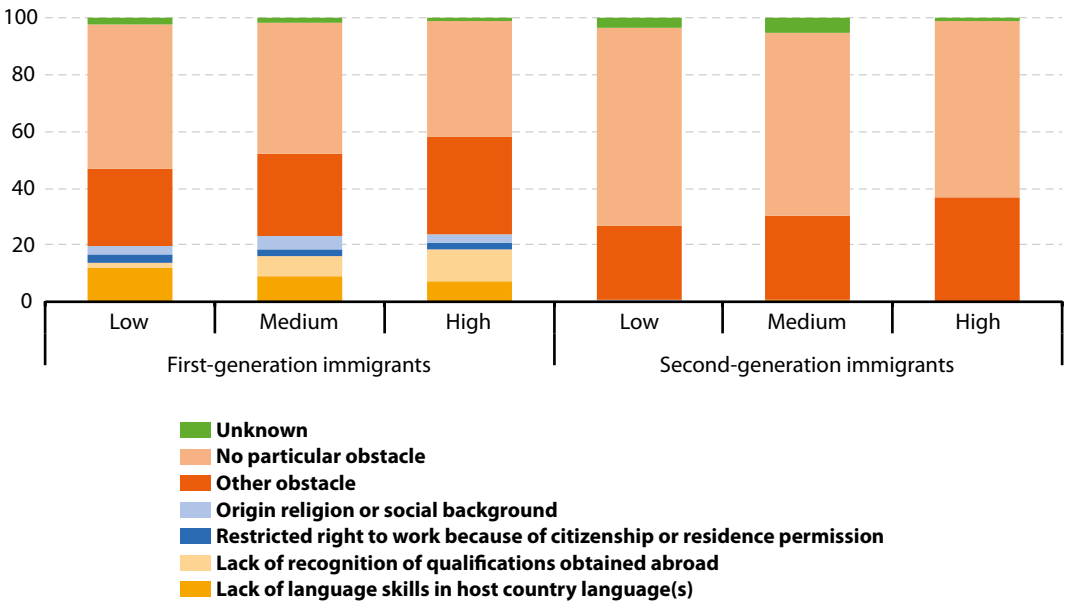


Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

Looking at foreign-born residents, the higher the education level, the higher the proportion of those facing difficulty in gaining recognition of their qualifications (see Figure 2.35). However, the higher the education level, the lower the proportion of these immigrants encountering language barriers. Therefore the most common migration-specific work obstacle among first-generation immigrants with high-level education was lack of recognition of qualifications obtained abroad while among those with low-level education the most common obstacle was lack of language skills. Among first-generation immigrants with medium-level education the two obstacles had a similar importance. This situation could be due to the fact that language skills improve with the education level, and because of the lower need to recognise foreign qualifications for jobs that do not require higher education.

The social and religious discrimination varied slightly with education level, with the most affected being foreign-born residents with medium-level education. As expected, the work restriction obstacle was not correlated with education. The highest proportion of those who did not experience any work obstacle was seen among first-generation immigrants with low-level education.

Figure 2.35: Work obstacles by migration status and education level, 15–64 age group, 2014
(%)



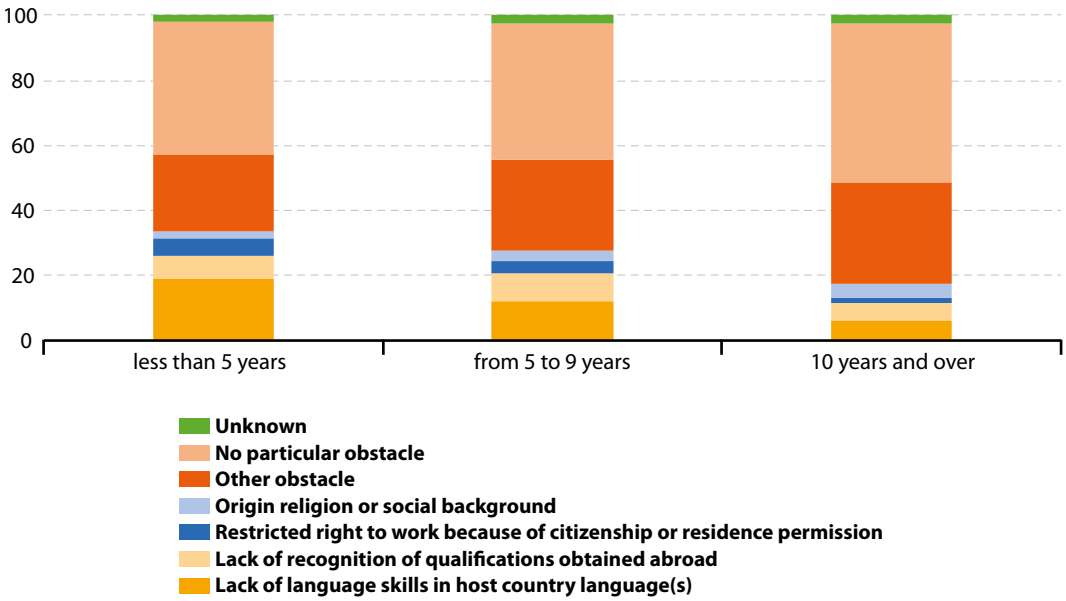
Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

Among second-generation immigrants, there was no significant structural difference in the obstacles people experience based on which of the three major educational attainment levels they had reached.

For both generations in all three education levels, the most common response remained 'no particular obstacle' followed by 'other obstacles'. However the differences in proportions were affected by changes in the total proportion of migration-specific work obstacles rather than by the education level itself.

Work obstacles are correlated with the length of stay in the host country. As Figure 2.36 shows, the longer the number of years spent in the host country, the smaller the proportion of foreign-born residents affected by one of the four migration-specific obstacles. In fact, the total proportion of those facing migration-specific work obstacles was reduced to about half, from 33.3 % for those who had lived in the host country for 5 years or less to 17.5 % for those who had lived there for 10 years or more. The largest decrease was seen for command of the main host country language: only 6.2 % of foreign-born residents who had been living in the host country for 10 years or more still faced linguistic barriers, compared with about a fifth of those who arrived during the last 5 years. Work restrictions due to citizenship or residence permits were also reduced by 3.3 pp. On the other hand, the proportion of foreign-born immigrants facing religious and social discrimination increased by about 1 pp for each group, broken down by each category of time spent in the host country.

Figure 2.36: Work obstacles of first-generation immigrants by length of stay, 15–64 age group, 2014
(%)



Source: Eurostat, LFS 2014 ad hoc module

Data coverage

Eurostat online databases contain a large amount of metadata that provides information on the status of particular values or data series. In order to improve readability of this statistical book, only the most significant meta-information has been included under the tables and figures. The following symbols are used, where necessary:

Italic data value is forecasted, provisional or estimated and is likely to change;

: not available, confidential or unreliable value;

– not applicable.

Breaks in series are indicated in the footnotes provided under each table and figure.

This publication generally presents information for the EU-28 (the 28 Member States of the EU), as well as the individual EU Member States. The order of the Member States in tables and figures generally follows their order of protocol; in other words, the alphabetical order of the countries' names in their respective original languages; in some of the figures the data are ranked according to the values of a particular indicator.

The EU-28 aggregate is provided when information for all of the countries is available, or if an estimate has been made for missing information. Any incomplete totals that are created are systematically footnoted.

When available, information is also presented for EFTA countries, candidate and potential candidate countries. In the event that data for any of these non-member countries are not available, they have been excluded from the tables and figures presented.

If data are not available for a particular country, then efforts have been made to fill tables and figures with data for previous reference periods (these exceptions are footnoted); generally, an effort has been made to go back at least two years, for example showing data for 2013 or 2014 if data for 2015 are not yet available.

Glossary

Asylum

Form of protection given by a state on its territory based on the principle of 'non-refoulement' (no repulsing/sending back) and internationally or nationally recognised refugee rights. It is granted to a person who is unable to seek protection in his/her country of citizenship and/or residence, in particular for fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion.

Asylum seeker

Asylum applicant awaiting a decision on an application for international protection, granting or refusing a refugee status or another form of international protection.

Citizenship

Particular legal bond between an individual and his or her state, acquired by birth or naturalisation, whether by declaration, choice, marriage or other means according to national legislation.

Emigrant

Person undertaking emigration.

Emigration

Action by which a person, having previously been usually resident in the territory of a country, ceases to have his or her usual residence in that country for a period that is, or is expected to be, at least 12 months.

EU mobile citizens

People born in the EU, who live in another Member State than the one they were born in as a result of the free movement rights granted to EU citizens.

First-generation immigrant

Person born in a country other than her/his country of residence and whose residence period in the host country is, or is expected to be, at least 12 months.

Foreign citizens (non-nationals)

Persons who do not hold the citizenship of their country of residence, regardless of whether they were born in that country or elsewhere.

Immigrant

Person undertaking immigration.

Immigration

Action by which a person establishes his or her usual residence in the territory of a country for a period that is, or is expected to be, at least 12 months, having previously been usually resident in another country.

Median age

Age that divides the population into two groups of equal size.

Naturalisation rate

Ratio between the number of persons who acquired the citizenship of a country during a calendar year and the stock of foreign residents in the same country at the beginning of the year.

Recognised non-citizen

Person who is not a citizen of the reporting country nor of any other country, but who has established links to that country which include some but not all rights and obligations of full citizenship.

Refugee

Person who, owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership of a particular social group, is outside his or her country of nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, unwilling to avail himself or herself of the protection of that country.

Residence permit

Any authorisation valid for at least 3 months issued by the authorities of an EU Member State allowing a third country national to stay legally on its territory.

Second-generation immigrant

Native-born person with at least one foreign-born parent.

Third-country nationals

Persons who are usually resident in the EU 28 and who do not have the citizenship of an EU 28 Member State.

Usual residence

Place at which a person normally spends the daily period of rest, regardless of temporary absences for purposes of recreation, holidays, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage or, by default, the place of legal or registered residence.

Education

Bologna Process

Collective effort of public authorities, universities, teachers, and students, together with stakeholder associations, employers, quality assurance agencies, international organisations, and institutions, including the European Commission. The main focus is:

- the introduction of the three cycle system (bachelor/master/doctorate);
- strengthened quality assurance; and
- easier recognition of qualifications and periods of study.

Early leavers from education and training

Persons aged 18–24 having attained at most lower secondary education and not being involved in further education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey.

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)

Reference international classification for organising education programmes and related qualifications by levels and fields. ISCED 2011 is implemented in all EU data collections as from 2014. ISCED 2011 has nine levels of education, from level 0 to level 8:

- ISCED 0: Early childhood education
- ISCED 1: Primary education
- ISCED 2: Lower secondary education
- ISCED 3: Upper secondary education
- ISCED 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education
- ISCED 5: Short-cycle tertiary education
- ISCED 6: Bachelor's or equivalent level
- ISCED 7: Master's or equivalent level
- ISCED 8: Doctoral or equivalent level

Data on educational attainment level are often presented for three aggregates:

- Low education: levels 0–2
- Medium education: levels 3–4
- High education: levels 5–8

Participation rate in lifelong learning

Percentage of people who received education or training (formal or non-formal) during the four weeks preceding the survey.

Young people neither in employment nor in education and training (NEET)

Percentage of the population of a given age group and sex who is not employed (i.e. who is unemployed or inactive) and not involved in further education or training.

Employment

Activity rate

Percentage of economically active persons in relation to the comparable total population.

Economically active population

Also referred to as labour force, this comprises employed and unemployed persons.

Employment rate

Percentage of employed persons in relation to the comparable total population.

International standard classification of occupations (ISCO)

International classification under the responsibility of the International Labour Organization (ILO) for organising jobs into a clearly defined set of groups according to the tasks and duties undertaken in the job.

Long-term unemployment

Number of people who are out of work and have been actively seeking employment for at least a year.

Over-qualification

State of being skilled or educated beyond what is necessary for a job. The over-qualification rate is the number of over-qualified people as a percentage of the labour force.

Two indicators of over-qualification are presented in this publication:

- objective over-qualification (the proportion of tertiary graduates working in jobs for which a degree is not required, ISCO level 4-9); and
- subjective over-qualification (the proportion of employed persons declaring that their qualifications and skills would allow them to carry out more demanding tasks).

Self-employed person

Sole or joint owner of an unincorporated enterprise (one that has not been incorporated i.e. formed into a legal corporation) in which he/she works, unless he/she is also in paid employment which is his/her main activity.

Temporary employment

Includes work under a fixed-term contract, as against permanent work where there is no end-date. A job may be considered temporary employment if both employer and employee agree that its end is decided by objective rules, e.g. a specific date, the end of a task, or the return of another employee who has been temporarily replaced.

Unemployed persons

Persons who were without work during the reference week, were available for work and were either actively seeking work during the last four weeks or had already found a job to start within the next three months.

Unemployment rate

Number of people unemployed as a percentage of the labour force.

Living conditions

At risk of poverty or social exclusion (AROPE)

Situation of people either at risk of poverty, or severely materially deprived or living in a household with a very low work intensity.

At-risk-of-poverty rate

Share of people with an equivalised disposable income (after social transfer) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers. This indicator does not measure wealth or poverty, but low income in comparison to other residents in that country, which does not necessarily imply a low standard of living.

Equivalised disposable income

Total income of a household, after tax and other deductions, that is available for spending or saving, divided by the number of household members converted into equalised adults; household members are equalised or made equivalent by weighting each according to their age, using the so-called modified OECD equivalence scale (this scale gives a weight of 1.0 to the first adult, 0.5 to any other household member aged 14 and over and 0.3 to each child under 14 years).

Household

Defined as a housekeeping unit. It includes either one person living alone or a group of people, not necessarily related, living at the same address with common housekeeping, i.e. sharing at least one meal per day or sharing a living or sitting room.

Types of household based on the migration status of the household members:

- 'native households', where all adults are native-born with native background;
- 'immigrant households', where all adults are immigrants;
  - 'first-generation immigrant households', where all adults are first-generation immigrants
  - 'second-generation immigrant households', where all adults are second-generation immigrants (native-born with a least one foreign-born parent);
  - 'mixed immigrant households', where at least one adult is from the first-generation of immigrants and at least one other adult is from the second-generation of immigrants.
  - 'mixed households', where at least one adult is native-born with a native background and at least one other adult is an immigrant.

Types of household based on the migration background of the household members;

- 'native background households', where all adults have a background in the reporting country;
- 'EU background households', where at least one adult has an EU background and none have a non-EU background;
- 'non-EU background households', where all adults have a non-EU background;
- 'mixed background households', where at least one adult has a background in any EU country, including the reporting country, and at least one adult has a background in a non-EU country.

Housing cost overburden rate

Percentage of the population living in households where the total housing costs represent more than 40 % of disposable income.

In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate

Share of persons who are at work and have an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income.

Material deprivation rate

Inability to afford some items considered by most people to be desirable or even necessary to lead an adequate life. The indicator represents the percentage of the population that cannot afford at least three of the following nine items:

1. rent, mortgage or utility bills;
2. keep home adequately warm;
3. face unexpected expenses;
4. eat meat or proteins regularly;
5. go on holiday;
6. television set;
7. washing machine;
8. car;
9. telephone.

Overcrowding rate

Percentage of the population living in an overcrowded household. A person is considered as living in an overcrowded household if the household does not have at its disposal a minimum number of rooms equal to:

- one room for the household;
- one room per couple in the household;
- one room for each single person aged 18 or more;
- one room per pair of single people of the same gender between 12 and 17 years of age;
- one room for each single person between 12 and 17 years of age and not included in the previous category;
- one room per pair of children under 12 years of age.

Persons living in households with very low work intensity

Number of persons living in a household where the members of working age worked less than 20% of their total potential during the previous 12 months.

Severe material deprivation rate

Enforced inability to pay for at least four of the above-mentioned items.

Abbreviations and acronyms

Geographical aggregates and countries

EU-28	The 28 Member States of the European Union from 1 July 2013 (Belgium, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom)
EU-27	The 27 Member States of the European Union from 1 January 2007 to 30 June 2013 (Belgium, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom)

Note that EU aggregates are back-calculated when enough information is available — for example, data relating to the EU-28 aggregate is presented when possible for periods before Croatia joined the EU in 2013 and before the accession of Bulgaria and Romania in 2007, as if all 28 Member States had always been members of the EU.

Units of measurement

:	no data available
%	percentage
EUR	euro
pp	percentage points

Abbreviations

AHM	ad-hoc module
AROPE	at risk of poverty or social exclusion
COB	country of birth
COC	country of citizenship
DG HOME	Directorate-General Migration and Home Affairs
EC	European Commission
ESS	European Statistical System
EU-LFS	EU Labour Force Survey

EU-SILC	EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
HDI	Human Development Index
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
NACE	Statistical classification of economic activities
NEET	Young people neither in employment nor in education and training
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

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Migrant integration

'Migrant integration statistics' presents different aspects of the European Union (EU) statistics on the integration of migrants. The successful integration of migrants into society in the host country is key to maximising the opportunities of legal migration and making the most of the contributions that immigration can make to EU development. In this publication, migrant integration is measured in terms of employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship in the host country. The analysis is based on 2015 statistics from the Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) and Eurostat's migration statistics.

In addition, this publication provides an analysis on the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants based on the outcomes of the 2014 ad-hoc module of EU-LFS. Data are presented for the European Union and its Member States as well as for the EFTA countries.

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