



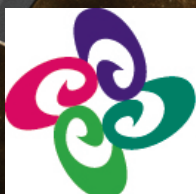
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Measuring migrant integration in Ireland

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1. Introduction

In February 2017, the Department of Justice and Equality published its new *Migrant Integration Strategy*. This was the first significant publication dealing with migrant integration in Ireland since 2008. In her foreword to the *Migrant Integration Strategy*, Tánaiste and Minister for Justice and Equality Frances Fitzgerald described the strategy as ‘the first step towards realising the long-term vision of Ireland as a society in which migrants and those of migrant origin play active roles in communities, workplaces and politics’. David Stanton, Minister for State with special responsibility for Equality, Immigration and Integration, wrote of the need to ensure that ‘barriers to their integration are identified and removed’ (Department of Justice and Equality 2017: 2-3). The document sets out a range of general and specific actions for Government departments, agencies, local authorities and other public bodies for the period to 2020 (see Appendix 1 for an overview).

The renewed political interest in the question of migrant integration in Ireland comes after a sustained period of inattention. The advent of the economic crisis in Ireland shifted public attention to the rapid growth in the emigration of Irish nationals from the country. As a consequence, the ongoing and sustained presence of immigrants in Ireland was not given significant or appropriate political attention, despite the ongoing efforts of immigrant-led organisations, NGOs and academics to highlight migrant experiences. Following recent Censuses, though, it is clear that Ireland now has a significant and sustained immigrant population and is, beyond doubt, an immigrant-receiving society. As a consequence, the integration of new immigrants is a pressing societal challenge to mitigate against longer-term and negative effects on social cohesion (Alba and Foner 2015; Vasta 2013). The *Migrant Integration Strategy* is an important first step in acknowledging this reality.

2. Measuring migrant integration

Given this, what is meant by migrant integration? The term integration is generally used ‘in relation to immigrants percent participation in, and their incorporation into, receiving society’ (Grzymala-Kazłowska and Phillimore 2017: 9). Definitions of integration often emphasise that it is a two-way process, involving both immigrants and the receiving society. This is the case, for example, in the EU Common Basic Principles. In practice, though, efforts to assess the level of migrant integration are more likely to focus on quantifiable measures and outcomes in relation to immigrants. The measurement of outcomes thus focuses on the specific status of immigrants, rather than taking a more holistic view of the receiving society and how it might change in response to migration.

A focus on quantifiable measures and outcomes requires a more specific understanding of what migrant integration might look like. Here, we understand migrant integration as the extent of the economic and social convergence between immigrants and non-immigrants, evident in a range of outcomes related to employment, education, income, housing, health, social inclusion and active citizenship (OECD/European Union 2015: 11-15). This definition draws from the work of the European Ministerial Conference on Integration, which developed the Zaragoza indicators of integration (European Commission 2010). The Zaragoza indicators, later augmented or further developed by the DG Migration and Home Affairs (Huddleston et al 2013), assist understanding of integration contexts and immigrants' integration outcomes, the evaluation of results of policies, and mainstreaming integration into general politics, and permit the comparability of integration outcomes among EU member states.

Table 1 indicates the key indicators of integration that were identified by the 2010 Ministerial Conference. These indicators were selected because of the availability of high quality data that could be reliably compared internationally.

Table 1: Zaragoza Indicators of Integration

Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
Employment rate	Highest educational attainment	At-risk-of-poverty (and social exclusion)	Naturalisation rate
Unemployment rate	Tertiary attainment	Income	Share of long-term residence
Activity rate	Early school leaving	Self-reported health status (controlling for age)	Share of elected representatives
Self-employment	Low achievers	Property ownership	Voter turnout
Over-qualification	Language skills of non-native speakers		

Source: Huddleston et al 2013 : 9

In a later report prepared for the European Commission, a number of new indicators were also proposed. These are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Proposed New Indicators of Integration

Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
Public sector employment	Participation in early childhood education	Child poverty	Participation in voluntary organisations
Temporary employment	Participation in life-long learning	Self-reported unmet need for medical care	Membership in trade unions
Part-time employment	Not in education, employment or training	Life expectancy	Membership in political parties
Long-term unemployment	Resilient students	Healthy life years	Political activity
Share of foreign diplomas recognised	Concentration in low-performing schools	Housing cost over-burden	
Retention of international students		Overcrowding	
		In-work poverty risk	
		Persistent poverty risk	

Source: Huddleston et al 2013 : 9

The first comprehensive international comparison of migrant integration, using the Zaragoza indicators, was published in 2015 (OECD/European Union 2015). The report provides background information on immigrant stock and immigrant flows of socio-economic characteristics, more detailed information on employment, education, income, housing, health, civic engagement and social cohesion. It also devotes a chapter each on young people, and on third country nationals in the EU. Chapter 14, which focuses on third country nationals in the EU, analyzes the Zaragoza indicators, and additional indicators, for all EU countries for the first time. The key indicators that were analysed are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Indicators of Integration for Third Country Nationals in the EU, 2015

Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
Employment rate	Educational attainment	Equivalised annual household income	Share of long-term residence
Activity rate	Literacy skills	Relative poverty rate	Voter participation
Unemployment rate		Housing tenure	Acquisition of nationality
Self-employment		Self-reported health status	
Over qualification			

Source: OECD/European Union 2015: 299-340

3. Measuring migrant integration in Ireland

In Ireland, Zaragosa indicators of integration are collated and presented in two key publications. The first, produced by the Irish Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI), provides indicators for non-Irish nationals, in most cases for 2015 (Barrett et al 2017)¹. The second is the OECD/European Union report, which provides indicators for third country nationals, mostly using 2012-13 data (OECD/European Union 2015). Both reports provide information on the key indicators: employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. We discuss key findings under each of these issues in turn.

3.1 Employment

The ESRI report pays particular attention to rates of employment, unemployment and labour market activity. It shows that the overall employment rate for non-Irish nationals in 2015 does not differ significantly from that of Irish nationals. However, there are differences in the unemployment rate (9.6 percent for Irish, 13.1 percent for non-Irish). Within the category of non-Irish nationals, groups with significantly higher unemployment rates in 2015 include Africans and UK nationals (19.1 percent and 16.4 percent respectively). With the exception of UK nationals, migrants in Ireland are also considerably less likely to be self-employed (Barrett et al 2017: 20-28). According to the OECD/European Commission, the employment rate for third country nationals in Ireland in 2012-13 was 59.5 percent for men and 44.7 percent for women. The rate for men was lower than the EU average of 63.1 percent, but the rate for women was comparable to the EU average of 44.6 percent. Both rates had dropped considerably from 2006-07, when employment rates were 72.33 percent for men and 54.98 percent for women.

The OECD/European Commission report provides considerably more detail in relation to employment. It devotes one chapter to the quality of immigrants' jobs, which includes types of contracts, working hours, overqualification and employment in the public sector. It also includes information on work-related training for adults. According to this report, 9.18 percent of foreign-born workers had a temporary contract, compared to 8.46 percent of native-born workers. Both were considerably lower than the EU average (15.59 percent for foreign-born, 11.06 percent for native-born) (OECD/European Union 2015: 110-111). However, the overqualification rates for foreign-born workers in Ireland was

¹ This is the first report that provides information on the Zaragosa indicators of integration. From 2010 to 2013, the ESRI published its *Annual Monitoring Report on Integration* in conjunction with an NGO, The Integration Centre. Between the 2013 and 2016 reports, there were no formal reports on integration in Ireland, though the ESRI also published a range of annual policy reports on migration and integration.

40.7 percent, much higher than the rate for native-born workers at 29.2 percent. Again, there were considerable differences from the EU averages (33.2 percent and 19.8 percent respectively) (OECD/European Union 2015: 116-117). While 32.34 percent of native-born workers were employed in the public sector in Ireland in 2012-13, the corresponding figure for foreign-born workers with less than 10 years of residence was 16.82 percent (OECD/European Union 2015: 120-121). Foreign-born men were much more likely to have participated in on-the-job training in Ireland than foreign-born women (43.25 percent and 37.81 percent respectively) (OECD/European Union 2015: 140-141).

3.2 Education

The ESRI report indicates that, in 2015, 47.5 percent of non-Irish nationals had a third level qualification, compared to 35.2 percent of Irish nationals. The figure was particularly high for EU-13 nationals, at 67.3 percent, and for nationals of North America, Australia and Oceania, at 70.8 percent. When figures for the 25-34 age group are examined, the gap narrows. In 2015, 55 percent of non-Irish nationals in this age group had a third-level qualification, compared to 50.8 percent of Irish nationals. In contrast, foreign-born children have significantly lower mean reading scores than their Irish-born classmates (Barrett et al 2017: 33-41). The ESRI report also includes a special chapter on immigrant skills and competencies, which concludes that the key skills gap between foreign-born and native-born residents of Ireland is a result of the level of English language proficiency (Barrett et al 2017: 93-114).

3.3 Social Inclusion

In its discussion of social inclusion, the ESRI highlights three overarching measures: income and poverty; health status; and housing tenure and conditions. In relation to income and poverty, they found that the median equivalised household income in 2014 was considerably lower for non-Irish nationals (€15,600, compared to €18,500 for Irish nationals), particularly those from the UK and from outside the EU. Non-Irish nationals were also more likely to be at risk of poverty (21.1 percent, compared to 15.6 percent for Irish nationals). Exposure to risk of poverty was higher for all non-Irish nationalities than for their Irish counterparts (Barrett et al 2017: 45-53).

In contrast, the self-reported health of non-Irish nationals in 2014, again with the exception of UK nationals, was considerably better than that of Irish nationals. 89.3 percent of non-Irish nationals reported very good or good health, compared to 81.7 percent of Irish nationals. However, when this figure is calibrated to take other factors such as age and gender into consideration, only EU-13 nationals have a significantly better self-reported health status than Irish nationals (Barrett et al 2017: 53-55).

The starkest differences are found in the area of housing tenure and conditions. In 2014, 77 percent of Irish nationals were home owners, compared to 24.8 percent of non-Irish nationals. In the same year, 11.8 percent of Irish nationals and 69.8 percent of non-Irish nationals lived in private rented accommodation. While UK nationals have a relatively similar profile to Irish nationals (65.8 percent are home owners, 25.5 percent live in private rented accommodation), EU-12 nationals exhibit the most difference. Just 7.3 percent of EU nationals are home owners, while 89 percent live in private rented accommodation. Irish nationals are also considerably more likely to live in local authority housing (11.2 percent, compared to 5.4 percent of non-Irish nationals). Despite this, the ESRI found no differences in housing conditions between Irish and non-Irish nationals, and low rates of overcrowding for both Irish and non-Irish nationals (3.9 percent and 8.4 percent respectively, compared to the EU average (Barrett et al 2017: 55-59). In relation to third country nationals, 19.2 percent of those in Ireland owned their own homes in 2012, compared to 23.7 percent across the EU as a whole (OECD/European Union 2015: 325).

3.4 Active Citizenship

Just three areas are considered by the ESRI in their discussion of active citizenship. The issue of naturalisation is given most attention, followed by long term residence and then civic and political participation. In the period from 2010 to 2015, 101,123 naturalisation certificates were issued in Ireland. Of these, 10.1 percent were issued to EEA nationals, and 89.9 percent issued to non-EEA nationals. The ESRI suggests that this shows ‘a substantial proportion of non-EEA migrants have acquired Irish citizenship,’ in contrast to the significantly lower proportion of EEA migrants with Irish citizenship (Barrett et al 2017: 73-74) . The number of non-EEA nationals with long-term residence status in 2015, at 1.8 percent, is considerably lower than the EU average (Barrett et al 2017: 80). The civic and political participation of migrants in Ireland is measured using the number of non-Irish candidates in the 2009 (37) and 2014 (31) local elections; and the percentage of non-Irish registered to vote in 2016-17 (35.6 percent of those resident in Ireland). While limited, these indicators suggest low levels participation in the parliamentary political system by migrants in Ireland (Barrett et al 2017: 81-88).

The OECD/European Commission report uses the term civic engagement rather than active citizenship. However, it too uses a limited range of data, specifically acquisition of nationality and self-reported participation in elections for all migrants, and rates of long-term residence for third country nationals. This report suggests that 4.5 percent of third country nationals in Ireland had long term residence status in 2013, compared to the EU average of 31.7 percent (OECD/European Union 2015: 329) .

4. Measuring integration in Ireland: social and spatial differentiation

As Alba and Foner (2015) point out, the process of integration must primarily be understood at the national level. Macro-level measures of integration use indicators that may be measured across a range of national contexts. However, these measures are less successful in indicating the specific ways in which integration may be understood and experienced in national contexts, by specific groups or in specific regions. Because of this, we sought to consider integration at sub-national social and spatial scales. First, we consider the extent of integration for two different immigrant groups: EU13² nationals and Rest of World³ nationals.⁴ These broad categories are organised on the basis of immigrant status. EU-13 nationals are free to move to Ireland by virtue of their EU citizenship. Rest of World nationals need special permission to move to Ireland, and so their status is less secure than Irish/EU nationals (Gilmartin 2014). Despite this, earlier Censuses suggest that EU-13 nationals face particular challenges in relation to employment and housing (Gilmartin 2013). Second, we consider the extent of integration in two different regions: (urban) Dublin and (rural) Border (NUTS IE021 and IE011). These two regions have different immigrant profiles, with a higher proportion of EU-13 nationals in the Border region, and a higher proportion of Rest of World nationals in Dublin. This will allow the identification of spatial differentiation in levels of integration.

5. Social differentiation

The overall usually resident population increased from 4,525,281 in 2011, to 4,689,921 in 2016, an increase of 3.6 percent (CSO 2017a: Table EY021). According to the Central Statistics Office latest migration and diversity profile, the number of non-Irish nationals in Ireland has decreased by 1.6 percent, from 544,357 in 2011 to 535,437 in 2016. Similarly, the proportion of non-Irish nationals living in Ireland has fallen from 12.2 percent in 2011 to 11.6 percent in 2016 (CSO 2017a: Profile 7 Migration and Diversity). For specific migrant groups nationally, persons from the EU13 by nationality increased only slightly, from 5 percent in 2011 to 5.2 percent in 2016 as indicated in Table 4 below.

² EU-13 refers to nationals of states that have joined the EU from 2004 onwards: Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia.

³ Rest of World refers to non-EU nationals. This corresponds to the term Third Country Nationals in the OECD/European Union report.

⁴ Our original research proposal indicated that we would consider a third immigrant group: returning Irish immigrants. Because of limitations in data collection, it has not been possible to do this in a systematic way.

Table 4: Resident population by nationality and immigrant group, 2011 and 2016 (%)

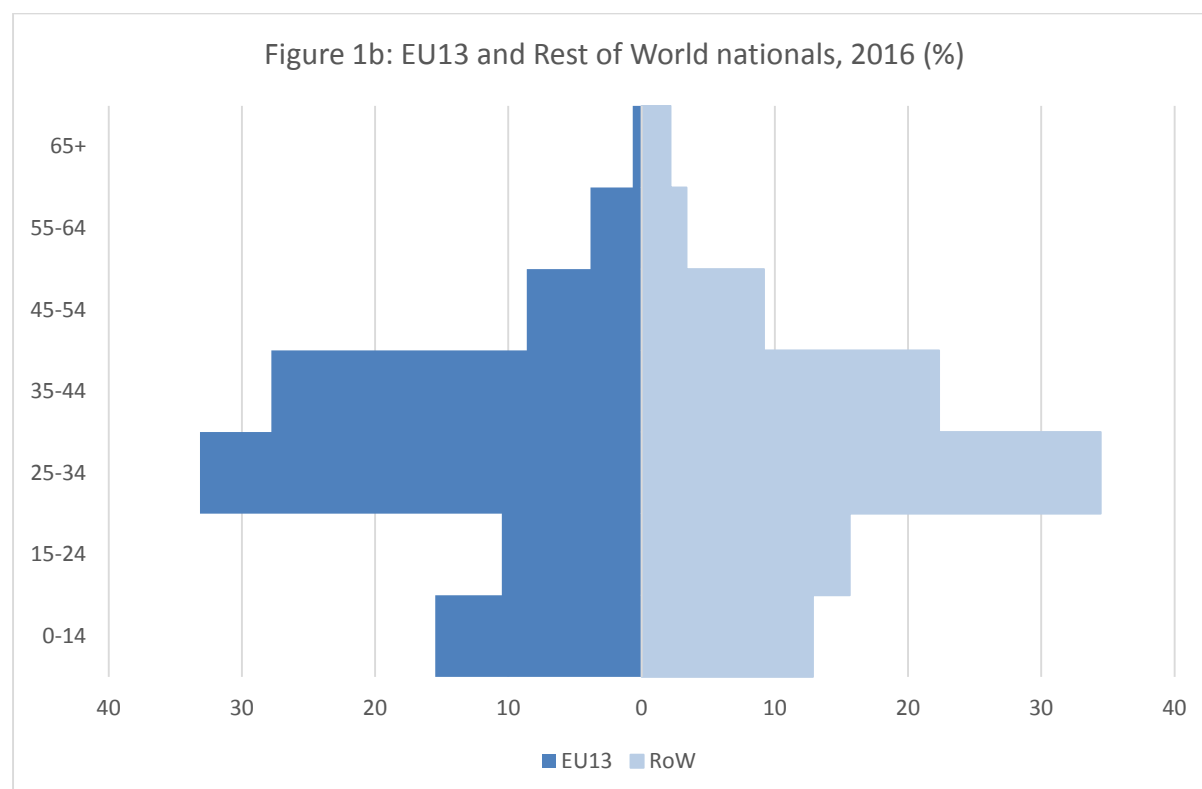
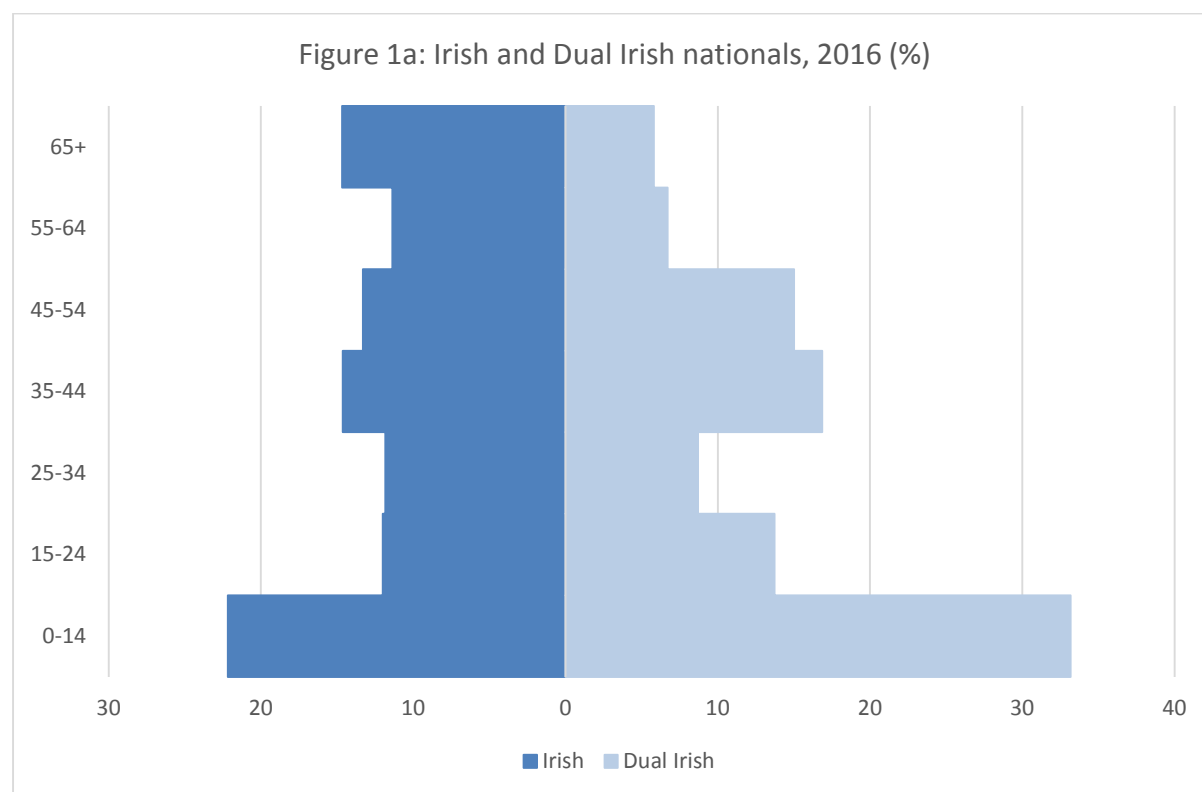
Nationality	Total		Male		Female	
	2011	2016	2011	2016	2011	2016
Irish	85.55	84.81	85.42	84.25	86.11	84.95
Dual Irish	1.24	2.23	1.22	2.19	1.25	2.28
EU13	5.0	5.2	5.09	5.17	4.95	5.18
RoW	3.4	2.6	3.36	2.58	3.35	2.47
Total number	4,525,281	4,689,921	2,243,425	2,320,460	2,281,856	2,369,461

Source: CSO 2017a: Table E7002

In 2011, the largest EU13 nationality groups came from Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Romania and Slovakia were the highest immigrant countries of the EU13 in 2011, while Poland, Lithuania, Romania, Latvia and Slovakia were the top five immigrant countries of the EU13 in 2016. There was a 524 percent increase in the number of Croatians living in Ireland between 2011 and 2016, while the number of Polish, Estonian, Czechoslovakian, and Slovakian residents decreased in the same period (CSO 2017a: Table E7002).

Persons from the Rest of World by nationality decreased from 3.4 percent in 2011 to 2.6 percent in 2016, while those from the Rest of World by birthplace stood at 5 percent. In 2011, Nigerian, Indian, Filipino, American and Chinese were the top five nationalities from this group, while Brazilian, Indian, American, Chinese and Pakistani were the top five in 2016 (CSO 2017a: Table E7002). In the same period, however, the proportion of people indicating dual Irish nationality increased from 1.24 percent to 2.23 percent, with the highest numbers indicating they were Irish-American, Irish-UK, Irish-Polish and Irish-Nigerian in 2016.

Figure 1: Population Pyramids for Irish, Dual Irish, EU13 and RoW nationals, 2016 (%)



Source: Adapted from CSO 2017a: Table E7013.

There are clear differences in the age profiles of Irish, EU13 and Rest of World nationals. Figure 1a shows the population pyramid for Irish and Dual Irish nationals in 2016, while Figure 1b shows the population pyramid for EU13 and Rest of World nationals in the same year. Just over a third of Irish nationals (36.8 percent) and around 40 percent of Dual Irish nationals are aged under 15 or over 65. The comparable figures for EU13 and Rest of World nationals are considerably smaller, at 16.2 and 15.1 percent respectively. EU13 and Rest of World nationals are concentrated in the 25-34 age category (60.9 percent and 56.7 percent respectively), a much higher proportion than for their Irish counterparts (26.4 percent of Irish nationals; 25.6 percent of Dual Irish nationals). The population pyramids highlight the concentration of EU13 and RoW nationals in the 25 to 44 years, or mid-life stage.

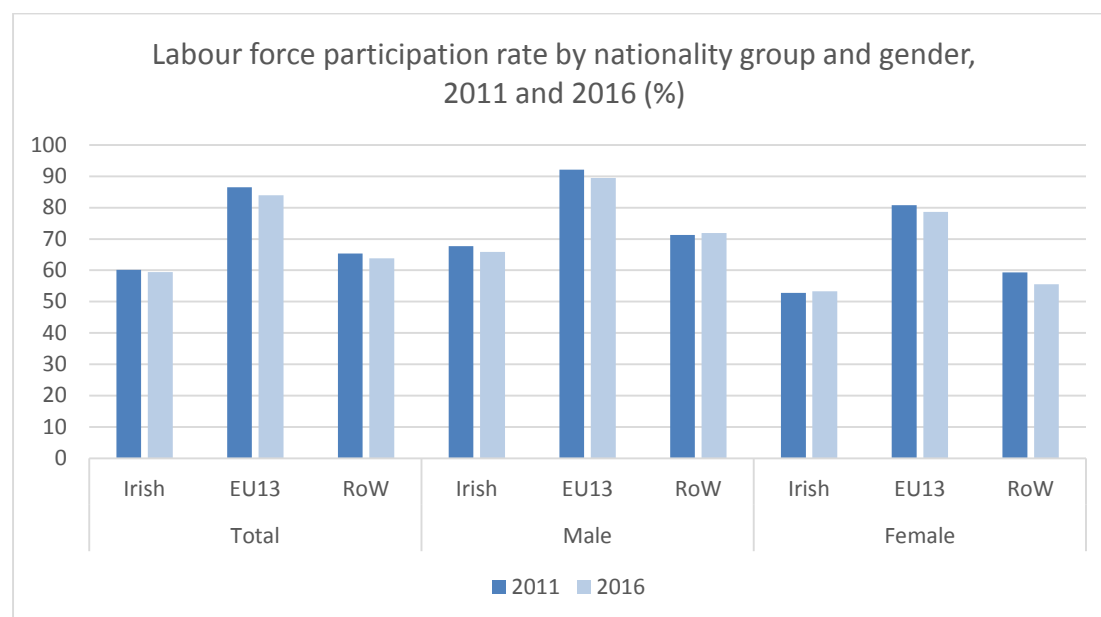
5.1 Employment

This section presents key indicators of employment integration by national group including employment, unemployment, and labour force participation. The data used in this section is drawn from the CSO, as well as QNHS 2016 microdata, made available via the Irish Social Science Data ([ISSDA](#)) archive.

According to Census 2016, non-Irish nationals maintain a higher labour force participation rate at 73.9 percent in comparison to their Irish counterparts at 59.5 percent (CSO 2017c: 40). Figure 2 gives an overview of labour force participation for select national groups: Irish, non-Irish nationals, and EU13. EU13 nationals have considerably higher participation rates than their Irish and RoW counterparts. Across all nationality groups, the labour force participation rate is higher for men than for women.

Census 2016 provides further insight into the economic status for specific national groups: Irish; EU13 and Rest of World. In 2016, the overall unemployment rate was 12.9 percent: 12.5 percent for Irish nationals and 14.9 percent for non-Irish nationals (CSO 2017a: Table EB016). When we break this down further, the unemployment rate for EU13 nationals in 2016 was 14.2 percent, compared with 22.5 percent in 2011. For Rest of World nationals, the unemployment rate in 2016 was 22 percent, a decrease from 25.2 percent in 2011 (CSO 2017a: Table EB014). A significant proportion of Rest of World nationals are students, with little change between 2011 and 2016, 21 percent and 22 percent respectively.

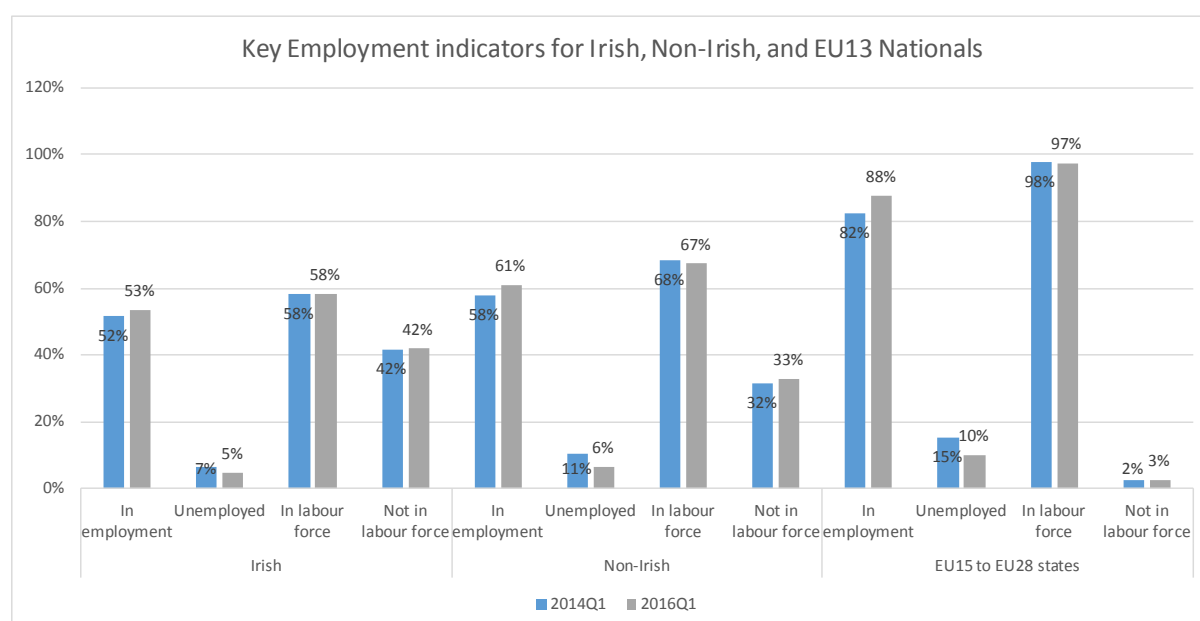
Figure 2: Labour force participation rate by nationality group and gender, 2011 and 2016 (%)



Source: CSO Special Tabulations

More detail on employment and unemployment for select national groups is provided by the QNHS. In Figure 3, we see how the unemployment rate for Irish workers decreased from 7 percent in 2014 to 5 percent in 2016. Similarly, the unemployment rate for non-Irish nationals decreased from 11 percent in 2014 to 6 percent in 2016. For EU13 nationals, unemployment also decreased from 15 percent to 10 percent during the same period. In 2016, the unemployment rate for both non-Irish and Irish males was the same at 13.8 percent. The unemployment rate for non-Irish females was 17.2 percent, higher than the 11.1 percent recorded for Irish females (CSO 2017c: 40). Between 2014 and 2016 the employment rate increased most significantly for EU13 nationals, rising from 82 percent to 88 percent.

Figure 3: Key employment indicators for Irish, non-Irish and EU13 nationals, 2014 & 2016



Source: CSO 2016

More detail is provided by the Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS)⁵. This measures the 'principal employment status', that is, what the respondent considers his or her usual situation with regard to employment. Based on core labour market variables, the QNHS also explores derived variables for labour market analysis. Using QNHS 2016 data to explore respondents' derived employment status (ILO detail) by birthplace (Table 5), we can see that EU13 nationals by birthplace have a high rate of full-time employment at 55 percent, in comparison to 40 percent for Rest of World nationals, and 31 percent for Irish nationals. 10 percent of Rest of World nationals that work part-time do not consider themselves underemployed, compared with almost 7 percent of EU13 nationals, and 7.5 percent of Irish nationals.

Looking at respondents by nationality who are seeking full-time employment, entrepreneurs, or self-employment, the rate of EU13 nationals and Rest of World nationals is similar at 5.5 percent and 5 percent respectively, while it is 3 percent for Irish nationals. Moreover, differences occur among those who want a job but are in education or training, just 0.4 percent for Irish nationals but 1.4 percent for Rest of World nationals by birthplace, rising to 2 percent by nationality. Almost 28 percent of Rest of World nationals do not want a job, compared to 25 percent of Irish nationals.

⁵ The QNHS was replaced by the Labour Force Survey from Q3 2017.

Table 5: ILO derived work status by place of birth and nationality, 2016

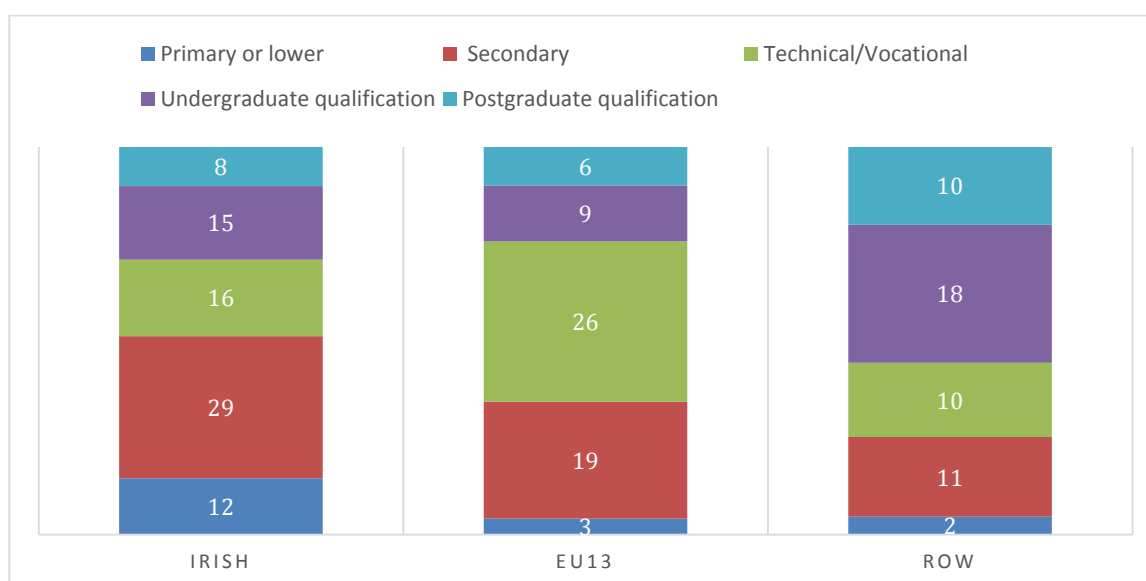
Employment Status	Birthplace			Nationality		
	Irish %	EU13 %	RoW %	Irish %	EU13 %	RoW %
Full-time	30.9	55.3	39.7	31.4	50.3	36.8
Part-time - not underemployed	7.5	6.8	10.0	7.6	7.4	11.0
Part-time - wishes to work more hours and available (Part-time underemployed)	1.9	2.6	2.9	2.0	4.5	2.4
Seeking full-time employment/Future job starter/Seeking employment as self-employed	2.8	2.7	5.3	3.0	5.5	5.0
Seeking part-time employment	0.4	[0.4]	1.2	0.4	[0.7]	[1.5]
Actively seeking not available	0.2	[0.3]	[0.5]	0.2	[0.5]	*
Available not seeking	0.4	[0.3]	0.6	0.5	[0.6]	*
Wants job, not available and not seeking because is in education or training	0.4	[1.0]	1.4	0.4	[0.5]	2.0
Wants job, not available and not seeking because of all other reasons	0.7	0.6	1.2	0.7	1.1	[1.4]
Does not want job	24.4	20.8	28.2	24.5	16.3	27.9
Persons aged 75 or over	6.3	*	[0.6]	6.2	*	*

Source: QNHS 2016. Own calculations of QNHS 2016 microdata files.

5.2 Education

Almost 30 percent of Irish nationals have completed secondary education in comparison to 19 percent of EU13 nationals and 10 percent of Rest of World nationals. However, EU13 nationals (26 percent) are more likely to achieve a technical and vocational education, while dual Irish nationals (25 percent) and Rest of World nationals (18 percent) are most likely to complete an undergraduate qualification. Similarly, dual Irish nationals (14 percent) and Rest of World nationals (10 percent) are most likely to hold a postgraduate qualification. This is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Education completed by national group, 2016 (%)



Source: CSO 2017, Table EA004

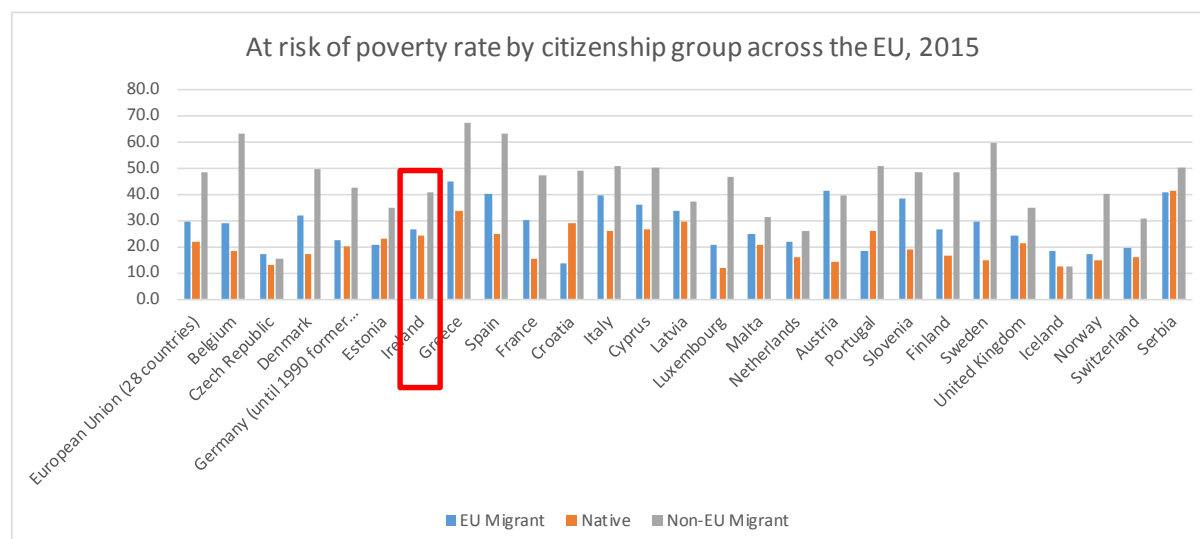
5.3 Social Inclusion

According to EU survey on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) for 2015, the rate of households living at risk of poverty was 16.9 percent (CSO 2017b). Enforced deprivation was experienced by 25.5 percent of the population, down from 29 percent in 2014. The deprivation rate for those at risk of poverty was 51.5 percent in 2015, up slightly from 51.2 percent in 2014. The consistent poverty rate for all households was 8.7 percent.

The ESRI Report noted that ‘in 2014 16 per cent of Irish households were at risk of poverty but the figure rises to 21 per cent among non-Irish nationals’ (Barrett et al 2017: 48). Additionally, among nationality groups, ‘those from the EU12 have lower at risk of poverty rates than Irish nationals, while the EU15-2 group do not significantly differ from the Irish majority, however the rate for non-EU nationals is 46 per cent, almost three times the rate of Irish nationals’ (ibid). Between 2011 and 2014 the at risk of poverty rate for non-EU nationals increased dramatically, from 18 percent in 2011 to 46 percent in 2014 (ibid) (see Figure 5). The ESRI Report attributes this increase to the number of students within this category (as we have highlighted in the previous section), as well as to an increased risk of poverty for those who were at work (ibid). The rate of in-work poverty for non-EU nationals increased from 7 percent in 2011 to 29 percent in 2014 (Barrett et al 2017: 49). There was no significant difference in the rate of consistent poverty between Irish and non-Irish nationals at 7.9 and 8.8 percent respectively. However, non-EU nationals had a higher consistent poverty rate at 12 percent, which was driven by their higher rates of income poverty (Barrett et al 2017: 50). Within a broader European context (Eurostat 2016), in 2015, Irish nationals at 22.1 percent have a greater at risk of

poverty rate than the EU 28 average of 24.3 percent. EU migrants in Ireland at 26.7 percent are below the EU28 average of 29.8 percent. Non-EU migrants in Ireland at 41 percent fare better than those across the EU28 at 48.3 percent.

Figure 5: At risk of poverty rate by citizenship group across the EU, 2015



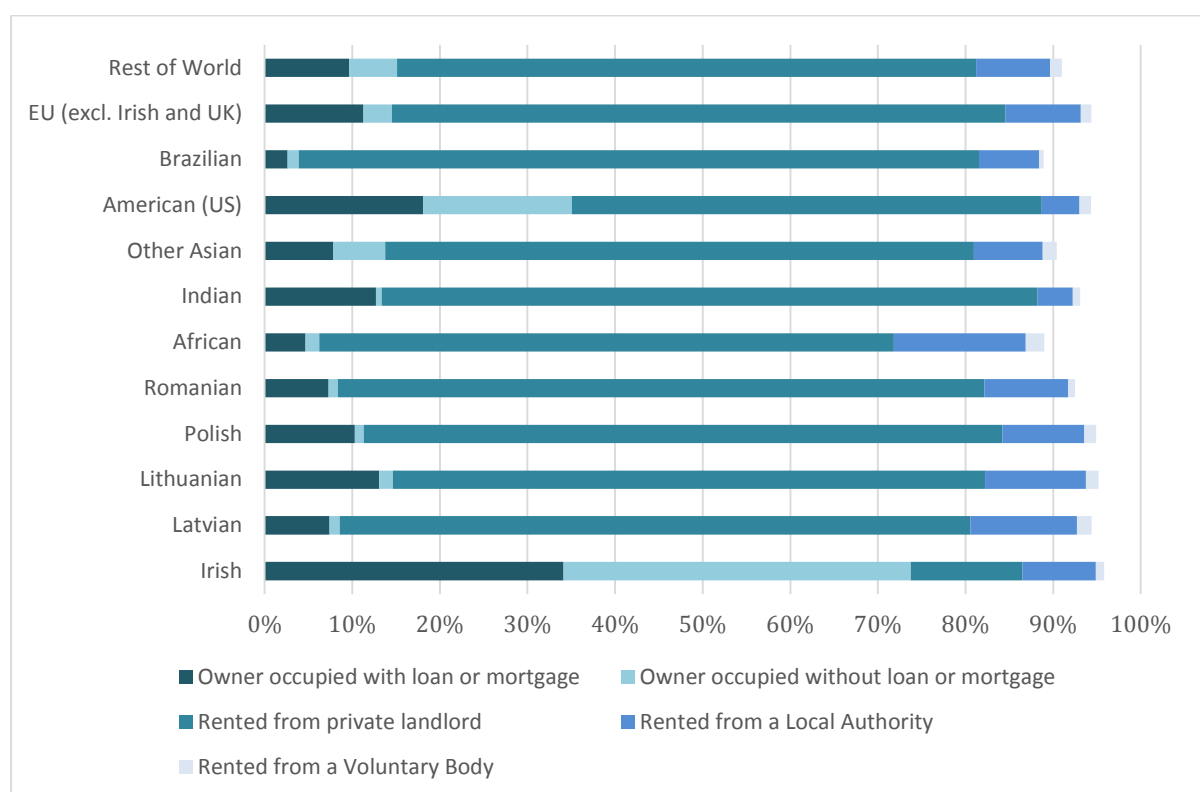
Source: Eurostat 2016.

Note: Bulgaria, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and former Yugoslavia are omitted due to incomplete data.

5.4 Housing

Census 2016 provides a breakdown of the type of occupancy by selected national groups. From Figure 6 we can see the considerably higher portion of migrant nationals that occupy the private rental market. In total, 66.1 percent of Rest of World nationals and 70 percent of EU nationals (excluding Irish and UK) rent from private landlords, compared with just 12 percent of Irish nationals. In contrast, 14.5 percent of EU nationals (excluding Irish and UK) and 15.1 percent of Rest of World nationals own their own home, compared with 73.8 percent of Irish nationals. Data from the QNHS 2016 also clearly shows that the majority of those in the private rented sector are migrants. Over 80 percent of EU13 nationals and 77 percent of Rest of World by nationality (57 percent by birthplace) live in the private rented sector (Table 6).

Figure 6: Type of occupancy by selected national groups, 2016 (%)



Source: CSO 2017a: Table E1025

Table 6: Tenure status by nationality and birthplace, 2016

Nature of Occupancy	Nationality						Birthplace					
	Irish	%	EU 13	%	RoW	%	Irish	%	EU 13	%	RoW	%
Owner occupied	199397	76.8	707	10.6	470	15.0	114134	77.5	834	12.0	1872	29.9
Being acquired from local authority under a purchase or vested cottage scheme	747	0.5	*	*	*	*	723	0.5	*	*	*	*
Rented from Local Authority	15417	9.9	454	6.8	179	5.7	14567	9.9	501	7.2	669	10.7
Rented (Private rented)	16917	10.9	5406	80.7	2392	76.5	14943	10.3	5468	78.9	3526	56.3

Source: QNHS 2016. Own calculations of QNHS 2016 microdata files.

A large proportion of Irish nationals live in detached or semi-detached houses with just 4 percent living in apartments. The majority of EU13 nationals live in semi-detached houses (42 percent), apartments (20 percent) or terraced houses (18 percent). This is similarly the case for Rest of World nationals, the majority of whom live in apartments (33 percent by nationality and 25 percent by birthplace), semi-detached (27 percent by nationality and 33 percent by birthplace) and terraced housing (13 percent by nationality and 18 percent by birthplace). Census 2016 shows the average number of persons by room, for select nationalities. While the average for the population as a whole is 0.53, and for those of Irish nationality 0.53, the figures for select nationality groups/groupings are considerably higher, including 1.17 for Romanians, 1.06 for African nationalities, 1.04 for Asians (excluding Indians), and 1.0 for Brazilians (CSO 2017a: Table E1034). According to Eurostat (Eurostat 2015), the overcrowding

rate in Ireland for both the native and foreign population is below the average across the EU28, however, their figures also show that those born outside of the EU fare worse than those of the EU born or native population.

Table 7: Type of Dwelling Unit by Nationality and Birthplace, 2016

Dwelling Unit	Nationality						Birthplace					
	Irish	%	EU 13	%	RoW	%	Irish	%	EU 13	%	RoW	%
Detached house	57258	36.8	614	9.2	276	8.8	54683	37.1	669	9.2	784	12.5
Semi-detached house	45512	29.3	2826	42.2	837	26.8	42957	29.2	2885	42.2	2036	32.5
Terraced house	25797	16.6	1256	18.7	415	13.3	24436	16.6	1334	18.7	1110	17.7
Detached bungalow	17013	10.9	226	3.4	62	2.0	16352	11.1	249	3.4	153	2.4
Bedsitter	181	0.1	57	0.9	66	2.1	160	0.1	57	0.9	86	1.4
Custom built flat/apartment	6487	4.2	1373	20.5	1036	33.1	5820	4.0	1378	20.5	1535	24.5
Non-custom built flat/apartment	913	0.6	285	4.3	384	12.3	796	0.5	294	4.3	463	7.4

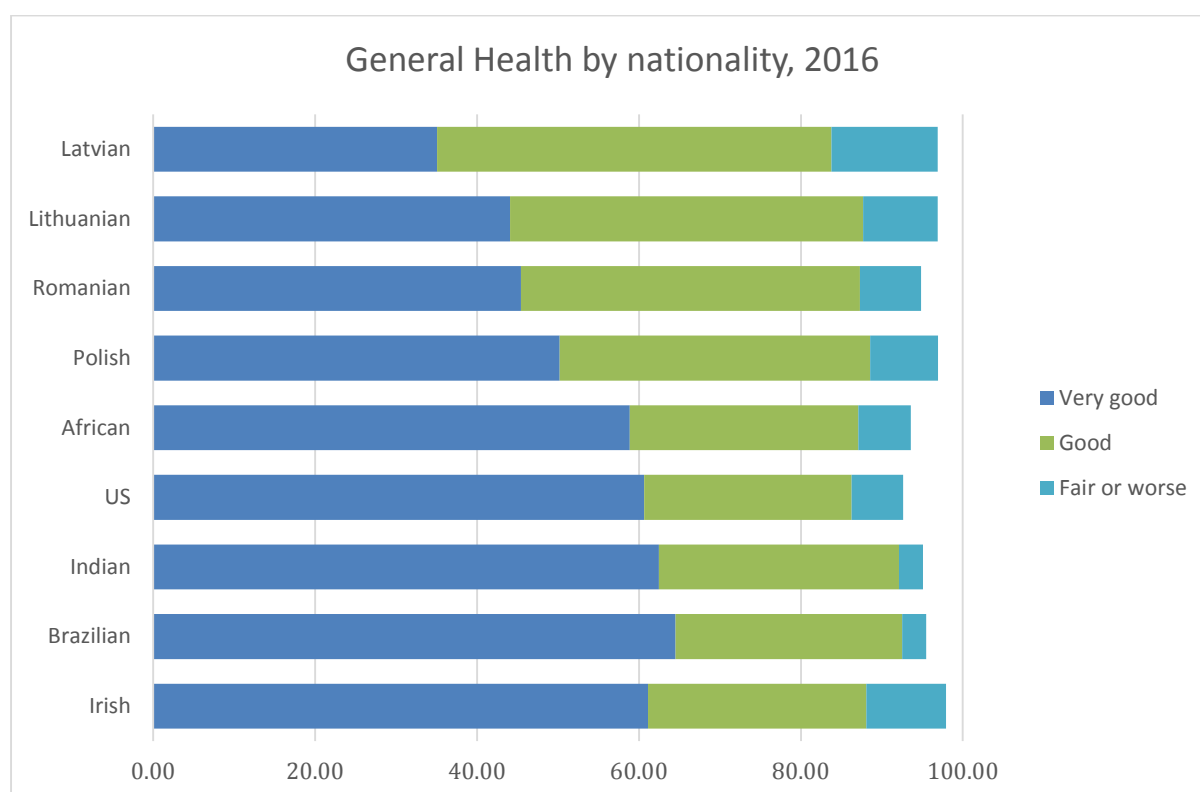
Source: CSO 2016. Own calculations from QNHS 2016 microdata files.

Note: We have omitted categories *semi-detached bungalow* and where no breakdown of house type was available, due to insufficient data

5.5 Health

There are slight differences in the perception of health (Figure 7) among Irish and non-Irish nationals in Ireland. According to Census 2016 (CSO 2017a: Table E9088), around 61 percent of Irish nationals perceived their health as ‘very good’ compared with 59 percent of Rest of World nationals and 50.1 percent of EU nationals (excluding Irish and UK). However, 35 percent of non-Irish nationals considered their health ‘good’ compared with 27 percent of Irish nationals. Those who considered their health as ‘fair’ or ‘bad’ was relatively the same. Census 2016 provides a breakdown of health status by selected national groups. Within this, we can see variations among those who perceive their health as ‘very good’, with 65 percent of Brazilians and 62 percent of Indians claiming ‘very good’ health, while only 44 percent of Lithuanians and 35 percent of Latvians report their health as ‘very good’.

Figure 7: General health by nationality, 2016 (%)



Source: CSO 2017a: Table E9088

In terms of disability, 16.7 percent of Irish nationals by birthplace reported a disability in 2016, compared with 7.5 percent of EU13 nationals and 9.2 percent of Rest of World nationals.

Table 8: Disabilities reported by birthplace and national group, 2016 (%)

Type of disability	Ireland	EU13	Rest of World
Blindness or a serious vision impairment	1.5	0.8	0.8
Deafness or a serious hearing impairment	3.0	0.5	0.8
A difficulty that limits basic physical activites such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying	7.5	2.6	2.9
An intellectual disability	1.5	0.4	0.6
A difficulty with learning, remembering or concentrating	3.7	1.2	1.8
A psychological or emotional condition	3.1	1.4	1.9
A difficulty with pain, breathing, or any other chronic illness or condition	7.9	3.7	4.3
Difficulty dressing, bathing or getting around inside the home	3.8	1.2	1.3
Difficulty going outside the home alone to shop or visit a doctors surgery	5.0	1.6	2.0
Difficulty working at a job, business or attending school or college	5.6	2.8	2.9
Difficulty participating in other activities, for example leisure or using transport	6.2	2.0	2.5

Source: CSO 2017a: Table E9034

Among EU13 nationals, people born in Lithuania (18.6 percent) and Slovenia (15.0 percent) reported the highest levels of disability, while people born in Croatia (5.4 percent) and Hungary (6.0 percent) reported the lowest levels of disability. While data is not available for all Rest of World countries, there are high levels of reported disability among those born in the US (14.1 percent) and South Africa (14 percent) though, in both instances, these are lower than the reported level among Irish-born (16.7 percent).

5.6 Active Citizenship

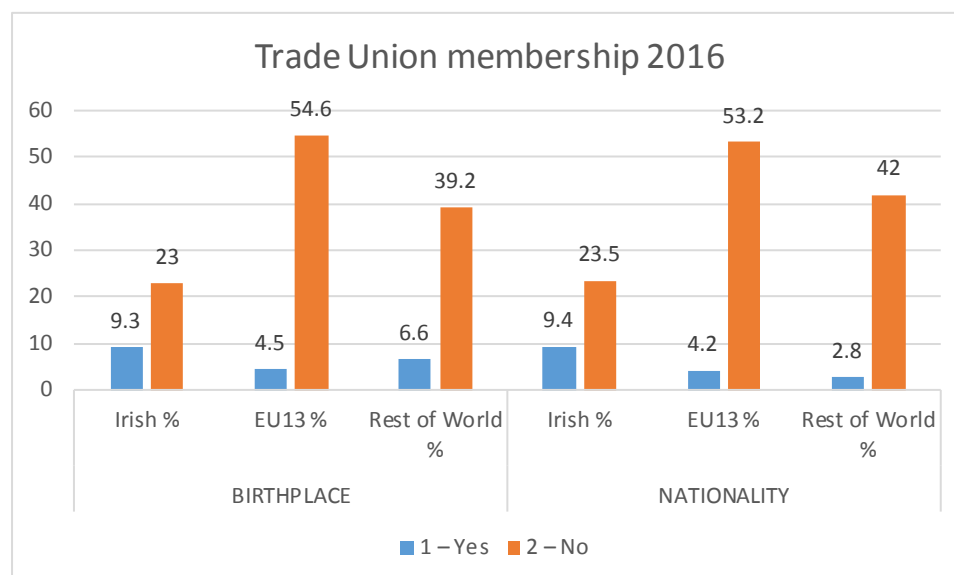
The Zaragosa indicators for active citizenship include 1) the naturalisation rate, measured as the ratio of resident immigrants to those who acquired citizenship; 2) the share of immigrants holding permanent or long-term residence permits; and 3) the share of immigrants among elected representatives. The ESRI Report (Barrett et al 2017: 63-88) presents the national results of these indicators; hence this section will simply reiterate those findings. However, this section will include a broader understanding of active citizenship by including Trade Union membership as analysed from QNHS 2016 data.

As discussed in the ESRI report, the naturalisation rate measures on an ad hoc basis how many immigrants become citizens over time (Barrett et al 2017: 63). INIS estimates that 121,100 non-Irish nationals acquired citizenship through naturalisation between 2005 and 2015 (Barrett et al 2017: 64). Additionally, the Monitoring Integration Report 2016, noted that ‘the naturalisation rate for non-EEA adults peaked at 16.4 percent in 2012 before falling steadily to reach 7.5 percent in 2015’ (ibid). The total number of naturalisation certificates issued in 2012 was just over 25,100, declining by 46 percent to around 13,500 in 2015 (ibid). In 2014 Eurostat data indicate that Ireland’s naturalisation rate for non-EEA nationals was the highest in the EEA’. Despite an increase of EEA nationals choosing naturalisation (from 6 percent in 2012 to 23 percent in 2015), the overall percentage is very small at one percent (ibid). Long-term residence status is not widely available in Ireland (Barrett et al 2017: 76-79).

The OECD presents a trade union density in Ireland of 27.4 percent in 2014 (OECD 2014). However, unions themselves dispute official statistics to claim 570,000 members that are employees. At the height of the economic boom in Ireland union density was recorded at 31 percent, and although this rose during the economic crisis to 33 percent in 2010, members and density once again fell back to 29 percent in 2013 (European Trade Union Institute 2014). Analysis of QNHS 2016 on union membership by nationality and birthplace indicates a much larger proportion of Irish nationals are members of trade unions than their non-national counterparts. Some 23 percent of Irish nationals are union

members, while just over 4 percent of EU13 nationals and almost 3 percent of Rest of World nationals (rising to 6.6 percent by birthplace) (see Figure 8).

Figure 8: Trade Union Membership by birthplace and nationality, 2016



Source: CSO 2016. Own calculations of QNHS microdata

6. Spatial Differentiation

In this report, we focus on two regions: Dublin and Border. The Dublin region consists of Fingal, Dublin City, South Dublin, Dun Laoghaire Rathdown with a combined population of over 1.3m people, while the Border region consists of counties Louth, Monaghan, Sligo, Leitrim, Cavan and Donegal with a combined population of just over 516,000 (CSO, 2017). The population increase that occurred between 2001 and 2016 was spatially differentiated, with an increase in the population born outside Ireland of 9.6 percent in the Dublin region, and an increase of 3.1 percent in the Border region. All counties apart from Donegal recorded an increase, though the rate of increase varied from less than 1 percent in Leitrim and Sligo, to over 14 percent in Dun Laoghaire-Rathdown. Further details are provided in Table 9.

Table 9: Resident population born outside Ireland, 2011 and 2016

	Population 2011	Population 2016	Percentage change between 2011 and 2016
Dublin city	102,418	112,481	+8.9
Dun Laoghaire-Rathdown	31,846	37,305	+14.6
Fingal	58,985	64,986	+9.2
South Dublin	43,062	46,512	+7.4
DUBLIN	236,311	261,284	+9.6
Leitrim	5,068	5,082	+0.3
Sligo	9,280	9,316	+0.4
Cavan	10,297	11,251	+8.5
Donegal	21,084	20,301	-3.9
Monaghan	8,117	8,272	+1.9
Louth	15,686	17,526	+10.5
BORDER	69,532	71,748	+3.1
STATE	708,300	753,017	+5.9

Source: CSO 2017, Table EY021

There are clear differences in place of birth for the Border and Dublin regions. This information is provided in Table 10. In the Border region, 11 percent of the resident population in 2016 was born in the UK, compared to 4.2 percent in Dublin. In contrast, 8.5 percent of the resident population of the Dublin region was born outside the EU, compared to 3.4 percent in the Border region.

Table 10: Resident population by place of birth, Border and Dublin regions, 2016

Place of birth	Border 2016 (%)	Dublin 2016 (%)
Ireland	80.7	79.2
UK	11.0	4.2
Rest of EU15	0.7	2.3
EU13	4.2	5.8
RoW	3.4	8.5

Source: CSO 2017a: Table E7050

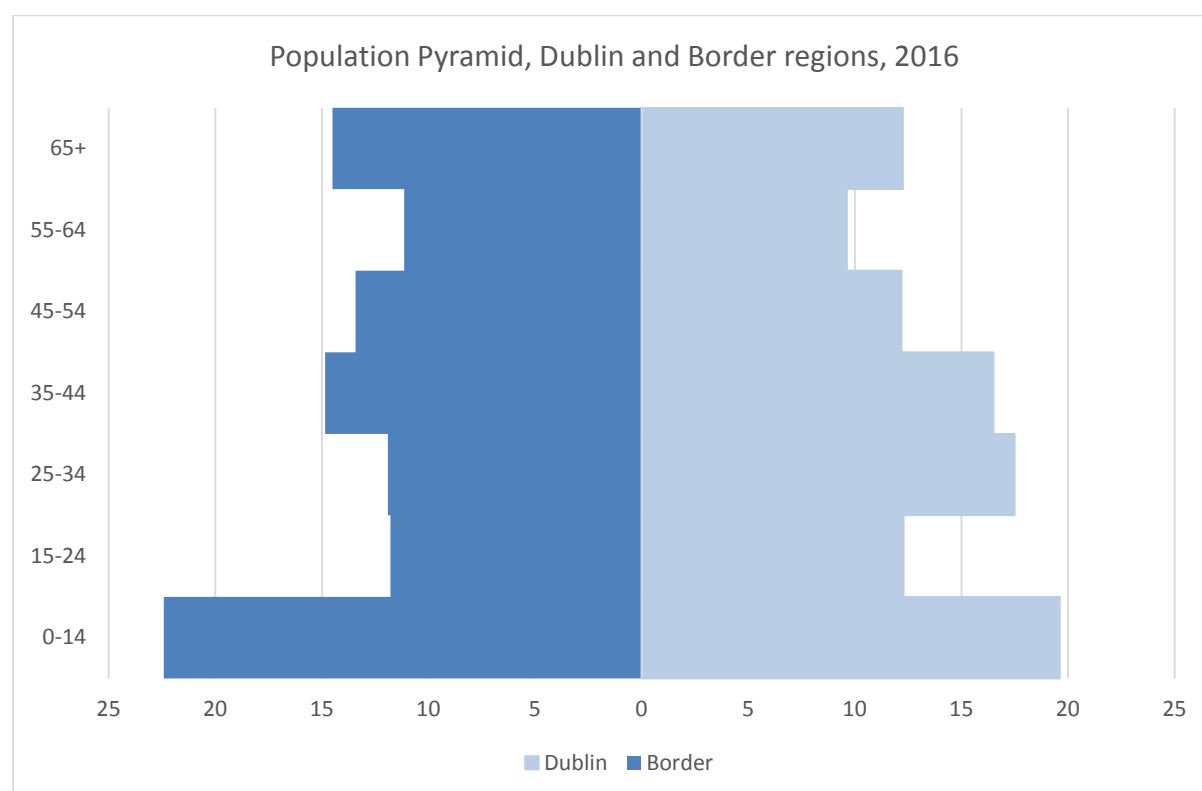
This pattern of difference is repeated in the nationality profile for the Border and Dublin regions, shown in Table 11. While the proportion of residents born outside Ireland is roughly similar (Table 10), the Border region has a higher proportion of Irish and UK nationals, and a lower proportion of Other EU-15, EU-13 and Rest of World nationals than the Dublin region.

Table 11: Resident population by nationality, Border and Dublin regions, 2016

Nationality	Border 2016 (%)	Dublin 2016 (%)
Irish	89.1	83.0
UK	2.8	1.5
Other EU-15	0.6	2.4
EU-13	4.5	6.1
RoW	1.6	4.6
Other	1.3	2.5

Source: CSO 2017a: Table E7002

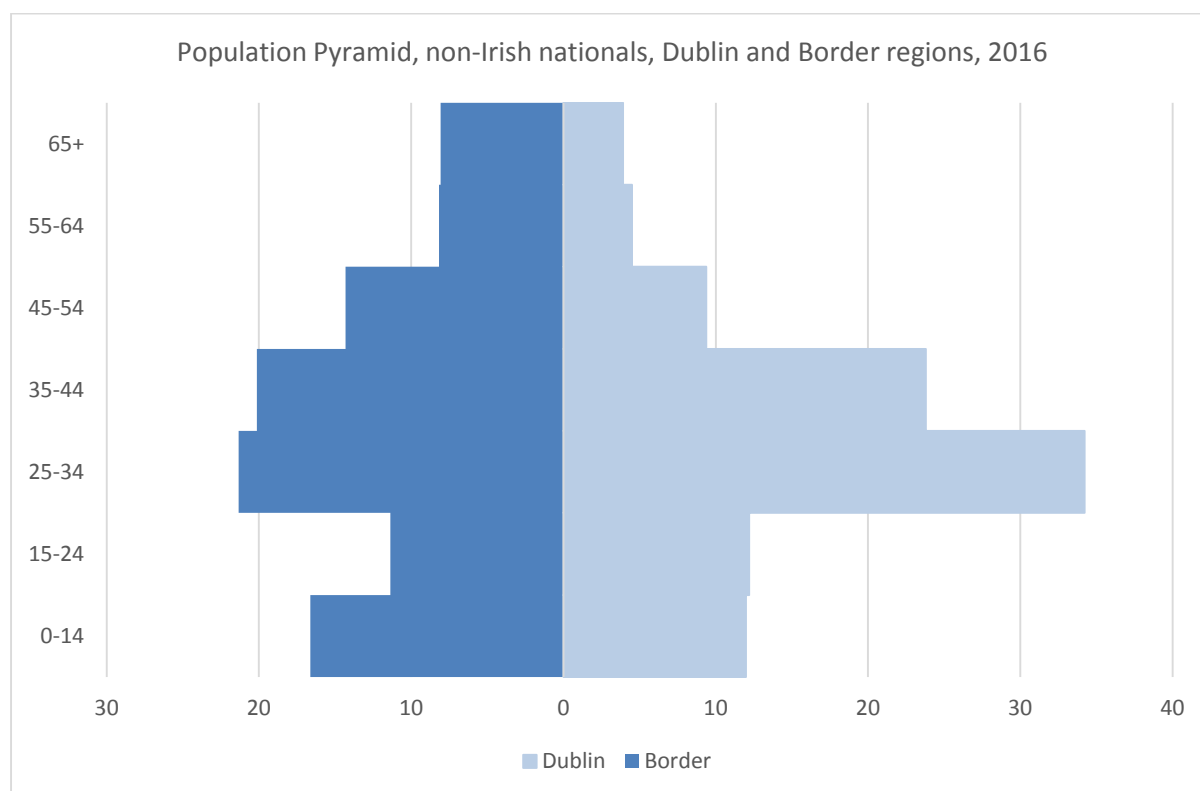
The age profile of the two regions also differs considerably. The population pyramid for the Dublin and Border regions is shown in Figure 1. This shows that the age dependency ratio for the Border region is higher than for the Dublin region. Around 37 percent of the population of the Border region is aged either under 15 or over 64. The corresponding figure in the Dublin region is just under 32 percent.

Figure 9: Population Pyramid, Dublin and Border regions, 2016

Source: Adapted from CSO 2017, Table E7003

Figure 10 shows the population pyramid for non-Irish nationals in the Dublin and Border regions. This shows an even starker difference between the two regions. This is particularly obvious in the 25-44 age categories, which accounts for 58 percent of the non-Irish population in the Dublin region, and 41.4 percent of the non-Irish population in the Border region.

Figure 10: Population Pyramid for non-Irish nationals, Dublin and Border regions, 2016



Source: Adapted from CSO 2017, Table E7003

6.1 EU13 migrants in the Border and Dublin regions

According to Census 2016, the largest EU13 national groups living in the Border region were Polish (9,635 nationals), Lithuanian (6,677 nationals) and Latvian (3,261 nationals). Cavan had the highest number of Polish nationals (2,190), Monaghan had the highest number of Lithuanian nationals (2,506), and Louth the highest number of Latvian nationals (1,183). In 2016, 48.7 percent of the EU13 nationals living in the Border region were male. The total number of EU13 nationals in the Border region increased by 9 percent between 2011 and 2016. Key components of this population group are shown in Table 12.

Table 12: EU13 nationals in the Border region, 2016

Nationality	2016		Population change, 2011-2016 (%)
	Population	% Male	
Polish	9,635	50.9	3.9
Lithuanian	6,677	46.3	6.5
Latvian	3,261	44.9	-1.0
Romanian	1,308	50.0	86.3

Source: CSO 2017, Table E7002

In 2016, the largest EU13 national groups living in the Dublin region were Polish (33,751 nationals); Romanian (18,374 nationals) and Lithuanian (9,869 nationals). Fingal had the highest number of Polish

(11,419), Lithuanian (3,832) and Latvian (2,895) nationals; while Dublin city had the highest number of Romanian (8,647) nationals. In 2016, 49 percent of the EU13 nationals living in the Dublin region were male. The total number of EU13 nationals in the Dublin region increased by 6.9 percent between 2011 and 2016. Key components of this population group are shown in Table 13.

Table 12: EU13 nationals in the Dublin region, 2016

Nationality	2016		Population change, 2011-2016 (%)
	Population	% Male	
Polish	33,751	58	-5.9
Romanian	18,374	58	58.7
Lithuanian	9,869	58	-6.5
Latvian	5,771	58	-9.5

Source: CSO 2017, Table E7002

6.2 Rest of World migrants in the Border and Dublin regions

According to Census 2016, the largest Rest of World national groups living in the Border region were US (907 nationals), Pakistani (820 nationals), Indian (696 nationals) and Nigerian (685 nationals). Donegal had the highest number of US (295) and Indian (331) nationals. Louth had the highest number of Pakistani (330) and Nigerian (432) nationals. In 2016, 51.6 percent of the Rest of World nationals living in the Border region were male. The total number of Rest of World nationals in the Border region decreased by 25.2 percent between 2011 and 2016. Key components of this population group are shown in Table 14.

Table 13: Rest of World nationals in the Border region, 2016

Nationality	2016		Population change, 2011-2016 (%)
	Population	% Male	
American (US)	907	41.8	-14.5
Pakistani	820	64.8	39.5
Indian	696	60.6	-36.6
Nigerian	685	49.5	-62.3

Source: CSO 2017, Table E7002

According to Census 2016, the largest Rest of World national groups living in the Dublin region were Brazilian (8,903 nationals), Indian (6,546 nationals), Chinese (5,748 nationals) and US (4,042 nationals). Dublin City had the highest number of Brazilian (7,401), Indian (3,130), Chinese (3,051) and US (2,239) nationals. In 2016, 50.6 percent of the Rest of World nationals living in the Dublin region were male. The total number of Rest of World nationals in the Dublin region decreased by 20.5 percent between 2011 and 2016. Key components of this population group are shown in Table 15.

Table 14: Rest of World nationals in the Dublin region, 2016

Nationality	2016		Population change, 2011-2016 (%)
	Population	% Male	
Brazilian	8903	46.6	98.6
Indian	6546	63.8	-31.2
Chinese	5748	46.4	-9.8
American (US)	4042	42.0	16.4

Source: CSO 2017, Table E7002

There is, however, a considerable difference between figures for Rest of World nationality and Rest of World birthplace in the Dublin region between 2011 and 2016. In 2011, around 20,000 more people had a Rest of World birthplace than a Rest of World nationality. In 2016, this had risen to over 50,000. Significant differences had emerged for those associated with the Philippines, Nigeria and India, which suggests that many people born in these countries had been granted Irish citizenship in the period between 2011 and 2016. This indicates that the reliance in Ireland on nationality as a marker of migrant status may no longer be particularly useful, and that place of birth may now be a more appropriate marker when assessing indicators of migrant integration in the future.

6.3 Employment

This section presents key indicators of integration in relation to employment in the Border and Dublin regions and, where available, for different migrant groups. The data used in this section are derived from Census 2011, Census 2016, and the Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS). Unless where indicated, this report refers to data from QNHS Q4 2015 and QNHS Q4 2016, in order to ensure comparability.

Table 16 provides information on the industries where people are employed, by region. A further breakdown by nationality group is not available, but Table 16 shows some differences in employment patterns between the Border and Dublin regions, with a higher proportion employed in agriculture, building and manufacturing related industries in the Border region, and a higher proportion employed in commerce, transport & communications in the Dublin region.

Table 17 provides information on social class by nationality from the 2016 Census. Social class is defined on the basis of occupation and employment status, so it provides an indicator of type of employment. This shows two clear axes of differentiation on the basis of social class. The first is by nationality, with a higher proportion of non-Irish nationals categorised as Skilled Manual, Semi-Skilled or Unskilled, in comparison to Irish nationals. This difference is further intensified on the basis of

residence, as people living in the Border region are considerably more likely to be categorised as Skilled Manual, Semi-Skilled or Unskilled than those living in Dublin.

Table 15: Percentages employed in selected industries by region, 2016

Industry	Total (%)	Border (%)	Dublin (%)
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	4.4	8.6	0.3
Building and construction	5.1	6.0	3.7
Manufacturing industries	11.4	12.3	6.6
Commerce and trade	23.9	19.8	28.5
Transport and communications	8.5	5.5	12.5
Public administration	5.3	5.8	5.4
Professional services	23.5	24.5	23.2
Other	17.8	17.4	19.7

Source: CSO 2017a: SAPMAP Areas NUTS3_2016 Dublin; NUTS3_2016 Border; State

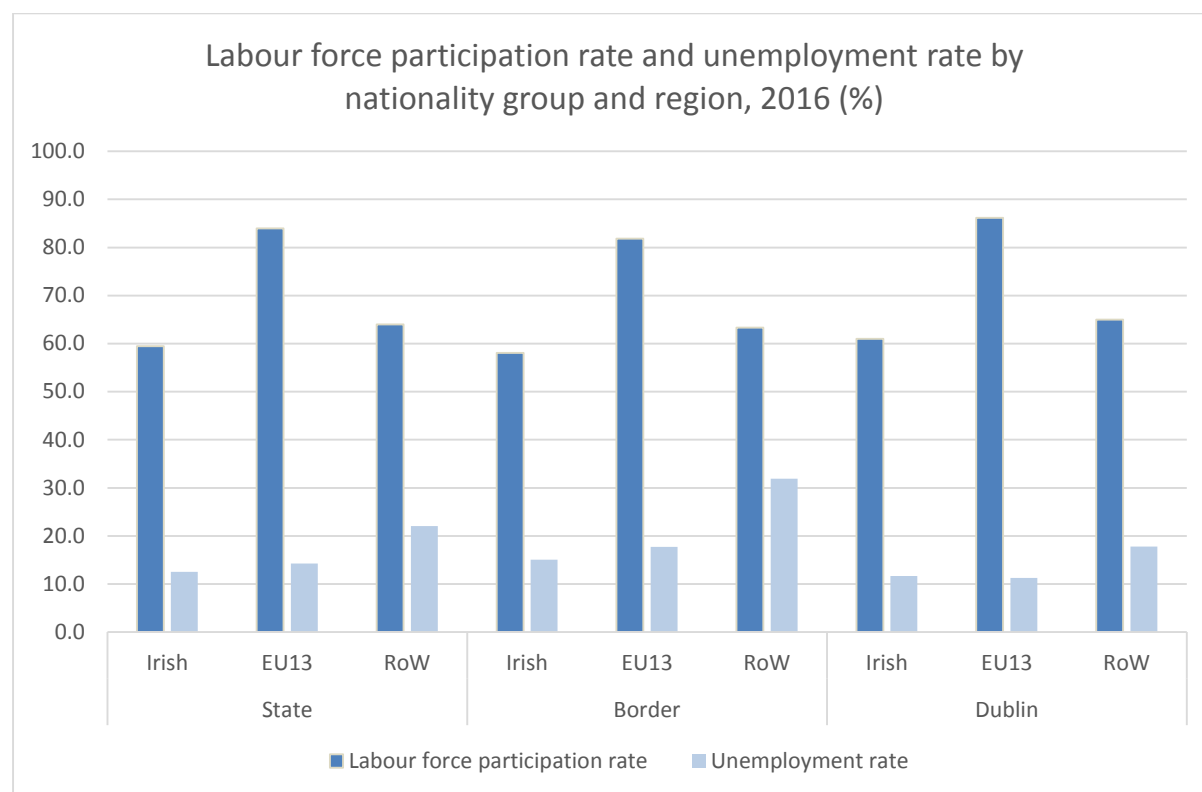
Table 16: Population by social class, nationality group and region, 2016

Social class	State (%)	Border			Dublin		
		Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)	Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)
Professional Workers	7.0	5.0	5.0	5.1	9.0	9.6	7.6
Managerial and technical	26.5	22.9	23.9	16.8	29.2	31.3	23.5
Non-manual	17.8	17.5	18.4	12.2	17.9	19.2	14.0
Skilled manual	14.7	17.0	16.9	18.9	12.3	12.5	12.3
Semi-skilled	11.3	13.2	12.9	17.2	8.9	8.4	12.0
Unskilled	4.0	4.7	4.4	7.0	3.3	3.0	5.2

Source: CSO 2017a: Table EB086

We next sought to identify differences in labour force activity, and this is shown in Figure 11. EU13 and RoW nationals have higher labour force participation rates and higher unemployment rates than Irish nationals for the state as a whole and in both the Border and the Dublin regions. However, RoW nationals have lower labour force participation rates and higher unemployment rates than EU13 nationals in both the Border and the Dublin regions. Overall, the unemployment rate in the Border region (15.8 percent) is higher than in the Dublin region (11.8 percent) and in the State as a whole (12.9 percent). Similarly, the labour force participation rate in the Border region (59.1 percent) is lower than in Dublin (64.1 percent) and in the State as a whole (61.4 percent).

Figure 11: Labour force participation rate and unemployment rate by nationality group and region, 2016 (%)

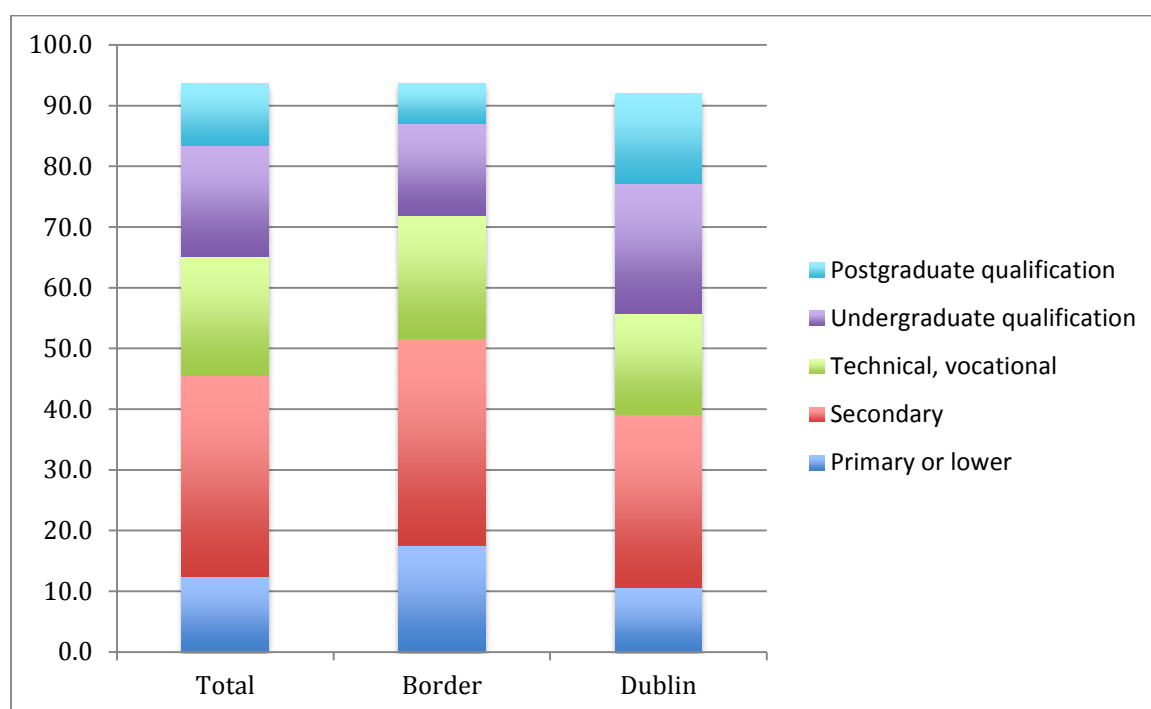


Source: CSO 2017a: Table EB005

6.4 Education

Information on the highest level of education completed, by region, according to Census 2016 is provided in Figure 12. Again, there are clear differences in the levels of educational attainment in the Border and Dublin regions, explained in part by the different age profiles shown in Figure 10, particularly the older population in the Border region. That said, while a considerably lower proportion of the population of the Border region has a postgraduate qualification, the difference is most marked among men. Just 5.2 percent of the male population of the Border region has a postgraduate qualification, compared to 8.2 percent of the female population in that region, and compared to 14.3 percent of males in the Dublin region.

Figure 12: Highest level of education completed by region, 2016 (%)



Source: CSO 2017a: SAPMAP Areas NUTS3_2016 Dublin; NUTS3_2016 Border; State

A further insight is provided by Census data on English language proficiency. In total, 13 percent of the resident population on Census night 2016 spoke a language other than English or Irish at home, but this varied between regions, from 8.7 percent in the Border region to 18.4 percent in the Dublin region. While a nationality breakdown by region is not publicly available, the regional differences in English language proficiency are worthy of note. These are shown in Table 18. Those living in the Border region were less likely to say they spoke English well or very well (77.9 percent, compared to 85.6 percent in the Dublin region), and were more likely to say they spoke English not well or not at all (18.9 percent, compared to 11.9 percent in Dublin). These self-reported levels of language proficiency, even without nationality data, show clear issues in relation to indicators of integration at regional levels.

Table 17: Self-reported English language proficiency for speakers of other languages, 2016

Ability to speak English	State %	Border %	Dublin %
Very well	53.7	47.8	56.8
Well	29.3	30.1	28.8
Not well	11.9	15.8	10.0
Not at all	2.3	3.1	1.9

Source: CSO 2017a: SAPMAP Areas NUTS3_2016 Dublin; NUTS3_2016 Border; State

6.5 Social Inclusion

EU-SILC data provides some information on income levels, poverty and deprivation rates for Irish and non-Irish nationals in the Border and Dublin regions. This information is provided in Table 19. There are clear differences between the poverty and deprivation rates in the Border and Dublin regions, with people living in those regions considerably more likely to be at risk of poverty, living with deprivation or in consistent poverty. There are also marked differences between the two regions in relation to mean and median net household income, which is much lower in the Border region. Differences between Irish and non-Irish nationals are less stark. While non-Irish nationals in both the Border and Dublin regions have a higher at risk of poverty rate than Irish nationals, their deprivation rate is lower. While mean household net income is lower for non-Irish nationals in both regions, their median income is slightly higher in the Border region. These differences between Irish and non-Irish nationals within regions may be related to age profile or household structure. However, the striking difference between the Dublin and Border regions overall matters in terms of integration, because of the impact of place of residence on migrant integration more broadly.

Table 18: Social inclusion indicators by region and nationality group, 2015

Social inclusion indicator	Border		Dublin	
	Irish	Non-Irish	Irish	Non-Irish
At risk of poverty rate	22.4%	26.9%	12.1%	17.6%
Deprivation rate	30.3%	29.4%	23.5%	16.4%
Consistent poverty rate	11.9%	12.1%	7.6%	6.0%
Household net income – Mean	€44,160	€37,307	€62,917	€52,657
Household net income - Median	€39,201	€40,755	€55,916	€42,236

Source: CSO 2017b, Special Request

Another key aspect of social inclusion, particularly in the context of Ireland, relates to housing. The Zaragoza indicators highlight property ownership as an important marker of integration. Table 20 provides information on housing tenure by region in 2016. The key difference is a considerably higher proportion of households that are owner occupied without a mortgage in the Border Region, and, and a considerably higher proportion of households rented from a private landlord in the Dublin region. The CSO provided a breakdown on the basis of Irish/non-Irish nationality only. However, even this crude social differentiation shows marked differences within and across regions. Non-Irish nationals are considerably less likely to own their homes and more likely to rent from a private landlord in both the Border and Dublin regions than their Irish neighbours. However, non-Irish nationals in the Border region have higher rates of home ownership, higher rates of renting from local authorities, and lower rates of private renting than non-Irish nationals in the Dublin region. Given the broader housing crisis in Ireland, a more nuanced picture of housing in different regions and for different social groups is necessary.

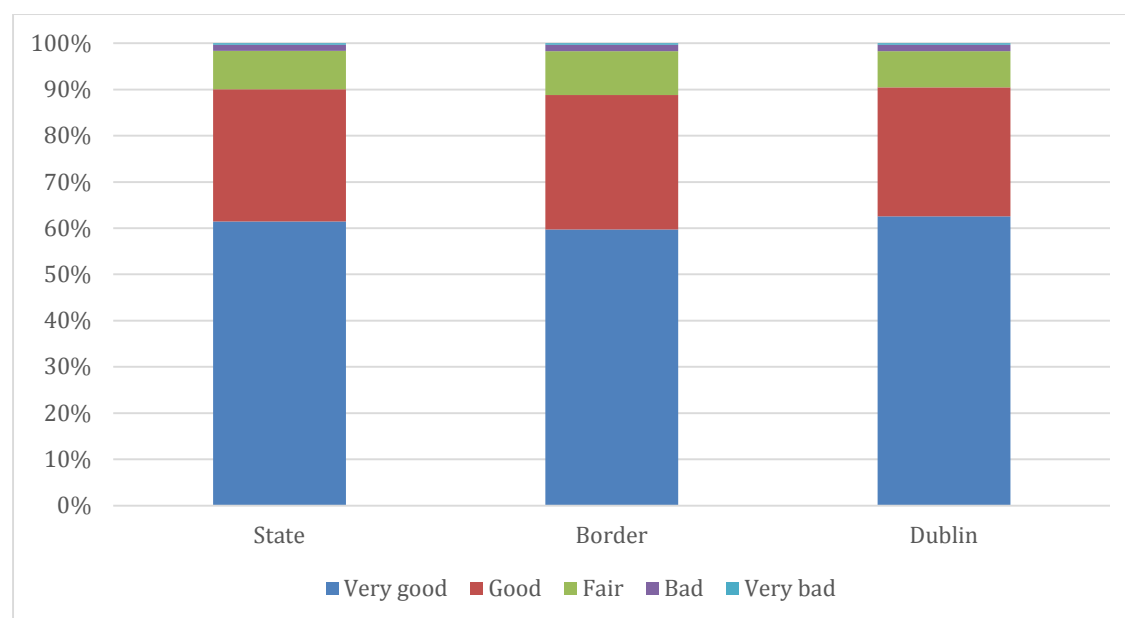
Table 19: Households by region, nationality group and type of occupancy, 2016

Type of occupancy	State (%)	Border			Dublin		
		Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)	Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)
Own with mortgage/loan	31.6	29.3	31.1	15.5	30.7	34.2	13.0
Own without mortgage/loan	36.0	42.5	45.4	18.1	29.4	33.8	5.5
Rented from private landlord	18.2	14.1	10.3	47.6	23.9	16.4	67.1
Rented from local authority	8.4	8.5	8.0	12.9	9.3	10.0	5.8
Rented from voluntary/co-operative housing body	1.0	0.8	0.7	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2
Occupied free of rent	1.6	2.2	2.3	1.4	1.1	1.2	0.7
Not stated	3.1	2.6	2.3	3.3	4.4	3.2	6.6

Source: CSO 2017a: Table E1014, Special Tabulation

Indicators of health are another important aspect of social inclusion. Census 2016, as in previous censuses, asked people to report on their general level of health, and also gathered information about disabilities. Information about the general level of health of respondents is available regionally and by nationality, though not by nationality in specific regions. Figure 13 shows the self-reported level of general health, and it indicates that a slightly lower proportion of people living in the Border region report very good or good health, compared to the Dublin region or to the State as a whole.

Figure 13: Level of general health by region, 2016 (%)



Source: CSO 2017a: SAPMAP Areas NUTS3_2016 Dublin; NUTS3_2016 Border; State

In terms of disability, 13.5 percent of people in the State as a whole reported a disability. The proportion in the Border region was 13.7 percent, and in the Dublin region 13.3 percent. These are small differences, but there are more marked regional differences in the types of disabilities reported.

This is shown in more detail in Table 21. In particular, people in the Border region are more likely to report physical difficulties that may in turn limit social interaction. In both regions, non-Irish nationals are less likely to report disabilities in general, and this is particularly evident in the Dublin region.

Table 20: Disabilities reported as a percentage of total population by region and nationality group, 2016

Nature of disability	State (%)	Border			Dublin		
		Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)	Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)
Disabled persons	13.6	13.7	13.9	12.4	13.3	14.7	6.8
Blindness or a serious vision impairment	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	0.7
Deafness or a serious hearing impairment	2.2	2.4	2.5	1.8	2.1	2.4	0.6
A difficulty that limits basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying	5.6	6.0	6.1	5.1	5.2	5.8	2.0
An intellectual disability	1.4	1.4	1.5	0.7	1.3	1.5	0.4
A difficulty with learning, remembering or concentrating	3.3	3.4	3.5	2.2	3.2	3.6	1.3
A psychological or emotional condition	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.0	1.4
A difficulty with pain, breathing, or any other chronic illness or condition	6.3	6.1	6.1	6.4	6.2	6.9	3.1
Difficulty dressing, bathing or getting around inside the home	3.0	3.3	3.4	2.4	2.7	3.0	1.0
Difficulty going outside the home alone to shop or visit a doctors surgery	3.9	4.3	4.5	3.3	3.6	4.1	1.4
Difficulty working at a job, business or attending school or college	4.5	4.7	4.8	4.4	4.0	4.4	2.0

Source: CSO Table E9032, Special Tabulation

7. Conclusion

The immigrant population of Ireland is not homogenous, and there are considerable variations in the experiences of people within and across immigrant categories, whether by place of birth, nationality, or place of residence. In this working paper, our aim was to show these variations in relation to indicators of immigrant integration, using existing large-scale data sets. The first sustained attempt to quantify immigrant integration using the Zaragosa indicators was published by the ESRI in 2017. While providing a useful overview, it quantifies just some of the Zaragosa indicators. It identifies immigrants on the basis of nationality (distinguishing between Irish and non-Irish nationals), and makes few attempts to consider differentiation between different migrants. In contrast, this working paper begins to identify clear and emerging differences between different migrant groups. Our categorisation is also broad – we recognise that there are further differences within the two categories that we have highlighted, namely EU13 and, particularly, Rest of World. However, data limitations made it difficult, in some instances, to consider further breakdowns because of concerns over

anonymity. Despite this, our preliminary analysis has identified some key areas of concern. In relation to social differentiation, there are differences in experiences of employment, levels of education, social inclusion, housing, health, and trade union membership. In relation to spatial differentiation, there are differences in relation to social class, labour market activity, social inclusion indicators and language proficiency. However, we noted particular difficulties in accessing data that would allow us to assess regional indicators of integration in the Border and Dublin regions, despite the availability of useful and comprehensive information on the migrant population of both regions. While we were able to access more information in relation to social differentiation, often this data was not publicly accessible, and required specific requests for data to data-holding bodies. Existing data, particularly that gathered through the Census, the QNHS and EU-SILC, is sufficient to permit the calculation of a broader range of indicators of immigrant integration in Ireland than is currently provided by the ESRI. Additionally, existing data could permit the development of more socially and spatially nuanced indicators of integration in order to better identify where social and economic convergence is **not** occurring between migrants and non-migrants. These more socially and spatially nuanced indicators would allow for the identification of the specific challenges faced by different migrant groups and in different geographic regions. They would provide an appropriate evidence base for understanding longer-term integration processes in Ireland, and for targeting specific social and spatial concerns. In order for this to happen, though, the existing social and spatial public data gaps need to be acknowledged, as well as the emerging patterns of exclusion and divergence our preliminary analysis suggests.

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Appendix 1: Migrant Integration Strategy: Overview of general and specific actions

Description	Number of actions
1. General Actions	8
2. Access to Citizenship/Long Term Residency	6
3. Access to Public Services and Social Inclusion	11
4. Education	12
5. Employment and Pathways to Work	10
6. Health	3
7. Integration in the Community	7
8. Political participation	3
9. Promoting Intercultural Awareness and Combating Racism and Xenophobia	11
10. Volunteering	1
11. Sport	1
12. Implementation and Follow-Up	3

Source: Department of Justice and Equality 2017.