

Annual Monitoring Report on Integration **2010**



THE INTEGRATION CENTRE
Connecting Communities • Advancing Integration

Annual Monitoring Report on Integration 2010

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The views expressed in this report are those of the authors and while the report was reviewed in both organisations, the views do not necessarily represent those of either the Integration Centre or the Economic and Social Research Institute.

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Preface

Welcome to the first Annual Monitoring Report on Integration which aims to provide a comprehensive and concise picture of the state of Integration in Ireland and to identify where in employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship Ireland can increase the potential for integration. This report – the first of its kind in Ireland – is produced in collaboration with the ESRI and is framed within the four categories for assessing integration proposed at the EU Zaragoza Conference in April 2010. We in The Integration Centre hope that this report – and those that follow it – will be a valuable resource for policy makers and other stakeholders in Ireland and outside of the country.

The study, on the basis of which this Monitoring Report on Integration has been produced, will be an annual exercise that will assist The Integration Centre to track Ireland's progress in integration. Also it will help to identify models of good practice in integration planning and in a variety of areas such as employment, housing, health, poverty and political and social participation.

The Monitoring Report on Integration will be the cornerstone of The Integration Centre's work on monitoring and planning integration at both local and national levels.

Ireland is recording some successes in integration. In the area of education, immigrant children from English speaking backgrounds are performing as well as their fellow pupils. In political participation – in comparison to other EU countries – Ireland has a progressive and inclusive approach to the participation of immigrants: non-Irish nationals may vote and stand in local elections. However, these successes in the field of integration often have counterbalances and these counterbalances constitute our challenges.

For example, in education, while children from English-speaking immigrant families are faring well, children from non-English speaking backgrounds are struggling. Whether non-English speaking children 'catch up', in terms of achievement, remains to be seen, but language is the key issue in the education of non-Irish nationals in Ireland. In education, the barriers experienced by children from non-English speaking immigrant families illustrates the intergenerational dynamics of integration as well as the permanency of diversity in Irish society.

Integration benefits society. As Ireland works to recover from challenging economic times through continuing engagement in a European framework, the Annual Monitoring Report on Integration sets out opportunities for the full participation of immigrants in the labour market and illuminates Ireland's failures to conceptualise and capitalize on integration as part of a smart, sustainable and inclusive growth strategy. Such a growth strategy would be accompanied by increased employment, productivity and social cohesion.

In Ireland immigrants are concentrated in low occupational categories, which is at odds with the large proportion of non-Irish nationals with high educational attainment. Many immigrants continue to work below their skill level and this constitutes a wasted opportunity to employ such skills in the workforce, something which would allow immigrants to fully contribute to Ireland's economic recovery.

Ireland is facing ongoing economic and social challenges. However in 2011 integration is an opportunity that Ireland should take to stimulate sustainable economic recovery and ensure social cohesion. In a European context, Europe 2020 encapsulates the opportunity to develop a common EU approach to employment which aims at inclusive growth and which builds a cohesive society. In this cohesive society people are empowered to anticipate and manage change and so to actively participate in society and the economy. The removal of barriers to participation in the labour market that are faced by immigrants is a step on the road to ensuring sustainable social protection and active inclusion of immigrants in Irish society and in the Irish labour market, which in turn will combat poverty and social exclusion.

As we work towards an Ireland which is inclusive and strong the Annual Monitoring Report on Integration will be a key tool to achieve this. It will help identify barriers to integration and foster progressive policies which will enable us to invest in and reap the rewards of integration.



Pat Montague
Chair, The Integration Centre.

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Finally, we would like to thank The Integration Centre for its comments, support and encouragement throughout the research process.

While people have given generously of their time and comments, none of them bears any responsibility for the contents of the report. This responsibility rests with the authors.

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Glossary: Abbreviations and Irish Terms

CBP	Common Basic Principle for Immigrant Integration
CSO	Central Statistics Office
Dáil	Parliament, Lower House
DG	Directorate General
EAL	English as an Additional Language
EEA	European Economic Area
EMN	European Migration Network
ESRI	Economic and Social Research Institute
EU10	EU Member States that acceded in 2004: Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia
EU12	EU Member States that acceded in 2004 and 2007: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia.
EU13	“Old” EU15 Member States excluding Ireland and UK: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden
EIF	European Fund for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals
EPIC Programme	Employment for People from Immigrant Communities
ERF	European Refugee Fund
EU-SILC	EU Survey on Income and Living Conditions
FIS	Family Income Supplement
FLAC	Free Legal advice Centres
Gardaí/Garda Síochána	Police
GNIB	Garda National Immigration Bureau
GUI	Growing Up in Ireland
HRC	Habitual Residency Condition
HSE	Health Service Executive
IBC/05	Irish Born Child Scheme 2005
INIS	Irish Naturalisation and Immigration Service
MIPEX	Migrant Integration Policy Index
NAPS	National Anti-Poverty Strategy
NCPP	National Centre for Partnership and Performance
NERA	National Employment Rights Authority
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIHS	National Intercultural Health Strategy
NPAR	National Action Plan Against Racism
NQAI	National Qualifications Authority of Ireland
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
Oireachtas	Parliament, both houses
OMI	Office of the Minister for Integration
ORAC	Office of the Refugee Applications Commissioner
PISA	OECD Programme for International Student Assessment
PPSN	Personal Public Service Number
QNHS	Quarterly National Household Survey
RAT	Refugee Appeals Tribunal
RIA	Reception and Integration Agency
Seanad Éireann	Parliament, Higher House
SLAN	Survey of Lifestyle, Attitudes and Nutrition
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
VEC	Vocational Education Committee

Executive Summary

Introduction

This Integration Monitor, the first of its kind in Ireland, seeks to measure migrant integration in four life domains – employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. The indicators follow those proposed in the Zaragoza Declaration, which aim to be comparable across EU Member States, based on existing data and focused on outcomes. The indicators are drawn from the latest available large-scale surveys in Ireland, and allow us to compare outcomes for Irish and migrant populations in each domain. This report also contains a special theme: immigrants in the workplace. Given the range of indicators presented here for the first time, particularly on social inclusion, active citizenship and immigrants in the workplace, we hope the Monitor can make a substantial contribution to understanding in the area.

Using nationally representative, comparable indicators means we can generate valid, reliable indicators that allow tracking of change over time, as well as cross-national comparisons. There are also some drawbacks.

First, the use of statistical indicators means that there is little sense of the 'lived experience' of integration in this report.

Second, because of data considerations, groups are often combined to such an extent that variation, particularly within smaller population sub-groups, such as those from outside the EU, is hidden.

Third, reliance on existing data sources, many not specifically intended for measuring immigrants' experiences, poses challenges to represent adequately these experiences.

Finally, some of the observed differences between Irish and non-Irish groups in these indicators are a result of underlying differences between the groups in terms of age, gender, educational background, experience etc. Accounting for this by using statistical models is beyond the scope of this monitor, though these factors are generally noted in the text.

Throughout the report we refer to different groups of EU countries. EU13 refers to the 'Old' Member States, prior to enlargement in 2004, excluding UK and Ireland.¹ EU10 refers to the ten new Member States that joined the EU in 2004.² EU12 includes the EU10 states plus Bulgaria and Romania, which joined the EU in 2007.

Integration Monitor: Key Findings

Employment

The section on employment presents core labour market indicators for the working age population in early 2010: employment, unemployment and activity rates (see Table A).

Overall immigrants have been harder hit by the current recession than Irish nationals – with more job losses and a higher unemployment rate.

However, employment rates were similar among Irish and non-Irish nationals, so immigrants have higher labour market activity rates than the Irish population (smaller share of inactive groups such as students, retired people or people with home duties).

The unemployment rate varies across nationality groups, with the highest unemployment rate among EU10 nationals, followed by UK and non-EU nationals. The unemployment rate is comparatively low among EU13 nationals (EU15 excluding Ireland and the UK).

While for Irish nationals the unemployment rate is much higher among young people, for non-Irish nationals no such age gradient is found. For both Irish and non-Irish groups the unemployment rate is considerably higher for men than for women. This is likely to be the result of job losses in sectors characterised by male employment.

1. EU13: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden.

2. EU10: Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia.

Table A. Key indicators at a glance

	Irish	Non-Irish
1. Employment, Working Age (2010)		
Employment Rate	60.1%	61.0%
Unemployment Rate	12.7%	16.1%
Activity Rate	68.8%	72.7%
2. Education (late 2009)		
Share of 25-34 year olds with tertiary educational attainment	47%	52%
Share of early leavers from education (20-24)	17.3%	15.4%
Mean achievement scores for 15 year olds in mathematics	492	English speakers: 486 Non-native English speakers: 457
3. Social Inclusion (2008)		
Median annual net income (needs adjusted)	€20,897	€18,097
At risk of poverty rate	14.1%	18.4%
Consistent poverty rate	4.3%	2.9%
Share of population (16+) perceiving their health as good or very good	84%	90.7%
Proportion of households that are property owners	80.4%	32.9%
Experience of Discrimination (2004)		
• Accessing services	8.4%	17.2%
• Work-related	6.4%	16.5%
4. Active Citizenship (end 2009)		
Ratio of non-EEA immigrants aged 16+ that have acquired citizenship to all non-EEA immigrants (best estimate)		13%
Ratio of non-EEA immigrants aged 16+ holding long-term residence permits to all non-EEA immigrants (best estimate)		5%
Share of immigrants among elected local representatives		0.2%

Notes: This table summarises data presented in Chapters 2 to 5. The data sources are diverse and vary in quality and coverage. The relevant section of the report should be consulted for further details of measurement and definitions: see also Appendix 2. For information on surveys, see Appendix 4. Note the small sample of non-Irish nationals in the EU-SILC data, used for social inclusion indicators.

Sources: QNHS, Quarter 1 for Employment Indicators; QNHS Quarter 4 for Education, except achievement scores, which are based on PISA data 2009; EU-SILC, 2008 for Social Inclusion indicators, except the experience of discrimination indicators, which are drawn from a special module of the QNHS, 2004; Statistics from the Department of Justice and Law Reform for Active Citizenship, except for estimates of elected representatives, which uses an alternative source. See Appendix 2 for further details of sources.

Education

The first part of this chapter presents educational qualifications among adult immigrants, which are mostly achieved outside Ireland.

Comparing the whole population, non-Irish nationals have considerably higher qualifications than Irish nationals, but this is partly due to the age profile of both groups. When we compare the proportion with tertiary education among 25-34 year olds, the difference between Irish nationals and non-Irish nationals is much smaller, though a somewhat greater proportion of non-Irish nationals have tertiary education. Among 20-24 year olds, a somewhat smaller proportion of non-Irish nationals have left school earlier than Irish nationals (see Table A).

The second part of the chapter presents academic achievement scores of non-Irish children in Irish schools.

The scores from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) study suggest that while *immigrant children from English-speaking backgrounds have scores as high as their Irish peers, those from non-English speaking backgrounds have much lower achievement scores in maths and reading than their Irish peers*. The gap is larger for reading than mathematics (Table A presents the scores for mathematics; reading scores are shown in Chapter 3).

Social Inclusion

Income, poverty, home ownership, health and the experience of discrimination were considered as indicators of social inclusion (see Table A). This is the first time many of these indicators have been presented by nationality in Ireland and so this represents an important first step. However, the sample is small, so there are limits to what differences can be established.

Overall, we find that non-Irish nationals have lower average incomes than Irish nationals. Even adjusting for household needs (number of children and adults in the household) the difference is clear although it is less marked. Among the nationality groups, EU12 nationals are shown to be more disadvantaged than other groups with much lower average income.

Non-Irish nationals have a higher 'at risk of poverty rate' than Irish nationals, though the consistent poverty rate, which takes into account the experience of deprivation as well as income poverty, does not differ significantly from that of Irish nationals.³

Rates of home ownership are much lower among non-Irish than Irish nationals. However, the share of UK nationals with home ownership is similar to that of Irish nationals. This pattern may be related to length of time in the country and age, among other factors.

Non-Irish nationals have better health outcomes. This can be partly explained by their age profile (younger population). Interestingly, the UK group reported poorer health than other immigrants groups or the Irish population. While this may be also linked to their age profile, further analysis and more data are needed to examine health outcomes of the various nationality groups.

Immigrants report higher rates of discrimination than Irish nationals in a range of domains in services, and in work-related domains (see Table A).

Active Citizenship

Three indicators were proposed at the Zaragoza conference to assess active citizenship. These are: the share of immigrants who have acquired citizenship; the share of immigrants holding permanent or long-term residence permits; and the share of immigrants among elected representatives.

Sourcing the data to construct these indicators has been challenging in an Irish context and the results in this domain should be seen as tentative. The first two relate to non-EEA immigrants only.

The ratio of non-EEA immigrants having acquired citizenship at year end 2009 to all non-EEA immigrants is estimated as 13 per cent. This is calculated as the ratio of non-EEA naturalisations in the period 2005-2009 to the estimated stock of non-EEA immigrants resident at year end 2009. The estimate assumes that those naturalised in this period did not leave the state, and also excludes naturalisations pre-2005 as no data are available.

Ireland does not have a statutory long-term residence status, although one is provided for in the Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill, 2010.

Under the current administrative scheme, the ratio of non-EEA nationals holding long-term residence permits to all non-EEA immigrants at year end 2009 is estimated to be five per cent.

Ireland has a more inclusive approach to the political participation of immigrants than many other EU States. Non-Irish nationals

3. The 'at risk of poverty rate', which refers to the percentage of a group falling below 60% of median equalised income, is the official poverty threshold used by the Central Statistics Office and agreed at EU level. Consistent poverty combines being at risk of poverty with experiencing enforced deprivation of two or more of a range of items.

may vote and stand in local elections, though only UK and Irish nationals may vote in general elections, and Irish citizenship is required to stand.

Available data for the latest local elections (June 2009) show that four immigrants were elected, giving a share of less than 0.2 per cent of elected local representatives.

Immigrants in the Workplace

The special focus on immigrants in the workplace in Part 3 suggests that those born outside Ireland have a more challenging labour market experience on a number of key dimensions of job quality and worker well-being.

There are a number of economic sectors in which the proportion of non-Irish nationals employed is substantially greater than the proportion of Irish nationals.

- 16 per cent of non-Irish nationals are employed in the accommodation and food services sector, compared to only 5 per cent of Irish nationals.
- 17 per cent of non-Irish nationals are employed in manufacturing industry, compared to 12 per cent of Irish nationals.
- By contrast, less than one per cent of non-Irish nationals are employed in the public administration, defence and social security sector, which employs six per cent of Irish nationals.

In terms of occupations, immigrants are more concentrated in low occupational categories. However, a considerable share of UK and EU13 nationals are employed as managers/administrators and professionals, while also a marked share of associate professionals are non-EU nationals.

Immigrants are less likely to be in a permanent position and receive less gross earnings than those born in Ireland. Their perceived level of job security and satisfaction with their role is somewhat lower than that of Irish respondents.

Immigrants are more likely to feel overqualified for their jobs.

The finding on over-qualification is consistent with earlier research that finds higher rates of over-qualification among immigrants (Barrett et al. 2006).

Those born in the EU12 have the least satisfactory experiences of the Irish labour market: they are more likely to be on a temporary or casual contract, are less satisfied with their jobs and are less

likely to have received education or training as part of their job. On average they also receive considerably less gross earnings and are more likely to feel that they are over-qualified for their jobs. It can be tentatively concluded that their experience may be partly ascribed to the concentration of EU 12 nationals in occupations which are semi-skilled and unskilled. Those born in Asia and the Middle East also work in less favourable conditions: they are more likely than Irish nationals to be employed part-time, to have lower wages, to be in temporary contracts, feel less secure and to consider that they are overqualified for their current jobs. This pattern may reflect the fact that many of those born in Asia and the Middle East are students working part-time.

To what extent these differences are a result of differences in skills, education and experience between immigrants and those born in Ireland, and to what extent they are a result of their immigrant status would require further investigation, but is certainly a promising avenue for future research in the area.

Policy Issues

The report is primarily concerned with assessing outcomes for immigrants. In Chapter 7 we discuss a number of issues for policy emerging from the analysis of outcomes, including that:

- *Unemployment* is substantially higher among non-Irish nationals.
- *Over-qualification*, particularly of EU12 nationals, remains a cause for concern.
- In the education budget, *cuts for supports to immigrant children* are likely to have damaging long-term consequences.
- The *discretionary nature of the Habitual Residence Condition* for receipt of social welfare and housing benefits results in confusion and insecurity for immigrants.
- In the light of higher rates of reported discrimination in a range of service and work domains, substantial budget *cuts in recent years to a number of organisations charged with combating discrimination* may have negative consequences for integration.
- The degree of *discretion in decisions on both access to citizenship and long-term residence* has negative implications for the integration of non-EEA immigrants in Ireland, as does the length of time taken to process applications for citizenship.

Issues for Future Data Collection

This integration Monitor draws heavily on ongoing large-scale surveys in Ireland, and in Chapter 7 we reflect on the implications of the report for the collection of this data.

Particular concerns were raised about how well both the QNHS and the EU-SILC represent immigrants, particularly the EU-SILC. While they were not designed to survey immigrants, with over 10 per cent of the population from a non-Irish background, it is now time to make identifying and representing immigrants a priority.

We recommend that continued efforts be made to encourage the participation of non-Irish nationals in the EU-SILC and the QNHS. It is suggested that the EU-SILC data could include a weighting factor for non-Irish nationals. In the medium term we propose that ethnicity be measured in the QNHS, the EU-SILC and other large scale surveys, as in the 2006 Census and the Growing Up in Ireland study. This would overcome some of the problems of identifying second-generation immigrants, which is important for monitoring

immigrant integration in the future. Questions on parents' citizenship and citizenship at birth would also address this issue. Given the importance of measuring integration, an ethnic minority boost sample in an ongoing large-scale survey like the QNHS or the EU-SILC should be considered. This would be of considerable benefit to the monitoring exercise in Ireland.

The principal focus of the Monitor is on outcomes. However, where appropriate, issues of access for immigrants in the various domains are discussed in a series of boxes. While previous literature directly relevant to the indicators is referred to in the text, this report does not contain a comprehensive literature review on migrant integration. This particular monitoring exercise will run for four years, producing a report each year. This first edition of the Monitor represents a first attempt at a comprehensive assessment of the current situation of immigrants in Ireland, using available data. Subsequent Monitors will largely replicate this one, for comparison purposes, but will also seek to develop the quality and coverage of indicators.



Chapter 1 Introduction, Policy and Context

1.1 The Challenges of Measuring Integration

1.1.1 Defining Integration

This Monitor aims to measure the integration of immigrants into Ireland in a number of key domains or policy areas - employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship, and do so on an annual basis. As well as presenting key indicators in these domains, the report will have a special theme each year, and this year the focus is on immigrants in the workplace.

In recent years immigrant integration has shifted to the fore of EU policy concerns, accompanied by a focus on monitoring integration. This Monitor is a reflection of that shift. One of the Common Basic Principles for immigrant integration policy is that developing clear indicators is necessary to adjust policy and evaluate progress on integration (see Appendix 1). These indicators should be based on existing and comparable data for most Member States, limited in number, simple to understand and focused on outcomes.⁴ This Monitor follows the recommendations for key indicators, with some adaptations for the Irish case.

What constitutes integration, or the lack of it, is not easy to define. At a very basic level, when immigrants settle in a country they have to acquire a place in that society, both in the physical sense (a home, a job and income, access to educational and health facilities etc.) but also in the social, cultural and political sense. Integration might thus be defined simply as 'the process of becoming an accepted part of society', both as an individual and as a group (Penninx, 2010). Penninx (2010) further argues that there are two parties involved in integration processes: the immigrants, their characteristics, efforts and adaptation, and the receiving society and its reactions to these newcomers. It is the interaction between the two that determines the direction and the ultimate outcome of the integration process. However they are unequal partners: the receiving society, its institutional structure and its reaction is much more decisive for the outcome of the process.

The sentiment is also reflected in the first Common Basic Principle for immigrant integration which describes a widely accepted view that *integration is a two-way process of mutual accommodation involving the immigrants and the receiving society.*

While emphases may vary, there is general agreement among most commentators concerning the broad areas of integration, for example The Integration Centre defines integration to be where immigrants enjoy economic, political, social and cultural equality and inclusion.⁵ The Interdepartmental Group on Refugee Integration in Ireland adopted the following definition in 2001: "Integration means the ability to participate to the extent that a person needs and wishes in all of the major components of society, without having to relinquish his or her own cultural identity (Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, 2001: 42.). Migration Nation (Office of the Minister for Integration, 2008), the policy statement of the Irish Government on integration, did not define integration; however it stated that integration should be part of the Government's overall social cohesion efforts and recognized the importance of outcome indicators.

1.1.2 The Integration Monitor

This Monitor seeks to provide a balanced and rigorous assessment of the extent of integration of immigrants in Ireland using the most up-to-date and reliable indicators available. The framework for that assessment is based on the set of integration indicators proposed at the fourth EU Ministerial Conference on Integration, known as the "Zaragoza indicators".⁶ The monitoring of integration and development of indicators has some parallels with the earlier development of social inclusion indicators at EU level, with some similar issues (see Atkinson et al., 2002 for a discussion of developing social inclusion indicators). Of course, given its complexity as well as its potential for controversy, the monitoring of immigrant indicators presents a number of specific challenges, and these are discussed in Section 1.1.3 below.

As noted in the "Zaragoza Declaration,"⁷ these integration indicators 'refer to a limited number of simple, quantitative elements indicating important developments within vital fields of integration policy (p.12)'. They are presented in Table 1.1. A number of key principles guided the choice of integration indicators, and we discuss the strengths and weaknesses of these in turn.

Firstly, the indicators are focused on outcomes. The logic here is that they are focused on the results of policy and on what it is countries are trying to achieve, rather than a list of inputs and measures. Thus, for example, there are indicators of achieved educational

4. Swedish presidency conference conclusions on indicators and monitoring of the outcome of integration policies and proposed at the ministerial conference in Zaragoza, Spain (European Ministerial Conference on Integration, Zaragoza, April 2010). Hereafter these indicators are referred to as the 'Zaragoza Indicators'. The Common Basic Principles of Integration are listed in Appendix 1.

5. See Integration Centre Business Plan at <http://www.ris.ie/>.

6. EUROSTAT is also conducting a pilot exercise, testing these indicators across the EU where data permit. A report on findings is due in early 2011, with a further report discussing data needs and limitations.

7. <http://www.tt.mtin.es/eu2010/en/noticias/documentos/201004/21-001.pdf>.

outcomes (highest educational attainment, proportion leaving school early) rather than expenditure on education. For each indicator, outcomes for immigrants are compared to the native population. The notable exception to this focus on comparing outcomes is the two indicators concerning citizenship and long-term residence listed in Table 1.1. Arguably they describe the context and opportunities for integration rather than measure empirical outcomes.

Secondly, the indicators are limited in number. Such limitation means that areas of integration that are not easily measured may be excluded. Moreover, constraining indicators to be consistent across countries may miss important variations in what are key policy issues in some countries but not in others. The indicators shown in Table 1.1 cover a broad range of policy areas – employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. The cultural area receives somewhat less prominence. In this Monitor we partly address these limitations by adding some additional indicators for Ireland, and alternative indicators could be included in subsequent years. The Monitor also includes a special theme which varies each year. This allows the investigation of particular themes in more depth than in the core monitor.

Thirdly, the indicators are based on existing and comparable (quantitative) data. This certainly makes them cost effective, as intended, and in principle they are highly comparable, but this approach does have some disadvantages: (i) There is less focus on subjective indicators, like sense of belonging and the experience of discrimination. That said, the Zaragoza Declaration does allow for the use of additional indicators, and in Chapter 4 we present survey data on the subjective experience of discrimination. (ii) This Monitor is not designed to give insights into the lived experience of integration 'on the ground': this is better captured by qualitative work using interviews and case studies and studies of best practice.⁸ While this Monitor measures integration at a national level, it is clear that integration often takes place at a local level and the experience of immigrant groups at local level may differ from what can be observed at national level. (iii) Existing comparable data may not be the best source for measuring immigrants. We reflect on this point further in Section 1.1.3.

Fourthly, the indicators are designed to be comparable across time. The focus is not on comparing the change in an individual's circumstances over time, but on changes for particular groups in the population. This emphasis on change is important for two reasons. One is that from a policy perspective, the direction of

change in indicators is important. The second is that comparing change over time can overcome some of the limitations of the indicators. An indicator might underestimate poverty, but if it does so consistently over time, it will still pick up changes in the proportion of an immigrant group in poverty.

Finally, the indicators should be simple to understand, transparent and accessible. Having indicators based on familiar concepts like unemployment and poverty means that they should have resonance for both policy makers and the general public. The transparency requirement also means they need to be defined carefully (see Appendix Table A2.1 for definitions). The publication and dissemination of a report such as this should increase the accessibility of these indicators, at least in Ireland.

The clear focus on outcomes distinguishes this Monitor from other monitoring frameworks, for example that discussed by the Migration Policy Group (2009). Here the focus is on five main indicators in an evaluation chain: 1. Policies; 2. Inputs (resources); 3. Outputs (practices); 4. Outcomes; and 5. Impact(s) of those measures. The first groups of indicators (1-3) are called process indicators while the second group (4-5) is referred to as result indicators: the framework emphasises that links should be examined, if possible, between process indicators and result indicators to verify if the policies and actions indeed produced the results in question (Migration Policy Group, 2009).

Rather than covering the 5 types of indicators, the Zaragoza Declaration indicators focus on outcomes. However, there is not always a clear link between specific policies and outcomes, and it is very difficult in this sort of monitoring exercise to isolate particular policies that may be having an effect. Further investigation into the underlying mechanisms that have produced the outcomes is often warranted, for example using multivariate statistical models. That said, policy forms the context for those outcomes, and will be discussed briefly in this report, mainly in the access boxes. These boxes are not intended as a statement of entitlements, and readers should refer to relevant official bodies for further information: additional sources of information are also noted in the boxes. Some policy issues will be also listed at the end of the report where outcomes seem to suggest the need for reviewing existing policies.

The following indicators are contained in this monitor, drawing on those proposed at Zaragoza:

8. Examples of such studies include: *In the Front Line of Integration: Young People Managing Migration to Ireland* by Trinity Immigration Initiative and *Getting on: From Migration to Integration – Chinese, Indian, Lithuanian and Nigerian's Migrant Experience in Ireland* by The Migration and Citizenship Initiative (commissioned by The Immigrant Council of Ireland).

Table 1.1 Outline of core indicators, broadly equivalent to those proposed at Zaragoza

1. Employment
Employment Rate
Unemployment Rate
Activity Rate
2. Education
Highest educational attainment
Share of 25-34 year olds with tertiary educational attainment
Share of early leavers from education (20-24)
Mean reading and mathematics scores for 15 year olds
3. Social Inclusion
Median net income (household income and equivalised income)
At risk of poverty rate
Share of population perceiving their health status as good or very good
Ratio of property owners to non property owners among immigrants and the total population
4. Active Citizenship
Share of immigrants that have acquired citizenship (best estimate)
Share of immigrants holding permanent or long-term residence permits
Share of immigrants among elected local representatives

Notes: Table A2.1 gives details of definitions, and also shows indicators not in the core Monitor but included in this report. In some instances the indicators are slightly different because of data constraints, but this is also noted in Appendix Table A2.1.

The core indicators, which are broadly equivalent to those discussed in the Zaragoza Declaration, are presented in Table 1.1. The employment indicators include: the employment rate, the unemployment rate and the labour force activity rate. Education indicators are: highest educational attainment; the share of 25-34 years olds with tertiary educational attainment; the share of early leavers from education and training and mean reading and mathematics scores for 15 year olds. Social inclusion indicators are: median net income; the 'at risk of poverty' rate; the share of the population perceiving their health status as good or very good and the ratio of property owners to non-property owners among immigrants and the total population. Active citizenship indicators are the share of immigrants that have acquired citizenship; the share of immigrants holding long-term residence and the share of immigrants among elected representatives. Table A2.1 gives details on how exactly these indicators are measured.

In addition to these core indicators, this Monitor includes a number of additional indicators in some domains. In employment, these include the self-employment rate and proportions of each group who work unsocial hours; in education, mean reading and mathematics scores for primary school (younger) children; in social inclusion, consistent poverty rates and self-reported discrimination. Each annual Monitor also includes a different special thematic focus. This year the focus is on immigrants in the workplace and this includes an additional set of employment indicators.

1.1.3 Challenges and Limitations of Monitoring Outcomes Among Immigrants

Attempting to monitor outcomes among migrants is faced with particular challenges, related to the use of survey data, the issue of how immigrants are defined, shifting populations and monitoring change over time.

Aside from the active citizenship indicators, most of the indicators here draw on survey data. Survey data need to be scrutinised as to how effectively data is collected on immigrants. One key concern is their representativeness, and the fact that certain groups tend to be underrepresented in national survey data, due to, for example, poor language skills. A second issue is that some groups cannot be identified using standard social surveys. For example, naturalised citizens cannot be identified in current survey data in Ireland: more detailed questions on citizenship and when it was acquired would need to be included to identify them and distinguish them from Irish nationals born abroad. A third issue is that small numbers in particular groups may mean they need to be combined to larger nationality groups, thus losing detail and nuance about the experience of one particular nationality. The indicators in this report are intended to provide a broad overview and this is at the expense of detail on individual groups. Some issues of representativeness are considered in more detail in Appendix 4.

A second challenge is how to define immigrants and which groups to include. Note that while much EU policy focus is on Member States' approaches to non-EU immigrants in Ireland, two thirds of non-Irish nationals are from within the EU. EU nationals will be included in all the indicators, though distinguished from non-EU nationals. Among EU nationals in Ireland, previous research has indicated that the experience of UK nationals differs from other EU nationals, so these are distinguished separately, where possible, as are EU13 nationals (Old EU) and EU10 or EU12 nationals, (referring to the EU Member States that acceded in 2004 and 2007).⁹ Full details of which countries are in which group are also in the Glossary. In the special theme, immigrants in the workplace (Part 3), non-EU immigrants are further divided into the following groups: Settler Countries (including North America, Australia and New Zealand); Asia and the Middle East; and Africa. The general definition of immigrants, is primarily based on nationality, though in some instances relies on place of birth (e.g. for Part 3). This

8. EU13 is EU15 excluding UK and Ireland, that is nationals from Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden; EU10 nationals of Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia). EU12 includes Romania and Bulgaria in this group.

definition misses second-generation immigrants and naturalised citizens, who are typically not identified using general social surveys, as noted above. However, as most immigration into Ireland is relatively recent, the numbers are not large. In general there are no breakdowns by ethnicity for the core integration indicators, as the main social surveys do not collect information on respondents' ethnicity.¹⁰

A third challenge with monitoring the situation of immigrants is the shifting populations each year, so that the year-on-year comparisons are not of the same groups. Thus immigration policy and migration flows are very important – these are discussed in the next section. There is also a notable absence of longitudinal surveys in Ireland, either specific surveys of migrants or general population surveys with a sufficient sample of migrants to permit tracking of individuals, like the German Socio-Economic Panel Survey.¹¹ Following individuals would allow analysts to monitor individuals' outcomes over time, avoiding some of the problems of the changing composition of migrant groups.

While tracking individuals at a national level is not feasible, what may be worth considering for future monitors is to distinguish integration outcomes by how long an immigrant has been resident in the country. For example, comparing employment rates between those living in Ireland for: less than 5 years, 5-10 years and 10 plus years. This has not been done in the current monitor. One complication in the Irish context is that because significant immigration to Ireland has been relatively recent, many immigrants living here longer than 10 years are UK nationals (See Appendix 4, Table A4.2), so this analysis might confound nationality and duration effects.

1.2 Overview of Main Trends in Migration in Ireland

In the last two decades Ireland has experienced major migration-related change. A long history of net emigration was turned around in the mid-1990s as rapid economic growth attracted economic immigrants in increasing numbers. The number of applicants for international protection (including asylum) coming to Ireland also increased dramatically in the late 1990s, peaked in 2002 and has fallen steadily since.

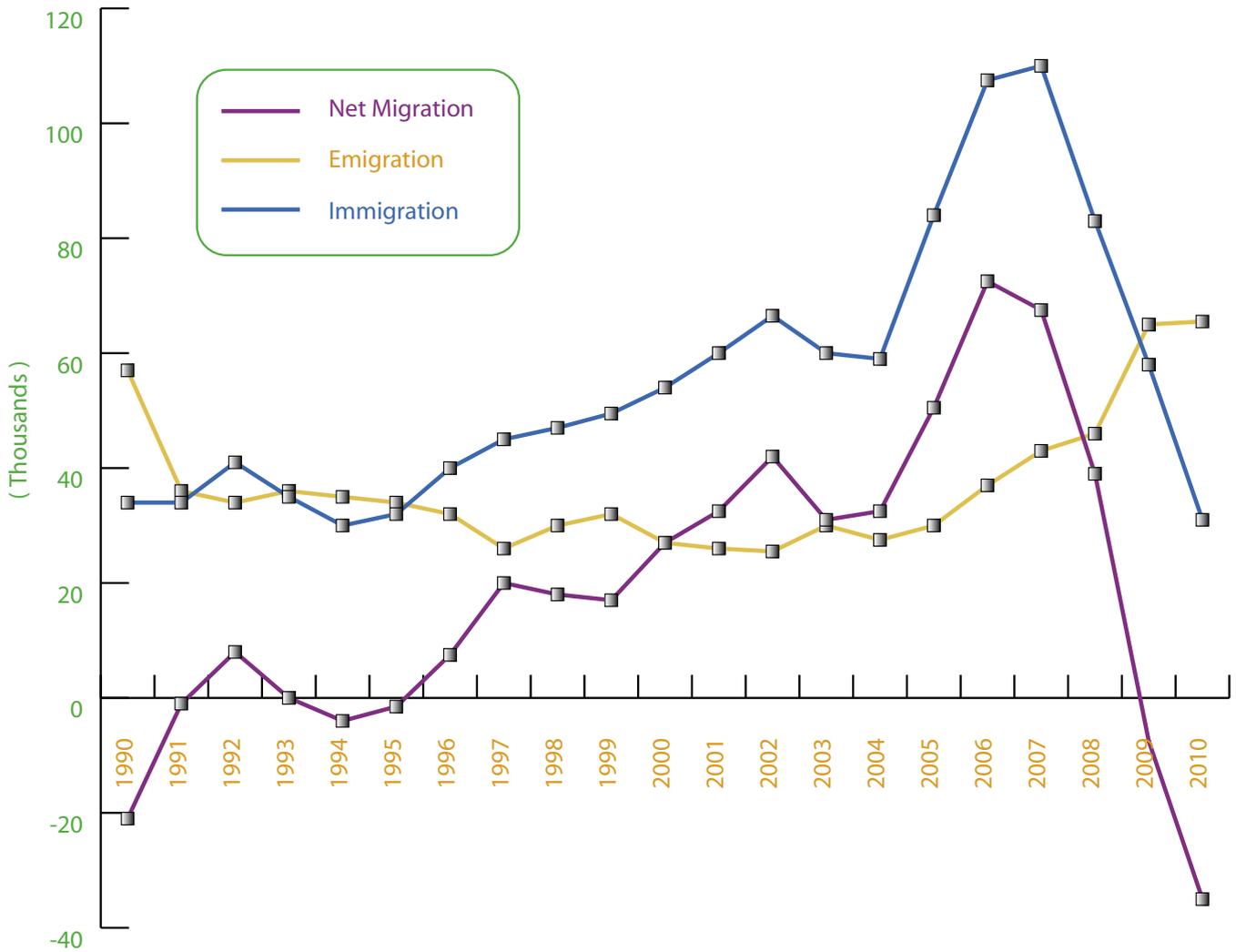
The EU enlargement in 2004¹² was a very significant event in recent Irish migration history, partly as a result of Ireland's decision to allow full access to domestic labour markets to EU10 nationals. Only Ireland, the UK and Sweden adopted this policy. Net immigration reached new levels after 2004 and inflows were heavily dominated by EU25/27 nationals from 2005 to 2009 (see Figure 1.2). The Irish Department of Social and Family Affairs issues Personal Public Service Numbers (PPSN) which are necessary for employment and for accessing social welfare. The number of such PPSNs issued to non-Irish nationals aged 15 and over increased from 74,717 in 2003 to 203,927 in 2006, and then fell to 127,695 in 2008. The substantial increase in allocations and the more recent decline has been largely driven by the migration patterns of EU12 nationals. The number of PPSNs issued to EU12 nationals aged 15 and over increased twelve fold between 2003 and 2006 (CSO, 2009a).

10. There are two exceptions to this. In Section 1.3, data from the 2006 Census are used to discuss the proportion of each ethnic group in Ireland. In Chapter 4, there is some discussion of ethnicity in Section 4.4.2, which discusses the experience of racism using a survey of work permit holders and asylum seekers from 2005.

11. An exception to this is the SCIP project, a large-scale longitudinal survey of Polish migrants to Ireland (www.tcd.ie/immigration/scip.php).

12. Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia joined the EU in 2004. Bulgaria and Romania joined in 2007.

Figure 1.1 Immigration, emigration and net migration 1990-2010



Source: CSO, Population and Migration Estimates, Various releases

Economic conditions began to change significantly in 2007. The global financial crisis contributed to domestic problems and ultimately to a collapse of the inflated Irish property market. This fundamentally undermined the main Irish banks and contributed to a fiscal crisis of the State, whose revenues had become overly dependent upon property transaction taxes. In 2008 the overall contraction of the economy subsequently stalled the employment growth and a rapid reverse trend was observed. In 2009 Irish Gross National Product and employment both contracted by over 8 per cent. The recession and financial crisis have also led to a very rapid deterioration in the public finances and a dramatic shortfall of government revenue over expenditure (Joyce, 2010).

Reflecting the changing trends in the labour market, the number of immigrants arriving in Ireland dropped between 2007 and 2010 by over 70 per cent. As Figure 1.1 shows the latest phase in Irish migration history has been marked by a return to net emigration. In the year to April 2010 net emigration reached -34,500, a figure not seen since the late 1980s.

Given that immigrants with different nationalities have varying rights and entitlements, the nationality breakdown of the inflow is particularly relevant to the current discussion on integration. During the 1990s the flow of immigrants was dominated by returning Irish (55 per cent of the immigrant flow was made up of

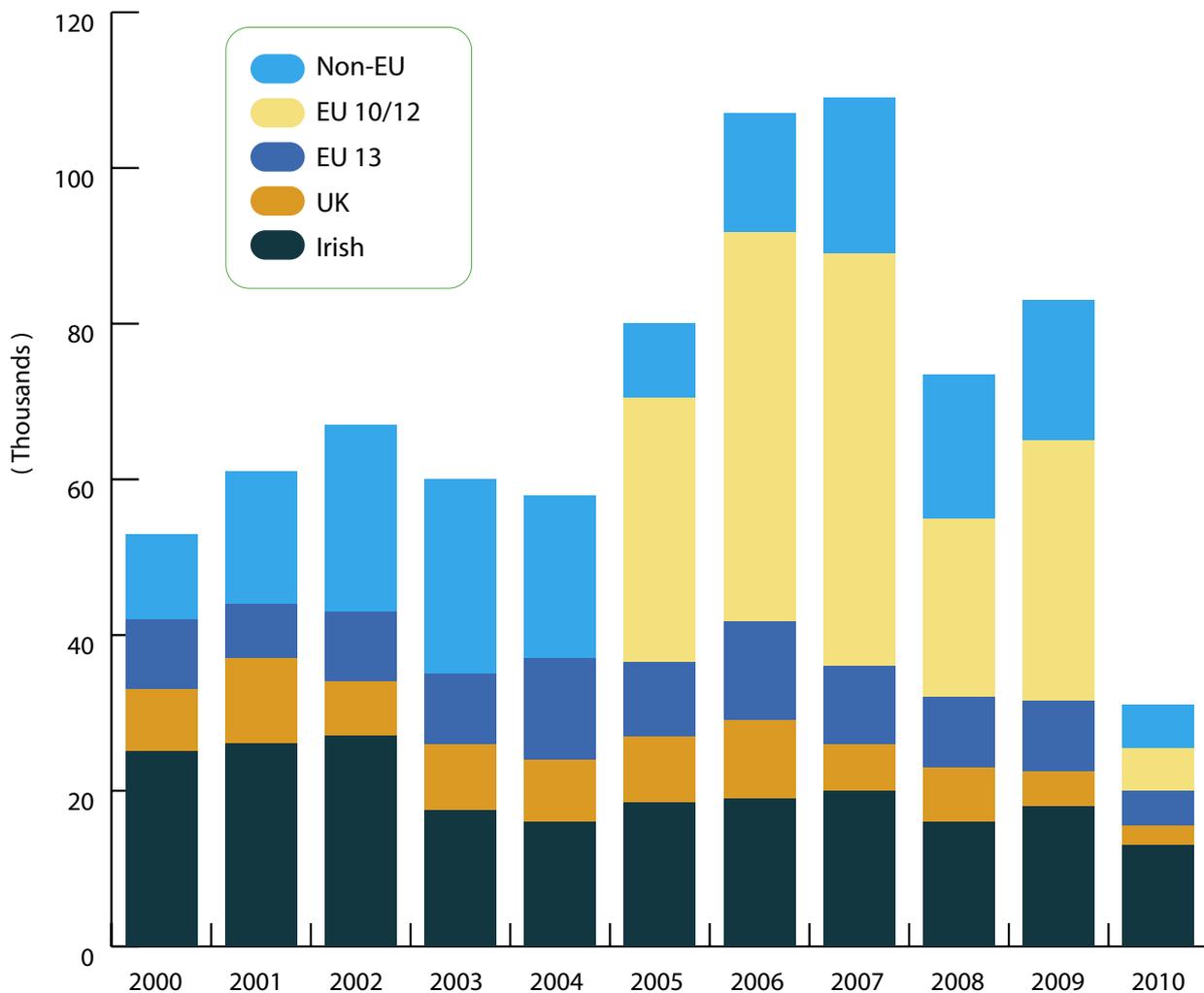
Irish nationals in 1999).

Figure 1.2 shows the nationality of groups of immigrants to Ireland between 2000 and 2010. By 2003 the proportion of Irish immigrants had fallen to 29 per cent and non-EU immigrants made up over 40 per cent of the flow. After the 2004 enlargement a substantial part of non-EU immigration flows converted to EU flows and between 2005 and 2008 more than 40 per cent of the immigration flow was made up of nationals of the EU States that acceded in 2004

and 2006. The share of EU12 nationals has declined since 2007 to represent 19 per cent in 2010.

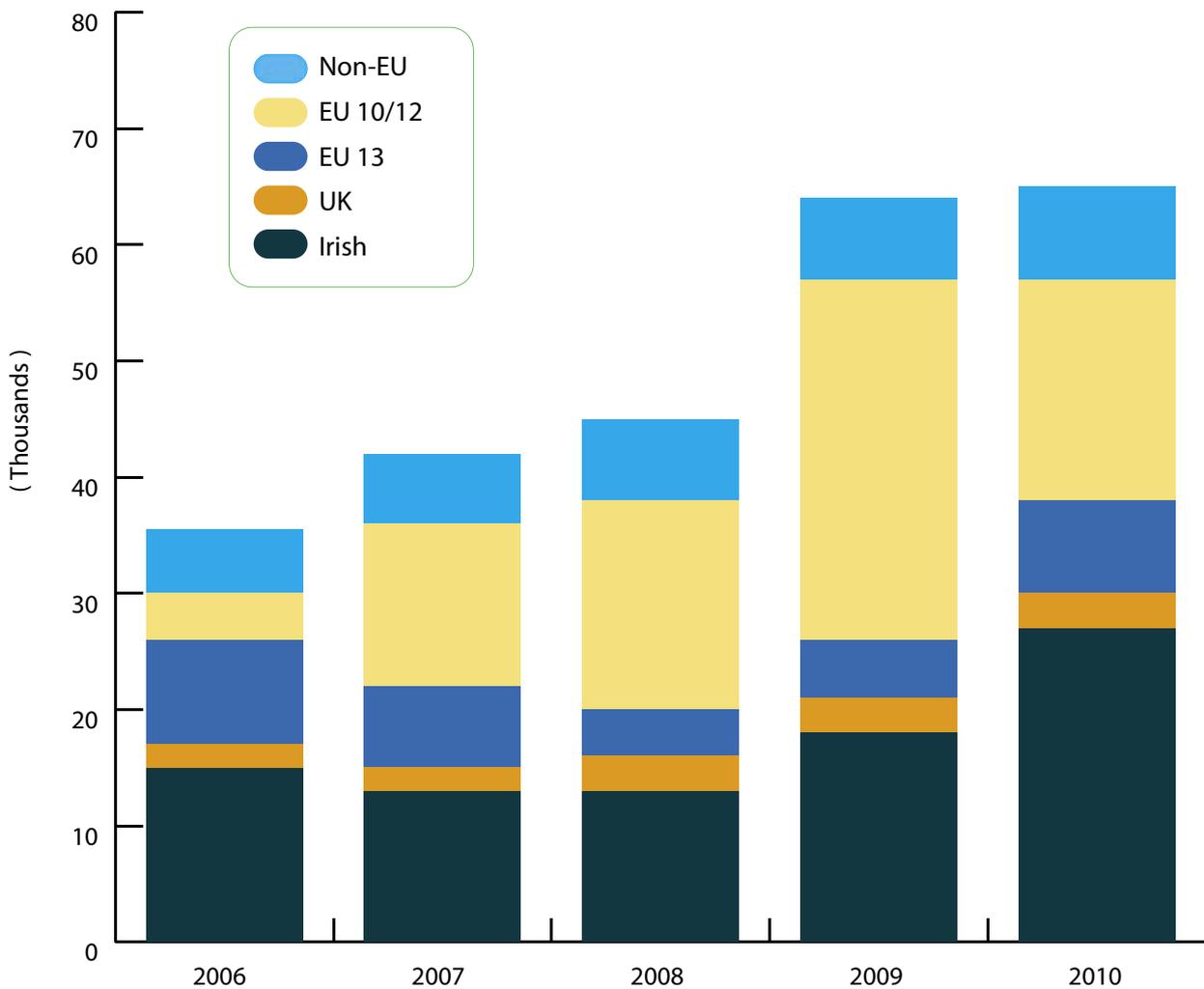
As mentioned above the latest phase of net emigration has been precipitated by the severe economic downturn. Emigration flows increased by over 80 per cent between 2006 and 2010. EU12 nationals showed the largest increase in emigration in the period. In the year to April 2009 EU12 nationals represented 46 per cent of emigrants. By the following year their share had fallen to 29 per

Figure 1.2 Nationality breakdown of immigration flows 2000 - 2010*



* Notes: Year to April of reference year. Prior to 2005 EU 10/12 are included in non-EU category.
Source: CSO, Population and Migration Estimates, Various releases.

Figure 1.3 Nationality breakdown of emigration flows 2006 - 2010*



* Notes: Year to April of reference year
 Source: CSO, Population and Migration Estimates, 2010

cent and Irish emigrants represented 42 per cent of the flow (see Figure 1.3). Barrett et al (2011) forecast that net outward migration will be 100,000 over the two year period April 2010 to April 2012. The Central Statistics Office has undertaken an analysis of Personal Public Service Number (PPSN) allocations and employer end-of-year (P45) returns to the Revenue Commissioners for non-Irish nationals, which indicates the extent to which those allocated PPS numbers took up and retained insurable employment over time. A pattern of declining employment participation over time can be identified, but the rate of decline appears to level off after about four years.¹³ The analysis showed that 68 per cent of non-Irish nationals allocated a PPSN in 2004 had employment activity in the year of arrival, but only 40 per cent showed employment activity in 2008 (O'Connell and Joyce, 2009).

There are interesting differences found between varying national groups. Among EU12 nationals the employment level starts very

high and then drops off. Of those who were allocated a PPSN in the 2004 cohort, 79 per cent had employment in the year of arrival, falling to 51 per cent by 2008. For the EU13 the drop-off rate was very steep: 72 per cent had employment in that year, falling to 12 per cent in 2008. Within the non-EU group, employment levels start much lower but do not fall as steeply: of those who arrived in 2004, 58 per cent had employment in the year of arrival, and this fell to 43 per cent in 2008. This reflects the fact that mobility is more restricted for non-EU immigrants (as a result of high travel costs and immigration requirements) and the fact that the residence permission of those immigrants who come to Ireland to work is often dependent on employment status.

Although somewhat out of date, Census 2006 remains the only source of detailed information on the number and composition of non-Irish nationals in Ireland. The majority of non-Irish nationals who were living in Ireland (65.7 per cent) in 2006 were EU nationals

13. Some PPSN holders may have become unemployed but it is likely that the majority left the State.

but a significant minority (33.7 per cent or 141,600 people) held non-EU nationality.

Census 2006 indicated that the majority of non-Irish nationals usually resident in Ireland are in the 25-44 age group (52 per cent). Non-Irish nationals also have a slightly higher representation in the 15-24 age group than Irish nationals (18 per cent and 15 per cent respectively).

Irish nationals tend to be quite homogeneous in terms of religion: the vast majority enumerated identified themselves as Catholic. Non-Irish nationals are much more religiously diverse: just over half are Catholic, 11 per cent are Church of Ireland, Protestant, Presbyterian, or Methodist, and 5 per cent are Muslim. A much higher percentage of non-Irish than Irish nationals claim to have no religion (16 per cent and 3 per cent respectively).

Ireland is still quite an ethnically homogenous country. Almost 95 percent of those who answered the nationality question indicated their ethnicity was White, while Black, Asian and other ethnicities accounted for just one per cent each. Of the respondents of Irish nationality, 98 per cent identified their own ethnicity as White, while this was the case only for 71 per cent of non-Irish respondents. Census data indicate that this situation may be changing, for example 28 per cent of people of Black ethnicity enumerated indicated that they had been born in Ireland.

The vast majority of non-Irish nationals in Ireland are however first-generation, i.e. were born outside of the country. Census 2006 indicated that just 5 per cent of non-Irish nationals enumerated were born in Ireland. Again there are signs that this may change: Census data showed that the number of mixed nationality families i.e. families containing Irish and non-Irish nationals increased from 70,721 in 2002 to 95,636 in 2006. The number of families containing only persons with non-Irish nationality increased from 20,187 to 50,655 in the same period.

1.3 Overview of Irish Migration Policy and Legislation

This section presents an overview of Irish migration policy and legislation. As this is the first Integration Monitor, quite detailed contextual material is included here, that may not be repeated in subsequent Monitors.

Until recently the basic legislation governing the entry and residence of non-Irish nationals in Ireland was the Aliens Act 1935 and the Aliens Order 1946, as amended. In addition the Regulations implementing the European Union Rights of Residence Directives

came into effect after Ireland joined the European Economic Community in 1973.

In more recent years a variety of legislative measures have been introduced to deal with immigration and asylum issues emerging in Ireland including the Refugee Act 1996 and the Immigration Acts 1999, 2003 and 2004. It can be argued that the updating of Irish immigration and asylum law and policy to the present time has been piecemeal, reacting to specific problems as they arise. The main legislative measures relevant to immigration, asylum and integration are shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Summary of the main immigration, asylum and integration-related legislative instruments in Ireland (primary domestic legislation only).

Aliens Act, 1935
Irish Nationality and Citizenship Acts 1956, 1986, 1994, 2001 and 2004
The Prohibition of Incitement to Hatred Act, 1989
Refugee Act (As Amended), 1996
Employment Equality Act, 1998
Equal Status Act, 2000
Employment Permits Act, 2003, 2006
Equality Act, 2004
Immigration Act, 1999
Illegal Immigrants (Trafficking) Act, 2000
Immigration Act, 2003
Immigration Act, 2004
Criminal Law (Human Trafficking) Act, 2008
(Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill, 2010)*

* Notes: Not enacted

Most immigration-related services in Ireland remain on an administrative rather than a legislative basis. Irish immigration policy is unusual within Europe in that European legislation has had a fairly limited impact since Ireland, along with the UK and Denmark, may opt out of EU legal instruments on immigration and asylum.¹⁴ While Ireland has participated in a number of significant asylum-related instruments this is not the case regarding immigration related measures.¹⁵ Irish immigration policy is instead strongly influenced by the Common Travel Area shared with the UK.¹⁶ Unlike the other 25 EU member states Ireland and the UK are not "Schengen states" and have chosen to maintain border controls with the rest of the EU.

14. The terms of the Protocol on the position of the United Kingdom and Ireland, which are annexed to the Treaty on European Union and to the Treaty establishing the European Community, give Ireland some flexibility in participation in certain asylum and immigration-related measures. Ireland does not take part in the adoption by the Council of proposed measures pursuant to Title IV of the EC Treaty (under which most asylum and immigration-related measures fall) unless Ireland opts into the measure. Ireland has given an undertaking to participate in all measures that do not compromise the Common Travel Area shared with the UK.

15. Irish asylum law is currently based on the 1996 Refugee Act as amended, and S.I. No. 518 of 2006 which seeks to implement EU Directive 2004/83/EC ("The Qualification Directive"). Other significant EU instruments impacting on Irish asylum law are Directive 2001/55/EC ("The Temporary Protection Directive"), Regulation (EC) No. 343/2003 ("The Dublin Regulation"), Directive 2005/85/EC ("The Procedures Directive") and Regulation (EC) No. 2725/2000 (EURODAC), each of which Ireland has opted into.

16. The Common Travel Area (CTA) arrangement with the UK also includes the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man.

In April 2007 an Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill was published, which attempted to codify many of the disparate instruments and administrative practices in order to present coherent managed immigration policies. The Bill fell with the General Election and change of government in June 2007. A new Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill was published in January 2008. The 2008 Bill was subsequently withdrawn due in part to the several hundred amendments proposed by the opposition parties. A consolidated 2010 Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill has since been introduced though not yet passed.

The Bill proposes wide ranging changes to immigration processes such as visa applications and would establish a long-term residence status on a statutory footing for the first time. Regarding protection-related changes, a single application procedure would be introduced. This means protection applicants would be required to set out all of the grounds on which they wish to remain in the State (including non-protection-related reasons for permission to remain) at the outset of their claim, and all of these matters would be examined together. Among the more controversial aspects of the Bill are new provisions regarding forced removal, whereby an immigration officer would be able to forcibly remove a person they are satisfied is “unlawfully present” in the State.¹⁷

Immigrants to Ireland may be divided into those who travel for economic reasons and those who travel for other reasons. Four main groups of immigrants are labour migrants, students, family members and protection (including asylum) applicants. General information on these immigrant groups in Ireland and the main relevant policy to each is provided below. Where possible an indication is given of the size of each group however due to the freedom of movement of EU nationals within the EU, data are often only available on the movements of non-EU immigrants. A more detailed discussion on policy as it relates to the access of immigrants to employment, education, social welfare, citizenship and voting will be discussed in the access boxes below (see Boxes 1.1 to 5.3).

1.3.1 Labour Migrants

The improved economic conditions in Ireland in the early 2000s created increasing demand for both labour and skills. Prior to 2004 the majority of labour migrants in Ireland were non-EEA work permit holders and at first their numbers were relatively low. Typically work permits were issued in lower skilled occupations in sectors such as catering, other services and agriculture. The

number of work permits issued increased dramatically from 6,262 in 1999 to 47,551 in 2003, a more than seven-fold increase. In 2000, a work visa and work authorisation programme was introduced to facilitate the recruitment of highly skilled non-EU nationals. However it was in 2003 that managed Irish labour migration policy began to emerge more clearly with the passing of the Employment Permits Act 2003, which put the Irish employment permits system on a statutory footing for the first time.

The overriding policy, which remains in place today, is to source all but the most highly skilled and/or hard to find workers from within the EEA. This is evident in the drop in work permits issued post 2004 enlargement. Only the UK, Sweden and Ireland granted EU10 nationals unrestricted access to its labour market immediately upon enlargement in 2004, all other Member States imposed restrictions. A habitual residency condition on social welfare payments was introduced prior to the 2004 enlargement (discussed further in Box 4.1) which was designed to restrict access to social assistance and Child Benefit payments for people from other countries who have little or no connection with Ireland.¹⁸ There is a substantial subjective element in assessing the HRC (discussed further in Box 4.1) with the result that there are variations across regions in terms of access to social welfare.

As discussed above the 2004 EU enlargement marked the start of a period of unprecedented rates of immigration to Ireland. The magnitude of the flow from EU10 states resulted in the Irish government seeking to exercise greater control over non-EEA labour migration. Ireland chose to maintain a work permit requirement for Romanian and Bulgarian nationals post accession to the EU in 2007. This policy reflects the changed economic conditions as well as concerns regarding the Common Travel Area Ireland shares with the UK (the UK also imposes restrictions on Romanian and Bulgarian workers). This position will be reviewed in 2011.

In January 2007 a new employment permits system was adopted with the objectives of further restricting lower skilled work permit allocations while attempting to increase Ireland’s attractiveness to highly skilled non-EEA workers (discussed in Box 2.1). The new system was based on recommendations from a study by the Expert Group on Future Skills Needs entitled *Skills Needs in the Irish Economy: The Role of Migration* (2005).¹⁹ *The National Skills Strategy* (2007) sets out the objective of creating a knowledge economy in Ireland which by its nature is dependent on a strong supply of scientists, engineers and technologists.²⁰

17. *Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill 2010 Dáil Éireann Second Stage Speech by Mr Dermot Ahern TD, Minister for Justice and Law Reform 6 October 2010. Available at <http://www.justice.ie/>.*

18. *Department of Social Protection, 2nd March 2004. Press Release “Mary Coughlan Minister For Social And Family Affairs Announces Restrictions On Access To Social Welfare”.*

19. *Among the key findings of this study were that a sufficient pool of potential migrant labour exists within the EEA to meet Ireland’s labour requirements at the lower end of the skills continuum; the pool of labour available from within the EEA region which is likely to migrate to Ireland contracts significantly at the higher end of the skills continuum; and that Ireland must compete for highly skilled migrants.*

20. *This policy document draws on Ahead of the Curve - Ireland’s Place in the Global Economy by the Enterprise Strategy Group which emphasised a shift towards services as a major driver of GDP and stressed the roles that knowledge-based industries and innovation would play in driving growth.*

As employment contracted in 2009, a total of 3,633 new employment permits were issued to non-EEA nationals representing a reduction of 57 per cent since 2008 and 60 per cent since 2007. The decline was in evidence across all type of permits and the number of new green cards issued has declined by 77 per cent in the same period. (Expert Group on Future Skills Needs, 2010). Immigration registration certificates or “stamps” are issued by the Garda National Immigration Bureau (GNIB). Table A3.1 in Appendix 3 shows the various categories in which such stamps were issued in 2009. There were almost 23,500 “live” registration stamps held by non-EEA nationals with an employment permit in 2009 (Stamp 1). Labour migrants also include non-EEA nationals who register as students (see below) or who hold an alternative immigration registration that allows them to work without a permit as well as EEA nationals.

In July 2009 significant restrictions were enacted which affected new work permit holders and their spouses and dependants wishing to obtain permission to work (discussed in Box 2.1). Other recent policy measures have responded to the situation of migrant workers already in Ireland given the changed economic conditions. Since August 2009 work permit holders who have been made redundant may remain in Ireland for up to six months to look for employment. Any new job offer will not be subject to a labour market needs test. These changes reflect the need to restrict further labour immigration given the high unemployment in Ireland as well as the necessity of showing some flexibility towards immigrants already in Ireland who have lost their jobs in the crisis.

1.3.2 Students

A significant number of non-EEA students travel to Ireland, many of whom undertake English language study. Just over 45,500 students registered with the Garda National Immigration Bureau in 2009. Such students are issued a Stamp 2 or 2A in their passports. As reported in Table A3.1 in Appendix 3, their number has increased in recent years and at 45,500 registrations in 2009 this was the second largest category of registrations following Stamp 4 which is issued to people who are permitted to work without needing an employment permit. The number of Stamp 2 registrations issued in 2009 was almost twice the number of Stamp 1 registrations which are issued to employment permit holders. In addition to these large numbers of non-EEA students there is a sizeable group of EU students in Ireland. Analysis of data collected on international students studying in 51 Higher Education Institutions in Ireland during the 2009/10 academic year indicated that 36 per cent of international students are from EU countries (Education Ireland, 2010).

International students from within the EEA are free to access the Irish labour market with the exception of Romanian and Bulgarian nationals who are currently treated as non-EEA students. Certain non-EEA students who are pursuing courses which are of at least

one year’s duration and which lead to a ‘recognised qualification’ may also access the Irish labour market. In 2009, 92 per cent of GNIB stamps issued to students carried with them entitlements to work under certain conditions therefore this group provides a significant supply of potential labour. In addition the Third Level Graduate Scheme introduced in 2007 means that non-EEA students who have graduated from an Irish third-level educational institution may be permitted to remain in Ireland for six months to find employment and apply for a work permit or green card permit.²¹ During this 6-month period they may work full time. A review of non-EEA student immigration was announced in 2009. It was proposed that the amount of time a non-EEA student should spend in Ireland should be capped and that a two-tier system for students be created (Tier 1 reserved for degree level and above, Tier 2 for English language and further education sectors).

1.3.3 Family Members

Reliable estimates of the number of dependants of non-EU nationals who come to Ireland to join family members are not readily available. These immigrants are registered in the large and diverse Stamp 4 category as well as Stamp 4 EUFAM. See Table A3.1. Recognised refugees may apply for family reunification under the Refugee Act, 1996 and during 2009, 731 applications for family reunifications were approved (Joyce, 2010).

There has been significant case law and parliamentary discussion on the right of residence for third-country non-EU spouses of EU citizens residing in Ireland in recent years. The European Communities (Free Movement of Persons) (No. 2) Regulations 2006 transposes EU Directive 2004/38/EC on the rights of EU citizens and their family members (regardless of nationality) to move and reside freely within the territory of the member states into Irish law. In order to benefit from the Regulations in Ireland it used to be a requirement that the family member must be arriving from another EU state where he or she was legally resident. During 2008 several cases concerning third-country national spouses of an EU citizen residing in Ireland were taken to the European Court of Justice (ECJ) (headed by the *Metock* case²²). The ECJ found that the Irish Government should not prevent third-country spouses of EU citizens from living in Ireland on the basis of not having prior lawful residence in a Member State and that residency rights should be provided to the significant numbers of non-EU national spouses who had been served with ‘intent to deport’ notices. Table A3.1 shows the number of EUFam registration stamps has increased significantly in recent years, to reach 5,200 in 2009.

1.3.4 Protection (Including Asylum) and Leave to Remain

The number of new asylum applications made in Ireland was very low prior to 1992. The next ten years saw a significant increase in applications. In 2000 the number of applicants was almost 11,000 having increased more than nine-fold from 1,200 in 1996. The flow

21. Students must have graduated with a qualification from level 7-10 on the National Framework of Qualifications. See www.nqai.ie for details of the Framework.

22. Case C-127/08-*Metock and Ors v Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform*, Unreported, European Court of Justice, 25/07/2008; Unreported, High Court, *Finlay Geoghegan J.*, 14/03/2008.

peaked in 2002 at 11,600. Since 2002 the number of asylum seekers has been declining steadily to reach 2,689 in 2009.

A person seeking international protection in Ireland must first seek a declaration of refugee status from the Office of the Refugee Applications Commissioner (ORAC). If the decision is negative it may then be appealed to the Refugee Appeals Tribunal (RAT). It is only if the appeal is refused that an applicant may seek subsidiary protection. Of 3,908 cases finalised by ORAC in 2009, 97 resulted in recommendations to grant refugee status (Office of the Refugee Applications Commissioner, 2010). The Refugee Appeals Tribunal processed 3,586 appeals in the same period of which 268 resulted in a recommendation to set aside a negative determination by ORAC (O'Connell and Joyce, forthcoming). Some 2,089 applications for subsidiary protection in the State were made during 2009. Of these, 24 cases had been granted subsidiary protection status by year end, with 653 refusals (Joyce, 2010). UNHCR data indicate that in 2009 there were 9,571 refugees living in Ireland.²³

Although measures have been taken to reduce the length of time spent in the asylum process there are a number of features of the Irish protection system that have the effect of resulting in a large group of individuals whose status is pending and/or insecure. As noted Ireland does not yet have a single procedure process for protection claims although this is proposed under the published Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill, 2010. This inevitably increases the length of time applicants must wait for a decision, often within the direct provision system.

In the event of refusal of a subsidiary protection claim, the Minister for Justice and Law Reform proceeds to consider whether to make a deportation order or to grant Leave to Remain. While the rights of refugees and those who qualify for subsidiary protection are set out in legislation, the lesser rights of those with leave to remain are not and each case is considered individually. In the years between 1999 and 2009 there have been 3,619 applications for leave to remain granted under Section 3 of the Immigration Act 1999. In December 2009 over 12,000 applications had yet to be decided (Stanley, Joyce and Quinn, 2010). Furthermore certain key decisions or actions taken in the asylum and deportation process may only be appealed to the High Court by way of judicial review resulting in lengthy delays for the applicant and the State.

Immigrants with protection claims pending or legal immigration status unclear officially fall outside the scope of integration policy and may face significant challenges integrating in the future, especially if they have spent long periods in the direct provision accommodation system.²⁴ Protection applicants may not work in Ireland. In May 2010 there were just over 6,000 residents in direct provision centres in Ireland with an additional 300 housed in self-catering facilities managed by the Reception and Integration Agency (Reception and Integration Agency, May 2010.) FLAC

(2009a) found that of the 6,640 residents in direct provision centres in October 2009, 32 per cent had lived in direct provision accommodation for more than three years; and 19 per cent had lived in the system for between two and three years. Residents receive food, accommodation and a payment of €19.10 plus €9.60 per child per week. This payment has not been changed since its introduction in 1999. FLAC (the Free Legal Advice Centre) argues that as a result residents live in impoverished and isolated conditions. Akidwa (2010) found that asylum seeking women faced particular problems in direct provision centres. Some of the major issues identified in the research including parenting in direct provision, safety and security, privacy concerns and the impact of direct provision on their own health and well-being and that of their children.

Qualitative research indicates that people with refugee status or other forms of protection face significant integration-related challenges, particularly in relation to employment. Coakley and Mac Einri (2007) researched the views of Africans living in Ireland and found that people who came through the asylum system indicated that the length of time spent waiting for permission to work eventually became a de-motivating factor in itself. Research has shown that time spent out of work, and loss of job experience, involve significant labour market penalties (O'Connell and McGinnity 2008). The evaluation report of a pilot project undertaken by the Refugee Information Service (RIS) stresses the importance of family reunification to the integration of refugees and other migrant groups in Ireland. This report also indicated that holders of protection statuses are often highly skilled but that they may face problems having their qualifications recognised (Trotman, 2008). This issue of qualifications recognition is discussed further in Box 3.1.

1.3.5 Irregular and Undocumented Immigrants

There are no reliable estimates of the number of irregular or undocumented immigrants in Ireland. NGOs working in the field report that most people who fall into these categories enter the country legally and their position subsequently becomes irregular through lapsing of an employment or residence permit for example. The Migrant Rights Centre of Ireland (MRCI) estimated that there are approximately 30,000 illegal immigrants in Ireland in 2010 based on figures from the International Centre for Migration Policy Development (MRCI, Regularisation of Undocumented Migrants, 2010). Note this is an estimation and estimating the number of illegal immigrants is notoriously problematic.

In 2009 a temporary scheme was introduced for non-EU immigrants who had become undocumented through no fault of their own. Such immigrants were given a temporary immigration permission of four months within which to seek legitimate employment, or, if they were already employed, within which to obtain an

23. UNCHR, *Statistical Online Population Database*, www.unhcr.org.

24. Full board accommodation is provided for asylum seekers in Ireland in 42 accommodation centres dispersed around the country. There are also two self-catering centres. The centres are a mixture of State owned and commercial properties and consist of hotels, guesthouses, hostels, former convents / nursing homes, one mobile home site and three system built facilities (RIA, 2010).

employment permit from the Department of Enterprise Trade and Innovation. This scheme was targeted at a clearly identifiable and limited group of migrant workers who were formerly lawfully resident. It was emphasised by the Government that this was not a regularisation scheme. Immigrant organisations such as MRCI continue to campaign for the introduction of such scheme (Migrant Rights Centre of Ireland, 2010). Another relevant recent policy measure concerns immigration arrangements for migrant workers who have been made redundant and who may therefore be at risk of becoming undocumented, this policy is discussed further in Box 2.1.

1.4 Integration Policy

1.4.1 EU Integration Policy

Integration has emerged as a significant policy priority at EU-level in recent years. At the European Council meeting in Tampere in 1999, EU Member States agreed on the need for a common immigration policy which would include more dynamic policies to promote the integration of Third-Country Nationals and which would aim to grant Third-Country Nationals rights and obligations comparable to those of citizens of the EU. The Hague Programme agreed in 2004 reaffirmed this commitment and Common Basic Principles (CBPs) were subsequently adopted. These Principles included the importance of employment to integration, the need for immigrants to have basic knowledge of the host society's language and history and the need to safeguard diverse cultures and religions. See Appendix 1. The CBPs were further developed in the Common Agenda for Integration which was put forward by the Commission in September 2005.

The Stockholm Programme (Council of the European Union, 2009) stresses knowledge exchange and the need for coordination with other relevant policy areas such as employment, education, active citizenship and social inclusion to support integration. The fourth Ministerial Conference on Integration was held in Zaragoza in April 2010. The indicators developed for evaluation of integration policies have been incorporated into the "Zaragoza Declaration". As discussed in Section 1.1.2, the current Monitor uses these indicators, known as the "Zaragoza indicators", where possible. EUROSTAT is currently conducting a pilot exercise, testing the proposed indicators across the EU Member States, where data permit.

At EU-level the competence for developing integration policy rests with the Directorate General (DG) for Home Affairs of the European Commission. The DG Employment and Social Affairs and the DG Education and Culture also have a role in promoting integration. The National Contact Points on Integration are a network of designated government officials from EU Member States through which information and experience is exchanged at EU-level. Three editions of the Handbook on Integration for Policy-Makers and Practitioners have been produced in cooperation with this Network and presents best practice and policy across the Member States (European Commission, 2004, 2007, 2010). A European Fund for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals (EIF) was set up in 2007 to run to 2013 to follow on from the Preparatory Actions for

the integration of Third-Country Nationals (INTI). The EIF has the objective of contributing to national efforts in supporting the integration process of Third-Country Nationals in Member States. The European Refugee Fund (ERF) was also set up to facilitate integration of refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection. Its action will complement those taken under the European Social Fund aimed at assisting both EU immigrants and Third-Country Nationals with accessing the labour market.

1.4.2 Ireland

Integration policy development in Ireland is at an early stage relative to many other EU countries. This reflects the fact that Ireland has been traditionally a country with net emigration, and that sustained and substantial net immigration was evident only from the late 1990s. Prior to 2007, integration policy was under the remit of the Reception and Integration Agency and was explicitly confined to refugees. The Intra-Departmental Group on the Integration of Refugees was established in 2001 and produced a document entitled 'Integration: A Two Way Process'. The document identified practical challenges and proposed the establishment of an organisation within which a comprehensive integration policy could be developed. (Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, 2001). The Reception and Integration Agency was subsequently established but a large portion of its activities were related to service provision for asylum seekers and a detailed integration strategy did not emerge.

In 2007 a new Junior Ministry, the Office of the Minister for Integration (OMI), was established with a cross Departmental mandate to develop, drive and coordinate integration policy across other government departments, agencies and services. The OMI is now based in the Department of Community, Equality and Gaeltacht Affairs. The OMI has been tasked with developing integration policy for all legally resident immigrants, not just refugees. It is important to note that protection applicants are still considered to be outside the scope of integration policy in Ireland. A strategy statement Migration Nation was published by the OMI in 2008 and sets out the key principles for successful integration, including:

- Partnership approach between government and non-governmental organisations
- Strong link between integration policy and wider state social inclusion measures
- Clear public policy focus that avoids the creation of parallel communities or urban ghettos, i.e. a mainstream approach to delivery of services to migrants
- Commitment to effective local delivery mechanisms that align services to migrants with those for indigenous communities.

Irish service provision for immigrant communities is therefore based on a policy of mainstreaming. This policy requires that the relevant services and policies be effectively and equitably provided to all of society and not to Irish and immigrants as separate client groups. It is recognised that in certain cases there may also be a need for targeted initiatives to meet shorter term needs and that there is a need to promote measures which ensure that immigrants

participate more fully in the social, cultural and civic life of Ireland. It reiterates that integration is a two-way process requiring mutual adaptation. In general the actual delivery of integration services is the responsibility of mainstream government departments but Migration Nation argues that everyone has a role to play in facilitating integration including the new communities, the host community, corporate sector, national and local government, trade unions, media and community and voluntary organisations.

Migration Nation describes integration as a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for social cohesion. The intention to include integration in the overall framework of social inclusion is set out in the National Action Plan for Social Inclusion 2007-2010 (Office for Social Inclusion, 2007).

Two strategy statements address integration and mainstream service provision directly: the *Intercultural Education Strategy* recently published by the Department of Education and Science (Department of Education and Science, 2010, see Box 3.1) and the *National Intercultural Health Strategy 2007 – 2012* (Health Services Executive, 2007 see Box 4.1).

The budget allocation for the OMI is €4.179 million for 2011. This represents a cut back of 22 per cent compared to its budget in 2010. An additional €1.575 million has been allocated in 2011 for the administration of the European Refugee Fund and the European Fund for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals, down 15 per cent year-on-year. In light of current economic conditions there is a general demand for rationalisation of State agencies and the OMI staffing resources are low (22 persons in 2010). Partly as a result of reduced financial and staffing resources, key elements of the Migration Nation strategy will not now take place, for example the setting up of an Expert Commission or the Task Force on Integration. The OMI in 2010 established a Ministerial Council on Integration to advise directly on issues faced by immigrants. The Minister chairs meetings of the Council which meets in four regions nationally. The forums are composed of 15 to 20 members who reside in the region and who are appointed for a period of five years. The recent introduction of this Council may help to address concerns raised by commentators including MacÉinri (2007) about the absence of informed public debate on integration. The importance of local level commitment to integration is stressed by the OMI and initiatives are funded via local authorities and sports authorities in areas where significant numbers of, what documents describe as 'new communities' reside. The OMI disperses funding

from the EIF and the European Refugee Fund ERF in collaboration with Pobal and co-finances the EPIC programme (Employment for People from Immigrant Communities) in conjunction with the European Social Fund.²⁵

Effective anti-discrimination policy is clearly a fundamental prerequisite for integration policy which hinges on equitable access to services and implementation of policies. Irish policy is relatively robust in this regard. The Employment Equality Acts 1998 to 2008 and the Equal Status Acts 2000 and 2008 prohibit discrimination on nine specific grounds: gender, marital status, family status, age, disability, race, sexual orientation, religious belief and membership of the Traveller community. The 'race' ground refers to race, colour, nationality or ethnic or national origins. Ireland is also a signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination and as such must report periodically to the UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination on the legislative, judicial and other measures which have been adopted to give effect to the provisions of the convention. The Irish report is now the responsibility of the OMI who have co-ordinated Ireland's Third and Fourth Reports to the UN Committee on the Elimination of all forms of Racial Discrimination. (See Office of the Minister for Integration, 2009).

The *National Plan Against Racism 2005-2008* set out a strategy to build a more inclusive society free from racism. It listed economic inclusion and equality of opportunities among its main objectives, this is often seen as a key aspect of integration. The Plan also led to the production of a number of local Anti-Racism and Diversity Strategies and the *National Intercultural Health Strategy*, and inspired local integration plans. The Plan was discontinued in 2009 while budget cuts introduced in 2008 have also significantly reduced the capacity of Ireland's equality/anti discrimination bodies. For example the funding of the National Consultative Committee for Racism and Interculturalism (NCCRI) has ceased and its functions subsumed into the OMI, no additional staff accompanied the NCCRI functions. Funding of the Equality Authority was reduced by 43 per cent in 2009 and a further 4 per cent in 2010. On foot of a reorganisation of government departments in March 2010, responsibility for racism became divided between two departments. The Department of Justice and Law Reform retained responsibility for the criminal law aspects of racism (for example racist crime) while the Department of Community and Gaeltacht Affairs now deals with racial discrimination and the civil law aspects of racism (for example management of the Equality Acts).

25. See <http://www.integration.ie/> for more information on OMI and its activities.

Box 1.1 Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX)

MIPEX is an initiative led by the British Council and the Migration Policy Group, in collaboration with numerous national level organisations, which aims to improve migrant integration policies. This is done by measuring integration policies in all EU Member States, Norway, Switzerland, Canada and the USA in an objective, accessible and comparable format. As an ongoing process MIPEX aims to provide regular assessments, with the first edition published in 2004 and the second in 2007, the next edition is planned for 2011.

By taking into account over 200 policy indicators MIPEX examines how each country's integration policies compare with other countries and with the standard of equal rights and responsibilities for immigrants. As policies are measured against the same standards across all Member States, MIPEX is therefore a benchmarking tool to compare performance. As MIPEX is an ongoing process it enables an analysis of policies over time.

The MIPEX indicators focus on the following policy areas:

- **Education**
- **Labour market mobility**
- **Family reunion**
- **Long-term residence**
- **Political participation**
- **Access to nationality**
- **Anti-discrimination**

MIPEX highlighted main results from Ireland

The MIPEX 2006-2007 assessment found that of the six MIPEX integration policy strands, Ireland's policies regarding access to nationality/citizenship are the strongest and ranked fourth in the EU25. Also considered best practice were policies relating to electoral rights and political liberties for political participation and security of employment in the labour market. However, national targets to promote labour market integration were seen as under-developed while Ireland's long-term residence policies received the worst score of all 28 MIPEX countries (see Niessen et al 2007).

Encompassing MIPEX within an Integration Evaluation Chain

As discussed above, monitoring integration is a challenging exercise. One proposed framework is an integration evaluation chain (see Section 1.1.2 Monitoring Integration). If we are to relate MIPEX into such an evaluation chain we can see that as MIPEX measures integration policies it can thus be regarded as fitting within the context of process indicators, measuring progress in the processes associated with integration, as opposed to measuring the results of integration policies. In contrast to MIPEX, in this Monitor the emphasis is on integration outcomes. While policies will obviously have a major impact on those outcomes, it must also be acknowledged that policy indicators may not directly or automatically lead to certain outcomes.

Chapter 2 Employment and Integration

Central to the process of integration is integration into the labour market brought about through employment. Of the Common Basic Principles (CBP) for immigrant integration policy identified by the European Commission, number 3 sees 'employment as a key part of the integration process that is central to the participation in the host society' (see Appendix 1). Employment brings a sense of identity, contribution to society and economic well-being. Conversely, loss of employment can be associated with poverty, psychological distress and more general social exclusion (Gallie and Paugam, 2000).

This chapter presents key employment indicators in Section 2.1: employment, unemployment and activity rates, comparing Irish and non-Irish nationals, distinguishing different nationality groups and then presenting the indicators separately by age group and gender. Section 2.2 compares self-employment rates and the proportion working unsocial hours by nationality groups. Box 2.1, on access to employment and supports for accessing employment for non-Irish nationals is at the end of this chapter. A more detailed analysis of employment and working conditions is conducted in Part 3 of this report. The data in this chapter are from the Irish labour force survey (Quarterly National Household Survey conducted by the CSO). Our guiding principle is to use the latest data available. Where the relevant indicators have been published by the CSO this data refers to Quarter 1, 2010, in other cases where data is not published we analyse micro-data using Quarter 4, 2009. While the labour market is in a period of rapid change, one quarter is still not long, and the source of the data is always noted.²⁷

2.1 Employment, Unemployment and Activity Rates

As noted in Part One, after two decades of unprecedented growth, the Irish economy moved into recession in the first quarter of 2008 (ESRI, QEC 2008). This has led to a dramatic and rapid deterioration in labour market conditions. Between the first quarter of 2008 and the first quarter of 2010, total employment in Ireland fell by 12.5 per cent. **Employment falls have been greater for non-Irish nationals, where the numbers employed fell by 30 per cent, than for Irish nationals, where total employment fell by 9 per cent.** Whereas non-Irish nationals accounted for 16.1

per cent of all persons aged 15 and over in employment in the first quarter of 2008, this compares to 12.8 per cent in the first quarter of 2010.²⁸ Of a total workforce of just over two million aged 15 and over in 2010, 283,000 were non-Irish nationals.

Table 2.1 Key employment indicators by Irish and non-Irish, Q1 2010

	Employment Rate (%)	Unemployment Rate (%)	Activity Rate (%)
Irish	60.1	12.7	68.8
Non-Irish	61.0	16.1	72.7

Source: CSO QNHS Q1 2010 (special tabulation, population aged 15-64)

Table 2.1 presents the employment rate, the unemployment rate and the activity rate for the working age population for the first quarter of 2010.²⁹ The employment rate is the proportion of the population of working age (15-64) who are employed. In the first quarter of 2010 the employment rate for non-Irish nationals was 61 per cent in comparison to 60.1 per cent for Irish nationals. The unemployment rate for the labour force as a whole was 13.1 per cent. The unemployment rate for non-Irish nationals, at 16.1 per cent, was considerably higher than that of Irish nationals, at 12.7 per cent.

The labour force activity rate is the proportion of adults who are in the labour force (employed and unemployed).³⁰ Table 2.1 shows that the working-age activity rate of non-Irish nationals, at 72.7 per cent, is higher than that of Irish nationals (68.8 per cent). Thus the fall in employment of immigrants relative to Irish did not translate into a fall in the labour force activity rates of non-Irish nationals relative to Irish nationals. O'Connell and McGinnity (2008), using data from 2004, found that immigrants experience higher levels of unemployment than the Irish population. Examining the impact of the current recession, Barrett and Kelly (2010) find a higher rate of job loss for immigrants than native Irish, even after controlling for factors such as age and education. The authors conclude that this recession has been particularly damaging for the employment prospects of immigrants.

27. Note that the published data using the QNHS groups Bulgarians and Romanians with EU10 nationals. The QNHS microdata used in this chapter classifies Bulgarians and Romanians with non-EU nationals. Further details of the QNHS and its strengths and weaknesses may be found in the Appendix 4 of this report. In general the reader should bear in mind that this data are likely to underestimate the proportion of UK nationals and EU10 nationals, while overestimating the proportion of low-skilled migrants (Barrett and Kelly, 2008).

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29. Employment and Unemployment are defined in this table and elsewhere in this chapter using the standard International Labour Organisation's definitions. People are defined as employed if they have worked for pay in the week preceding the survey interview for one hour or more, or who were not at work due to temporary absence (i.e. sickness or training). Unemployed persons are those who did no work in the week preceding the interview, but were available to start work in the next two weeks and had actively sought work in the previous four weeks. ILO unemployment estimates differ from both the live register of unemployment and from the individual's own self assignment of their principal economic status.

30. Others may be retired, full-time home makers, in education, long-term sick or disabled or not in the labour force for some other reason.

Table 2.2 Key employment indicators broken down by national groups, Q1 2010

	Employment Rate (%)	Unemployment Rate (%)	Activity Rate (%)	Total Pop (000s)
Irish	60.1	12.7	68.8	2,621.7
Non-Irish	61.0	16.1	72.7	388.0
Of which				
UK	56.6	16.9	68.1	66.1
EU13	73.8	6.7	79.1	32.0
EU12	65.6	18.0	80.0	175.1
Non-EU	52.8	15.4	62.4	114.7
All	60.2	13.1	69.3	3,009.7

Source: CSO QNHS Q1 2010 (special tabulation, population aged 15-64)

Previous research highlights differences between immigrant groups: Table 2.2 presents these key indicators distinguishing nationality groups. In terms of employment rates, there are some differences between different nationality groups, with EU13 nationals having the highest employment rate of all national groupings at 73.8 per cent, closely followed by EU12 nationals with 65.6 per cent. These rates are considerably higher than the Irish nationals' rate of 60.1 per cent. In comparison, UK nationals and Non-EU nationals actually had a lower employment rate than Irish nationals, at 56.6 per cent and 52.8 per cent respectively.

Looking at unemployment, the highest unemployment rate was for EU12 nationals, at 18 per cent, meaning that almost one in five of EU12 nationals in the Irish labour market are unemployed. The next highest unemployment rate was among UK nationals, at 16.9 per cent. EU13 nationals had the lowest unemployment rate, at just 6.7 per cent, compared to the national average of 13.1 per cent for the Irish nationals. Previous research, (O'Connell and McGinnity, 2008), from 'boom time' showed UK nationals to have unemployment rates very similar to Irish nationals but in this recession this not the case.

EU12 nationals have the highest activity rate of all nationalities at 80 per cent, this is significantly higher than Irish nationals at 68.8 per cent or for all non-Irish nationals at 72.7 per cent. The rate for

EU13 nationals, at 79.1 per cent, is also high. These high activity rates are strongly influenced by motivation of immigrants to come to Ireland to work. The lower activity rate for non-EU nationals (62.4 per cent) has been highlighted by a number of previous studies (CSO, 2009a; O'Connell and McGinnity, 2008). A number of factors are likely to contribute to this low activity rate. Firstly, many non-EU nationals come to Ireland to study. Secondly, protection applicants are not permitted to access the labour market (see Box 2.1). Thirdly, some whose protection application has been granted, and are eligible to work, may find it difficult to access the labour market (see O'Connell and McGinnity, 2008 for a discussion).

Table 2.3 presents these key employment indicators by age groups: young people (15-24 year olds; prime age (25-44) and the older age group (45-64). Interesting patterns emerge. For example, the employment rate among young people is significantly higher for non-Irish nationals, yet in the prime age group the employment rate is somewhat higher for Irish nationals (73 per cent for Irish, 68 per cent for non-Irish nationals). The contrast in unemployment rates is even more striking. For young people, the unemployment rate among Irish, at 27 per cent, is much higher than for non-Irish nationals (19 per cent). Yet for prime age workers, the unemployment rate is higher among non-Irish nationals. Among older workers the unemployment rate among non-Irish nationals is almost three times that of Irish nationals. There is a strong age

Table 2.3 Key employment indicators by age groups, Q4 2009

Age		Employment Rate (%)	Unemployment Rate (%)	Activity Rate (%)	Total Pop (000s)
15-24	Irish	31.9	27.0	43.7	507.2
	Non-Irish	44.2	19.4	54.9	65.2
25-44	Irish	72.9	11.7	82.6	1,160.4
	Non-Irish	68.1	14.6	79.7	277.0
45-64	Irish	61.8	7.4	66.8	943.7
	Non-Irish	56.0	19.2	69.3	65.8

Source: CSO QNHS Q4 2009 (own calculations, population aged 15-64)

Table 2.4 Key employment indicators by gender, Q4 2009

Gender		Employment Rate (%)	Unemployment Rate (%)	Activity Rate (%)	Total Pop (000s)
Male	Irish	64.9	15.1	67.8	1,300.4
	Non-Irish	67.8	19.2	81.3	207.9
Female	Irish	57.0	7.8	52.0	1,310.9
	Non-Irish	56.6	11.2	61.7	200.1

Source: CSO QNHS Q4 2009 (own calculations, population aged 15-64)

gradient in unemployment among Irish nationals, as was the case in previous recessions in Ireland: this is not the case for non-Irish nationals. The low activity rate for young Irish nationals is presumably related to the fact that many in this age group are still in the education system. Many young non-Irish nationals are here to study too, but a significant proportion come to Ireland to work.

Table 2.4 presents the key employment indicators by gender. Here the differences between the Irish and non-Irish groups are not so striking. For men the employment rate of non-Irish nationals is higher than that of Irish nationals. For women the employment rate is about the same. The unemployment rate is higher for non-Irish nationals for both men and women. *What is interesting here is that the current recession has hit men much more so than women.* Krings (forthcoming) links this trend to declining job opportunities in traditionally male dominated sectors e.g. construction. Data also show that activity rates for both male and female non-Irish nationals are markedly higher than for their Irish counterparts.

2.2 Self Employment and Unsocial Hours

Table 2.5 provides a breakdown of the self employment rate by nationality groups. *As can be seen from the table the self employment rate for Irish nationals, at 19 per cent, is much greater than for that of non-Irish nationals, at 8 per cent.*

Table 2.5 Self-employment rate by nationality, Q4 2009

	Self-Employment Rate (%)	Total (000s)
Irish	19.4	1,632.5
Non-Irish of which:	7.8	255.2
UK	18.8	44.9
EU13	10.4	28.5
EU12	2.1	106.2
Non-EU	8.4	75.6
All	17.9	1,887.7

Source: CSO QNHS Q4 2009 (own calculations)

Note: Population aged 15 and over in employment

Of all the non-Irish national groupings UK nationals have the highest self employment rate, at 19 per cent, similar to that of Irish nationals, but higher than for the country as a whole (18 per cent), whereas EU12 nationals have the lowest rate, at just 2 per cent. Since Non-EU nationals by definition are a very diverse group both regarding country of origin and legal status, it is likely that self-employment rates vary within this group. Overall though, self-employment is not a significant source of employment for non-Irish nationals. This is perhaps not surprising as immigrants, particularly new immigrants, can face a number of barriers to entry to business, including access to credit and to business networks (Cooney and Flynn, 2008).

Table 2.6, overleaf, presents the proportion of Irish and non-Irish nationals who usually work unsocial hours, consisting of evening, night, weekend or shift work. Unsocial hours are generally seen as being an indicator of less attractive working conditions. As can be seen from the table, in each category of unsocial working patterns non-Irish nationals report higher percentages than Irish nationals. The most considerable difference is in shift work, with 19 per cent of non-Irish nationals reporting that they usually do shift work compared to 12 per cent of Irish nationals. Furthermore, of all national groupings, non-EU nationals have the highest proportion of workers that usually work unsocial hours in each category. Again the most considerable difference is in shift work, with 26 per cent of non-EU nationals reporting to usually do shift work compared to 12 per cent of Irish nationals. Unsocial hours may be associated with certain types of jobs. In particular the high proportion of Non-EU nationals who do shift work may be linked to their high concentration in the health sector (see Table 2.6).

2.3 Summary of Employment Indicators

Ireland is in the midst of a deep recession at the time of writing, with sharp falls in employment and soaring unemployment. This chapter shows that overall immigrants have been harder hit by the recession than Irish nationals – with higher job losses and a higher unemployment rate. This unemployment rate varies across nationality groups, with the highest unemployment rate among EU12 nationals. The unemployment rate is comparatively low among EU13 nationals. For young people the unemployment rate is highest among Irish nationals: for prime age and older workers, the unemployment rate is highest among non-Irish nationals. For

Table 2.6 Proportion of nationalities who usually work unsocial hours Q4, 2009

	Evening Work	Night Work	Saturday Work	Sunday Work	Shift Work
Irish	12	8	23	15	12
Non-Irish	16	10	25	19	19
Of which					
UK	11	5	20	12	11
EU13	11	7	22	17	14
EU12	15	10	25	18	17
Non-EU	22	14	29	24	26
All	13	8	23	16	13

Source: CSO QNHS Q4 2009 (own calculations)

both groups the unemployment rate is considerably higher for men than for women. In general, the self-employment rate among non-Irish nationals is low, aside from UK nationals. In terms of

unsocial hours, the group that stands out is the non-EU, with higher proportions of them working in all types of unsocial hours, most particularly shift work.



Box 2.1 Access to Employment³¹

All nationals of the European Economic Area (EEA),³² apart from Romanian and Bulgarian nationals, may migrate to Ireland to take up work without restriction. Non-EEA nationals who hold a **Stamp 4 registration certificate** including refugees, people with leave to remain and other resident non-EEA nationals enjoy rights equivalent to Irish citizens with regard to seeking employment. Applicants for protection may not work while their case is pending. Non-EEA students who hold a **Stamp 2 registration certificate** are pursuing courses which are of at least one year's duration and which lead to a 'recognised qualification'. Such students may also access the Irish labour market.

Managed labour migration policy relates to workers from outside the EEA as well as Romanian and Bulgarian nationals. Policy is developed and administered by the Department of Enterprise, Trade and Innovation in cooperation with the Department of Justice and Law Reform. Most of these workers hold a Stamp 1 registration certificate and an employment permit. There are four main types of employment permits: **green cards, work permits, spousal permits, and intra-company transfer permits.**

Green card: Green cards were introduced in 2007 in order to attract highly skilled workers. Annual remuneration is used as proxy for skill in Ireland. Green cards are available across all occupations for posts with an annual salary of €60,000 and over and for a restricted list of occupations with annual salaries of €30,000 to €59,999. The applicant must have a job offer for 2 years or more. There is no requirement for a labour market needs test. The green card permit is issued for 2 years and a renewal permit is not required as it is intended to lead to the granting of long-term residence. Currently, in the absence of a statutory long-term residence status, green card holders have their immigration permission to remain renewed for an additional 2 years (see Box 5.2). Green card holders may have their spouses and families join them immediately.

Work permit: A revised work permit scheme also formed part of the new employment permits system introduced in 2007. Work permits are now available for occupations with an annual salary of €30,000 or more and for a very restricted number of occupations with salaries below €30,000. There is a list of occupations considered ineligible for work permits. The permit is granted for 2 years initially, and then for a further 3 years. A labour market needs test is required with all work permit applications meaning that vacancies must be advertised with the FÁS/EURES employment network for at least 8 weeks and in local and national newspapers for six days. Work permit holders must have been in employment for at least twelve months before applying for family members to join them and must have an income above the threshold which would qualify the family for payment under the Family Income Supplement (FIS) Scheme.

Spousal permit: Spousal permits are issued to the spouses/dependants of green card holders and the spouses/dependants of work permit holders provided the original work permit holder made their first application before 1 June 2009. The spouses of work permit holders who made their original application after that date are ineligible to apply for a spousal permit.

Intra-company transfer: This scheme is designed to facilitate the transfer of senior management, key personnel or trainees who are foreign nationals from an overseas branch of a multinational corporation to its Irish branch. Applications may be granted for a maximum period of up to 24 months in the first instance and may be extended upon application to a maximum stay of five years.

In general, employment permit holders may only move employers after 12 months and must apply for a new permit to do so.

In light of the recent deterioration in the Irish labour market, government policy has been developed to reduce the number of permits issued for non-EU workers, particularly lower paid workers. For example only the spouses/dependants of green card holders and researchers are now eligible to apply for a spousal/dependant permit while restrictions apply to the spouses of work permit holders. There are increased fees levied on employment permit applications, the length of the labour market needs test has been extended and the list of occupations eligible for green cards in the <€60,000 per annum category has been further restricted.³³

(Continued overleaf)

31. Note this is an interpretation of access to employment and should not be seen as a statement of legal entitlement. See <http://www.deti.ie/> for information on employment permits; <http://www.inis.gov.ie/> for information on immigration requirements and <http://www.citizensinformation.ie/en/> for more general information.

32. The EEA comprises the EU plus Norway, Iceland, and Liechtenstein.

33. The share of first time permits issued to workers in the <€30,000 salary band has declined from 43.8 per cent in 2007 to 31.7 per cent in 2009. Almost two thirds of permits issued to workers earning under €30,000 were spousal permits (Quinn, 2010).

Box 2.1 Access to Employment (cont'd)

A separate scheme was announced in August 2009 for employment permit holders who are made redundant. These persons were granted a bridging stamp of six months from the date of redundancy to allow them to find employment.

An 'Action Strategy to Support Integrated Workplaces' was produced by the social partners in 2008 (Equality Authority, 2008). The Strategy, now renamed the 'Workplace Diversity Strategy', is funded by the Office of the Minister for Integration and the Equality Authority. It has resulted in a number of initiatives such as diversity training, the development of a framework for a mentoring process among organisations, mentor guidelines and training for mentors.

Support with accessing employment

Ireland's National Employment Service (NES) consists of 2 strands: Employment Services operated by FÁS, the National Training and Employment Authority, and the Local Employment Service (LES) which operates mainly through Local Area Partnership Companies on contract from FÁS. EEA nationals and non-EEA nationals who hold Stamp 4 registration certificates have full access to these services. Employment permit holders and non-EEA students are not entitled to use these supports (other than the freely accessible online services such as the vacancies database)³⁴ and instead avail of the services of private recruitment agencies. Non-governmental and voluntary organisations may assist immigrants with their job search by providing employment support courses and referring them to agencies and websites. One highly regarded initiative is the Employment for People from Immigrant Communities (EPIC) discussed in Section 1.4.2.

The lack of recognition of qualifications of migrant workers is frequently cited as a barrier to immigrants accessing the Irish workplace (Expert Group of Future Skill Needs, 2009; Barrett and Duffy, 2008; Dunbar, 2008). Ní Murchú (2007) argued that Irish professional bodies show inconsistency in the manner in which they deal with non-EU applicants for membership/registration.

There have however been improvements made to the supports available to employers and employees regarding the recognition of qualifications. The National Qualification Authority of Ireland (NQAI) now offers an online International Qualifications Database for holders of foreign qualifications and employers which lists certain foreign qualifications and provides advice regarding the comparability of the qualification to those that can be gained in Ireland. The National Framework of Qualifications, also developed by the NQAI, facilitates the recognition process as each foreign qualification is compared to an Irish qualification which is included in the Framework. If an individual's qualification is not regulated or listed in the NQAI database they may apply to the NQAI to have their qualification recognised.

If a migrant worker wishes to practice in a regulated profession such as teaching, law or nursing they must apply to the relevant competent authority. In general professionals trained within the EU need only submit required documentation in order to be enlisted with the professional body in question, provided the profession is listed explicitly in the EC 2005/36 Directive on the recognition of professional qualifications and the minimum training conditions are observed. This includes *inter alia*, doctors, general care nurses, dentists, veterinary surgeons, midwives, pharmacists and architects.³⁵

34. <http://www.fas.ie/en/Job+Seeker/Home/default.htm>.

35. EU professionals not listed explicitly in the Directive may be requested to complete an adaptation period or examination (described as 'compensation' measures). See EU Directive 2005/36.

Chapter 3 Education and Integration

Education is a key determinant of adult life chances - in Europe more broadly, and particularly in Ireland. Education plays a key role in debates on immigrant integration, with differences in educational achievement an important indicator of integration. Many European countries are struggling to integrate immigrant children into the education systems, and educational outcomes for adults are often poor (OECD, 2006).

Part 1 of this report shows very clearly that the immigration of non-Irish nationals into Ireland is a relatively recent phenomenon: almost all immigrants to Ireland are first generation. Thus for adults, most non-Irish nationals will have achieved their qualifications abroad. This differs from many European countries, which have a substantial second-generation immigrant population. It is the children of these first generation immigrants who are currently in the education system. This chapter is divided into 2 distinct sections: Section 3.1 presents a series of indicators of educational achievement among adults, and the differences largely reflect the qualifications immigrants had on migrating to Ireland. Section 3.2 presents performance indicators of non-Irish children in Irish schools, as an indicator of how well the education system is integrating immigrants. Box 3.1 at the end of the chapter describes access and supports to education for children and adults in Ireland.

3.1 Educational Outcomes for Adults in Ireland

3.1.1 Highest Educational Attainment

Previous work (e.g. Barrett et al., 2006) has highlighted the high skills profile of immigrants in Ireland, and the current policy of

limiting non-EU immigration to highly skilled immigrants will tend to support this. An OECD study in 2007 underscored the fact that Ireland received a higher share of highly skilled immigrants than almost all OECD countries, with a subsequently very low share of lower skilled immigrant groups (OECD, 2007). Table 3.1 presents highest educational attainment by nationality according to the latest available data. Note that this is for all adults. Immigrants are clustered in the younger age cohorts (see Table A4.1), and there is a strong age gradient in educational qualifications in Ireland, with older Irish people having much lower qualifications than younger people. This will affect the comparison between Irish and non-Irish groups.

Almost 40 per cent of Irish nationals report having primary or lower secondary education, compared to only 17 per cent of non-Irish nationals. Similarly 44 per cent of non-Irish nationals reported having third-level honours degrees or above, compared to 27 per cent of the Irish population. This difference between Irish national and non-Irish nationals is strongly influenced by the age and demographic profile of non-Irish nationals who have come to work in Ireland. It is still the case that immigrants who come to Ireland tend to be highly educated.

In terms of national group differences, it is interesting that 66 per cent or two thirds of EU13 nationals reported having third-level education (see Glossary for the definition of EU13). This is a particularly highly qualified group, and is in sharp contrast to the 27 per cent of Irish nationals report to have third-level education. While a lower proportion of EU10 nationals reported third-level qualifications than non-Irish nationals overall (32 per cent v 44 per

Table 3.1 Highest educational attainment by nationality (15+)³⁶

	No formal to Lower Secondary (%)	Upper Secondary (%)	Post Leaving Cert (%)	Third level (%)	Total (000s)
Irish	38	24	11	27	3,062.8
Non-Irish	17	27	11	44	360.9
Of which					
UK	28	20	9	43	80.0
EU13	5	23	6	66	38.4
EU12	17	34	17	32	122.3
Non-EU	15	26	9	50	120.2
All	36	24	11	29	3,423.6

Source: CSO QNHS Q4 2009 (own calculations).

Notes: Table 3.1 presents highest educational attainment by nationality according to the latest available data.

36. This measures educational standards that have been attained and can be compared in some measurable way. For example, to have completed the leaving certificate syllabus but not to have actually sat and passed the leaving certificate exams is not considered for this purpose to be 'successfully completed'. The classification of non-Irish educational qualifications is difficult. For interviewer guidelines on measuring non-Irish qualifications in this survey, see www.cso.ie/qnhs/about_qnhs.htm

cent), a relatively high proportion of EU10 nationals have post-leaving cert qualifications, largely vocational. This may have been the result of employment opportunities that attracted in many EU 10 nationals with vocational qualifications coming to Ireland to take up craft-related positions (possibly in the construction industry) as evidenced in Part 3. This is also potentially a reflection of the education systems in the country of origin, where vocational qualifications play a greater role. Half of all non-EU nationals have third-level qualifications. This is presumably related to migration policies for non-EU nationals that facilitate high-skilled migration into Ireland.

Table 3.2 Share of 25-34 year olds with tertiary education

	Share of 25-34 year olds with tertiary education (%)	Total pop (25-34) (000s)
Irish	47	589.1
Non-Irish of which:	52	149.4
UK	54	12.2
EU13	77	15.9
EU10	41	70.6
Other	59	50.7
All	48	738.4

Source: CSO QNHS Q4 2009 (own calculations)

Table 3.2 focuses specifically on the 25-34 age group, to overcome some of the difficulties in comparing the qualifications of comparatively young immigrants with the whole Irish population.³⁷ It presents the share of 25-34 year olds with tertiary education. Compared to table 3.1 above, the differences between the Irish and non-Irish population in this age group is not so marked, though a somewhat higher proportion of non-Irish nationals (52 per cent) reported having tertiary education than Irish nationals (47 per cent).

EU13 nationals have the highest proportion of respondents with tertiary education - at 77 per cent this is considerably higher than that of Irish nationals (47 per cent) or any other national grouping. Non-EU nationals reported the second highest proportion of respondents with tertiary education, at 59 per cent, which is 12 per cent higher than that of Irish nationals. EU10 nationals (see Glossary) have the lowest proportion with tertiary education of all the groups shown in Table 3.2. This is presumably partly related to the high proportion of them with post-leaving certificate vocational qualifications, discussed above, who do not then go on to third-level education.

3.1.2 Early School Leavers among adult immigrants

Table 3.3 Share of early school leavers (aged 20-24) by nationality

	Share of Early leavers to lower secondary (%)	Total
Irish	17.3	168.7
Non-Irish of which:	15.4	28.7
UK	*	2.3
EU13	*	1.8
EU10	16.5	18.4
Non-EU	15.0	6.2
All	17.0	197.4

Source: CSO QNHS Q4 2009 (own calculations)

Notes: *Population estimates of less than 1,000 are deemed too small for publication purposes due to reliability concerns.

Table 3.3 presents the share of early leavers from education. Early school leavers are defined here as the proportion of the population aged 20-24 who have received no more than lower secondary education and are not engaged in further education or training at present.³⁸ 17 per cent of this age group left school early in Ireland; 17.3 per cent of Irish nationals, and a slightly lower 15.4 per cent of non-Irish nationals. Some non-Irish nationals will have left the Irish education system, but many will have left school early in their country of origin.

The proportion of early school leavers vary somewhat by national group, though for EU10 nationals and non-EU nationals it is close to the non-Irish mean of 15.4. For EU13 nationals, the number of early school leavers is negligible (number not shown). Estimates suggest the UK rate is close to the Irish rate, but once again the numbers are small. Overall, there is no evidence that non-Irish adults are more likely to have left school early than Irish adults. As noted above, most non-Irish adults would have achieved their qualifications abroad. At the end of the next section we discuss briefly recent findings on early school leaving of non-Irish nationals within the Irish education system.

3.2 Immigrant children in Irish schools

The rapid rise in immigration of non-Irish nationals into Ireland outlined in Part One not only meant that the adult population has become more diverse, but also that schools have become more diverse in terms of nationality, language, ethnicity and religious affiliation. A number of recent studies highlight the challenges

37. Using the public access version of the QNHS it is not possible to calculate rates for the 30-34 year old group, as recommended in the Zaragoza indicators. The proportion with third level education would probably be somewhat higher for the 30-34 year old group.

38. The recommended Zaragoza indicator is 18-24 but once again, the age breakdown available on this version of QNHS is 20-24. This difference in the indicators should be small.

faced by the Irish education system in dealing with this change, given little previous experience of national and linguistic diversity (Devine, 2005; Smyth et al., 2009; Gilligan et al., 2010). Box 3.1 describes access to education for non-Irish nationals, and resources to support them, the most significant of which is the €100 million for English language support measures.

In some countries that have experienced a recent inflow of immigrant children, evidence suggests that these children are concentrated in particular schools (OECD, 2006). In general, immigrant children in Irish schools are quite broadly dispersed, particularly at second level, where 90 per cent of schools have some but not a large proportion of non-Irish nationals. The situation is somewhat different at primary level, where just over half of schools recorded non-Irish in 2007, and one in ten had more than 20 per cent non-Irish students (Smyth et al., 2009). Non-Irish students are also diverse in terms of nationality: *160 different nationalities were recorded at second level in the school year 2006/2007*, and there was little evidence of clustering of nationalities in schools, as in some other countries (Smyth et al., 2009).³⁹ Smyth et al (2009) found that the admission policies of Irish schools may affect the distribution across schools of immigrant students. In this study, 80 per cent of principals reported that they were not oversubscribed, and take in all students that apply (Smyth et al., 2009). In cases where the applicant students outnumber places available, schools may select on the basis of date of application or whether the applicant has siblings already in the school. Immigrant families will fare badly on such criteria. Schools may also prioritise the applications of children with the same religious background as the school's patron. In general though Byrne et al (2010) find an absence of the degree of school segregation found in many European countries, mainly due to the geographical dispersal of the immigrant population and the wide variety of national groups represented.

How do these immigrant students compare with Irish students in terms of academic achievement? This section uses data from the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), an international survey of 15-year-old students that takes place every three years. Students' literacy in science, mathematics and reading is assessed in PISA. Fifteen-year-olds are the target group because this age marks the end of compulsory schooling in many countries. The term literacy is used to emphasise the ability to apply knowledge, rather than simply to reproduce facts that have been studied in a curriculum. Thus, PISA aims to assess students' preparedness for the reading, mathematical and scientific demands of future education and adult life. In 2009, almost 470,000 students were assessed, spread across 65 countries (or regions), including Ireland.⁴⁰ In 2009 the emphasis was on reading proficiency, but mathematics and science performance was also tested.

In the 2009 study, of the 3,937 15-year-old students participating in Ireland, 8.3 per cent had an immigrant background.⁴¹ Students with an immigrant background score significantly lower on reading performance (473.1) than native Irish students (501.9) (Perkins et al., 2010). This is a change from the 2006 PISA study, which found no performance difference in reading between Irish students and immigrant students. In the 2009 study the advantage of native students relative to immigrant students in Ireland is still below the OECD average, though not significantly so (Perkins et al., 2010)

A key point in Ireland is that immigrant student performance varies according to the language spoken at home (see Table 3.4). *English-speaking immigrants have similar scores to their Irish peers in both reading and mathematics, whereas non-English speaking immigrant students perform much worse than their Irish peers.*

Table 3.4 Mean reading and mathematics scores in PISA 2009 by immigrant/language status, 15 year olds (Ireland)

	Reading Score	Mathematics	Percentage of students (%)
Native	501.9	491.7	92.0
Migrant with English or Irish	499.7	485.9	4.5
Migrant with other language	442.7	457.1	3.5

Source: PISA 2009: The Performance and Progress of 15-year-olds in Ireland, Table 4.4 and A Summary of the Performance of Students in Ireland on the PISA 2009 Test of Mathematical Literacy and a Comparison with Performance in 2003, Table 4.

Note: Bold indicates significantly different score from Irish natives.

From Table 3.4 we see that scores of non-English speaking immigrants scored 59 points lower in reading and 35 points lower in mathematics than Irish students. The gap is thus smaller for mathematics than for reading, but we still see a significant difference between natives and non-English speaking immigrants in mathematics. This pattern is similar to that observed in the 2006 study, where the gap between non-English speaking immigrants and native Irish students was 60 points for reading and 54 points in mathematics, though note the 2006 sample of non-English speaking immigrants was much smaller (OECD, 2009).

In 2009, achievement tests were also conducted at primary level in Ireland, forming part of series of National Assessments of mathematics and English reading. They are not part of an international study, like the PISA scores quoted above, but are useful as they present findings for younger children. Tests were administered to just under 4,000 pupils in second class (typically

39. The true figure may be slightly lower, given 'social desirability bias', or the fact that principals may not wish to comment on admission criteria, given negative media coverage of school selection practices.

40. Test examples can be downloaded at www.pisa.oecd.org. See Perkins et al., 2010 for further details of the sampling and response rates in Ireland.

41. Immigrant students are defined as those who were born outside Ireland (the majority of the group) or those born in Ireland where both parents were born outside Ireland.

7-8 year olds) and 4,000 pupils in sixth class (typically 11-12 year olds) in 150 schools. Questionnaires were also administered to principals, teachers, pupils and parents to provide background information.

Around 15 per cent of pupils at each grade were born outside Ireland.⁴² Pupils born outside Ireland had slightly lower test scores for both reading and mathematics, but only for reading was this difference significant. This is in contrast to the PISA data for 2009 for 15 year olds, where a statistically significant performance gap is observed for both reading and mathematics.

As with 15 year olds however, greater differences emerge if the immigrant group is distinguished by language spoken at home. Table 3.5 presents mean reading and mathematics scores by language spoken at home. At second class, those who normally spoke English at home significantly outperformed those who did not on reading (31 per cent gap) and mathematics (22 point gap). At sixth class, the 42 point gap was statistically significant, but not the 11 point gap for mathematics.

Table 3.5 Mean reading and mathematics scores, by language most often spoken in the home, national assessment scores, 2009 (primary level)

	Maths		Reading	
	Language other than English	English	Language other than English	English
Primary: Sixth Class	241	252	211	253
Second Class	231	253	223	254

Source: The 2009 National Assessments of Mathematics and English Reading.

The PISA results, while based on a small sample of non-English speakers, are consistent with recent studies of immigrants in Irish schools, which stress the importance of language proficiency in English. These student achievement results, from PISA and the National Assessments (2009), are consistent with recent studies of immigrants in Irish schools, which stress the importance of language proficiency in English. Language problems are the most commonly identified problem that principals and teachers report of non-Irish national students, and have a serious impact on both the reported academic performance and the social integration of non-Irish children (Lyons and Little, 2009; Smyth et al., 2009). Lyons and Little (2009) also stress how language needs vary among migrant children – the needs of a 4 year old are very different to that of a 14 year old, and criticise current language provision in Irish schools as having a ‘one-size-fits-all approach’.

Other evidence of educational disadvantage comes from a recent comprehensive study of early school leaving in Ireland. In their report using data from a longitudinal study of 12 post-primary schools, Byrne and Smyth (2010) find that one fifth (20 per cent) of non-Irish students leave school early, compared to 11 per cent of Irish students. Early school leaving is defined here as leaving school before completion of the Leaving Certificate examination. Even after accounting for a range of other factors such as socio-economic or class background, reading achievement, previous experience while at school and educational aspirations, non-Irish students were significantly more likely to leave school early than Irish students. Information from the schools suggests that the issue does not seem to be one of mobility between schools or emigration. The authors note that further research would need to establish whether this higher drop-out rate was related to age at immigration, language difficulties, school experiences or other factors (Byrne and Smyth, 2010).

3.3 Summary of Findings on Educational Attainment

In the introduction we summarised how indicators of educational attainment among non-Irish nationals differ for adults and children in Ireland, and this chapter presents the two separately. For educational qualifications among adults, these are mostly achieved outside Ireland. If we compare the whole population, non-Irish nationals have considerably higher qualifications than Irish nationals (Table 3.1). However, this is partly a function of the age profile of both groups – non-Irish nationals are young, and older Irish people tend to have lower educational qualifications than younger age groups. So, when we compare the proportion with tertiary education among 25-34 year olds, the difference between Irish nationals and non-Irish nationals is much smaller, though a somewhat greater proportion of non-Irish nationals have tertiary education. Conversely, a somewhat smaller proportion of non-Irish nationals leave school early than Irish nationals. Overall, non-Irish nationals are more highly qualified than Irish nationals.

Section 3.2 considers the achievement of non-Irish children in Irish schools. While their parents may be more highly educated, test scores at different stages of the Irish education system suggest that children from non-English speaking backgrounds are struggling in reading and mathematics vis-à-vis their Irish peers, though the performance gap is greater for reading. Those from English-speaking backgrounds do as well, or better, than their Irish counterparts. Whether non-English speaking children ‘catch up’, in terms of achievement, remains to be seen, but language emerges as a key issue in the education of non-Irish nationals in Ireland. And whereas the rate of leaving school early was lower for non-Irish nationals who are 20-24, among secondary-level school children non-Irish nationals are much more likely to leave school early than their Irish counterparts.

42. In the national assessments, immigrants are children born outside Ireland. The PISA definition of immigrants is those born outside Ireland, as well as students where both parents are born outside Ireland.

Box 3.1 Access to Education⁴³

The Irish education system is made up of primary, secondary, third-level and further education. Within the Irish primary school system, schools are privately owned and controlled by patron bodies and publicly funded through the Department of Education and Science. Over 90 per cent of primary and over 50 per cent of post-primary schools are under the patronage of the Catholic Church. The balance is generally under the patronage of the Church of Ireland, other religions and, particularly at post-primary level, Vocational Education Committees (VECs) (OECD, 2009). There is also small but growing number of multi-denominational primary schools administered by the Educate Together organisation.

State-funded education is available to Irish citizens at all levels and to non-Irish citizens at primary and secondary levels, or until aged 18. The situation of access to third-level is somewhat different. Firstly, not all non-Irish nationals may enter third-level education. Secondly, while the majority of non-Irish nationals may access third-level and further education, most must pay fees to do so. Non-EU nationals often pay a higher rate, and for many this may be prohibitive. Information on grants and financial assistance is often complicated (Coghlan et al., 2005). Thirdly, information on the types of education open to immigrants is poorly disseminated and leaves many immigrants unaware of the opportunities available to them. Smyth et al (2009) found that this is also the case for teachers in secondary schools, with some teachers expressing frustration that they could not provide accurate career guidance for non-EU pupils.

Those whose parents are asylum seekers or who seeking asylum themselves are generally not permitted to access third-level education. Similarly, the children of international students are generally not allowed to access state funded education, as this interpreted as the student being in breach of the requirement of their residence permit to be self-sufficient. In rules published by the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform in mid-2008, first-time students from outside the European Economic Area (EEA) who begin a third-level course in Ireland in 2008 will be denied registration clearance by immigration authorities unless they can confirm they are not accompanied by children "nor do they intend to have their children join them later on". In cases where the child has been attending a State school in Ireland for at least some of the last school year, the child will be allowed remain in education until the completion of the parent's course (O'Connell and Joyce, 2010).

The intercultural education strategy was launched in September 2010, following six months of consultation by the Minister for Education and Skills and the Minister of State for Equality, Integration and Human Rights. The strategy encompasses all participants in education (both education providers and students) from both immigrant and host communities, based on the EU principle that integration is a two-way process. It is relevant to all levels of education, from pre-school to higher education. The strategy is broad, as evidenced by its five main goals: **(1)** Enable the adoption of 'whole institution approach' to creating an intercultural learning environment **(2)** Build the capacity of education providers to develop an intercultural learning environment **(3)** Support students to become proficient in the language of instruction **(4)** Encourage and promote partnership between education providers, students, parents and communities and **(5)** Promote and evaluate data gathering and monitoring so that policy is evidence based.

Specific resources devoted to the strategy (at the time of publication) are: €100 million for English as an additional language and €10 million for English classes for adult immigrants. A regularly updated comprehensive data portal on accessing intercultural materials has also been developed for use by students, parents, educators, researchers and policymakers. Monitoring the effectiveness of the strategy will come from a number of bodies, including a Migrant Steering Committee in the Department of Education and Skills and the Office for the Minister for Integration's Interdepartmental Committee on Migrant Integration. The IES is more a set of principles rather than specific measures. Without specific targets, it is not entirely clear how the progress will be monitored.

Supports for Immigrants in Schools

A key support for migrant children in Irish schools is the provision of English language tuition, though the Intercultural Education Strategy does emphasise the fact that all teachers need to recognise their role as language teachers. The benefits of a whole school

(Continued overleaf)

43. See <http://www.education.ie/> for information on the education system in Ireland; <http://www.inis.gov.ie/> for information on immigration requirements and <http://www.citizensinformation.ie/en/> for more general information.

Box 3.1 Access to Education (cont'd)

approach to intercultural education is emphasised by Smyth et al. (2009) and the OECD Review of Migrant Education in Ireland (OECD, 2009).

Current 'English as an Additional Language' (EAL) provision is allocated on the basis of the number of newcomer students.⁴⁴ Provision had been extended in March 2007, but as a result of spending cuts in the November 2008/April 2009 budgets, 'the level of EAL support will generally be reduced to a maximum of two teachers per school, as was the case before 2007' (Circular 0015/2009). This change is likely to disproportionately impact on those schools with a high proportion of newcomers, though the appeals process outlined in the circular does facilitate exceptions to this, if schools successfully make the case for more language teachers to the Department of Education.

Other supports include the distribution of language assessment kits to primary and post-primary schools, in-service provision for language support teachers, guidelines on English as an additional language for all teachers and a booklet on intercultural education in both primary and post-primary schools.⁴⁵ Provision for newcomers is also likely to be impacted by the general cuts to the education budget such as the reduction of staffing levels and the additional grants allocated for schools designated as disadvantaged (Smyth et al., 2009).

Support with Accessing Adult Education

In most third-level colleges there is a separate office dealing with applicants who are classified as non-EU students (usually called international students office). Apart from that there is no dedicated office dealing with non-Irish applicants.

Student grants are available for students in full-time Post Leaving Cert and higher education courses. Applicants have to meet certain nationality criteria in order to be eligible for the grant. Currently the following categories of people may apply for student grants:

1. EU/EEA/Swiss citizens
2. Refugees and family members reunited with them
3. People granted subsidiary protection
4. Family members of EU Citizens
5. Spouse/Children of Irish nationals
6. People granted permission to remain in the State by the Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform following a determination not to make a deportation order under the Immigration Act 1999 (Leave to Remain)
7. People granted Humanitarian Leave to Remain in the State (prior to the Immigration Act 1999)

English Language Provision for Adults

At the time of writing, a substantial number of English courses are provided by the VECs (Vocational Education Committees) with €10 million spent on language tuition for adults, as noted above. According to the OMI there are 13,000 places available on the adult courses (www.integration.ie). As part of this, 'immersion English classes' are offered by a number of further education institutions with a view to facilitating progression into mainstream education for those who were accepted into the course. Significantly, the National Adult Refugee Programme was introduced in 2009 which includes provision of English language classes through a number of VECs across the country for people who were granted refugee status, but other Stamp 4 holders are also accepted (www.adultrefugee.ie). This programme also teaches additional skills for accessing the workplace, as well as Irish social and cultural knowledge.

44. Schools with fewer than 14 students receive a grant towards tuition; schools with 14-30 pupils one extra teacher; students with 31-90 pupils two extra teachers. Schools with more than 90 students requiring English-language tuition need to make a special application to the DES (Circular 0015/2009).

45. See the 'Accessing Intercultural Materials' portal for further information

(<http://www.integration.ie/website/omi/omiwebv6.nsf/page/usefullinks-Irish-DepartmentEducationportal-en>).2005/36.

Chapter 4 Social Inclusion and Integration

In this chapter on social inclusion and integration, we present a number of indicators suggested at the Zaragoza conference on income, poverty and deprivation, health, housing and the experience of discrimination. Taking a broad definition of social inclusion as the ability of an individual to participate in society, we see how these indicators touch on various life domains. Income and more particularly lack of income are commonly used indicators of an ability or inability to participate in society. Health problems may also limit participation in society. Participation in the housing market is sometimes seen as a measure of long-term integration. The experience of discrimination reflects immigrants' perceptions of being excluded or unfairly treated. Presenting information on the sociability of immigrants and their participation in sport and community organisations is beyond the scope of this monitor, but may be examined in future monitors.

Most of the indicators come from the Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), as the recommended source by the conference at Zaragoza. A big advantage of this survey from a European perspective is that it is harmonised across Europe and is thus a useful source of comparative data on these indicators. A disadvantage for monitoring integration is that the survey was not designed specifically to reach, record details of, and represent non-Irish nationals. The sample of non-Irish nationals is small, so some of the estimates should be treated with caution. Where data are available, we compare the estimates from the EU-SILC with other sources (health status, home ownership). For others, we use statistical testing to allow us to be more guarded in our interpretation of what the data are telling us. It is also worth noting that the latest available EU-SILC data is from 2008, referencing the 12 months prior to the interview, and thus it does not capture the full extent of the fall in incomes and living standards precipitated by the current economic recession.

The chapter begins by considering income, (at risk of) poverty and consistent poverty by nationality (Section 4.1). We then look at health status (4.2) and home ownership (4.3), before moving on to review evidence on the experience of discrimination by non-Irish nationals (4.4). The conclusion summarises and reflects on data needs in the area. Box 4.1 describes access to social services.

4.1 Income, Poverty and Consistent Poverty

4.1.1. Household Income

Chapter 2 looked at employment, Chapter 3 considered in more depth immigrants in the workplace. In this section we consider

income more broadly. Income estimates are from the Survey of Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) for 2008, the latest data available. This survey is the main ongoing survey used to provide estimates of household income and poverty in Ireland by the Central Statistics Office, and in fact it is the only current survey data that will allow us to estimate income, poverty and deprivation for non-Irish nationals living in Ireland. As noted, the sample was not designed with non-Irish nationals in mind, and severely under-represents them. The weighted proportion of non-Irish nationals for all adults aged 15 and over is 6.9 per cent in EU-SILC 2008, compared to 13.8 per cent on the QNHS, Quarter 2 in the same year (see Appendix 4 for further details of the survey, and the sample of non-Irish nationals).⁴⁶ Generally weighting in social surveys corrects for under representation of sub-populations, often a particular problem with hard-to-reach groups. Given concerns about the weighting for non-Irish nationals, and concerns about the sample size, in this section we run statistical tests data to provide a robust test of the differences between non-Irish nationals and Irish nationals. The number of cases in the sample is also indicated in each table.

Following conventional practice, the estimates pool all sources of income in each household in the 12 months prior to the date of interview, from each person and from various sources (employment, social transfers, interest on savings), and then assign this income to individuals. This means all members of the same household are treated as having the same standard of living.⁴⁷ The individuals are from the whole population, including children and those over 65. For this integration Monitor we estimate the median income for Irish nationals, non-Irish nationals and then by national group, according to the nationality reported by the individual.⁴⁸ The median income is the threshold at which half of the individuals in that group have incomes below the threshold and half have incomes above.⁴⁹ The estimates for median disposable household income, the first Zaragoza indicator in this chapter, are presented in Table 4.1.

But different households have different needs, depending on the number of adults and children living in them, so household income is routinely adjusted to take account of this variation. This adjustment is called an equivalence scale. In this section we adopt the national equivalence scale which assigns a value of 1 for the first adult, 0.66 for any additional household members aged 14 and over and 0.33 for any children under 14. The disposable household income is divided by the equivalence scale value to calculate the equivalised income for each individual. This is the

46. The unweighted proportions of non-Irish nationals 15+ are 5.4% (EU-SILC) and 9.3% (QNHS) respectively. The weight used is the one used and provided by the CSO 'euroweight'.

47. A household is defined as a person living alone or a group of people who live together in the same dwelling and share expenditures, including the joint provision of the essentials of living. This definition is harmonised across the EU. (See Russell et al., 2010a, appendix, for a discussion of these assumptions.)

48. Note that individuals in multinational houses may thus have the same income but be assigned a different national group in the table.

49. The median is used instead of the mean for income as it is less sensitive to outliers (very high or very low incomes).

standard CSO adjustment for measuring poverty in Ireland and has been adopted in the National Anti-Poverty Strategy (NAPS) poverty measure. Estimates of the median equivalised income for Irish and non-Irish nationals and for different national groups are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 clearly shows that the median disposable household income, at €52,000 per year, is higher for Irish nationals than for non-Irish nationals (€41,000).⁵⁰ *Median disposable household income for non-Irish nationals is around four fifths or 80 per cent of that of Irish nationals.* The overall figure for non-Irish nationals hides considerable variation between the groups. The median household income for the EU13 nationals is rather similar to the Irish level. The lowest median income is for the EU12 group, consistent with the low wages found in Part 3 for this group, and the difference between this group and Irish nationals is statistically significant. UK incomes are also low. Further investigation shows that the UK group tend to be older (see Appendix Table A4.1), have lived in Ireland a (relatively) long time ago (see Appendix Table A4.2), and have lower labour force activity rates.⁵¹ The non-EU group is in an intermediate position. As noted earlier in this report, the latter is a very diverse group, both in terms of national/ethnic origin and the positions they occupy in the labour market.

Table 4.1 Household and equivalised income, 2008

	Disposable Household Income (Median)	Equivalised (needs adjusted) Income (Median)	No. of individuals in each group (unweighted)
Irish	51,956	20,897	11,907
Non Irish of which	41,139*	18,097*	644
UK	39,265*	16,794(n.s.)	200
EU13	48,621(n.s.)	24,293(n.s.)	81
EU12	39,095*	16,645*	182
Non-EU	45,666*	20,060*	172
All	51,020	20,758	12,551

Source: Own calculations from the EU-SILC, 2008, weighted.

Note: Non-Irish includes some with no stated nationality, hence this group is larger than the sum of the national groups. Equivalised income is income adjusted for the size and composition of the household, see text for further details. * is to signal that the group value is significantly different from the Irish value at $p < 0.05$. N.S. indicates that the difference is not statistically significant in this sample. See text for further details.

After adjusting income for the needs of the household using the process described above, the picture changes somewhat. The equivalised incomes for non-Irish nationals is still significantly lower than for Irish nationals, but as households are smaller, equivalised income for non-Irish nationals is now 87 per cent of Irish equivalised incomes. In fact, EU13 incomes are actually higher than those for Irish nationals, though the difference is not statistically significant. This is because the average household size is particularly small for this group, thus the household income is spread over fewer individuals. The UK equivalised income estimate is much lower than for Irish nationals but this difference is not statistically significant due to the small number of cases. More importantly, the lowest needs-adjusted income is for EU12 nationals, and this difference between this group and Irish nationals is statistically significant. The non-EU fall into an intermediate position in terms of income, though their equivalised income is also significantly lower than Irish nationals but the difference is much less than in the case of EU 12 nationals.

4.1.2 Poverty Rates

We now move from considering median income to those at the bottom of the income distribution. The two recommended indicators are the 'at risk of poverty rate' and the 'consistent poverty rate'. The 'at risk of poverty' used is the official poverty threshold used by the Central Statistics Office (CSO) and agreed at EU level, (60 per cent) of median equivalised income. For 2008 this was €12,455 per year (CSO, 2009b). In Table 4.2, we present the proportion of different national groups whose income falls below this threshold.⁵²

Yet income poverty can provide a misleading picture about households and individuals most seriously affected by poverty (Whelan et al., 2003). In response to some of these limitations, results from a measure of deprivation developed by Whelan (2007) are also calculated. This is a combination of 11 items measuring the enforced lack of items such as food, clothing and heat, as well as being unable to participate in family and social life.⁵³ This index has been incorporated into the National Anti-Poverty Strategy to supplement the income poverty measure. When combined with the income poverty measure this deprivation measure gives a measure of consistent poverty. Those individuals in consistent poverty are defined as those who are (1) at risk of poverty and (2) living in households which lack two or more of these basic items, the conventional measure of being deprived. In Table 4.2, estimates of consistent poverty are presented.

Table 4.2 shows that the overall at risk of poverty rate is 14.4 per cent of the total population in 2008, as estimated by the CSO (CSO

50. Median equivalised income is presented here. We estimate the same mean equivalised income per individual as the CSO, €24,380 (CSO, 2009b).

51. This is particularly true in the EU-SILC sample. For example, there are more non-employed UK nationals in the EU-SILC data than in the same year of the QNHS.

52. This is a relative income poverty measure, as the threshold is set as a proportion of all the incomes in the sample.

53. The items are: having two pairs of strong shoes; having a warm waterproof coat; buy new rather than secondhand clothes; eat meals with meat, chicken, fish (or vegetarian equivalent) every second day; have a roast joint (or its equivalent) once a week; go without heating during the last 12 months through lack of money; keep the home adequately warm; buy presents for family or friends at least once a year; replace any worn out furniture; have family or friends for a drink or meal once a month; have a morning, afternoon or evening out in the last fortnight, for entertainment. For each of the 11 items respondents must indicate whether they lack the item because they cannot afford it or for another reason (see Russell et al., 2010a).

2009b). The rate is higher for non-Irish nationals (18.4 per cent) than Irish nationals (14.1 per cent). The CSO does not regularly publish estimates of poverty among non-Irish nationals, and there are no estimates for 2008. For 2007 Russell et al. 2010a, using the nationality of the household reference person, also find a higher at risk of poverty rate among non-Irish nationals: 16.0 per cent for Irish, 22.8 per cent for non-Irish, using EU-SILC 2007 data. In the national report for Ireland on strategies for social protection and social inclusion, the at risk of poverty rate in 2006 was 16.6 per cent for Irish nationals compared to 23.5 per cent for non-Irish nationals (National Report for Ireland on Strategies for Social Protection and Social Inclusion 2008-2010).⁵⁴

Table 4.2 At risk of poverty and consistent poverty rates, 2008

	At Risk of Poverty (under the 60% median poverty line) (%)	Consistent Poverty (At Risk + Deprived) (%)	No. of individuals (unweighted)
Irish	14.1	4.3	11,907
Non Irish of which	18.4*	2.9(n.s.)	644
UK	19.9(n.s.)	5.4(n.s.)	200
EU13	25.5*	less than 1%	81
EU12	14.3(n.s.)	less than 1%*	182
Non-EU	18.6(n.s.)	6.0(n.s.)	172
All	14.4	4.2	12,551

Source: Own calculations from the EU-SILC, 2008, weighted.

Note: Non-Irish includes some with no stated nationality, hence this group is larger than the sum of the national groups. Equivalised income is income adjusted for the size and composition of the household, see text for further details. * is to signal that the group value is significantly different from the Irish value at $p < 0.05$. N.S. indicates that the difference is not statistically significant in this sample. See text for further details.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time poverty estimates by national group have been published. The 'at risk of poverty rate' in 2008 is higher for non-Irish nationals this difference is statistically significant. While there are differences between the groups, with one exception these are not statistically significant, i.e. the groups are too small to allow us to be confident about these differences. The exception is EU13 nationals. While in general they have high household income, a number of individuals' incomes fall below the poverty line. On further investigation a substantial minority of these are students, and the majority are not deprived/in consistent poverty (see below).

In terms of consistent poverty, which is a more durable measure of deprivation due to lack of resources, a much lower proportion, i.e. 4.2 per cent of the population, are consistently poor (see also CSO 2009b). The rates of consistent poverty for Irish and non-Irish nationals are not significantly different. There are differences between non-Irish groups though: both the UK and non-EU samples have slightly higher levels of consistent poverty, but these are not significantly different from the Irish sample. It should be noted that the UK sample on this dataset is relatively disadvantaged compared to the UK sample on the QNHS, Q2. As noted above, there are more non-employed than in the QNHS, even after weighting, in the UK sample, and this may partly explain the consistent poverty rate for this group.

Among non-EU nationals, six per cent are estimated to be in consistent poverty using this measure. This may be associated with lower levels of labour market activity among this group discussed in Chapter 2.⁵⁵ As noted above, those seeking protection living in direct provision are excluded from this survey. While it would be difficult to include the group in measures of income poverty as their income takes the form of an allowance, while food and accommodation are provided directly, it seems reasonable to assume that if they were included with non-EU nationals the income poverty rate of this group could be somewhat higher, even though the group only made up about 5 per cent of non-EU nationals at this time.⁵⁶

Other Europeans (EU12 and EU13 nationals) have very low rates of consistent poverty: the numbers are very small. Their level of consistent poverty is in fact lower than for Irish nationals. As the at risk of poverty rate for the EU13 group was quite high, this implies that in many households income may be low but individuals are not suffering an enforced lack of basic items or generalised deprivation.⁵⁷

4.2 Health Status

Health is an important component of quality of life and an individual's ability to participate in society. This section compares health status between Irish and non-Irish nationals. Health status is self-assessed, based on an individual's response to the question 'How good is your health in general?', with five possible responses ranging from very good to poor. This measure is frequently applied in research in the area and has been found to be a good predictor of mortality and use of health care (Idler and Benyamini, 1997; Burstrom and Fredlund, 2001). In Table 4.3 'good health' refers to the share of the population perceiving their health status as good or very good, and is the next Zaragoza indicator.

54. The data source was EU-SILC 2006.

55. It is also consistent with earlier research which found that non-EU nationals received a disproportionate share of rent supplement relative to their population share in 2005, indicative of their lack of means to pay the rent (Coates and Norris, 2006).

56. At €19.10 per week this gives a single person seeking protection less than €1,000 equivalised per year, after food and housing costs have been taken care of.

57. In the qualitative study by the Migration and Citizenship Research Initiative 'Getting on: From Migration to Integration. Chinese, Indian, Lithuanian, and Nigerian Migrants' Experiences in Ireland', most respondents said that their income covers their living expenses, apart from Nigerians, where 55% have problems (MCRI, 2008). This suggests that further distinctions of the non-EU group are likely to be fruitful, though this would be very difficult with EU-SILC data.

Table 4.3 Self-assessed health status, 2008

	Very Good or Good health (%)	Mean Age (rounded)	No. individuals (16 and over) (unweighted)
Irish	84.0	44	9,555
Non Irish of which	90.7*	36	557
UK	76.1*	48	190
EU13	94.8*	34	71
EU12	97.8*	30	151
Non-EU	92.9*	34	138
All	84.5	43	10,112

Source: Own calculations from the EU-SILC, 2008, weighted.

Note: *Refers to statistically significant differences. Non-Irish includes some with no stated nationality, hence this group is larger than the sum of the national groups.

Table 4.3 shows that while the vast majority of the population report their health to be very good or good, non-Irish nationals record significantly better health than Irish nationals. *Over 90 per cent report good health, compared to 84 per cent of the Irish sample.* Without a multivariate model it is difficult to investigate this difference further, but is likely to be linked to the fact that non-Irish nationals, particularly those from the EU, other than the UK, and further afield, tend to be younger (see Table 4.3) than Irish nationals. However, research using data from large immigrant-receiving countries such as Canada, the US and Australia has documented a 'healthy immigrant' effect, whereby the health of immigrants is better than comparable native-born individuals (see Nolan, 2011 for a discussion).

The notable exception to the general pattern is the group of UK nationals: their self-assessed health is poorer than Irish nationals and than all the other non-Irish groups. This difference between groups is also found by Nolan, in her study of self-reported poor health by place of birth using the 2007 Survey of Lifestyle, Attitudes and Nutrition (SLAN). While Nolan (2011) focuses on the proportion reporting 'fair' or 'poor' health,⁵⁸ the relative differences between the national groups are similar to those found using EU-SILC. In the SLAN data those born in the UK report similar rates of fair or poor health to those born in Ireland, while other immigrants, particularly those from the rest of the EU, were less likely to report fair or poor health. Nolan is interested in the 'healthy immigrant' hypothesis, which not only predicts healthier immigrants, but also

that immigrants living in a country longer exhibit health outcomes similar to the native population (i.e. that there is convergence in health outcomes among immigrants and natives over time). As Nolan notes though in Ireland, given that the UK sample are the only group to have been in Ireland for a substantial length of time, it is difficult to establish whether the relatively poorer health recorded by the UK sample is because they have been in Ireland longer than other immigrants, or because of other characteristics related to their nationality.

It should be acknowledged that this measure is of self-assessed health: individuals from different socio-economic groups may assess their health differently, as may those from different parts of the world (see Lindeboom and van Doorslaer, 2004 for a more detailed discussion). Nolan (2011) does stress in her paper that the effect of immigrant status in her study is relatively small. In a multivariate model, age, gender, education and household income would play a much greater role in determining health outcomes than country of origin.

4.3 Home Ownership

This section considers home ownership as a potential indicator of integration, and variation in home ownership by national groups, as the next Zaragoza indicator. As noted in Chapter 1, the economic boom in Ireland was associated with a large increase in inward migration of non-Irish nationals. It was also associated with a very dramatic increase in house prices (Fahey and Duffy, 2007). In 1994, Quarter 3, the average price of a new house in Ireland was just under €72,000. By Quarter 2, 2007 the average price of a new house was €332,000, an increase by a factor of 4.7 (Department of Environment and Local Government, Housing Statistics). Late 2006/early 2007 saw the peak of house prices: since then prices have been falling rapidly as the market collapsed. However, even in Quarter 2, 2008, during the time of the 2008 EU-SILC survey, the average price for a new house in Ireland was €300,000.

Turning to home ownership by nationality, Table 4.4 presents home ownership rates for private households in 2008. Home owners include both those who own their home outright, as well as those who own their house with a mortgage. Other types of tenancy are either private rented or local authority housing. As is common practice, home ownership rates are presented at household level, with nationality being assigned on the basis of the person who answered the household questionnaire.⁵⁹ Because of the small number of households, figures for EU13 and EU12 nationals have been combined.

58. In addition, Nolan's indicator of immigrant status is based on country of birth rather than nationality (see Nolan, 2011).

59. We assume there to be negligible differences between the nationality of the household head and the person who answered the household questionnaire, who we call household respondents in the discussion.

Table 4.4 Home ownership by households, 2008

	Home Owners (%)	No. of Households (unweighted)
Irish	80.4	4931
Non-Irish of which:	32.9*	277
UK	63.6*	102
EU3-27	16.5*	102
Non-EU	29.4*	69
All	77.0	5208

Source: Own calculations from the EU-SILC, 2008, weighted.

Notes: Non-Irish includes some with no stated nationality, hence this group is larger than the sum of the national groups. EU13 and EU12 are collapsed as the number of EU13 households is 36.

Table 4.4 shows marked differences between Irish and non-Irish nationals in terms of home ownership. *Just over 80 per cent of Irish household respondents owned their homes in 2008, compared to 33 per cent of non-Irish household respondents.* This difference is statistically significant. While UK household respondents are more likely to own their own house than other non-Irish household respondents, the proportion (at 63.6 per cent) is still significantly lower than for Irish household respondents. The lowest rate of home ownership is among other EU nationals, at less than 20 per cent. Around 30 per cent of Non-EU household respondents own their house.

These estimates from the EU-SILC for 2008 are consistent with data from the 2006 Census, which shows that 80 per cent of Irish household heads own their house, and 33 per cent of non-Irish household heads. 65 per cent of UK nationals own their house, 31 per cent of EU13 nationals, 6 per cent of EU10 nationals and 23 per cent of others (CSO, Census 2006 Volume 6, Table 38). Duffy (2007, 2010) examines in detail the housing tenure of immigrants in Ireland, showing how rates of homeownership have fallen from around 62 per cent in 1995, to 46 per cent in 2004 to 37 per cent in 2006, and attributes some of this fall to the changing composition of immigrants in Ireland, in particular the rapid rise in the proportion of EU10 nationals, who have very low rates of home ownership. Using the earlier data (2004) he does show that even after controlling for age, education, family cycle, occupation/employment status and region, immigrants are much less likely to own their homes.

Why is home ownership so much lower among non-Irish household heads? It may well reflect preferences for rental property. Ireland has one of the highest home ownership rates in the EU, and home ownership rates among immigrants may well reflect home ownership rates in the immigrants' country of origin. Alternatively, given the rapid rise in house prices in Ireland in recent years, when many non-Irish came to Ireland, Duffy (2007) argues that immigrants (especially recent arrivals) may have made a rational decision not to buy a house at this time. Another study found that

the requirement to demonstrate credit and employment history poses greater difficulty for immigrant mortgage applicants (NCCRI, 2008).

Alternatively, lower home ownership may reflect the fact that some individuals may either view their stay in Ireland as temporary, or actually only have a temporary residence permission, and may not want to make a long-term commitment like buying a home. It may also reflect affordability constraints (Duffy, 2007). As some groups of immigrants earn less, have higher levels of unemployment, and may spend a significant part of their savings on remittances, they may not be able to afford expensive homes in Ireland. Many recent immigrants do not have any of the housing equity built up from the strong house price inflation than Irish nationals do. Finally, as discussed below, non-Irish nationals report higher levels of discrimination both in accessing housing and in accessing financial services than Irish nationals. This may also play a role in home ownership.

The Annual Housing Statistics Bulletin 2008 illustrates that a relatively high percentage (23 per cent) of those found to be in need of social housing are non-Irish nationals (Department of Environment, 2009). Half of those non-Irish nationals on the housing lists of local authorities are non-EU nationals.

4.4 The Experience of Discrimination

4.4.1 Comparing Irish and non-Irish, QNHS 2004

This section reports on non-Irish nationals' experience of discrimination. This evidence is of a very different nature to rates of home ownership or poverty: self-reports of discrimination are subjective, and should be viewed in that light. However, they do provide useful indicators of both the experience of non-Irish nationals of Ireland, and are also indicative of areas where there may be problems with discrimination. There is no recommended source of this information proposed at the Zaragoza conference, so evidence from two large surveys in Ireland are used. Both the surveys reported on here followed best practice to minimise bias: questions were limited to specific domains and referred to a particular time period.

Questions on the experience of discrimination are not typically asked on social surveys in Ireland. A notable exception to this is a special module of the Quarterly National Household Survey in 2004, which asked a representative survey of adults in Ireland a series of questions about their experience of discrimination. Respondents were asked about their experience of discrimination in the workplace; in looking for work; in shops, pubs, restaurants; using financial services (banks etc.); in relation to education; obtaining housing; accessing health services; using transport services; accessing other public services. A strength of this survey for this Monitor is that the responses of non-Irish nationals can be compared to those of Irish nationals: studies of the experience of discrimination often focus on minority groups only. The following discussion draws on the work of Russell et al. (2008).

Overall, the highest reported discrimination in this survey was

in recruitment, and of those who had been seeking work, the discrimination rate was much higher for non-Irish nationals (12.6 per cent) than for Irish nationals (4.9 per cent). Discrimination in the workplace was the second highest reported discrimination rate, 10.6 per cent for non-Irish and 4.4 per cent for Irish. Overall work-related discrimination was 16.5 per cent for non-Irish nationals and 6.4 per cent for Irish nationals. In the services, the highest reported discrimination was in accessing accommodation (4 per cent) and financial services (3.7 per cent). Discrimination rates for different domains are not reported separately for Irish/non-Irish nationals, but the rate of experiencing any discrimination in accessing services, at 17.2 per cent, is much higher than for Irish nationals (8.4 per cent). Even after accounting for a range of factors in a multivariate model, non-Irish nationals are more likely to experience discrimination than Irish nationals in a wide variety of domains: in looking for work and in the workplace; in seeking accommodation; in shops, pubs and restaurants; in financial institutions and in public transport.⁶⁰ The report does not distinguish non-Irish nationals by national group.

Another salient finding is that only 40 per cent of those experiencing discrimination reported this to anyone, only 6 per cent took legal action or made a formal complaint. This suggests that the cases that make it to the Equality Tribunal, the Labour Court or other legal arena represent a very small fraction of all cases of discrimination: as a source of data on the experience of discrimination they are likely to be a serious underestimate.

While the results of the survey reported here are now somewhat out of date, this survey is being repeated in late 2010 (Russell et al., 2010b). This will not only provide more current information on the experience of discrimination, but also facilitate an analysis of trends over time, and whether there has been any change in the experience of discrimination as a result of economic recession.

4.4.2 ESRI/EUMC Racism Survey, 2005

Another source of information on the experience of discrimination among non-Irish nationals is from a dedicated survey of racism and discrimination conducted by the ESRI for the European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia in Summer 2005. The limitation of this survey is that it is just of non-EU nationals; its strength is that it is a rich source of information on differences between non-EU groups, and this is the focus of the discussion below. The Irish sample consisted of four migrant groups, North African, Asian, Southern/Central African, and Eastern Europe, who had come to Ireland through either the work-permit system or the asylum process (see McGinnity et al. 2006 for further details).⁶¹ This survey also asked respondents about their experience of discrimination in a similar range of life domains to the QNHS module described above, as well as about harassment on the street/on public transport and by neighbours, and about experiencing racist violence.

For most domains studied, Southern/Central Africans, most of whom are of Black ethnicity, experience considerably more racism and

discrimination than any of the other groups. This group experiences a particularly high level of racial harassment on the street and on public transport relative to other immigrants: just over half of the sample had experienced harassment on the street at least once because of their ethnic/national origin in the year preceding the survey (McGinnity et al., 2006). Southern/Central Africans also experience more discrimination in shops and restaurants and in accessing employment. North Africans and Asians generally experience much lower levels of discrimination than Southern/Central Africans, despite the fact that they too look visibly different from the native Irish populations. Non-EU East Europeans also experience relatively low levels of discrimination relative to Southern/Central Africans. Even after accounting for the different national composition of the groups, work permit holders experience significantly less discrimination than asylum seekers.

4.5 Summary of Inclusion Indicators

Considering these social inclusion indicators the following picture emerges. For the overall comparison between Irish and non-Irish nationals, we find that non-Irish nationals have a lower disposable household income and lower equivalised income. Non-Irish nationals have significantly higher at risk of poverty rate than Irish nationals. Their consistent poverty rate does not differ significantly from that of Irish nationals. Rates of home ownership are much lower among non-Irish than Irish nationals and they have better health outcomes. Non-Irish nationals experience report higher rates of discrimination than non-Irish nationals in a range of domains: notably in the workplace, looking for work and accessing housing and financial services.

In terms of differences between the national groups, here we are somewhat limited by the small sample size. UK nationals, for example, have poorer health outcomes than Irish nationals, and home ownership rates more similar to Irish nationals than other groups, though still lower than the rate for Irish nationals. The EU13 nationals are a small group in this sample. Their disposable income is not significantly different from Irish nationals, as is the case for other groups. Their 'at risk of poverty' rate is high, though they show very low rates of consistent poverty. Health outcomes are better, on average, than for Irish nationals. EU 12 nationals have lower disposable and equivalised income than Irish nationals, poverty rates similar to Irish nationals, very low consistent poverty rates and much better health outcomes. These two groups combined (EU13 and EU12) have very low home ownership rates. The non-EU nationals, a diverse group, have lower household incomes and equivalised incomes on average. Their poverty rates, while higher, are not significantly different from those of Irish nationals. Like the EU13 and EU12 groups, they have better health outcomes, and much lower home ownership rates than Irish nationals. In terms of group differences in the experience of discrimination, South Central Africans experience much higher rates of harassment and discrimination than other groups, followed by Asians and then non-EU East Europeans.

There are clearly a number of indicators not included here, from participation in sports and clubs to a sense of belonging in the society,

60. This model takes into account the differences between the samples in terms of gender, age, education, ethnicity, religion, disability status, marital and family status and employment status. See Russell et al., 2008 for further details of this model.

61. After weighting, this survey is a representative sample of the target groups.

but these are beyond the scope of the chapter. Some may be included in subsequent monitors.

Measuring income and poverty is an important component of monitoring integration. The fact that the only source of data on income and poverty in Ireland under-represents immigrants to such an extent is a cause for concern going forward. It could be that reweighting the data to be representative of the national groups in the population, using 2006 Census data updated with population estimates, would go some way to addressing this issue. The weighting factors could be adjusted once the 2011 Census data becomes available. The EU-SILC is

potentially an excellent, cross-national dataset for comparing income and poverty rates among immigrants across Europe. The forthcoming Household Budget Survey (currently in the field), will provide nationality and country of birth information, and this would be an important additional source of income and poverty estimates, though does not have the cross-national comparability of the EU-SILC.

While subjective indicators are not as frequently collected, the special module of the QNHS in equality and discrimination in 2004 and the fact that it being repeated in 2010, are all encouraging and very

Box 4.1 Access to Social Services⁶²

Social Welfare

The social welfare system is administered by the Department of Social Protection. It is divided into the following main types of payments.

- **Social insurance payments** (for example job-seeker benefit, maternity benefit, carers' benefit, disability benefit and contributory old age pension).
- **Social assistance or means-tested payments** (for example job-seeker allowance, pre-retirement allowance, non-contributory old age pension, carers' allowance, supplementary welfare allowance).
- **Universal payments** (for example child benefit).

To qualify for social insurance payments an individual must have made the necessary number of social insurance (PRSI) payments for the scheme in question and satisfy a means test. Social assistance payments are made to those who do not have enough PRSI contributions to qualify for the equivalent social insurance-based payments. It should be noted however that accessing social welfare can adversely affect a non-EU national's claim for citizenship or long-term residence as applicants are usually required to have been 'self supporting' for a period before application (see Chapter 5 for further discussion). Furthermore certain permissions to remain in the State issued by the Department of Justice and Law Reform specify that the holder must not become a burden on the State. Dependency on a basic assistance payment would constitute a burden in this context and could invalidate an individual's right to reside in Ireland (Department of Social Protection, 2010).

EU law requires that EU nationals are treated equally to Member State nationals in regard to access to social welfare, but national administrative practices lead to different levels of access. This is evidenced in Ireland by the application of a Habitual Residency Condition (HRC) to social assistance payments and child benefit.

Applicants for social assistance or child benefit must show they are resident in Ireland and have a proven close link to Ireland. When the condition was first introduced there was a requirement for a minimum two year residence in Ireland but this has been replaced with a more fluid assessment of a number of different factors. Currently the Department of Social Protection assesses the following:

1. The applicant's main centre of interest, based on facts such as: whether they own or lease a home here; where their close family members live; whether they belong to social or professional associations here; and any other evidence or activities indicating a settled residence in Ireland.
2. The length and continuity of the applicant's residence in Ireland or other parts of the Common Travel Area.
3. The length of and reason for any absence from Ireland.
4. The nature and pattern of employment.
5. Future intention to live in the Republic of Ireland as it appears from the evidence (Department of Social Protection, 2010).

The evidence used for each factor depends on the facts of the individual case and the final decision reached is to some extent subjective. It is possible to bring an appeal against a decision on HRC to the independent Social Welfare Appeals Office.

The HRC was implemented from the date of EU accession of 10 new member states, 1 May 2004, and affects all applicants regardless of nationality although it is clearly much easier for an Irish national to satisfy the conditions than an EU or non-EU national. It is particularly difficult for protection applicants to satisfy the HRC. The Department of Social Protection states that asylum seekers with a decision pending on their case, unsuccessful asylum applicants, persons subject to a deportation order, persons who have entered illegally and those whose permission to be in the state has lapsed for over 3 months are all excluded from being regarded as habitually resident.⁶³

EU law dictates that the application of different national social security systems should not impact negatively on persons who exercise their right to

(Continued overleaf)

62. See <http://www.welfare.ie/> for information on social welfare in Ireland; <http://www.inis.gov.ie/> for information on immigration requirements and <http://www.citizensinformation.ie/en/> for more general information.

63. Access to child benefit has been granted to asylum applicants with negative determinations on their cases in a limited number of cases in the past and the matter is still being debated in the Courts. FLAC, 2009b.

Box 4.1 Access to Social Services (cont'd)

free movement. This involves applying the “aggregation” principle by requiring one State to take into account contributions paid in another; and the “export” principle by ensuring that benefits are payable outside the national territory.⁶⁴ Regulation (EC) No 859/2003 extends these mobility-related rules to Third-Country Nationals legally resident in the EU, to members of their families and to their survivors.

Health Services

In Ireland there is universal access to public health care, though costs may apply, for example for GP services. Medical card holders may access public health services free of charge in Ireland. Entitlement to medical cards is means tested regardless of nationality. Asylum applicants living in direct provision are also entitled to a medical card. Refugees and those with leave to remain are also entitled to a medical card.

The Health Service Executive’s National Intercultural Health Strategy 2007–2012 (NIHS) was developed during 2007 and formally launched in 2008. The strategy aims to promote greater access and inclusion of minority ethnic communities, immigrants and asylum seekers in the health services in Ireland. The primary objective of the strategy is to provide a framework through which service providers are supported in addressing the unique care and support needs of people from diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Implementation of the Intercultural Health Strategy has prioritised access to services; data, information and research, and staff learning, training and support.⁶⁵

However, given the current economic environment there is a fear that priorities will be shifted to accommodate a stark new economic reality. Nurse (2009) argues that the economic climate may be regarded as no longer conducive to implementation of any recommendations which necessitated allocation of additional resources.

Housing Services

Local authorities in Ireland are the main provider of social housing for people who need housing and cannot afford to buy their own homes. Local authority housing is allocated according to housing need, and rents are based on ability to pay. Rent supplements are available for those in private rented accommodation who cannot afford to meet their housing costs. Both benefits are subject to a means test and applicants must satisfy the habitual residence condition described above.

New asylum applicants are housed within the direct provision where they receive food, accommodation and a payment of €19.10 plus €9.60 per child per week. Approximately 6,000 asylum and other protection applicants also live with family or in private rented accommodation. Asylum applicants may not receive rent supplements.

Family Unity and Family Reunification

Third Country Nationals require permission to reside in Ireland and ordinarily, this permission entails no right to be joined by family members. Statutory provisions exist which regulate family reunification for persons granted refugee status as set out in Section 18 of the Refugee Act. The Office of the Refugee Applications Commissioner (ORAC) investigates such applications and makes a written report to the Minister for Justice and Law Reform which he/she considers before deciding upon the application.

Permission to remain in Ireland may be granted to dependants of an employment permit holder, or dependants of a Scientific Researcher.⁶⁶ In the case of work permit holders the sponsor must be working in Ireland for at least 12 months before applying for family members to join them and have an income above a certain threshold. In the case of green card holders or Scientific Researchers an immediate application for family unity may be made, or family members may accompany the sponsor on admission into the State, or join later subject to normal immigration rules.

Under Irish and EU law, EU citizens may live and work in Ireland for three months without any requirement that they register their presence. After three months, an EU citizen is permitted to remain in Ireland as long as he or she is employed, self-sufficient or in education. EU citizens have a right to family unity, meaning that they are entitled to be accompanied by their spouse/partner, their children and their dependent relatives, even if these people are not EU citizens themselves.⁶⁷ This right is derived from the EU citizen’s right to freedom of movement under EU law and does not extend to Irish citizens resident in Ireland. The High Court has held that an Irish citizen resident in Ireland is not entitled to rely on any right to family unity derived from EU law because he or she, being resident in Ireland, is not exercising his or her right to freedom of movement.⁶⁸ An Irish citizen’s right to family unity is recognised by the Constitution and by the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR). This right is not absolute and the State is entitled to exclude non-Irish family members under certain circumstances or to effect their removal.

64. Regulation (EEC) No. 1408/71 contains detailed rules which co-ordinate rights granted under the different national legislations.

65. One example of a practical resource that has been developed is the Emergency Multilingual Aid designed to assist staff in communicating with patients who present in acute or emergency situations and who are not proficient in English. Another initiative was the development of a Health Services Intercultural Guide which has been designed to assist staff in caring in sensitive, culturally competent ways for inpatients from diverse religious communities and cultures.

66. Researcher who enters the State under the Researchers Directive, Council Directive 2005/71/EC.

67. This has been a contentious issue in Ireland in recent years as discussed in section 1.3.3 (see also Joyce, 2009, 2010).

68. This approach may be contrasted with the approach adopted in a recent Advocate General’s opinion at the Court of Justice of the EU, which suggests that Union citizens may have rights to family unity derived from EU law even in their own countries. The decision of the Court on the issue is pending.

The active participation of immigrants in the democratic process and in the formulation of integration policies and measures is among the Common Basic Principles on Integration (CBP). The Tampere European Council of 1999, and the CBP of 2004, state further that “the prospect of acquiring Member State citizenship can be an important incentive for integration” of Third-Country Nationals. The access of immigrants to institutions, goods and services, on a basis equal to national citizens is also seen as a critical foundation for better integration. Such access may be ensured through the granting of permanent or long-term residence status. Conversely, insecurity about residency status is not conducive to successful integration. Repeatedly the importance of local-level engagement is underlined as a means of enhancing immigrants’ role as residents and as participants in the host society.

Assessing the degree of integration in the domain of active citizenship is a complex task. Three indicators were suggested at the Zaragoza conference for the purpose of measuring integration in this domain: the share of immigrants who have acquired citizenship; the share of immigrants holding permanent or long-term residence permits; and the share of immigrants among elected representatives. The data required to construct these three indicators are not readily available and the results presented in this Chapter should be viewed as a starting point to monitoring integration in this domain. It should be noted that the first two indicators do not allow us to directly compare outcomes between Irish and non-Irish; instead they describe the context and the opportunities for integration.

5.1 Citizenship

Irish Citizenship law and policy has altered significantly in recent years, arguably in response to increased immigration. Until 2005 Ireland granted citizenship to anybody born on the territory (the *ius soli* principle). After a referendum in 2004 and a subsequent Constitutional amendment, changes in citizenship provisions were enacted which mean that any person born in Ireland after 1 January 2005 to non-Irish parents will not be automatically entitled to Irish citizenship unless one of the parents was legally resident in Ireland for at least three out of the four years preceding the child’s birth.

In the period between January 2005 and December 2009 a total of 20,000 non-EEA nationals acquired Irish citizenship, excluding

those aged under 16. The rules for accessing citizenship and naturalisation are discussed in Box 5.1 below. *The total figure of 20,000 includes 9,500 naturalisations and 10,500 grants of post nuptial citizenship.*⁷⁰ The post nuptial citizenship procedure ended in 2005 and these numbers relate to the processing of the number of cases outstanding at that time.⁷¹ Reliable records do not exist on naturalisations prior to 2005. A core Zaragoza indicator is the share of immigrants who have acquired citizenship. With the data available, only a tentative estimation may be made of this figure in the Irish context by expressing the ratio of the number of non-EEA naturalisations to the estimated non-EEA population.⁷²

The number of non-EEA nationals aged 16 and over holding “live” immigration permissions (in the form of Registration Stamps issued by the Garda National Immigration Bureau) in December 2009 was 134,549.⁷³ Assuming that people who have been through the naturalisation process have made a commitment to remain in Ireland and will not have moved away their number may be added to the total registered giving a total estimated non-EEA “immigrant population” of 154,549. Based on available data it may be estimated that the ratio of non-EEA naturalisations in 2005-2009 to the estimated stock of non-EEA immigrants resident in 2009 was 13 per cent. The following caveats apply: firstly it is not known how many people naturalised prior to 2005; and secondly it is not known how many people who naturalised subsequently left the State.⁷⁴ Thirdly, it should be noted that international students represent a large proportion of non-EEA nationals in Ireland. (Table A2.1 shows that 27% of live registration stamps issued in 2009 were to students). If students were excluded from the calculation of this indicator, the share of non-EEA nationals who have acquired citizenship would increase.

EEA nationals are excluded from this estimation because the freedom of movement within the EU means that a reliable stock figure is only available for Census years. There are however few incentives for EU nationals resident in Ireland to adopt Irish nationality. Across the EU the naturalisation and political participation rates of mobile EU citizens are generally low. Only two EU countries (Austria and Italy) currently provide for facilitated naturalisation of EU citizens through shorter residence requirements (EURO Citizenship 2010).

In January 2005 the Department of Justice and Law Reform invited

69. It should be noted that the term “active citizenship” is used here as a broad concept embracing formal and non-formal, political, cultural, inter-personal and caring activities (Taskforce on Active Citizenship, 2007) and as such is not limited to the activities of Irish citizens.

70. Data supplied by the Department of Justice and Law Reform.

71. Prior to 2005 spouses of Irish nationals who had married their Irish citizen spouses before 30 November 2002 could, after three years of marriage, lodge a declaration accepting Irish citizenship (Beckler, 2010).

72. The calculation is limited to non-EEA nationals as a recent and reliable stock figure which includes EEA nationals is not available.

73. Note this figure differs from that supplied in Table A.3.1 in Appendix 3 because this is a ‘snapshot’ of registrations that were live in December 2009.

74. This stock figure includes certain groups of non-EEA nationals, such as students, Intra-Company Transferees and trainees, whose residence in Ireland does not count as “reckonable residence” when applying for naturalisation (see Box 5.1). Unlike asylum applicants these subgroups of non-EEA national have full residence permission and are also included in the non-EEA stock figure sent to EUROSTAT under the Statistics Regulation (EC) No 862/2007.

non-Irish national parents of Irish born children who had applied for residency on the basis of their Irish child but had had their claims suspended in 2003, to apply to remain under the Irish Born Child 2005 Scheme (IBC/05). Almost 18,000 applications were submitted under the Scheme and of these almost 16,700 were approved. Note that people who have permission to remain on the basis of parentage of an Irish child and have been fully legally resident in Ireland since 2005 will have sufficient reckonable residence to apply for naturalisation in 2010 and some increase in the number of naturalisations may be expected in the 2011 Integration Monitor.

The Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act, 1956 Act as amended provides that the Minister for Justice and Law Reform has 'absolute discretion' in granting an application for a certificate of naturalisation. It is stated that the granting of Irish Citizenship through naturalisation is a privilege and an honour, not an entitlement and not a mandatory consequence once eligibility criteria are satisfied.⁷⁵ There is no mechanism for challenging a refusal of an application and there is currently no legal obligation to provide reasons for a refusal of an application for naturalisation. NGOs including the Immigrant Council of Ireland have indicated that the degree of discretion exercised by the Minister in relation to naturalisation, and the lack of clarity around decisions made, creates uncertainty and insecurity among non-EU immigrant applicants.

Applications for naturalisation may be refused in cases where the applicant has come to the 'adverse attention' of the Garda Síochána are therefore deemed not to fulfil the requirement to be 'of good character'. Such attention may be as minor as a traffic offence. The

Minister may also refuse applications where the applicant has received social welfare, even for a short period of time (Cosgrave, 2010).

Joyce (2010) notes that over 25,500 applications for naturalisation were processed in 2009 of which 12,242 were rejected as invalid (on technical issues with the application) and 6,011 were deemed ineligible (the eligibility criteria was not met). Of the 7,329 eligible applications for naturalisation, 5,868 cases were granted and 1,461 were refused. The main reasons for refusal of naturalisation applications are where the applicants are not found to be of good character and/or have not demonstrated that they are in a position to support themselves and their dependants into the future.⁷⁶ The problems caused by the lack of clarity around eligibility criteria and application process are compounded by long processing times: in June 2009 the processing time from application to decision was 23 months on average with some applicants waiting several years for a determination on their case (Joyce, 2010).

The Migrant Integration Index scores Ireland third among 28 countries on access to nationality, falling after Belgium/Canada, France/Portugal and tied with the UK. The lack of appeal of refused applications and the fact that a withdrawal of citizenship can happen no matter how long a person has been an Irish citizen (though not if it would make them stateless) are cited as problems.⁷⁷ The Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act, 1956 states that the Minister may revoke a certificate of naturalisation if he is satisfied "that the person to whom it was granted has, by any overt act, shown himself to have failed in his duty of fidelity to the nation and loyalty to the State..."⁷⁸ Becker (2010) notes that the constitutionality of this provision has been called into question.

Box 5.1 Access to Citizenship⁷⁹

Citizenship through naturalisation

An application for a certificate of naturalisation is considered under the Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act, 1956, as amended. Foreign nationals living in Ireland may apply to the Minister for Justice and Law Reform to become an Irish citizen if they are over 18 years or a minor born in the State since 1 January 2005. The applicant must "be of good character" and have had a period of 1 year's continuous reckonable residence in the State immediately before the date of application and, during the previous 8 years, have had a total reckonable residence in the State amounting to 4 years. The total required reckonable residence is 5 years out of the previous 9 years. The applicant must intend in good faith to continue to reside in the State after naturalisation and make a declaration of fidelity to the nation and loyalty to the State. Applicants are usually required to have been "self supporting" i.e. not dependent on social welfare for the three years prior to application. Periods spent in Ireland, for example, as an asylum applicant or as a student are not considered when calculating reckonable residence.

The 1956 Act as amended provides that the Minister for Justice and Law Reform has 'absolute discretion' in granting an application for a certificate of naturalisation provided certain statutory conditions are met. The Minister may choose to waive certain conditions for naturalisation including if the applicant is of Irish descent or is the spouse of an Irish or naturalised person. The term of reckonable residence may be reduced if for example the applicant is of Irish descent, or is a parent or guardian acting on behalf of a minor of Irish descent or is a recognised refugee. Applications for naturalisation made by recognised refugees are routinely accepted for consideration three years after refugee status has been granted (Becker, 2010).

(Continued overleaf)

75. <http://www.inis.gov.ie/>.

76. Dermot Ahern, TD. Response to Parliamentary Question Tuesday 12th October, 2010.

77. <http://www.integrationindex.eu/>.

78. Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act, 1956, section 19 (1) (b).

79. See <http://www.inis.gov.ie/> and <http://www.citizensinformation.ie/en/> for more general information.

Box 5.1 Access to Citizenship (Cont'd)

Currently no fee exists for applying for naturalisation but, if granted, the successful applicant must pay a fee of €950.00. In the case of naturalised minors, the fee is €200.00. It is procedurally required for a foreign national parent to have made a successful application for naturalisation before submitting an application on behalf of their minor child who is resident in the State with them (Cosgrave, 2010).

Citizenship through birth or descent

The Irish Nationality and Citizenship Act 2004 provides that only children born to Irish citizen parent(s) are automatically Irish citizens. A child born on the island of Ireland on or after 1 January 2005 is entitled to Irish citizenship if they have a British parent or a parent who is entitled to live in Northern Ireland or the Irish State without restriction on their residency. Other foreign national parents of children born in the island of Ireland on or after 1 January 2005 must prove that they have a genuine link to Ireland (evidenced by being resident legally for at least 3 out of the previous 4 years) in order for their child to claim Irish citizenship.⁸⁰ Irish citizens may hold the citizenship of another country without giving up their Irish citizenship.

5.2 Long-Term Residence

A further core Zaragoza indicator is the share of the immigrant population holding permanent or long-term residence. Ireland does not yet have a statutory long-term residence status. Such a status was first proposed in the Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill 2007 and again in the Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill 2008, both of which did not complete the legislative process to become law. The most recent Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill 2010 includes provision for a long-term residence status and it is anticipated that this Bill will be passed in late 2010 or early 2011. Non-EEA nationals granted long-term residence would be entitled to reside in the State, to travel into and out of the State like Irish citizens, to work, and to healthcare, social welfare and education to the same extent as citizens.

Ireland currently operates an administrative long-term residency scheme which is open to employment permit holders and their dependent spouses. Data on persons who are granted long-term residence via the current administrative scheme are available for the period 2005 to 2009. See Box 5.2 for a description of access to long-term residence in Ireland. *In the five years between 2005 and 2009 7,671 non-EEA nationals aged 16 and over were granted long-term residence.* Using the estimate of the stock of non-EEA immigrant population described above (154,549) it may be estimated that the ratio of the number of people granted long-term residence to the estimated non-EEA immigrant population in Ireland is 5 per cent. The main caveat to be applied to this estimation is that it is not known how many people who were granted long-term residence subsequently left the State. In addition the long-term residency scheme started in 2004 and data do not exist on the number of people granted this status in 2004. Finally this calculation excludes persons granted 'permission to

remain without condition as to time' (see Box 5.2) but the numbers involved here are low (fewer than 550 such permissions had been issued by 2009).

There is some lack of clarity on the rights attached to the current administratively based long-term residence status. While the long-term resident may continue to reside in the State, the impact of temporary departure for example is not clear. Commentators such as the Immigrant Council of Ireland argue that this lack of clarity on associated rights persists in the proposed long-term residence scheme in the 2010 Bill (Immigrant Council of Ireland, 2010). The fact that long-term residence will be put on a statutory footing is welcomed however because the current administrative scheme is highly discretionary and no entitlement to the status exists once eligibility criteria are met. This situation will be rectified on enactment of the 2010 Bill. Among other eligibility criteria an applicant must be of good character; speak English or Irish; and be deemed to be making efforts to integrate. Assessment of this latter criteria may be, to some extent, subjective.

Along with the UK and Denmark, Ireland opted out of Directive 2003/109/EC concerning the status of Third-Country Nationals who are long-term residents.⁸¹ The Directive provides that long-term residents shall enjoy equal treatment with nationals for example regarding access to employment, education and vocational training. There are a number of important differences between the Directive and the long-term residency scheme proposed in the Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill 2010. Significantly the proposed Irish status is granted for 5 years initially and may be renewed, while under Directive 2003/109/EC renewal is automatic. The provisions of the 2010 Bill governing the revocation of long-term residence are also broad while Article 22 of the Directive sets out the scope for withdrawal of long-term residence permission. The Migrant Integration Policy Index scored Ireland most poorly

80. If children are born outside Ireland their parent or grandparent must have been born in Ireland for them to qualify automatically for citizenship. See www.inis.gov.ie for further information.

81. Under the terms of the Protocol on the position of the United Kingdom and Ireland annexed to the Treaty on European Union and to the Treaty establishing the European Community by the Treaty of Amsterdam, Ireland does not take part in the adoption by the Council of proposed measures pursuant to Title IV of the EC Treaty unless Ireland opts into the measure. Ireland has given an undertaking to opt in to measures that do not compromise the Common Travel Area with the UK.

among all 28 countries on the subject of long-term residence stating that at present immigrants are eligible only for work-based and discretionary statuses with security of residence being dependent entirely on security of employment.⁸²

Box 5.2 Access to Long-Term Residence⁸³

Ireland does not yet have a statutory long-term residence status but operates an administrative scheme. The current administrative scheme allows persons who have been legally resident in the State for a continuous period of five years or more on the basis of an employment permit (and their dependent spouses) to apply for a five-year residency extension. They may also then apply to work without the need to hold an employment permit. A €500 fee for processing applications under this scheme was introduced in 2009 (Joyce, 2010). This long-term residency scheme is available to those who are still in employment and to those with an employment permit who, having completed 5 years work, have been made redundant.

The green card as introduced (see Box 2.1) was intended to lead directly to the granting of long-term residence. Given the delays in enacting the Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill the Department of Justice and Law Reform have introduced an interim administrative scheme whereby green card holders whose permit and immigration registration card were due to expire in 2009 will not be required to apply for a renewal employment permit subject to the person having 'complied with their previous immigration and employment permit conditions' and being 'of good character'. The status entitles the green card holder to work without an employment permit for two years after which time it must be renewed.

Non-EEA nationals who have lived in Ireland for at least 8 years and who are of 'good character' may be permitted to remain in Ireland without condition as to time. They receive a Stamp 5 registration on their passport and can work without an employment permit (Becker, 2010).

5.3 Voting and Elected Representatives

Ireland has among the most favourable conditions regarding political participation in the EU. The Migrant Policy Index scored Ireland at 100 per cent on electoral rights and political liberties

along with Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden.⁸⁴ Rules on voting and standing in elections in Ireland are discussed in Box 5.3. The last local elections, in which all usually resident EU and non-EU nationals may vote, took place in June 2009. The last General Election, in which only Irish and UK citizens may vote, took place in 2007. The recommended Zaragoza indicator is the share of immigrants among elected representatives. *Available data relate to the 2009 local elections at which 4 immigrants were elected from Nigeria, the Netherlands, Russia and Lithuania (Mutwarasibo, 2009). There are 1,627 local authority members in Ireland⁸⁵ giving a per cent share of 0.2 per cent.*

Fanning, Mutwarasibo and Chadamoyo (2003) undertook a survey of the main political parties in Ireland and found an absence of measures aimed at encouraging immigrants and ethnic minorities to become involved in Irish politics.⁸⁶ In a follow up survey before the 2007 General Election it was found that most of the political parties had deferred work on recruiting immigrant and ethnic minority members until after the 2007 general election. This was interpreted as 'pragmatic indifference' to immigrants given that only Irish and UK citizens could vote or stand in General Elections (Chadamoyo et al 2007). The authors note that this points to the crucial role of citizenship in the political integration of immigrants.

Research commissioned by the Immigrant Council of Ireland (Migration and Citizenship Research Initiative, 2008) found marked differences across immigrant national groups in political participation. Of four national groups researched, 50 per cent of Nigerians were registered to vote compared with between 10 and 20 of the other three national groups: Chinese, Indian, and Lithuanian. Over 70 per cent of respondents said they did not know that they could register to vote while 60 per cent of the Lithuanians surveyed indicated that they were not interested in registering.

In the latest survey of Irish political parties in relation to immigrants and integration the authors detected commitment to integration and 'tangible political efforts' to engage with immigrants. Prior to the 2009 local elections the Office of the Minister for Integration funded initiatives on voter awareness among immigrants run by Dublin City, Fingal, Dun Laoghaire and Rathdown and Cork County Councils (Fanning et al, 2009). Non-government organisations, the Africa Centre and the New Communities Partnership, also ran a campaign to encourage more immigrants in 10 local authority areas to register to vote (New Communities Partnership and the Africa Centre, 2010). Fianna Fáil and Fine Gael appointed integration officers and both parties ran high-profile campaigns to attract Polish members. By April 2009 all the parties, with the exception of Sinn Féin, had selected a number of immigrant candidates to represent them in the local elections. (Fanning et al, 2009).

82. <http://www.integrationindex.eu/>.

83. See <http://www.inis.gov.ie/> and <http://www.citizensinformation.ie/en/> for more general information.

84. <http://www.integrationindex.eu/>.

85. Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government (2009). Information leaflet: How Members of Local Authorities are Elected. Available at www.envron.ie.

86. Fianna Fáil, Fine Gael, Labour, Green Party and Sinn Féin. In 2004 the survey was also sent to the Progressive Democrats (now defunct).

5.4 Summary of Findings on Active Citizenship

This Chapter indicates that there are significant barriers to integration in the domain of active citizenship in Ireland. NGOs active in the field have indicated that the degree of discretion exercised in the processing of naturalisation applications causes uncertainty and insecurity on behalf of immigrants in Ireland, as does the capacity for a naturalisation certificate to be revoked (Cosgrave, 2010). Access to long-term residence is also highly discretionary and there is a lack of clarity on entitlements attached to the status. While the Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill 2010 should clarify access to long-term residence uncertainty remains for example about the exact nature of language tests to be introduced.

There are also positive signals discernable in this domain. The fact that all resident immigrants may fully participate in local elections in Ireland is highly positive. In addition Fanning et al (2009) also found signs that political parties are beginning to properly engage with the immigrant population in Ireland. The establishment of the Ministerial Council on Integration (discussed in Section 1.4.2) is also an important step forward and should facilitate the input of immigrants to Irish policymaking on integration. The Minister chairs meetings of the Council which meets in four regions.

Box 5.3 Access to Political Participation

Ireland is a parliamentary democracy. The two houses of the Oireachtas (Parliament) are Dáil Éireann (the House of Representatives) and Seanad Éireann (the Senate). Each of the Dáil's 166 members is a Teachta Dála (TD), who is directly elected by the people at General Elections. General Elections take place at least once every five years and the most recent one took place in May 2007. By-elections are held if a TD (member of Parliament) dies or resigns. Only Irish and UK citizens may vote in General Elections. UK nationals may do so by virtue of reciprocal voting rights in Ireland and the UK. Only Irish citizens may stand at General Elections or vote in referenda.

Local elections are also held at maximum five year intervals to elect Councillors to local authorities. There are 114 Local authorities in Ireland comprising 29 County Councils, 5 city council and 5 town councils. All residents, Irish, EU and non-EU, may vote or stand in local elections.

In order to vote an individual's name must have been entered on the electoral register. The City and County Councils compile a register of electors every year. In order to be included in the register a person has to provide proof of identity.⁸⁷

87. See <http://www.checktheregister.ie/>.



Chapter 6 Thematic Focus: Immigrants in the Workplace

As discussed above, each year the Monitor will explore a special theme which allows an in-depth examination of an area relevant to one of the many aspects of integration. This year the special theme is 'migrants in the workplace'. For this we draw on the NCPP/ESRI National Workplace Surveys 2009 survey of employees. The survey allows us to analyse the relationship between migration status and a range of key dimensions of job-quality and worker well-being, including variation in contract types, job satisfaction and pressure along with wage differentials.

To provide a context for the analysis we draw on the Quarterly National Household Survey to look at the distribution of Irish nationals and immigrants across economic sectors and occupations. Table 6.1 below provides the estimated proportion of persons aged 15 years and over in the various employment sectors broken down by nationality groupings. There are a number of economic sectors in which the proportion of non-Irish nationals employed is substantially greater than the proportion of Irish nationals. Particularly striking is that 16 per cent of non-Irish nationals are employed in the accommodation and food services sector, compared to only 5 per cent of Irish nationals, and 17 per cent of non-Irish nationals are employed in manufacturing industry, compared to 12 per cent of Irish nationals. By contrast, less than 1 per cent of non-Irish nationals are employed in public

administration, defence and social security sector, which employs 6 per cent of Irish nationals. This pattern is consistent with Wickham et al., (2008), who found that immigrants are overrepresented in the hospitality sector, where almost 30 per cent of the workforce was non-Irish nationals in 2007, compared to less than 12 per cent across the whole workforce (see also Expert Group on Future Skills Needs (2009)). As these authors note, the hospitality sector is one characterised by low wages and short-term employment (Wickham et al, 2008).

Furthermore, some nationality groups appear to be more concentrated in certain sectors of the economy, for example almost half (44 per cent) of EU12 nationals are employed in wholesale and retail trade and manufacturing sectors, whereas 12.5 per cent of Irish nationals are employed in industry and 14 per cent are employed in wholesale and retail trade. A significant proportion of EU13 nationals, 16.5 per cent, are employed in the information and communication sector, compared to less than 4 per cent of Irish nationals. Health and social work activities employ 27.5 per cent of non-EU nationals compared to 5.2 per cent of Irish nationals. Finally only 1.2 per cent of EU12 nationals are employed in financial insurance and real estate activities compared to 5.9 per cent of Irish nationals and 8.4 per cent of EU13 nationals.

Table 6.1 Employment by sector, Q1, 2010

A/ Agriculture, forestry and fishing (%)	G/ Information and communication (%)	K/ Public administration and defence, compulsory social security (%)
B/ Industry (%)	H/ Financial insurance and real estate activities (%)	L/ Education (%)
C/ Construction (%)	I/ Professional, scientific and technical activities (%)	M/ Human health and social work activities (%)
D/ Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motor cycles (%)	J/ Administrative and support service activities (%)	N/ Other NACE activities (%)
E/ Transport and storage (%)		
F/ Accommodation and food service activities (%)		

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
Irish	4.8	12.5	7.1	14.0	5.2	5.3	3.8	5.9	5.8	2.8	6.4	8.6	12.6	5.2
Non-Irish[#]	1.1	17.0	6.2	16.8	3.8	16.2	5.4	3.2	3.4	5.6	0.9	3.3	11.5	5.7
Of which														
UK	*	12.3	4.7	14.9	3.7	6.8	6.5	6.3	7.3	6.5	*	8.1	13.4	6.0
EU13	*	13.9	*	11.0	*	13.1	16.5	8.4	5.1	*	*	6.8	5.5	9.7
EU12	1.7	22.0	9.6	22.0	4.1	20.0	2.0	1.2	2.0	5.8	*	*	3.7	4.6
Non-EU	*	11.4	2.6	10.2	3.6	16.1	6.8	2.6	2.6	5.3	*	3.8	27.5	6.1
All	4.3	13.0	6.9	14.4	5.0	6.7	4.0	5.6	5.5	3.2	5.7	7.9	12.5	5.3

Source: CSO Quarterly National Household Survey published data.

Notes: Persons aged 15 years and over in employment.

[#]Includes 'nationality not stated'

*Population estimates of less than 1,000 are deemed too small for publication purposes due to reliability concerns.

Table 6.2 Employment by occupation, Q4, 2009

	Managers and administrators (%)	Professional (%)	Associate professional and technical (%)	Clerical and secretarial (%)	Craft and related (%)	Personal and protective services (%)	Sales (%)	Plant and machine operatives (%)	Other# (%)
Irish	18	14	10	14	10	12	9	7	7
Non-Irish#	11	9	10	8	11	17	10	10	14
Of which									
UK	18	17	17	10	7	10	8	6	7
EU13	20	18	12	13	7	16	9	*	*
EU12	6	3	3	6	16	16	12	16	24
Non-EU	9	11	16	6	7	23	10	6	11
All	17	13	10	13	10	13	9	7	8

Source: CSO QNHS Q4 2009 (own calculations).

Notes: Population aged 15 years and over in employment.

#Includes 'nationality not stated'

*Population estimates of less than 1,000 are deemed too small for publication purposes due to reliability concerns.

So while immigrants are overrepresented in construction and manufacturing industries, the majority of these come from within the EU: non-EEA immigrants are strongly overrepresented in the healthcare sector (see also CSO, 2008).

Table 6.2 provides a breakdown of occupation by nationality groups. As is the case for industrial sectors, there are contrasting proportions of Irish nationals compared to non-Irish nationals in some occupations. For example, 18 per cent of Irish nationals are employed as managers and administrators compared to 11 per cent of non-Irish nationals. 14 per cent of Irish nationals are employed in clerical and secretarial occupations compared to 8 per cent of non-Irish nationals. On the other hand, 17 per cent of non-Irish nationals are employed in personal and protective service occupations compared to 12 per cent of Irish nationals. Similarly 10 per cent of non-Irish nationals are employed as plant and machine operatives compared with 7 per cent of Irish nationals. *In general, the occupational distribution suggests that Irish nationals are more likely to be employed in the more privileged positions in the occupational hierarchy while non-Irish nationals are more likely to be found in the lower sections of that hierarchy.* This pattern is consistent with the findings of O'Connell and McGinnity (2008), who found that non-Irish nationals are less likely to occupy managerial, professional and associate professional positions than Irish nationals, even after accounting for differences in age, sex and education.

Once again, there is considerable variation between the different non-Irish nationality groups. For example, 23 per cent of non-EU

nationals are employed in generally low-skilled jobs in personal and protective services, compared with 10 per cent of UK nationals and 12 per cent of Irish nationals. Taking the top two occupational categories in terms of skill, 18 per cent of UK nationals and 20 per cent of EU13 nationals are employed as managers and administrators compared to just 9 per cent of non-EU nationals or 6 per cent of EU12 nationals.⁸⁸ Concurrently, 17 per cent of UK nationals and 18 per cent of EU13 nationals are employed as professionals compared with just 3 per cent of EU12 nationals or 11 per cent of non-EU nationals. While non-EU nationals have low representation in the managerial and professional categories, they are over-represented, compared to Irish nationals, in the associate professionals category.

6.1 The National Workplace Survey of Employees

As noted above, the main data set for this analysis is the NCPP/ESRI National Workplace Surveys 2009: Volume 2, Employees on Working Conditions (2009).⁸⁹ This is a national survey of 5,110 employees who were interviewed by telephone between March and June 2009.⁹⁰ The data are re-weighted using information from the 2009 QNHS to render the results representative of the population of employees at the time the survey was conducted. The data refer to all employees in every economic sector, including both public and private sectors. The survey allows us to analyse the relationship between migration status and a range of key dimensions of job-quality and worker well-being, including variation in contract types, job satisfaction and pressure along with wage differentials.

88. Throughout this section, EU13 countries refer to the 15 'old' EU member states less Ireland and the UK, while EU12 countries refer to the 'new' EU members states, post EU enlargement in 2004 and 2007.

89. O'Connell, P. Russell, H. Watson, D. and Byrne, D (2010) *The Changing Workplace: A Survey of Employees' Views and Experiences*. Dublin: National Centre for Partnership and Performance. Please see Appendix 4 for methodological details of the NCPP/ESRI Survey of Working Conditions (2009).

90. The fieldwork for the survey was conducted by Amárach Research.

Table 6.3 Employees by place of birth and age group

	16 - 24 (%)	25 - 44 (%)	45+ (%)	All (%)	No. of Cases
Irish	11	55	34	100	4079
Non-Irish	12	70	18	100	976
Of which					
UK	5	62	33	100	281
EU13	9	62	29	100	108
EU12	16	80	4	100	346
Settler Countries	6	61	33	100	33
Asia and Middle East	23	68	8	100	149
Africa	3	80	17	100	59
All	11	58	31	100	5055

Source: The Changing Workplace Survey, 2009.

We first compare these differences between those born in Ireland and those born outside of Ireland.⁹¹ We then examine differences between sub-populations of immigrants, based on place of birth. We can distinguish between 6 sub-categories within the immigrant population: including those born in the UK; the 'old' EU13 countries; the 'new' EU12 countries; Settler Countries (including North America, Australia and New Zealand); Asia and the Middle East; and Africa. These represent groups of country/region of birth where, in general, we would expect the within-group similarities in labour market experience to be greater than the between-group similarities.

The National Workplace Survey focuses exclusively on employees. This means that is a selective sample in two respects. First, it excludes all those who are either unemployed or economically inactive. As we have already seen in Chapter 2, there are important differences in employment rates across nationality groups. For example, less than 53 per cent of non-EU nationals, and 74 per cent of EU13 nationals are in employment, compared to just over 60 per cent of Irish nationals. This means, in particular, that non-EU nationals in employment are a distinctive group of the population of non-EU nationals, which is a group that includes individuals, such as asylum seekers, who do not have access to the labour market. Among national groups with low rates of employment, those who are at work may be a relatively privileged group. Secondly, less than 8 per cent of non-Irish nationals are self-employed, compared to 19 per cent of Irish nationals (see Table 2.5).

Before we compare workplace situations of Irish nationals and immigrants, we first look at some basic socio-demographic characteristics, such as age, gender and educational attainment. Differences in these socio-demographic factors are also likely to influence the workplace outcomes, in addition to the effects

of migration status. Table 6.3 shows the age distribution of the national groups. In most countries, immigrants tend to be concentrated in the younger and prime working age groups. This is also the pattern in Ireland, with 70 per cent of all employees born outside of Ireland aged 25-44, compared to 55 per cent of Irish-born employees. The proportion of non-Irish in the 45-64 year age group, 18 per cent is much smaller than the 34 per cent of Irish-born employees. Within this general pattern, however, there is some variation: greater proportions of those from Asia and the Middle East and from the new EU12 countries are in the younger age group, with much smaller proportions in the older age group.

Table 6.4 Employees by place of birth and gender

	Men (%)	Women (%)
Irish	48	52
Non-Irish of which:	54	46
UK	53	47
EU13	55	45
EU12	55	45
Settler Countries	58	42
Asia and Middle East	61	39
Africa	34	66
All	49	51

Females slightly outnumber male employees in the workplace. This is true of Irish nationals, but not of immigrant employees,

91. The National Workplace Survey collects information on country of birth, rather than nationality, as in the case of the QNHS data reported in Tables 6.1 and 6.2 above, The two concepts are closely aligned and overlap substantially, but some immigrants, born outside of Ireland, may take Irish citizenship and so become Irish citizens. This would include the children of Irish immigrants born abroad who subsequently return to Ireland.

54 per cent of whom are men. This pattern is reflected, with one exception, across all the national groups, and is most marked among employees born in Asia and the Middle East, 61 per cent of whom are male. The single exception to the pattern is Africans, two-thirds of whom are female.

Table 6.5 Employees by place of birth and education level

	No formal qualification (%)	Third Level (%)
Irish	21	25
Non-Irish of which:	9	43
UK	20	31
EU13	..	65
EU12	4	38
Settler Countries	..	50
Asia and Middle East	7	62
Africa	..	47
All	19	29

In general, immigrants in the workplace are more highly educated than Irish nationals: 43 per cent of those born outside of Ireland have third-level qualifications, compared to 25 per cent of Irish nationals; and 21 per cent of Irish nationals have no formal qualifications, compared to 9 per cent of those born overseas. The pattern generally holds across the national groups, with those born in the old EU13 countries and in Asia exhibiting very high rates of third-level qualification. Only among those born in the United Kingdom is the proportion with no formal qualifications similar to that of Irish nationals.

Table 6.7 Employees by place of birth and usual hours worked

	<30 hours (%)	30-39 hours (%)	40-44 hours (%)	45+ hours (%)	All (%)
Irish	25	38	22	14	100
Non-Irish	23	35	26	16	100
Of which					
UK	25	33	24	18	100
EU13	15	37	36	12	100
EU12	14	34	34	18	100
Settler Countries	22	38	19	22	100
Asia and Middle East	42	36	13	10	100
Africa	29	41	16	14	100
All	25	38	23	15	100

6.2 Contract Type: Full-Time or Part-Time and Permanent or Temporary/ Casual

A slightly higher proportion of those born outside of Ireland reported that they have full-time contracts (77 per cent) compared to those born in Ireland (75 per cent), though it should be noted that this difference is not statistically significant. However, when this is broken down by place of birth these differences become much more apparent. As can be seen from Table 6.6, only 15 per cent of those born in the EU13 and 14 per cent of those born within the EU12 work part-time compared to 25 per cent of those born in Ireland, meaning those born in the EU13 or EU12 are significantly less likely to work part-time in comparison to those born in Ireland. On the other hand those born in Asia or the Middle East (at 42 per cent) are more likely to work part-time in comparison to those born in Ireland.

Table 6.6 Proportion of those employed part-time by place of birth

	Part-time (%)
Irish	25
Non-Irish birthplace of which:	23
UK	24
EU13	15*
EU12	14*
Settler Countries¹	22
Asia and Middle East	42*
Africa	29

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland

¹ Refers mainly to North America, Australia and New Zealand

Table 6.7 shows usual hours worked in the current job. In general, immigrants are somewhat more likely than Irish nationals to work over 40 hours per week. This is particularly true of those from the UK and from other European countries. Those from Settler countries, as well as the UK and EU12 countries are more likely to work more than 45 hours per week.

Having examined working hours, it is interesting to then compare the proportion of those with permanent or temporary contracts. The proportion of those born in Ireland with permanent contracts (87 per cent) was significantly higher than those born outside of Ireland (at 81 per cent). Table 6.8 shows that *those born in Africa, Asia or the Middle East are substantially more likely to work in temporary or casual contracts than those born in Ireland*. Those born in EU12 countries are also significantly more likely to have temporary contracts.

6.3 Job Security

As part of the survey employees were asked if they felt their job was secure. As shown in Figure 6.1 those born in Ireland are somewhat more likely to feel their job is secure (at 71 per cent) in comparison to those born outside of Ireland (at 67 per cent). Perhaps this is not surprising given those born in Ireland had the highest proportion of respondents on permanent contracts (see Table 6.8).

However, when this is further broken down to take into account of more detailed information on place of birth, as presented in Table 6.9, there are some apparent differences in the proportions of those who do not feel their job is secure. In only one case was the

difference significantly different from those born in Ireland: those from Asia or the Middle East were more likely to feel their job is not secure.

Table 6.8 Contract type by place of birth

	Temporary/casual (%)
Irish	13
Non-Irish of which:	19
UK	15
EU13	14
EU12	18*
Settler Countries	18
Asia and Middle East	28*
Africa	31*

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland

This pattern is consistent with that found in the Special Module on Working Conditions collected as part of the QNHS in Quarter 1 2008 by the CSO, which found that 88 per cent of Irish respondents, but only 77 per cent of non-Irish nationals, expected to be in their jobs in six months time; EU12 nationals exhibited the greatest job insecurity.

Figure 6.1 Proportion of those born in or outside of Ireland who feel their job is secure

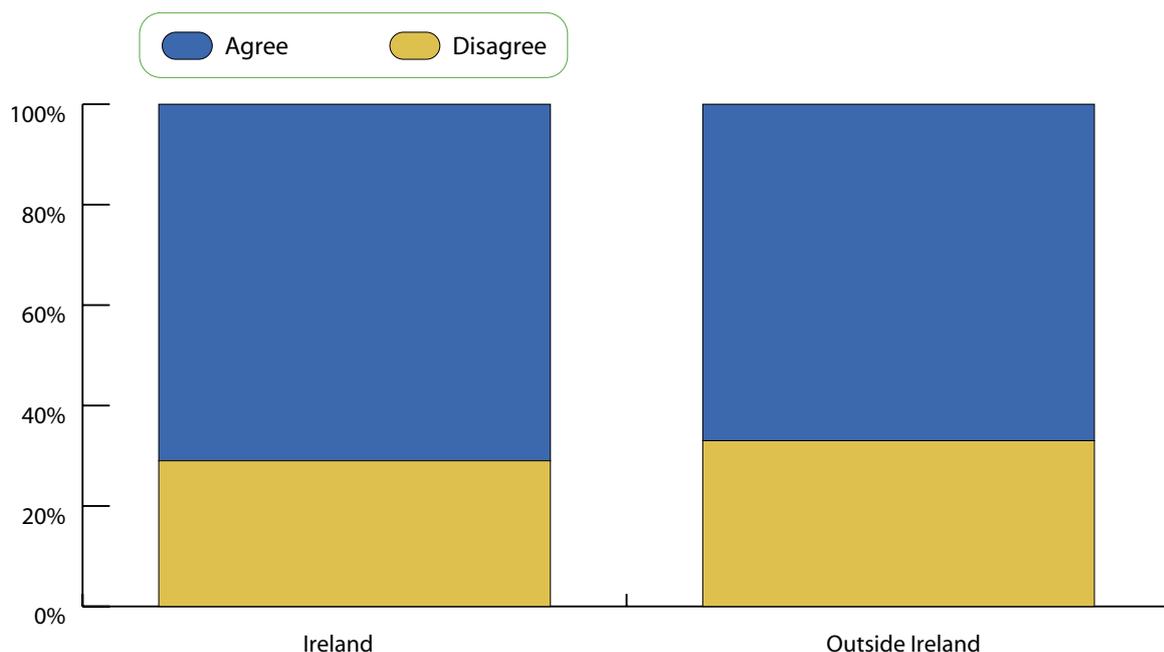


Table 6.9 Proportion of those who do not feel their job is secure by place of birth

	(%)
Irish	29
Non-Irish of which:	33
UK	35
EU13	32
EU12	29
Settler Countries	42
Asia and Middle East	38*
Africa	34

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland

6.4 Job Satisfaction

In order to assess overall levels of job satisfaction a scale of satisfaction was created, which was a combination of responses to the following four items:-

- **In general, I am satisfied with my job**
- **I am satisfied with my physical working conditions**
- **I am satisfied with my hours of work**
- **I am satisfied with my earnings from my current job.**

The scale ranges from one to four; the more satisfied respondents are the higher their mean score.⁹² As Figure 6.2 shows those born outside of Ireland are less satisfied in their job (Mean score=3.04)

than those born in Ireland (Mean score=3.10). While this difference may appear small it was nonetheless statistically significant.

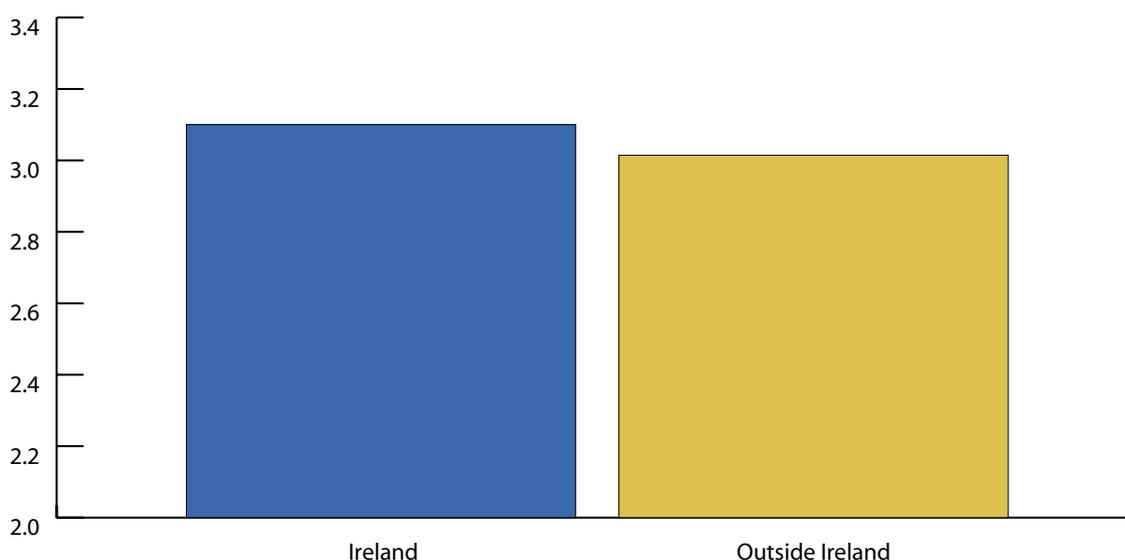
When all categories outside of Ireland are taken into account we find that there is not a considerable degree of difference between those born in Ireland and the regional categories, as shown in Table 6.10. Only in one case was this difference significant: those born in the EU12 countries are less likely to be satisfied with their jobs than those born in Ireland. This may be linked to the occupational distribution and the tendency for those born in the EU12 to be found working in occupations for which they are overqualified, as we shall see in Section 6.8 .

Table 6.10 Job satisfaction by place of birth

	Mean job satisfaction scores
Irish birthplace	3.10
Non-Irish birthplace of which:	3.04
UK	3.08
EU13	3.18
EU12	2.98*
Settler Countries	3.02
Asia and Middle East	3.03
Africa	2.98

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland. Job satisfaction scores range from one to four, see text for further details.

Figure 6.2 Job satisfaction scores for those born in or outside of Ireland



92. This is a standard scale used to measure job satisfaction. See O'Connell et al., (2010) for a discussion. Cronbach's Alpha for the scale is 0.7, indicating that the scale displays an acceptable level of reliability.

6.5 Work Pressure

Having looked at job satisfaction it is interesting to also then look at respondents' perception of pressure experienced at work. When we look at pressure we are referring to the intensity of work demands, both physical and mental, experienced by workers, and the degree of work effort demanded in employment. In order to measure job pressure a scale was developed which is a combination of four items. The first two items address the general level of work pressure, and capture both mental and physical pressures. The second two statements relate to the time pressure experienced by employees. The four statements are:

- **My job requires that I work very hard.**
- **I work under a great deal of pressure.**
- **I never seem to have enough time to get everything done in my job.**
- **I often have to work extra time over and above my formal hours to get through the job or to help out.**

These four items were combined to form a work pressure scale ranging from one to four with higher scores indicating greater pressure.⁹³ The Alpha for the scale is 0.7.

As can be seen from Figure 6.3 those born within Ireland reported to be under a higher level of pressure in work ($M=2.73$) than those born outside of Ireland ($M=2.66$). As was the case with job satisfaction, while this difference may appear small it is nonetheless statistically significant.

However, when this is broken down by region, as displayed in Table 6.11, we find that those born in the UK are more likely to feel pressure in work than those born in Ireland. In contrast those born in the EU12 are less likely to feel pressure at work compared

to those born in Ireland.

Table 6.11 Work pressure by place of birth

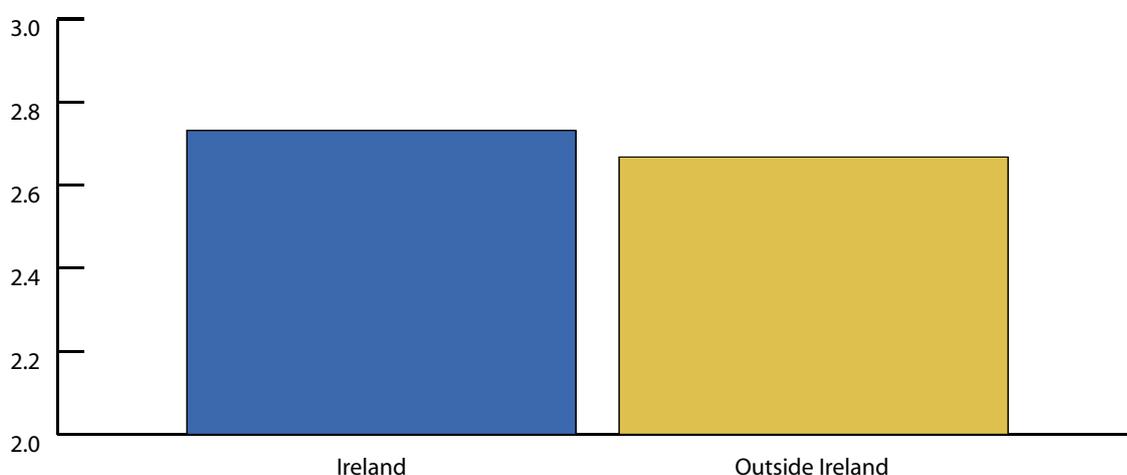
	Mean level of work pressure
Irish	2.73
Non-Irish of which:	2.66
UK	2.83*
EU13	2.69
EU12	2.52*
Settler Countries	2.77
Asia and Middle East	2.65
Africa	2.62

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland

6.6 Access to Training

Table 6.12 presents information on participation in employer-provided training or education in the last two years. A slightly higher proportion (50 per cent) of those born outside of Ireland participated in training in the last two years when compared to those born in Ireland (48 per cent), though this difference is not statistically significant. However, when this is broken down further, we find substantial differences in training by region of origin. Those born in the EU13, in Settler Countries, and in Asia or the Middle East are significantly more likely to be provided with training or education in comparison to those born in Ireland. In contrast, those born in the EU12 are less likely (again in comparison with those born in Ireland).

Figure 6.3 Work pressure for those born in or outside of Ireland



⁹³. Again, Cronbach's Alpha for the scale is 0.7, indicating an acceptable level of reliability.

Table 6.12 Employer provided training or education by place of birth

	Yes (%)
Irish	48
Non-Irish of which:	50
UK	50
EU13	58*
EU12	40*
Settler Countries	68*
Asia and Middle East	60*
Africa	60

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland

6.7 Wages

We now turn to examine employee earnings. In order to ensure comparability across employees as well as reliability of the earnings data, we focus on those working full time (that is more than thirty hours a week). Figure 6.4 presents the gross weekly wage for those born in or outside of Ireland who work more than thirty hours a week. *As can be seen from the graph on average the gross weekly wage for those born in Ireland (€801) is significantly higher than that of those born outside of Ireland (€709).*

Table 6.13 shows average earnings by national grouping. The most considerable difference was between those born in Ireland and those born in the EU12, with the latter earning an average of €534 per week, about 33 per cent less than those born in Ireland. Those from Asia and the Middle East earn about 14 per cent less, on average, than Irish nationals.

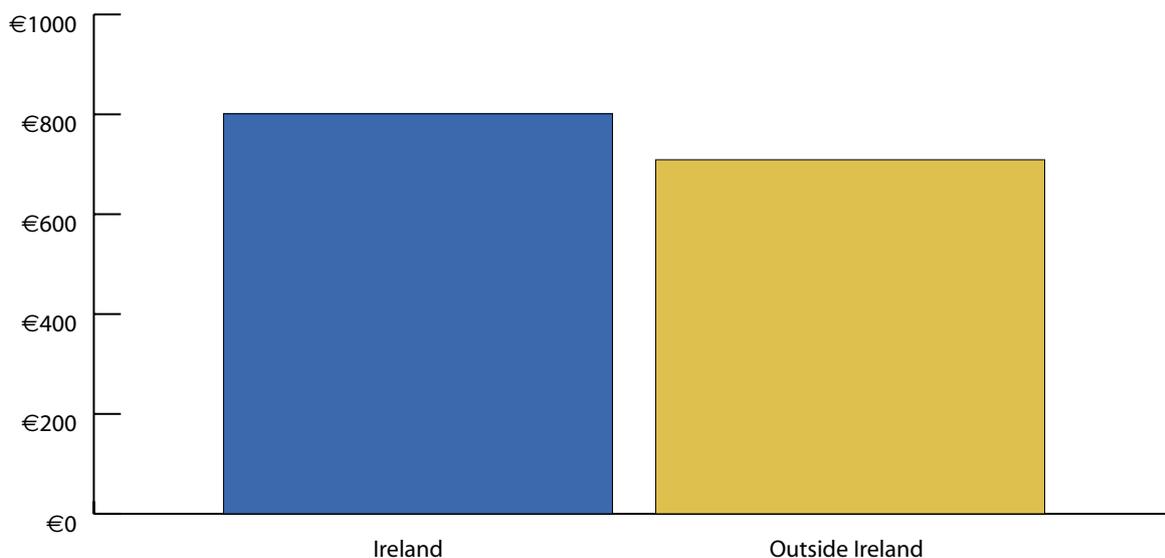
Table 6.13 Gross weekly wage for those who work more than 30 hours a week by place of birth

	€
Irish	801
Non-Irish of which:	709*
UK	857
EU13	796
EU12	534*
Settler Countries	751
Asia and Middle East	718*
Africa	875

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland

Based on the data above, it would appear that immigrants earn lower wages than those born in Ireland. Furthermore, when we looked at differences between immigrant groups we found that, while there was a slight variation in earnings, on the whole the earnings of immigrants from English-speaking countries do not differ largely from those born in Ireland.

Figure 6.4 Gross weekly wage for those who work more than 30 hours per week



While these are average differences, and thus reflect differences in composition of the national groups in, for example, age, gender and education that also influence wages, these differences in average wages are consistent with previous research in the area. For example, Barrett and McCarthy (2007) found that, controlling for education and years of work experience, immigrants earn 18 per cent less than Irish nationals. More recent work has found that, at least for New Member state nationals, the penalty is much larger for high-skilled immigrants than for the low skilled (Barrett et al., 2008). Barrett and McCarthy (2007) also found that, while many immigrant groups experience a wage penalty, those from such English-speaking countries as the UK do not differ from Irish nationals when it comes to wages.

6.8 Over-Qualification

As part of the survey respondents were asked how well the skills and abilities they have match their present role, the findings for which are presented in Figure 6.5.⁹⁴ As shown in the graph those born in Ireland are less likely to regard their skills and abilities as being much higher than their present job. ***In contrast those born outside of Ireland are more likely to regard their skills and qualifications as being much higher than their present job.***

The differences between those born in or outside of Ireland become much more apparent when we break down the groups outside of Ireland, as displayed in Table 6.14. As can be seen from the table, in comparison to those born in Ireland those from the UK, EU12, Asia and the Middle East, and Africa are more likely to regard their skills and abilities as being much higher to a bit higher than their present job.

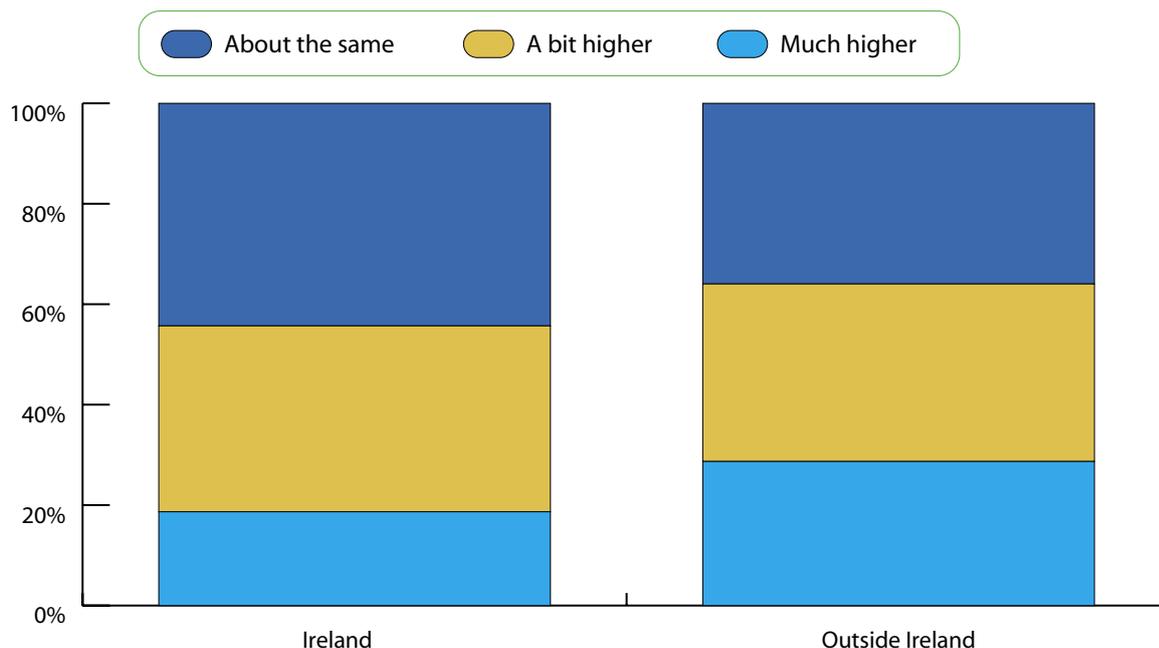
Table 6.14 Over-qualification by place of birth

	Much higher to a bit higher (%)
Irish	55
Non-Irish of which:	63*
UK	62*
EU13	53
EU12	64*
Settler Countries	64*
Asia and Middle East	73*
Africa	73*

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland

Taking these findings along with those showing the differences in employment distribution by sector and occupation (see Tables 6.1 and 6.2 above) it would appear that immigrants are in many cases over-qualified for their roles. Again such findings reflect previous studies. For example, Barrett et al. (2006) find that, even though many are highly qualified, immigrants are not all employed in occupations that reflect their education levels. Furthermore, according to the National Skills Bulletin 2008, in 2007 one in four labourers and one in five service workers were estimated to be non-Irish (Expert Group on Future Skills Needs (2009)). Yet, interestingly eighteen per cent of immigrant labourers held third-level qualifications.

Figure 6.5 Over-qualification for those born in or outside of Ireland



94. Asking individuals directly how well their skills and qualifications match their present role is an established approach to measuring over-qualification, though there are others. See OECD (2007) for a discussion.

6.9 English Language Skills

As part of the survey respondents were asked to rate their written and spoken English language skills, as presented in Figure 6.6. As can be seen from the graph, those born outside Ireland are more likely to rate their English language skills as good, as opposed to excellent or very good.

When we look at the perceptions towards English language skills further, comparing those born in Ireland to the different groups outside of Ireland we find that overall there is not considerable degree of difference when comparing those born in Ireland and those outside, as Table 6.15 shows. Where there are significant differences these are found amongst the EU12 and those born in Asia or the Middle East. As can be seen from the Table, in both cases those from the EU12, Asia or the Middle East are much less likely to regard their English language skills as excellent to very good.

In summary, the findings suggest that those born outside of Ireland have a more challenging labour market experience on a number of key dimensions of job-quality and worker well-being. Indeed we have found that immigrants are less likely to be in a permanent position, less likely to feel their job is secure, are less satisfied in their roles and, on average, receive less gross earnings than those born in Ireland.

Further, when we looked at differences between immigrant groups, it would appear that those born in the EU12 have the least satisfactory experiences of the Irish labour market: they are more likely to be on a temporary or casual contract, are less satisfied with their jobs, are less likely to have received education or training as part of their job, on average receive less gross earnings and are

Table 6.15 English language skills by place of birth

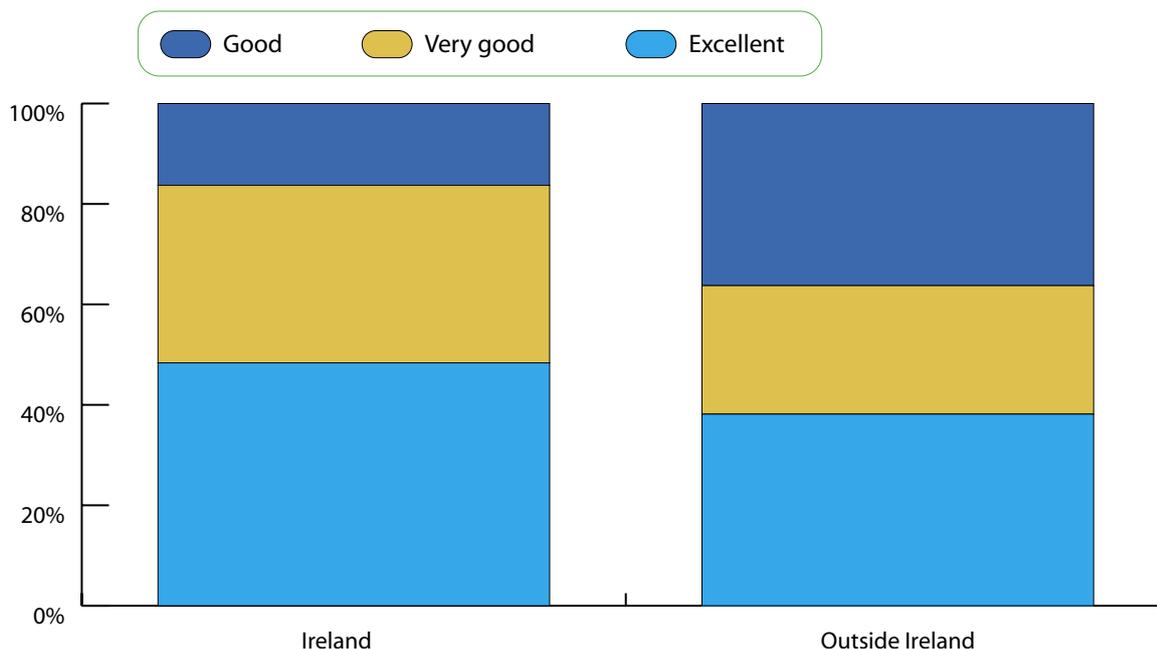
	Excellent to very good (%)
Irish	84
Non-Irish of which:	64
UK	86
EU13	80
EU12	33*
Settler Countries	84
Asia and Middle East	57*
Africa	83

Notes: * Refers to a statistically significant difference in comparison to those born in Ireland

more likely to feel that they are over-qualified for their jobs. Those born in Asia and the Middle East also work in less favourable conditions. They are much more likely than Irish nationals to be employed part-time and to have lower wages, to be in temporary contracts, feel less secure and to consider that they are overqualified for their current jobs. This pattern reflects the fact that many of those born in Asia and the Middle East are students working part-time.

To what extent these differences are a result of differences in skills, education and experience between immigrants and those born in Ireland, and to what extent they are a result of their immigrant status would require further investigation, but is certainly a promising avenue for future research in the area.

Figure 6.6 English language skills for those born in or outside of Ireland



Chapter 7 Issues for Policy and Data Collection

This report is primarily concerned with assessing outcomes in relation to the integration of immigrants in Ireland. In this short chapter we draw out some of the policy issues to emerge from this report and reflect on implications for future data collection.

7.1 Policy Issues

In the employment domain, the most obvious issue of concern is that the rate of unemployment among non-Irish nationals is considerably higher than that for Irish nationals. This is particularly true of EU12 nationals.

An additional point to emerge from the special theme on immigrants in the workplace is that immigrants are working in jobs below their skill levels. Evidence of over-qualification from this report, and other research in the area, suggests that this is a particular problem for EU12 nationals. To what extent this is due to problems with qualification recognition, English language difficulties, discrimination or other factors is difficult to assess within the context of the Monitor and it is clear that more research is needed in this area. From an equality perspective, this over-qualification among immigrant workers has the potential to undermine standards in the wider labour market. From an economic perspective, it means the economy is not using the skills of its workforce to full advantage. It is thus an area that requires policy attention.

In the domain of education in Chapter 5, achievement scores show children from non-English speaking backgrounds are at a disadvantage in the Irish education system. The recent launch of the Intercultural Education Strategy is seen as a significant policy development in the area and is welcomed. However, cuts imposed by the budgets of 2008 and 2009, including both the restrictions on the number of language teachers, but more generally cuts to supports for disadvantaged students, are potentially problematic. Further budget cuts in this area could have negative consequences for the integration of immigrant children in Ireland. Experience from other countries has shown that inadequate supports for immigrant children can cause serious problems later in the education system, in the labour market and for their integration into society.

In relation to third-level education, there is evidence of confusion regarding access and financial support available for third-level education for non-EU nationals. In second-level schools, both non-EU students and their teachers are also not clear about the regulations and supports available to them.

In the area of social inclusion, the Habitual Residence Condition frames eligibility for a whole range of supports, in housing, social insurance benefits, means-tested benefits and universal benefits

such as child benefit. The degree of discretion exercised by officials assessing habitual residence results in uncertainty and insecurity among immigrants in Ireland.

Chapter 4 on Social Inclusion also revealed that non-Irish nationals report much higher levels of discrimination in a range of service and work-related domains than Irish nationals. In light of this evidence, it is also of concern that institutions charged with promoting integration and countering discrimination have seen substantial budget cuts in recent years.

Chapter 5 indicates that there are significant barriers to integration in the domain of active citizenship in Ireland. The length of time taken to process applications for naturalisation, and the degree of discretion exercised in decision-making, have negative implications for the integration of immigrants in Ireland. The fact that citizenship can be revoked is also a cause for concern. Access to the current, administrative long-term residence is discretionary and there is a lack of clarity on entitlements attached to the status. While the Immigration, Residence and Protection Bill 2010 should clarify access to long-term residence, there is continued uncertainty about the exact nature of proposed language tests.

7.2 Issues for Future Data Collection

This integration Monitor relies on the use of large-scale surveys to report on key indicators of integration. In Ireland, as in other countries, there are concerns that these surveys do not adequately represent the migrant population. This is a potential problem in respect of the labour force survey, the QNHS, but more particularly of the Survey of Income and Living Conditions, the EU-SILC. These surveys are excellent and invaluable sources of information on the labour market and income and poverty, and the special modules are an excellent source of data on special themes. However, these surveys are not specifically designed to survey immigrants. With over 10 per cent of the population now from a non-Irish background and impetus from the EU to measure migrant integration, it may be time to make identifying and representing immigrants a priority.

There are a number of implications regarding the measurement of immigrants, some short-term and some long-term. In the short-term, it would be useful to investigate whether the underrepresentation is due to non-response or sampling issues. In any case, continual efforts should be made to encourage the participation of non-Irish nationals in surveys like the QNHS and the EU-SILC, for example through the provision of translated forms, similar to the practice in Census 2006 and the Growing Up in Ireland study.⁹⁵ At the very least, the EU-SILC data could include an adjustment for the underrepresentation of non-Irish, in its population weighting factors.

95. National study of children funded through the Office of the Minister for Children and Youth Affairs, undertaken by the Economic & Social Research Institute (ESRI) and Trinity College Dublin (see: www.growingup.ie).

In the medium term, the issue of how to measure the integration of naturalised Irish citizens and second-generation immigrants will grow in importance. Measuring ethnicity in the QNHS and EU-SILC and other large-scale surveys, as is already done in the 2006 Census, could be a valuable tool. This is how second-generation immigrants are identified in other countries, though the measurement is not unproblematic. Measuring parents' citizenship and citizenship at birth would also be very informative. Given the importance of measuring integration and the diverse nature of immigrants,

consideration should also be given to the inclusion of an ethnic minority boost sample in the QNHS or EU-SILC. This would be challenging in Ireland, given the lack of an immigrant register and other sampling constraints, but is being done in Britain for the new Understanding Society survey, where the sampling constraints are similar.⁹⁶ If Ireland is to meet its commitment to monitor the integration of immigrants in a reliable manner, it needs to measure and identify them adequately in ongoing surveys.

96. See 'www.understandingsociety.org.uk/'.



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Common Basic Principles For Immigrant Integration Policy In The European Union:

- 1.** Integration is a dynamic, two-way process of mutual accommodation by all immigrants and residents of Member States.
- 2.** Integration implies respect for the basic values of the European Union.
- 3.** Employment is a key part of the integration process and is central to the participation of immigrants, to the contributions immigrants make to the host society, and to making such contributions visible.
- 4.** Basic knowledge of the host society's language, history, and institutions is indispensable to integration; enabling immigrants to acquire this basic knowledge is essential to successful integration.
- 5.** Efforts in education are critical to preparing immigrants, and particularly their descendants, to be more successful and more active participants in society.
- 6.** Access for immigrants to institutions, as well as to public and private goods and services, on a basis equal to national citizens and in a non-discriminatory way is a critical foundation for better integration.
- 7.** Frequent interaction between immigrants and Member State citizens is a fundamental mechanism for integration. Shared forums, inter-cultural dialogue, education about immigrants and immigrant cultures, and stimulating living conditions in urban environments enhance the interactions between immigrants and Member State citizens.
- 8.** The practice of diverse cultures and religions is guaranteed under the Charter of Fundamental Rights and must be safeguarded, unless practices conflict with other inviolable European rights or with national law.
- 9.** The participation of immigrants in the democratic process and in the formulation of integration policies and measures, especially at the local level, supports their integration.
- 10.** Mainstreaming integration policies and measures in all relevant policy portfolios and levels of government and public services is an important consideration in public-policy formation and implementation.
- 11.** Developing clear goals, indicators and evaluation mechanisms are necessary to adjust policy, evaluate progress on integration and to make the exchange of information more effective.

Appendix 2

Definition of Indicators

Table A2.1 Definition of Indicators

Indicator	Definition	Datasource
1. Employment		
Employment Rate	The proportion of the population of working age (15-64) who are employed.	Labour Force Survey (QNHS)
Unemployment Rate	The proportion of the labour force (employed plus unemployed) of working age (15-64) who are unemployed.	Labour Force Survey (QNHS)
Activity Rate	The proportion of adults of working-age (15-64) who are in the labour force (employed and unemployed).	Labour Force Survey (QNHS)
Self Employment Rate	The proportion of the employed population who are self-employed (that is working in his/her own business, professional practice or farm for the purpose of making a profit)	Labour Force Survey (QNHS)
Proportion of nationalities who work unsocial hours	Proportion of employed who usually do evening work, night work, Saturday work, Sunday work or shift work.	Labour Force Survey (QNHS)
2. Education		
Highest educational attainment	Share of population aged 15+ with third-level, post-leaving cert, upper secondary and no formal/lower secondary education	Labour Force Survey (QNHS)
Share of 25-34 year olds with tertiary educational attainment*	Share of 25-34 year olds with tertiary (third-level) education	Labour Force Survey (QNHS)
Share of early leavers from education and training*	Share of population aged 20-24 with no more than lower secondary education and not currently in education	Labour Force Survey (QNHS)
Mean achievement scores for 15 year olds in reading and mathematics* (PISA)	Mean achievement scores for 15 year olds in reading and mathematics by immigrant status using PISA test scores	PISA 2009
Mean reading and mathematics scores, by language most often spoken in the home, National Assessment scores 2009	Mean achievement scores for 2nd and 6th class in reading and mathematics by immigrant/language status using National Assessment Scores, 2009.	National Assessments 2009
3. Social Inclusion		
Median net income	Median net income - median net (household and equivalised) income of the immigrant population and the Irish population	EU-SILC 2008
At risk of poverty rate	At risk of poverty rate – share of population with net disposable income of less than 60 per cent of national median	EU-SILC 2008
Consistent Poverty Rates	Proportion of population both (1) at risk of poverty and (2) living in households that lack 2 or more basic items such as food, clothing or heat	EU-SILC 2008
Share of population perceiving their health status as good or very good	The share of population aged 16+ perceiving their health status as good or very good	EU-SILC 2008
Ratio of property owners to non property owners among immigrants and the total population	Percentage of property owners among immigrant and Irish household respondents	EU-SILC 2008
4. Active Citizenship		
Share of immigrants that have acquired citizenship (best estimate)	The ratio of the number of non-EEA naturalisations to the estimated non-EEA population (best estimate)	Statistics provided by the Dept of Justice and Law Reform
Share of immigrants holding permanent or long-term residence permits	The ratio of the number of people granted long-term residence to the estimated non-EEA immigrant population (best estimate)	Statistics provided by the Dept of Justice and Law Reform
Share of immigrants among elected representatives*	Share of immigrants among elected local representatives	Immigrant Council of Ireland

Notes: Employment and Unemployment are defined in this table and elsewhere in this report using the standard International Labour Organisation's definitions. People are defined as employed if they have worked for pay in the week preceding the survey interview for one hour or more, or who were not at work due to temporary absence (i.e. sickness or training). Unemployed persons are those who did not work in the week preceding the interview, but were available to start work in the next two weeks and had actively sought work in the previous four weeks. ILO unemployment estimates differ from both the live register of unemployment and from the individual's own self assignment of their principal economic status.

*Indicates where definitions of the indicators differ slightly from those proposed at Zaragoza, based on data constraints. Share of immigrants among elected local representatives instead of share of immigrants among elected representatives; mean achievement scores for 15 year olds in reading and mathematics instead of the proportion of 15 year olds achieving level 1 or under in the PISA assessment tests; share of 25-34 year olds with tertiary educational attainment instead of the share of 30-34 year olds with tertiary educational achievement; share of early leavers from education and training aged 20-24 instead of 18-24.

Total Registrations by Stamp in Ireland

Table A3.1 Total Registrations by Stamp in Ireland

	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Unrecorded	2,425	1,728	2,182	1,260	1,985	2,391
Stamp 1: non-EEA nationals who have an employment permit or business permission.	47,400	30,199	29,872	31,472	32,040	23,417
Stamp 1A: persons permitted to remain in Ireland for the purpose of full-time training with a named body (main category concerns non-EEA nationals studying accountancy) until a specified date.	-	-	-	-	66	887
Stamp 2: non-EEA students who are permitted to work under certain conditions.	31,338	28,021	29,426	36,019	41,156	41,639
Stamp 2A: non-EEA students who are not permitted to work.	-	2,198	3,630	3,701	3,850	3,879
Stamp 3: non-EEA nationals who are not permitted to work	13,641	12,663	16,004	17,220	17,480	17,554
Stamp 4: non-EEA nationals who are permitted to work without needing an employment permit or business permission: non-EU EEA nationals, spouses and dependants of Irish and EEA nationals, people who have permission to remain on the basis of parentage of an Irish child, Convention and Programme refugees, people granted leave to remain, non-EEA nationals on intra-company transfer, temporary registered doctors, non-EEA nationals who have working visas or work authorisations.	38,997	57,220	61,928	63,748	63,794	70,803
Stamp 4 EUFam: non-EEA national family members of EU citizens who have exercised their right to move to and live in Ireland under the European Communities (Free Movement of Persons) Regulations 2006. People holding this stamp are permitted to work without needing an employment permit or business permission, and they can apply for a residence card under the 2006 Regulations.	-	-	916	1,660	3,727	5,208
Stamp 5. Non-EEA nationals who have lived in Ireland for at least eight years and who have been permitted by the Minister for Justice and Lawn Reform to remain in Ireland without condition as to time. Holders of this stamp do not need an employment permit or business permission in order to work.	28	88	117	149	218	548
Stamp 6. Can be placed on the foreign passport of an Irish citizen who has dual citizenship, and who wants their entitlement to remain in Ireland to be endorsed on their foreign passport.	9	7	11	17	26	61
Stamp A	36	2	2	6	2	-
Stamp B	83	11	2	1	-	-
Total Registrations	133,957	132,137	144,090	155,253	164,344	166,387

Source: Joyce 2010.

Notes: These figures are cumulative in that all registrations "live" during 2009, even those of short duration, are included.

Appendix 4

Key Datasets Utilised For This Research Report

This appendix includes a brief discussion of the key datasets used (QNHS for Chapters 2 and 3; EU-SILC for Chapter 4 and NCPP for Part 3). Note these are general population surveys, and none were specifically designed with migrants/non-Irish nationals in mind.

A4.1 The Quarterly National Household Survey

The Quarterly National Household Survey is undertaken by the Central Statistics Office and its main objective is to provide estimates of short-term indicators of the labour market (employment and unemployment). The survey is continuous and targets all private households in the State. The total sample per 13-week quarter is 39,000: it is achieved by interviewing 3,000 households per week.⁹⁷ A two-stage sample design is used. In the first stage 2,600 small areas or blocks are selected with about 75 dwellings on average. In the second stage of sampling, 15 households are surveyed within each block.

Households are asked to take part in the survey for five consecutive quarters and are then replaced by other households in the same block. This makes the QNHS the largest statistical project undertaken by the Central Statistics Office after the Census. Participation is voluntary, though the response rate is very high (approximately 93 per cent). The survey results are weighted to agree with population estimates broken down by age, sex and region.

There are a number of reasons why the QNHS may under-represent non-Irish nationals. Firstly, the QNHS is a survey of private households only, certain groups are excluded in the selection of the sample. These include the homeless, those living in residential establishments in which people reside collectively, such as hospitals, prisons, boarding houses, or hostels. Most especially of concern for the Monitor is that the survey will exclude asylum seekers living in direct provision. Secondly, information is collected from interviewers, most of whom would not be bilingual, which leads to a concern that immigrants with poor English language skills may be under-represented. Thirdly, those whose status in Ireland is illegal/irregular may be more likely to refuse to participate.

Table A4.1 Age by Nationality, QNHS 2009, Q4

	15-24 (%)	25-44(%)	45-64(%)	No. of cases
Irish	19	44	36	37,263
Non-Irish of which:	16	68	16	5,217
UK	11	48	41	988
EU13	13	72	16	508
EU10	19	72	9	2,019
Non-EU	16	73	11	1,702
All	19	48	33	42,480

Notes: Percentages are weighted, n of cases unweighted.

Table A4.1 presents age by nationality in 2009 for 18-65 year olds. Here we see that of the working age population, the majority of non-Irish nationals are in the 25-44 age group, as in the Census 2006.

How long an individual has been living in a country is seen as having a key influence on many integration outcomes. From Table A4.2 we see marked differences between the groups in terms of how long they have been living in Ireland. According to QNHS data, over half of the UK nationals came to Ireland before 1999. This is in strong contrast to, say, EU 10 nationals, almost all of whom came since 2000. The vast majority of non-EU nationals also came to Ireland in the last 10 years, and almost three quarters of EU13 nationals. This clearly demonstrates the recent nature of migration into Ireland. It also underscores the distinctiveness of the UK group vis-à-vis the others.

97. Up to and including the fourth quarter of 2008 the QNHS operated on a seasonal quarter basis since its establishment in Q4 1997. Since Q1 2009 the QNHS is now undertaken on a calendar quarter basis: Q1 – January to March; Q2 – April to June; Q3 – July to September and Q4 – October to December.

Table A4.2 Year of Residence by Nationality, QNHS 2009, Q4

	Born in Ireland (%)	1910-1994 (%)	1995-1999 (%)	2000-2004 (%)	2005-2009 (%)	N of cases
Irish	95	3	1	1	0	37,263
Non-Irish	3	6	8	31	51	5,217
Of which						
UK	9	25	18	23	26	988
EU13	3	11	14	24	48	508
EU10	2	0	0	24	74	2,019
Non-EU	2	2	9	47	40	1,702
All	82	4	2	5	7	42,480

Notes: Percentages are weighted, n of cases unweighted.

A4.2 The European Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)

The European Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) is an annual household survey carried out in European member states allowing comparable statistics to be compiled across Europe. In Ireland the survey is undertaken by the Central Statistics Office and covers a broad range of issues in relation to income and living conditions of the general population. It is the official source of data on household and individual income and also provides a number of key national poverty and deprivation indicators.

The EU-SILC survey involves both cross-sectional and longitudinal dimensions. The cross-sectional element involves data on households that entered the sample in 2008 (referred to as panel or wave 1); whereas the longitudinal element involves data on 3 other panels of households over a four year period.

The sample design used for SILC is based on the methodology adopted for the Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS). Both surveys aim to provide a nationally representative sample of private households and use a two staged stratified cluster sample. Like the QNHS, the first stage comprised the selection of 2,600 blocks which are geographically defined continuous groups of households. The second stage of sampling involved the random selection of sample and substitute households for each block. The sample was weighted to compensate for both the effects of clustering and to ensure the sample was representative of the

population, though not specifically of non-Irish nationals.⁹⁸

Given the sample design the EU-SILC has similar problems representing migrants as the QNHS, concerning asylum seekers, language difficulties and irregular migrants. Given the smaller sample, the issue of representing smaller, hard-to-reach groups is even more challenging. As can be seen from Table A4.3, the proportion of non-Irish nationals is quite a bit lower in the EU-SILC than in the QNHS.⁹⁹ The weighted proportion of non-Irish nationals in EU-SILC 2008 is just under 7 per cent, compared to just under 14 per cent in the QNHS 2008, Quarter 2.

As can be seen from a comparison of the weighted and unweighted proportions of non-Irish nationals, part of the difference is in the weighting. The QNHS weights boost the non-Irish proportion by around 50 per cent, the EU-SILC boosts the non-Irish sample by 28 per cent. This suggests that the EU-SILC weights may need to be adjusted to account for the underrepresentation of non-Irish nationals. But even before weighting, the proportion of non-Irish nationals in the EU-SILC is markedly lower than the QNHS. Non-response among non-Irish nationals may be higher in the EU-SILC than in the QNHS because the former is a much longer survey with higher demands on language, and may also be perceived as more invasive because of the detailed questions on income and benefit receipt.

98. EU-SILC weights are based on tables of age by sex, region and household composition.

99. Some differences in the samples may result from the fact that the EU SILC data draws from a whole calendar year, and the QNHS is one quarter only. That said, the QNHS proportions do not vary so much across the quarters covered by the EU-SILC 2008.

Table A4.3 Non-Irish Nationals in EU-SILC 2008 and QNHS, 2008 Quarter 2

	Proportions (Weighted)		Proportions (Unweighted)		N of cases (Unweighted)	
	EU-SILC (%)	QNHS (%)	EU-SILC (%)	QNHS (%)	EU-SILC (N)	QNHS (N)
Irish	93.1	86.2	94.6	90.7	9714	53,038
Non-Irish	6.9	13.8	5.4	9.3	555	5,416
Of which						
UK	1.7	2.8	1.9	2.2	191	1,298
EU13	1.1	1.2	0.7	0.8	72	483
EU10	2.0	5.4	1.4	3.5	139	2,046
Non-EU	2.1	4.3	1.5	2.7	153	1,589
All	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	10269	58,454

Notes: Own calculations using the EU-SILC and the QNHS microfiles. Population aged 15+. EU-SILC data is all those with valid nationality data. If all non-Irish over 15 are used, number rises to 562 or a weighted proportion of 7.0 per cent.

Once we take into account the under-representation of non-Irish nationals in EU-SILC, i.e. we would expect the weighted EU-SILC proportions to be about half QNHS proportions in each case, the distributions by national group are broadly similar in the two samples (see Table A4.3). The exception is that the EU-SILC under-represents EU10 nationals (this group makes up 29 per cent of EU-SILC non-Irish, versus 39 per cent of QNHS non-Irish).

Looking at more detail at the non-Irish samples in the two datasets (figures not shown) we find the age, gender, education and principal economic status to be similar. In EU-SILC non-Irish are more likely to be highly educated than on the QNHS. Within the national groups, the main difference is in the UK sample, which is older, has lower education and fewer employed in the EU-SILC than in the QNHS. Within the other national groups there are fewer differences, though for EU10, EU13 and non-EU in each case the EU-SILC sample has a greater proportion of highly-educated individuals.

A4.3 The NCPP Employee Survey

The National Workplace Survey of Employees 2009 (NWES) was commissioned by the National Centre for Partnership and Performance and conducted by the Economic and Social Research Institute in conjunction with Amarach Research. The survey consists of a nationally representative sample of over 5,000 employees and offers a comprehensive picture of the experiences of workers in Ireland.

The survey targeted employees in the public and private sectors aged 15 and over and was fielded by telephone with the help of specialised software from March to June 2009. The sample was generated using a stratified sample of landline telephone numbers: respondents not working as employees were not interviewed. There were 5110 completed and usable interviews, with a response rate estimated by the authors of around 50 per cent (see O'Connell et al., 2010 for further details). Topics covered included: labour

market details; attitudes to job, intensity and autonomy; change in the workplace; skill and learning/training; employee involvement and personal details.

As in the other surveys, this survey was unlikely to reach asylum seekers living in direct provision and excluded individuals without a landline (potentially excluding more new migrants). Given that a telephone interview requires very good oral language skills, it is likely to under-represent employees with poor English skills. The sample is reweighted using the QNHS for analysis purposes.

A4.4 NCPP Sample Compared to QNHS 2009, Q2

Place of Birth comparison NCPP & QNHS 2 2009				
	NCPP (%)	QNHS (%)	NCPP (N)	QNHS (N)
Irish	80.7	80.2	4363	20052
Non-Irish of which:	19.3	19.8	745	4100
UK	5.5	5.6	367	1311
EU13	2.1	2.0	59	397
EU10	5.8	7.2	45	1380
Non-EU	5.8	5.0	274	1012
All	100.0	100.0	5108	24152

Notes: Percentages are weighted, n of cases unweighted.

Table A4.4 shows how the NCPP and the QNHS samples of employees are very similar. Almost one fifth of them were born outside Ireland. The distribution of national groups within this is similar, though there are 1.4 per cent fewer EU10 nationals in NCPP than in the QNHS, and a somewhat higher proportion of non-EU. In other key respects (gender, age, education, principal economic status, occupation) the two samples of those born outside Ireland are very similar.

Notes

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