



FINAL REPORT

Immigrant integration and settlement services in Ireland

Professor Mary Gilmartin^{a, b}
Dr Jennifer Dagg^b

^a Maynooth University Department of Geography

^b Maynooth University Social Sciences Institute



IRISH RESEARCH COUNCIL
An Chomhairle um Thaighde in Éirinn

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Acknowledgements

This research, entitled 'Mapping processes of integration and settlement in contemporary Ireland', was funded by the Irish Research Council under its Research for Policy and Society Scheme 2016. The authors acknowledge the support of the IRC; the research assistance of Rhonda McGovern, Mireia Guardino Ferran, Jennifer White and Matt Stephens; support from Maynooth University Department of Geography and Maynooth University Social Sciences Institute, particularly Professor Linda Connolly, Professor Gerry Kearns and Neasa Hogan; detailed data provided by the Central Statistics Office; and the contributions of community organisations throughout the project.

Executive summary and recommendations

Executive summary

The results of the 2016 Census confirm that Ireland is now an immigrant-receiving country, with a substantial immigrant population. The recently-published *Migrant Integration Strategy* recognises this, and insists on the importance of facilitating the integration of immigrants and those of immigrant origin in Irish society.

Immigrant integration may be assessed in three ways. The first is through integration outcomes, sometimes described as indicators of integration. These show the extent to which immigrants participate in the receiving society, and whether their participation converges with that of native-born residents. The second is through integration processes, sometimes described as settlement services. These are the services and supports that exist to facilitate immigrant integration. The third is through integration policies, which create the conditions that enable immigrant integration. This research considers integration outcomes and integration processes, paying particular attention to the relationship between outcomes and processes for different immigrant groups and in different regions.

The Zaragosa indicators of integration provide a basis for assessing immigrant integration in Ireland that is internationally comparable. These indicators are a good starting point in assessing integration outcomes, but mask important differences because they consider outcomes for all immigrants across Ireland as a whole. Using existing large-scale data sets, including the Census and the Quarterly National Household Survey, this research considers integration outcomes at different scales. First, it assesses integration outcomes for two migrant groups: those with EU13 nationalities; and those with nationalities from outside the EU (known as Rest of World [RoW]). Second, it considers integration outcomes for two regions: the Dublin region and the Border region. Using four broad categories of integration outcomes – Employment, Education, Social Inclusion and Active Citizenship – the research highlights important differences that have emerged for different immigrant groups and in different regions.

Among the two migrant groups, while both EU13 and Rest of World have high labour force participation rates, there is also evidence of underemployment and sectoral concentration, particularly among EU13 nationals. Other areas of concern include high levels of deprivation and poverty and over-concentration in the private rental sector, and differences in levels of overcrowding and self-reported health status among nationality groups. The low level of trade union membership remains a concern. Between the two regions, significant differences emerge. There are clear spatial differences in the education and employment profiles of the Border and Dublin regions, both in general and between Irish and non-Irish residents. This translates into higher poverty and deprivation rates and lower income levels in the Border region. There are also clear differences in housing tenure between the two regions, and between Irish and non-Irish residents in both the Border and the Dublin regions. While available data shows some clear differences, the relationship between place of residence and integration outcomes requires more disaggregated data.

Measures of immigration integration outcomes highlight issues of concern in relation to employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship, for specific immigrant groups and in particular regions. We assessed the extent to which existing integration processes address these issues. In order to do this, we mapped available settlement services in the areas of employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship that were directed towards specific immigrant groups and regions. Our research finds clear gaps in relation to settlement service provision and availability in Ireland. In particular, the provision of settlement services is reliant on non-governmental organisations, and funded in a short-term and competitive manner. Access to settlement services is often restricted on the basis of status rather than offered on the basis of need. In addition, the availability of settlement services is spatially uneven, and there is no clear evidence that services target issues, groups or regions of highest need. International best practice shows that a clear, targeted, and co-ordinated approach to settlement service provision helps achieve better integration outcomes. There is scope for considerable improvement in relation to integration processes in Ireland.

This report provides evidence of shortcomings in immigrant integration processes in Ireland that, in turn, create barriers to successful immigrant integration outcomes. As levels of immigration to Ireland continue to increase, it is important that we seek to enhance both integration processes and integration outcomes in order to harness the benefits of immigration and create a more socially cohesive and just society.

Recommendations

Based on this research, our recommendations for the enhancement of immigrant integration in Ireland are as follows:

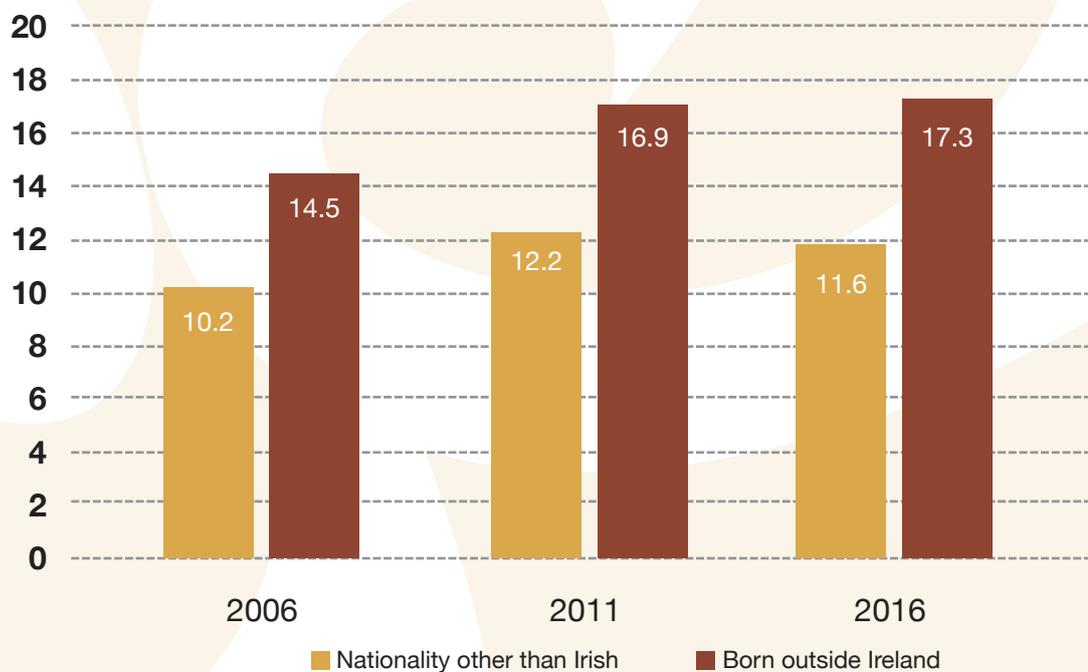
1. Ensure that immigrant integration outcomes continue to be monitored on a regular, timely and consistent basis to allow for tracking and comparison over time.
2. Develop context-specific indicators of immigrant integration outcomes that, in conjunction with the Zaragosa indicators, provide a more rounded picture of the reality of immigrant integration in Ireland for different groups and in different regions.
3. Supplement data on indicators of integration with new, focused research that considers the issue of integration from the perspective and experiences of immigrants.
4. Reconsider how large-scale data sets identify and gather data on immigrants in Ireland in order to ensure that the outcomes of immigrants and those of migrant origin may be consistently and accurately assessed.
5. Develop a more systematic approach to integration processes, particularly the provision of settlement services. In particular, develop settlement services that target key aspects of immigrant integration such as employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship, and that do so in a spatially and socially appropriate manner.
6. Commit to funding settlement services in the short-, medium- and longer-term, preferably through pre-existing networks such as local authorities, local development companies, citizens' information centres, or non-governmental bodies with broad geographical reach such as trade unions.
7. Expand the range and availability of settlement services in order to make further, measurable progress in improving integration outcomes.
8. Ensure that key settlement services, such as language, housing or employment services, are made available free of charge.
9. Regularly review the provision of settlement services, in consultation with current and potential service users and community organisations, to ensure they are meeting current needs in particular regions and for particular immigrant groups.
10. Encourage and/or require the provision of settlement services by employers, particularly where immigrants make up a substantial proportion of a specific workforce.
11. Provide independent advice and support to immigrants on drawing down rights relating to employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship.
12. Provide access to settlement services on the basis of need, not on the basis of status.
13. Ensure that public bodies develop integration policies with measurable targets that are regularly assessed and reviewed.

1 Introduction

Why immigrant integration is important in contemporary Ireland

The results of the 2016 Census in Ireland confirm that Ireland is now, firmly, an immigrant-receiving country. According to the 2016 Census, 11.6% of the resident population of Ireland has a nationality other than Irish (see Figure 1). While the percentage of the population with a nationality other than Irish decreased slightly between 2011 and 2016, there was a corresponding increase in the percentage with dual Irish nationality (from 1.2% in 2011 to 2.2% in 2016). Additionally, 17.3% of the resident population was born outside Ireland (see Figure 1). Ireland has one of the highest percentages of foreign-born residents of any EU country: in 2016, only Luxembourg, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia and Austria had a higher percentage (Eurostat 2017).

Figure 1: Population with nationality other than Irish and born outside Ireland, 2006-2016 (%)



Sources: CSO 2012, Table CD616; CSO 2017a, Table E7047; CSO 2018, Table PEA21

As an established immigrant-receiving country, it is crucial that Ireland pays attention to the integration of new immigrants. Immigrant integration is a pressing societal challenge, particularly because successful integration mitigates against longer-term and negative effects on social cohesion

(Alba and Foner 2015; Vasta 2013).

The urgency of this issue has been acknowledged with the recent publication of a new *Migrant Integration Strategy* by the Department of Justice and Equality (DJE). Then 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”, while 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 2017a: 2-3). The renewed emphasis on the importance of migrant integration in Ireland mirrors broader trends. As the OECD commented, “improving the integration outcomes of immigrants and their children, including refugees, is vital to delivering a more prosperous, inclusive future for all” (OECD 2017. See also European Commission 2016).

2

Defining immigrant integration

policies, outcomes and processes

There is an extensive literature on immigrant integration.¹ For the purposes of this report, we understand immigrant integration as “immigrants’ participation in, and their incorporation into, receiving society” (Grzymala-Kazłowska and Phillimore 2018: 187). Immigrant integration is influenced by **integration policies**, which represent the efforts of a receiving society to acknowledge and adapt to the presence of immigrants; and assessed through **integration outcomes**, which represent the extent of immigrants’ participation and incorporation into the receiving society. Integration policies, which are generally developed by state bodies, are designed to enable the process of immigrant integration. Integration outcomes show the extent to which there is “economic and social convergence between immigrants and the native-born” (OECD/European Union 2015: 15). Integration outcomes offer insights into differences between the experiences of immigrants and native-born residents, and into the extent to which these differences matter.

In relation to integration policies, the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) assesses the integration policies of 38 countries in 8 distinct policy areas. These are labour market mobility, education, long-term residence, access to nationality, family reunion, political participation, anti-discrimination and health. MIPEX provides “the most complete overview of integration measures up until now” (Gregurović and Župarić-Ilić 2018: 108). In relation to integration outcomes, the European Ministerial Council on Integration developed the Zaragoza indicators of integration (European Commission 2010). These indicators, which were chosen because of the availability of high-quality, internationally-comparable data, are presented in Table 1².

¹ We recognise that many academic commentators are highly critical of the concept of immigrant integration. Dahinden (2016) provides a useful discussion, drawing particular attention to the problems associated with creating migrants as a distinct object of study within the confines of a nation-state, while recognising that there remains a need for ‘classical’ research on migration and integration.

² The Zaragoza indicators also include a category called ‘Welcoming Society’, which focuses on public attitudes, experiences and trust. These are important issues, but outside the scope of this project.

The Zaragoza indicators were later augmented by the DG Migration and Home Affairs (Huddleston et al 2013), and this expanded list is shown in Table 2. These indicators measure immigrant integration outcomes in terms of employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. The first comprehensive international comparison of immigrant integration outcomes, using the Zaragoza indicators, was published in 2015

(OECD/European Union 2015).

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

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 relationship between integration policies and integration outcomes is not well understood. Based on their integration of MIPEX and OECD/EU data, Gregurović and Župarić-Ilić concluded that the integration outcomes of immigrants often have a limited relationship to the quality of integration policies. In particular, they commented on “significant discrepancies between the levels of favourable integration policies ... and the expected positive integration outcomes” (2018: 118). They suggested that a more nuanced approach was needed in the assessment of immigrant integration policies. Penninx and Garcés-Mascreñas reached a similar conclusion in their discussion of integration policies, processes and outcomes. Specifically, they commented on the need for new comparative analyses of integration policies, processes and outcomes, at a range of different scales (2016: 26-27). This conclusion mirrors the earlier work of Ager and Strang (2008), who highlighted the importance of context-specific measures of integration.

To address this, Penninx and Garcés-Mascreñas define integration as “the process of becoming an accepted part of society” (2016: 14). Thus, while integration indicators are important for illuminating the extent to which convergence is (or is not) taking place, it is equally important to understand the processes that lead to specific integration outcomes. The focus on **integration processes** is useful because it allows for an examination of the means by which immigrant integration policy is translated into practice. In relation to immigrant integration, settlement services are central to the translation of policy into practice. Settlement services are defined as “support and assistance to immigrant populations” that help immigrants to fully participate in the society and economy of their new home (Evans and Shields 2014: 118-119). These services – which could include support for language, employment or housing acquisition, for example - will be required in different ways at different stages of the immigrant life cycle (Richmond and Shields 2005: 515).

As a consequence, it is important to consider immigrant integration from a number of interconnected perspectives. The first is **integration outcomes**, paying particular attention to areas where there are clear differences between outcomes for immigrants and natives, and for different groups of immigrants. The second is **integration processes**, especially the types of services and supports that exist to facilitate the convergence of outcomes for immigrants and natives. In addition, a focus on processes illuminates how **integration policies** are put into practice. Examining outcomes and processes for different immigrant groups and at different spatial scales provides a comparative analysis that moves beyond the national level, offering insights into the ways in which immigrant integration may be socially and spatially differentiated.

3

Introducing the research project

This research project considers the broader question of immigrant integration in contemporary Ireland. The project is funded by the Irish Research Council under its Research for Policy and Society scheme, and it has three key objectives:

- To assess the levels of integration for different immigrant groups and regions in Ireland
- To identify potential obstacles to successful integration for different immigrant groups and regions in Ireland
- To provide recommendations for overcoming obstacles and barriers to integration

The research received ethical approval from Maynooth University Social Research Ethics Subcommittee on 3 May 2017.

Our assessment of levels of immigrant integration began with a recent report by the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI), which is the first attempt to systematically measure the Zaragosa indicators in Ireland. We developed this further by considering additional indicators for Ireland as a whole, paying particular attention to the categories identified in Tables 1 and 2 (employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship) and using existing large-scale data sets. We then focused on two different immigrant groups and two different regions in order to identify social and/or spatial differences in immigrant integration outcomes. The two immigrant groups were EU13 nationals and Rest of World nationals³. These broad categories are organised on the basis of immigrant status: EU13 nationals are free to move to Ireland by virtue of their EU citizenship, while Rest of World nationals need special permission to move to Ireland, and so their status is less secure than Irish/EU nationals (Gilmartin 2014). The two regions are (urban) Dublin and (rural) Border (NUTS IE021 and IE011). They have different demographic, socio-economic and immigrant profiles. In particular, the Dublin region has a higher proportion of Rest of World nationals, while the Border region has a higher proportion of EU13 nationals.

³ 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. Rest of World refers to non-EU nationals.

Our identification of potential obstacles to successful integration paid particular attention to settlement services. In particular, we sought to identify settlement services that specifically targeted immigrants from the two groups (EU13 and Rest of World nationals) and immigrants in the two regions (Dublin and Border). Our aim was to map the availability of settlement services that were of relevance to the key integration outcomes in employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. In doing so, we were able to highlight strengths as well as gaps in the provision of targeted settlement services.

At all stages in the research, we sought to engage civil society organisations and service providers in our assessment of immigrant integration and settlement services. Specifically, we ran workshops to present our initial findings on immigrant integration and settlement service mapping, and to request feedback on these findings which we incorporated into our analysis. We ran workshops to consider the appropriateness of integration indicators, and to identify alternative measures of integration, and we combined this with training for civil society organisations and service providers in the use of large-scale data sets and the visualisation of findings. We presented this final report in draft form to participants in earlier stages of the research and worked collaboratively to develop the final recommendations for the project. A full list of workshops is provided in Appendix 1.

The structure of the report is as follows. In the next section, we provide an overview of immigrant integration indicators for Ireland as a whole. We follow this with a more detailed assessment of immigrant integration for EU13 and Rest of World nationals, and for the Dublin and Border regions. In the following section, we discuss the relationship between immigrant integration indicators and the provision of settlement services for immigrants in Ireland. We conclude with our recommendations for how immigrant integration processes and outcomes could be enhanced and/or improved.

4

Immigrant integration in Ireland

an overview

Immigrant integration in Ireland has been assessed in a variety of ways. The MIPEX assessment of **integration policies** in Ireland in 2014 awarded Ireland a score of 52, defined as “halfway favourable” (MIPEX 2015). With this score, Ireland was ranked 15th out of 38 countries, assisted by a particularly high score for political participation. In contrast, education and labour market mobility – two key integration outcomes – received a low score. Table 3 provides an overview of Ireland’s scores in the eight key policy areas. There was virtually no change in the MIPEX score from the previous assessment in 2010.

More recently, an examination of public bodies in Ireland concluded that, despite the recent publication of *The Migrant Integration Strategy*, integration policy was generally under-developed and lacked specific guidelines for implementation

(Murphy et al 2017).

Table 3: MIPEX Assessment of Integration Policies in Ireland, 2014

Policy area	Score (out of 100)	Rank (out of 38)
Education	30	24 th
Labour market mobility	38	33 rd
Family reunion	40	36 th
Permanent residence	49	35 th
Health	58	10 th
Access to nationality	59	14 th
Anti-discrimination	66	17 th
Political participation	73	6 th

Source: MIPEX 2015

Reports on **integration outcomes** in Ireland have taken a variety of forms. The first systematic effort to report on integration outcomes was a series of four annual reports commissioned by a non-governmental organisation, The Integration Centre, and published by ESRI from 2010 to 2013 (McGinnity et al 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014). In general, these reports highlighted key indicators in relation to employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. After the 2013 report, there was a gap in coverage. The OECD/European Commission report published in 2015 included data on Ireland, mostly using 2012-13 data (OECD/European Union 2015). In 2017, the ESRI resumed publication of a Monitoring Report on Integration, this time in conjunction with the Department of Justice and Equality (Barrett et al 2017). Its first report was based on 2016 data, and a second report is expected later in 2018. Both the ESRI and the OECD/European Commission reports provide information on the key indicators: employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. We discuss recent key findings under each of these issues in turn, while an overview of integration outcomes for the period from 2010 to 2013 and 2016 is provided in Appendix 2. The data compiled in Appendix 2 suggests that, as is the case with integration policies, there has been limited or no improvement in integration outcomes for the period under consideration, with a deterioration in some key indicators such as net income and poverty rates.

4.1 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 African nationals 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 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).

4.2 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 EU13 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).

4.3 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 EU13 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), EU12 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).

4.4 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) .

4.5 Limitations

The ESRI and OECD/European Commission reports provide a useful overview of integration outcomes in Ireland and how these compare to other countries. However, there are limitations in these reports. These limitations can be categorised in three broad ways. The first relates to the data that is used to calculate integration outcomes, specifically how this data identifies immigrants (Barrett et al 2017: 112-117). In Ireland, the practice of identifying immigrants on the basis of nationality means that the growing number of naturalised Irish citizens are potentially not identified as

immigrants. Additionally, there is no way of identifying current or former immigrant status through existing large-scale data sets. The second relates to the indicators that are used to show integration outcomes. While the Zaragosa indicators provide a useful basis for reliable cross-national comparisons, they are less effective in capturing the specificity of immigrant integration in different local and regional contexts (Gregurović and Župarić-Ilić 2018). The third relates to the relationship between integration outcomes and integration processes. While outcomes are important, it is equally important to investigate how these may be affected by integration processes, specifically the extent to which integration processes provide support in relation to the enhancement of integration outcomes. We address these issues broadly in the remaining sections. In Section 5, we consider differences in integration outcomes between two broad migrant groups: those with an EU13 nationality and those with a non-EU nationality. In Section 6, we consider differences in integration outcomes in two regions: Dublin and the Border region. In Section 7, we look at the relationship between immigrant integration outcomes and integration processes, specifically the types of settlement services that are, or are not, available to immigrants on the basis of nationality or place of residence. In the final section, we summarise the key issues that we have identified in relation to immigrant integration and settlement services – integration outcomes and integration processes – in contemporary Ireland.

5

Integration outcomes for EU13 and Rest of World nationals in Ireland

With some exceptions, the ESRI report highlights differences between Irish and non-Irish nationals in employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. There are some instances where a more nuanced distinction on the basis of nationality is provided. At these times, there are occasionally distinctions between UK and other non-Irish nationals; between EU and non-EU nationals; between EU15 and EU12 nationals; and among Rest of World nationals (e.g. from Africa, Asia, North America/Australia/Oceania). However, the level of nationality detail provided varies considerably, with the result that it is difficult to provide a detailed overview of integration indicators for specific broad migrant groups. In this report, we focus on EU13 and Rest of World nationals and assess integration outcomes for these two broad groups in a systematic way.

Table 4 provides an overview of the resident population of EU13 and Rest of World nationals in 2016 and 2011.⁴

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

⁴ In general, our data is drawn from reports on Census 2016 published by the Central Statistics Office (2017a). We identify the table(s) where data is available. If the data came from the CSO through a special request, we note this.

In 2011, the largest EU13 nationality groups came from Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Romania and Slovakia, while Poland, Lithuania, Romania, Latvia and Slovakia were the top five EU13 nationality groups 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, Czech, 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.

There are clear differences in the age profiles of Irish, EU13 and Rest of World nationals. Figure 2a shows the population pyramid for Irish and Dual Irish nationals in 2016, while Figure 2b 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.

Figure 2: Population Pyramids for Irish, Dual Irish, EU13 and RoW nationals, 2016 (%)

Figure 2a: Irish and Dual Irish nationals, 2016 (%)

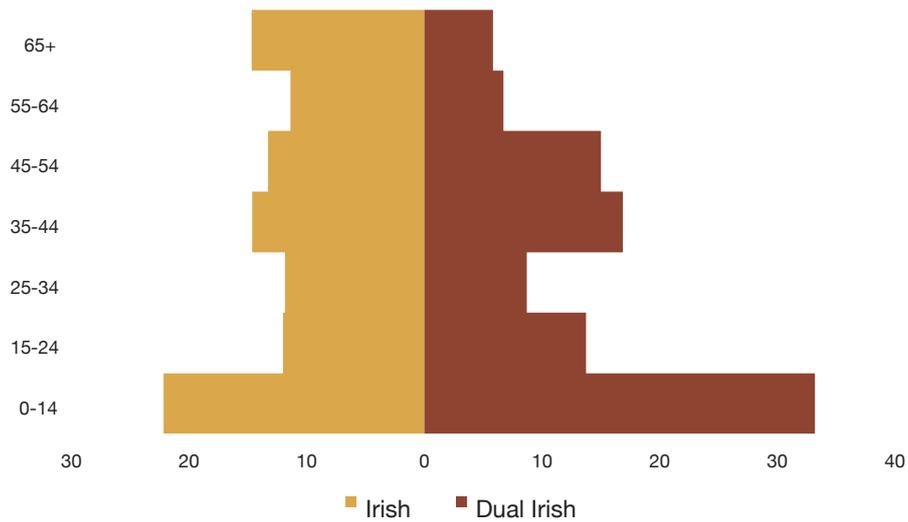
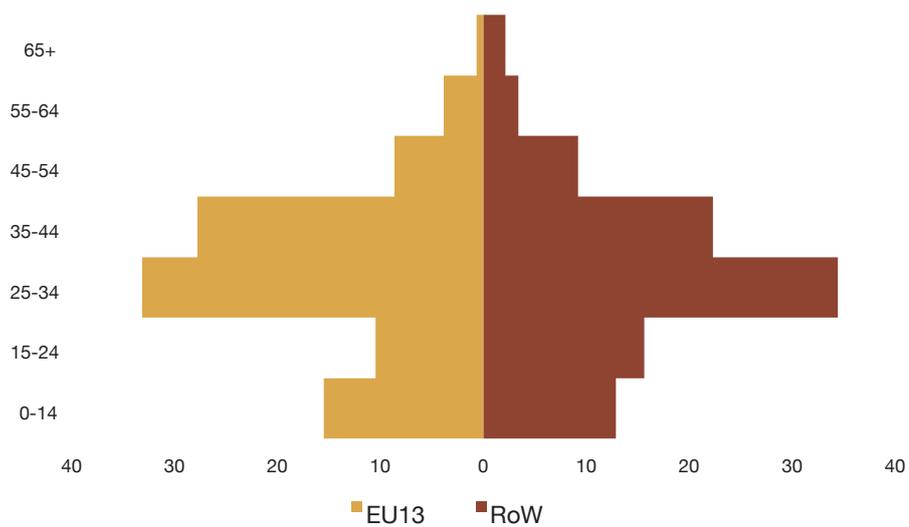


Figure 2b: EU13 and Rest of World nationals, 2016 (%)



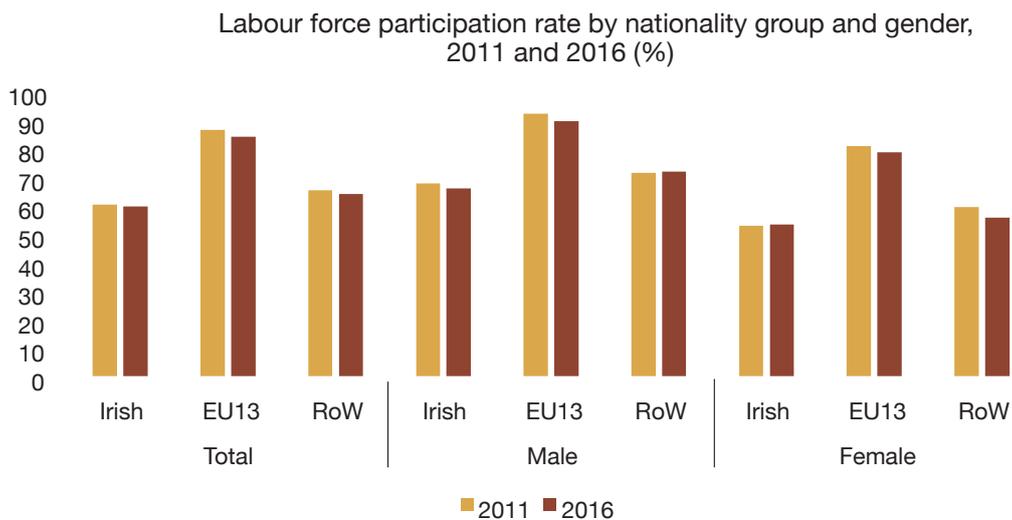
Source: Adapted from CSO 2017a: Table E7013.

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 Census 2016, 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 2017b: 40). Figure 3 gives an overview of labour force participation for select national groups: Irish, EU13 and Rest of World nationals. 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.

Figure 3: Labour force participation rate by nationality group and gender, 2011 and 2016 (%)

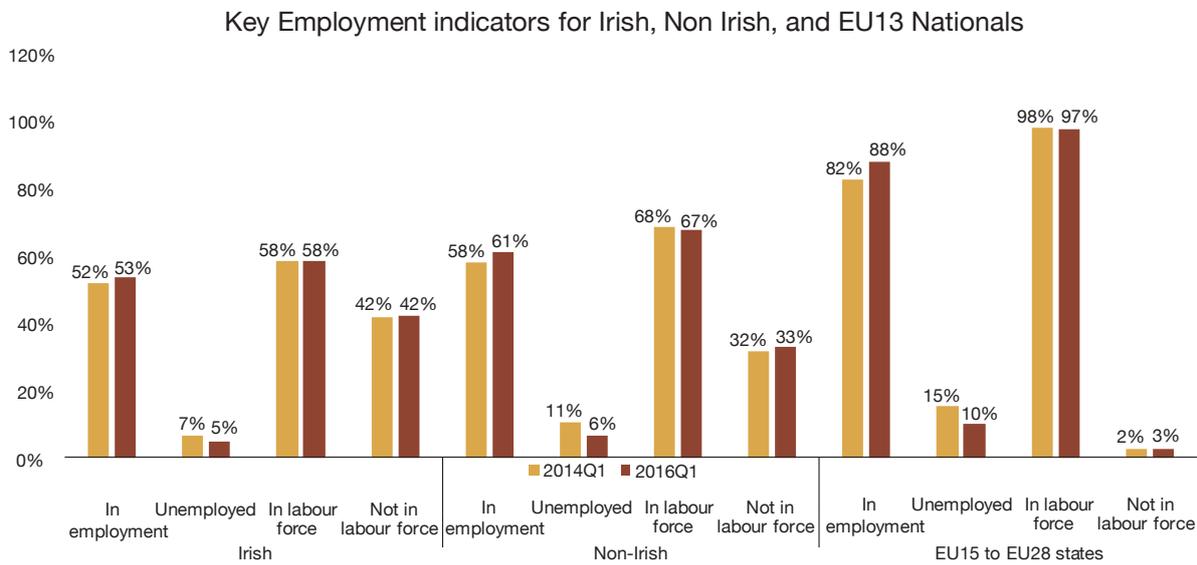


Source: CSO 2017, Special Tabulations

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.

More detail on employment and unemployment for select national groups is provided by the QNHS. In Figure 4, 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, the unemployment rate 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 2017b: 40). Between 2014 and 2016 the employment rate increased most significantly for EU13 nationals, rising from 82 percent to 88 percent.

Figure 4: 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.

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

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.

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
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]	*

Employment Status	Birthplace			Nationality		
	Irish %	EU13 %	RoW %	Irish %	EU13 %	RoW %
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: CSO 2016. Own calculations of QNHS 2016 microdata files.

Census 2016 also provides insights into the sectors of employment. Table 6 shows the proportion of the active labour force in each nationality grouping employed in the seven largest industrial groups. This indicates that sectoral concentration remains an issue for immigrants in Ireland. In particular, non-Irish nationalities are concentrated in wholesale and retail; accommodation and food services; and manufacturing; and underrepresented in public administration and defence; and education. There is a notable concentration of Rest of World nationals in accommodation and food service activities; and of (select) EU13 nationals in wholesale and retail trade; manufacturing; and accommodation and food services. Select EU13 nationalities are particularly underrepresented in education; in public administration and defence; and in human health and social work.

Table 6: Proportion of active labour force employed in selected industrial groups by nationality, 2016 (%)

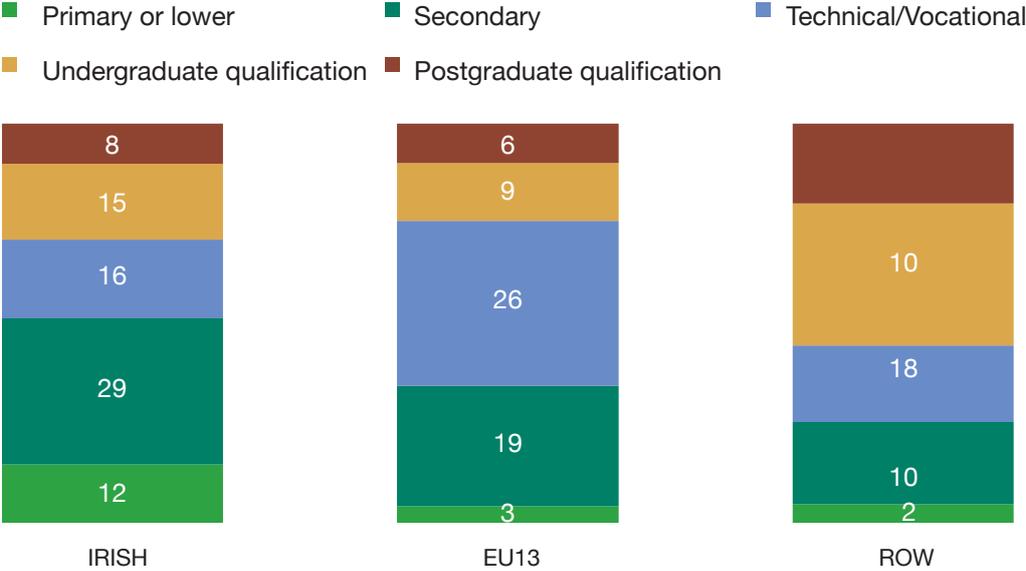
	Total employed	Irish	Non-Irish	Select EU13*	Rest of World
Wholesale and retail trade	11.7	11.6	13.2	17.8	9.7
Human health and social work	9.7	10.5	6.3	3.9	8.0
Manufacturing	8.8	8.6	10.5	13.7	7.6
Education	7.7	8.6	3.4	1.5	3.3
Accommodation and food service activities	5.1	3.9	11.8	12.8	14.3
Professional, scientific and technical activities	4.9	5.2	3.8	2.1	3.9
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	4.6	5.4	0.9	0.4	0.7

* This includes data for Latvian, Lithuanian, Polish and Romanian nationals only
 Source: CSO 2017a, Table EB035

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 5.

Figure 5: Education completed by national group, 2016 (%)



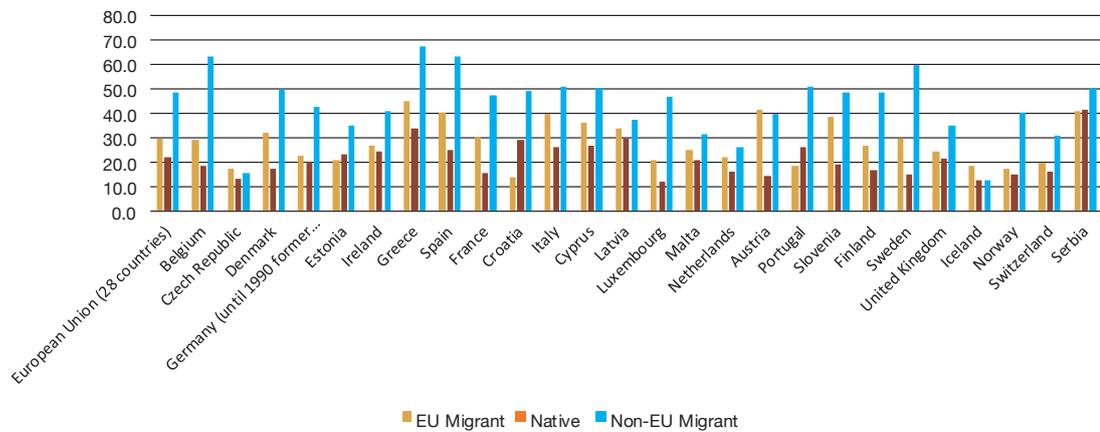
Source: CSO 2017a, Table EA004

5.3 Social Inclusion

According to the 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 2017c). 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 6). The ESRI Report attributes this increase to the number of students within this category, 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 6: At risk of poverty rate by citizenship group across the EU, 2015

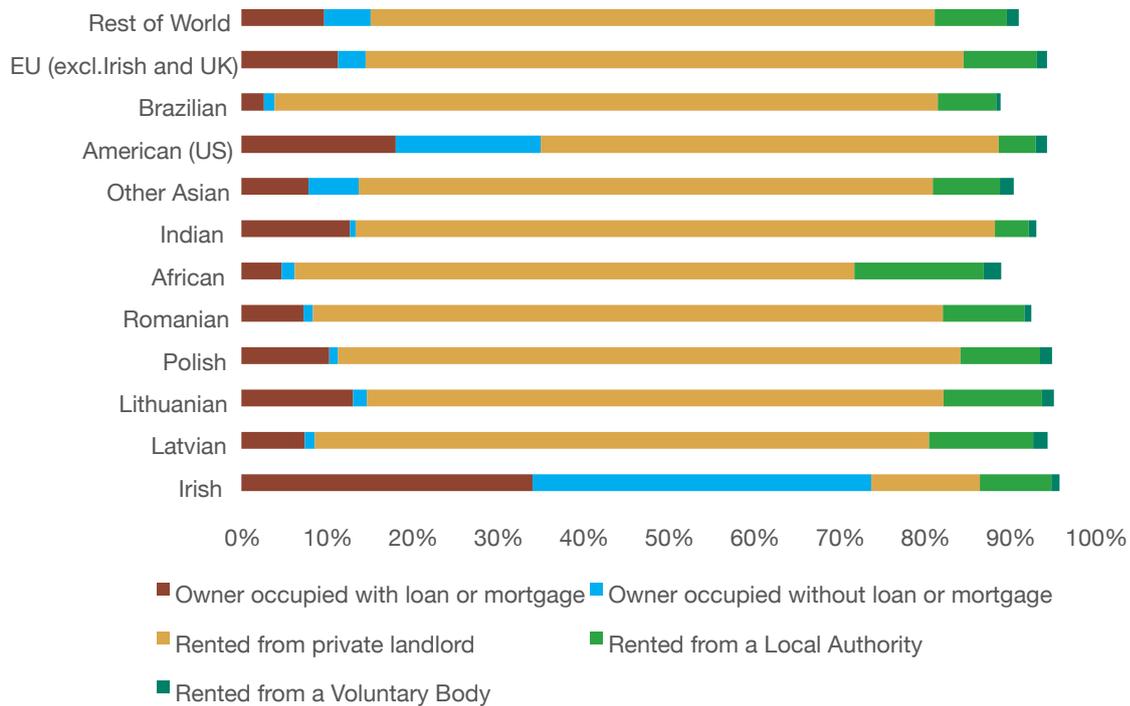


Source: Eurostat 2016.

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

Housing is an issue of particular importance for social inclusion. Census 2016 provides a breakdown of the type of housing occupancy by selected national groups. From Figure 7 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 7).

Figure 7: Type of occupancy by selected national groups, 2016 (%)



Source: CSO 2017a: Table E1025

Table 7: Tenure status by nationality and birthplace, 2016

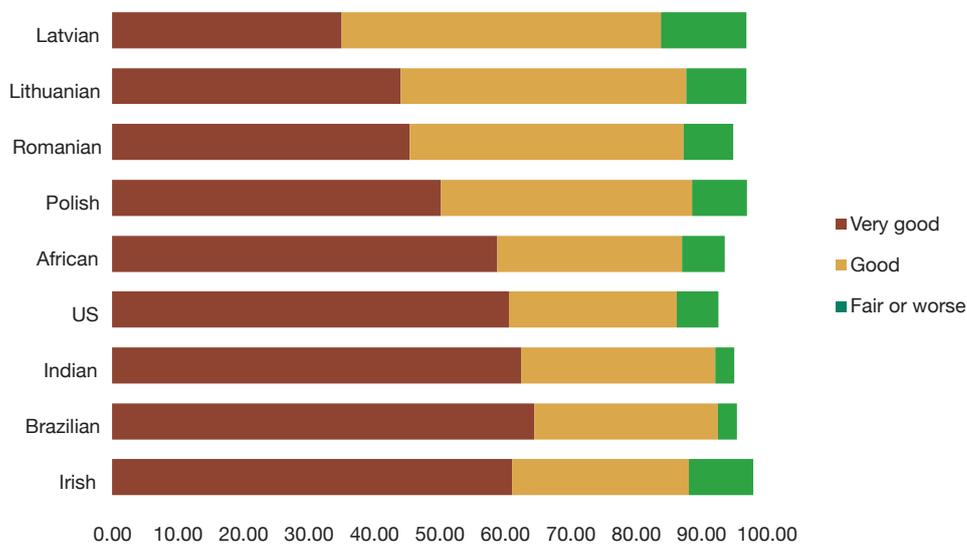
Nature of Occupancy	Nationality						Birthplace					
	Irish	%	EU 13	%	RoW	%	Irish	%	EU 13	%	RoW	%
Owner occupied	199397	76.8	707	10.6	470	15.0	114134	77.5	834	12.0	1872	29.9
Being acquired from local authority under a purchase or vested cottage scheme	747	0.5	*	*	*	*	723	0.5	*	*	*	*
Rented from Local 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: CSO 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.

In relation to health, there are slight differences in the perception of health (Figure 8) 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 8: General health by nationality, 2016 (%)



Source: CSO 2017a: Table E9088

In terms of disability (Table 8), 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 activities 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).

5.4 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, compared to 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 9).

Figure 9: Trade Union Membership by birthplace and nationality, 2016



Source: CSO 2016. Own calculations of QNHS microdata

5.5 Summary

The analysis of Census 2016 and other data in relation to immigrant integration outcomes indicates some areas of particular concern. In relation to employment, EU13 and Rest of World nationals have a higher labour force participation rate than their Irish counterparts. However, they also experience a higher rate of unemployment than their Irish counterparts, and EU13 nationals in particular are more likely to be underemployed. Across all national groups, the labour force participation of women is lower than that of men. The issue of sectoral concentration remains a concern for EU13 nationals in particular, as does the limited involvement of both EU13 and Rest of World nationals in sectors such as education and public administration. EU13 and Rest of World nationals show high levels of educational attainment, but equally show high levels of deprivation and poverty, which raises concerns about the extent to which educational attainment is recognised in Ireland. Housing remains a significant concern, particularly the concentration of EU13 and Rest of World nationals in the private rental sector, and some evidence of overcrowding relative to Irish nationals. While self-reported general health levels are good among EU13 and Rest of World nationals, there are some differences among nationality groups in relation to health status and disabilities. The limited availability of long-term residence status and the very low levels of trade union membership among EU13 and Rest of World nationals compared to their Irish counterparts are barriers to active citizenship as measured by the Zaragosa indicators of integration. While EU13 and Rest of World are broad categories, this analysis shows the importance of disaggregating data on immigrant integration outcomes in order to understand the specific barriers to integration that particular immigrant groups may face.

6

Immigrant integration outcomes in the Border and Dublin regions

In this report, we focus on two regions: Dublin and Border (see Figure 10). 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 516,000⁶. The population increase that occurred between 2011 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.

⁶ These correspond to the NUTS3 Border and Dublin regions. In the period under consideration, Louth was part of the Border region so we have included it in our analysis. In 2018, Louth was reclassified as belonging to the Mid-east NUTS3 region.

Figure 10: Map of Border and Dublin Regions

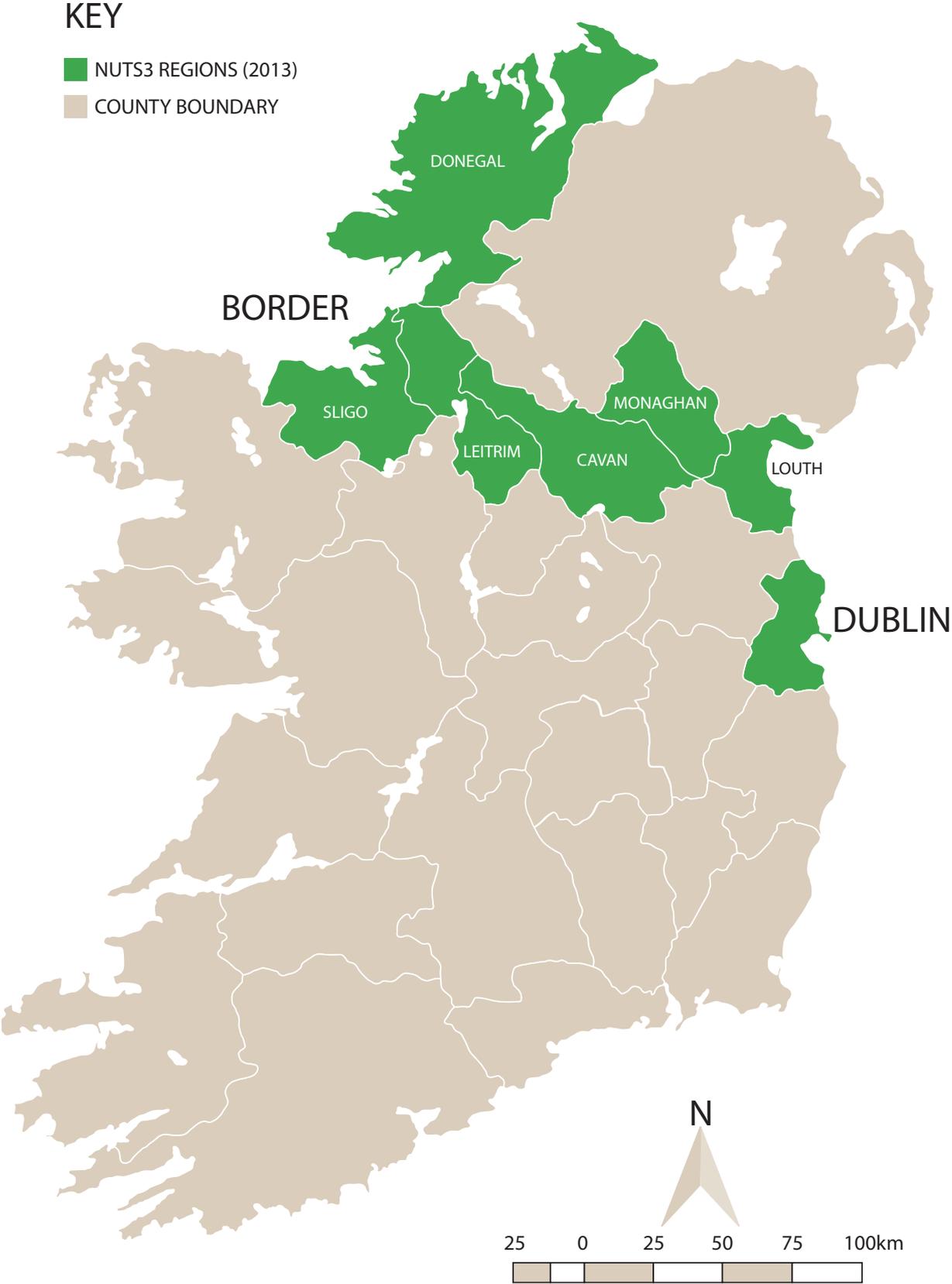


Table 9: Resident population born outside Ireland, 2011 and 2016

	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 2017a, 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. While the proportion of residents born outside Ireland is roughly similar, the Border region has a higher proportion of Irish and UK nationals, and a lower proportion of Other EU-15, EU13 and Rest of World nationals than the Dublin region.

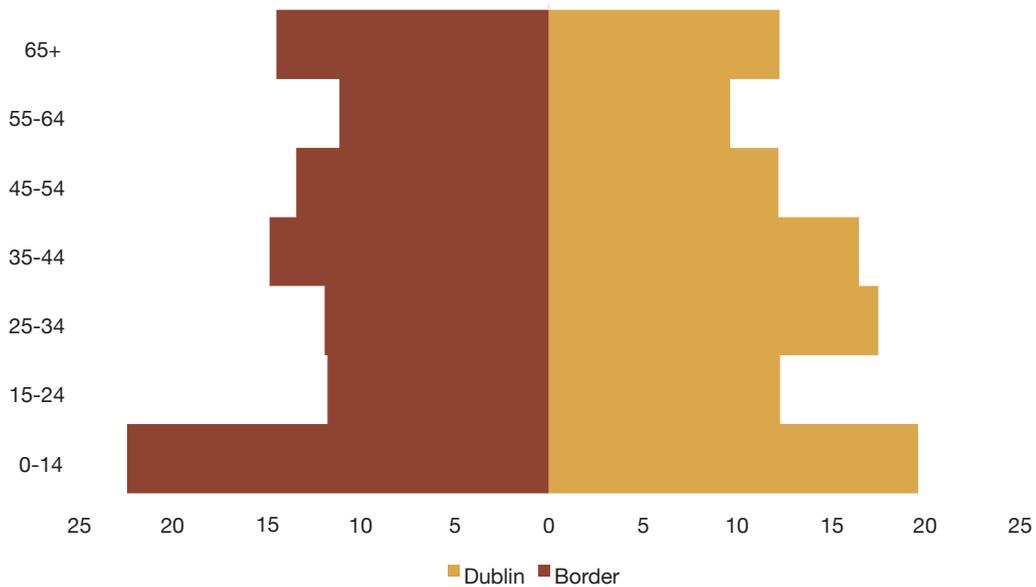
Table 10: Resident population by place of birth and by nationality, Border and Dublin regions, 2016

	Border		Dublin	
	Place of birth (%)	Nationality (%)	Place of birth (%)	Nationality (%)
Ireland	80.7	89.1	79.2	83.0
UK	11.0	2.8	4.2	1.5
Rest of EU15	0.7	0.6	2.3	2.4
EU13	4.2	4.5	5.8	6.1
Rest of World	3.4	1.6	8.5	4.6
Other	-	1.3	-	2.5

Source: CSO 2017a: Tables E7050, E7002

The age profile of the two regions also differs considerably. The population pyramid for the Dublin and Border regions is shown in Figure 11. 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.

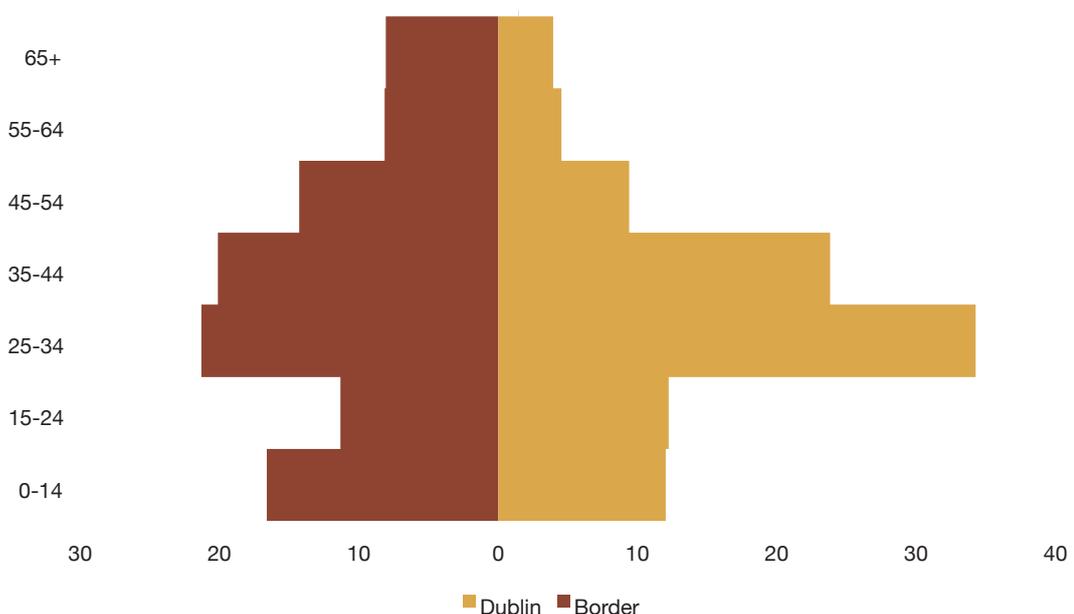
Figure 11: Population Pyramid, Dublin and Border regions, 2016



Source: Adapted from CSO 2017a, Table E7003

Figure 12 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 12: Population Pyramid for non-Irish nationals, Dublin and Border regions, 2016



Source: Adapted from CSO 2017a, Table E7003

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 11.

Table 11: 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 2017a, 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 12.

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 2017a, Table E7002

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 13.

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 2017a, 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 14.

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

Nationality	2016		Population change, 2011-2016 (%)
	Population	% Male	
Brazilian	8,903	46.6	98.6
Indian	6,546	63.8	-31.2
Chinese	5,748	46.4	-9.8
American (US)	4,042	42.0	16.4

Source: CSO 2017a, Table E7002

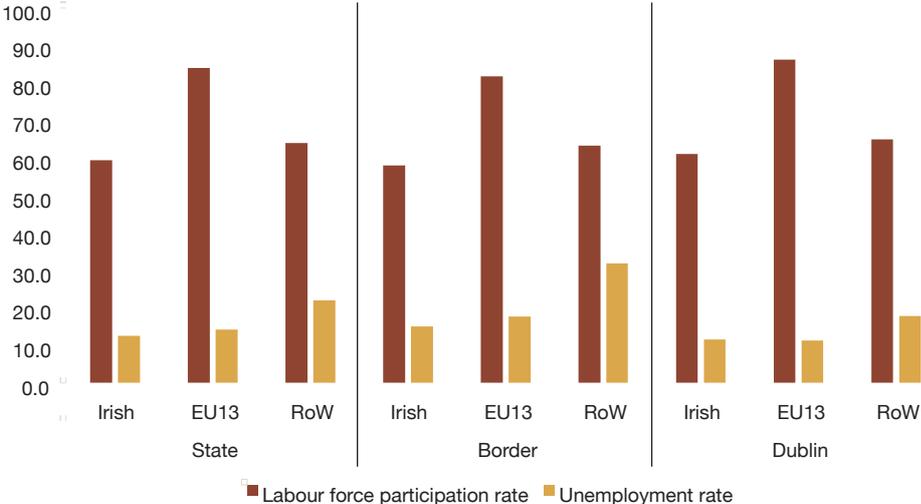
There is, however, a considerable difference between figures for Rest of World nationality and Rest of World birthplace in the Dublin region between 2011 and 2016. In 2011, around 20,000 more people had a Rest of World birthplace than a Rest of World nationality. In 2016, this had risen to over 50,000. 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.

6.1 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 2016 and EU-SILC.

We first identified differences in labour force activity, and this is shown in Figure 13. 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 13: Labour force participation rate and unemployment rate by nationality group and region, 2016 (%)



Source: CSO 2017a: Table EB005

Table 15 provides information on the industries where people are employed, by region, with a breakdown between Irish and non-Irish nationals. This shows clear differences in employment patterns between the Border and Dublin regions, with a higher proportion employed in agriculture, construction and manufacturing related industries in the Border region, and a higher proportion employed in professional, scientific and technical activities in the Dublin region. Non-Irish nationals in the Border region are particularly concentrated in manufacturing, wholesale and retail trade, and accommodation and food services, and underrepresented in health, education and public administration. In the Dublin region, non-Irish nationals are also concentrated in wholesale and retail trade, and accommodation and food services, and underrepresented in health, education and public administration.

Table 15: Proportion of active labour force employed in selected industrial groups by region, 2016 (%)

Industrial Group	State (%)	Border			Dublin		
		Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)	Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)
Wholesale and retail trade	11.7	11.4	11.3	12.4	10.7	10.7	11.8
Human health and social work	9.7	10.5	11.1	7.3	9.4	10.6	5.9
Manufacturing	8.8	9.2	8.6	13.9	4.8	4.9	5.1
Education	7.7	8.1	8.9	3.3	7.2	8.3	4.0
Accommodation and food service activities	5.1	5.4	4.7	10.6	4.9	3.3	11.3
Professional, scientific and technical activities	4.9	3.1	3.3	2.6	7.0	7.6	5.4
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	4.6	4.9	5.5	1.3	4.7	5.8	1.2
Construction	4.4	5.1	5.4	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.0
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	3.9	7.3	7.7	5.0	0.3	0.3	0.4

Source: CSO 2017a, Table EB028

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

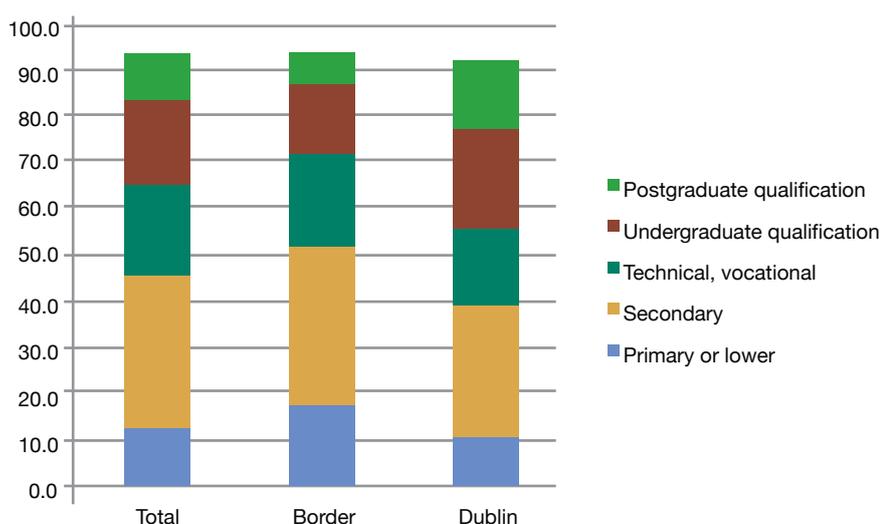
Social class	State (%)	Border			Dublin		
		Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)	Total (%)	Irish (%)	Non-Irish (%)
Professional Workers	7.0	5.0	5.0	5.1	9.0	9.6	7.6
Managerial and technical	26.5	22.9	23.9	16.8	29.2	31.3	23.5
Non-manual	17.8	17.5	18.4	12.2	17.9	19.2	14.0
Skilled manual	14.7	17.0	16.9	18.9	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

6.2 Education

Information on the highest level of education completed, by region, according to Census 2016 is provided in Figure 14. 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 11, 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 14: 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 17. 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

6.3 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 18. There are clear differences between the poverty and deprivation rates in the Border and Dublin regions, with people living in the Border 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 2017c, Special Request

Another key aspect of social inclusion, particularly in the context of Ireland, relates to housing. The Zaragosa indicators highlight property ownership as an important marker of integration. Table 19 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 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.

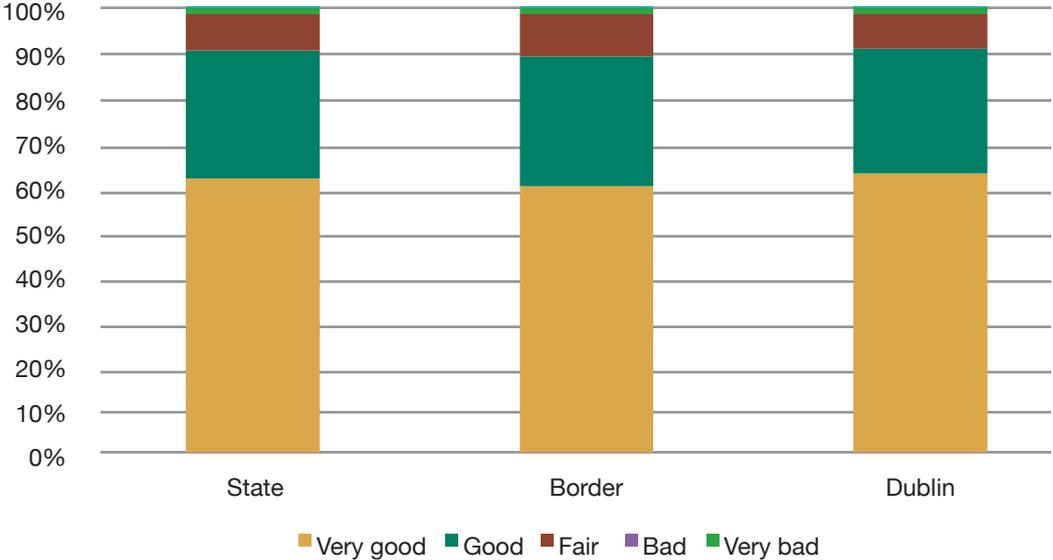
Table 19: Households by region, nationality group and type of occupancy, 2016

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 15 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 15: 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 20. 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 2017a, Table E9032, Special Tabulation

6.4 Summary

There are differences in the demographic profile of the Border and Dublin regions, particularly the age profile. However, the age profile of immigrants in the Border region is older than that of the Dublin region, which may in part be explained by the different immigrant nationalities in the two regions. In relation to employment, there are important differences. The Border region overall has a much higher unemployment rate than the Dublin region. While EU13 and Rest of World nationals have higher labour force participation rates than their Irish counterparts, they also have higher unemployment rates. EU13 nationals fare better than Rest of World nationals in both regions. There are clear spatial differences in the employment profile of the Border and Dublin regions,. While the proportions employed in health, education and public administration are roughly similar, there is a higher proportion employed in agriculture, construction and manufacturing related industries in the Border region, and a higher proportion employed in professional, scientific and technical activities in the Dublin region. This suggests a skills gap that is supported by the different levels of educational attainment in the two regions, and by the different social class structures. Additionally, levels of English language proficiency are lower in the Border region than in the Dublin region. There are significant differences between the Border and Dublin regions in relation to poverty and deprivation rates and income levels, with higher poverty and deprivation rates and considerably lower income levels in the Border region. However, the differences between Irish and non-Irish nationals in the two regions is less marked, though the lack of further disaggregated data means that differences between immigrant groups are masked. This limitation is also present in relation to housing tenure, though again non-Irish nationals are considerably more likely to live in private rental accommodation than their Irish counterparts in both regions. The Border region has a lower percentage of people self-reporting good health, and a higher proportion reporting physical disabilities than the Dublin region. Overall, there are clear and important differences in levels of immigrant integration in the Border and Dublin regions that need to be understood in terms of the broader spatial distinction between the two regions.

7

Immigrant integration and settlement service gaps

Measures of immigrant integration outcomes highlight issues of concern in relation to employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship, for specific immigrant groups and in particular regions. Given this, we next wanted to consider integration processes, specifically the provision of settlement services for immigrants. We addressed this in two ways. First, we sought to map existing settlement services, and to assess the extent to which they targeted integration outcomes for groups and/or regions. Next, we assessed the gaps in settlement service provision. In doing so, our aim was to show how integration processes could be more usefully organised and delivered in order to enhance integration outcomes.

In their overview of settlement services in Ireland (summarised in Table 21), Shields et al highlighted the limited range of services available and the extent to which services were provided by migrant-focused organisations that emerged “as a result of a lack of response to many newcomers’ pressing and immediate needs”

(2016: 20. See also Cullen 2009).

Table 21: Overview of settlement services in Ireland (2011)

Institution in charge	Office for the Promotion of Migrant Integration
Main areas of integration	Language instruction, labour market integration, civic instruction
Introductory immigration integration courses	Voluntary, and for refugees only
Role of sub-national jurisdictions	Municipalities distribute funding to local NGOs and private organisations
Personalised settlement plans	Yes
Pre-arrival courses	No
Settlement/integration plans and/or strategies	No
Integration through sports	Yes
Mandatory integration contracts	No
Special courses for women and children	No

Source: Shields et al 2016: 41-56

This review was based on earlier documentation from the Office for the Promotion of Migrant Integration, dated 2011. The publication of Ireland's second migrant integration strategy, in 2017, gives more specificity to the types of services that are intended to support or enable migrant integration. As David Stanton TD, the Minister with responsibility for migrant integration, stated in his foreword, "we have to ensure that migrants can access information and services and that barriers to their integration are identified and removed" (DJE 2017a: 3), though these are not specifically described as settlement services. Table 22 provides an overview of the categories of action identified by the integration strategy, and the organisation responsible for its implementation.

Table 22: Categories of action in relation to migrant integration in Ireland and responsible body/bodies, 2017

Action	Government departments	OPMI	Local authorities	NGOs	Other
General actions	✓	✓			
Access to citizenship/long term residency	✓				
Access to public services and social inclusion	✓	✓	✓		
Education	✓				SOLAS, Training providers
Employment and Pathways to Work	✓				SOLAS, ETBs, QQI, Enterprise Ireland, Local Enterprise Offices
Health					HSE
Integration in the Community	✓	✓	✓		
Political participation	✓		✓	✓	Political parties
Promoting intercultural awareness & combating racism and xenophobia	✓	✓	✓		An Garda Síochána
Volunteering	✓				
Sport		✓			Sport Ireland
Implementation and Follow-Up	✓	✓			

Source: DJE 2017a: 21-35.

The migrant integration strategy also specifies that it expects integration issues to be mainstreamed into the general work of government departments (DJE 2017a: 4), a trend that has been noted across a range of European countries (Scholten et al 2017).

In conjunction with the migrant integration strategy, the Office for the Promotion of Migrant Integration also identifies a range of funding sources for projects that specifically promote migrant integration and the resettlement of refugees under the Irish Refugee Protection Programme (IRPP). There are five key sources of funds, detailed in Table 23.

Table 23: Funding for migrant integration

Scheme	Funder	Focus
Asylum Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF)	European Union	Refugee resettlement; EU relocation; Integration
European Social Fund – Programme for Employability, Inclusion and Learning (PEIL)	European Union	Migrant Integration; Migrant Employment
National Funding Programme	Office for the Promotion of Migrant Integration	Migrant Integration
Communities Integration Fund	Office for the Promotion of Migrant Integration	Community projects
Dormant Accounts Funds	Dormant Accounts Funds, administered by Pobal	Labour market integration of female refugees and female family members of refugees

Source: DJE 2018a

These specific sources of funds may be augmented by more general social inclusion and/or community development funding schemes. For example, Pobal – a state agency that is also a registered charity – runs over 20 programmes with the aims of achieving social inclusion and development, most of which are funded by government Departments. A key programme administered by Pobal is the Social Inclusion and Community Activation Programme (SICAP), which is funded by the Department of Rural and Community Development and ESF-PEIL and delivered by a network of non-

governmental Local Development Companies around the country. The particular focus of SICAP is individuals, groups and communities who are considered deprived and/or disadvantaged.

Despite the clear indication that integration issues would be mainstreamed into the work of Government departments, a recent survey of integration policies in the public sector found no clear evidence that this has happened or is likely to happen in the immediate future (Murphy et al 2017). This is also the case for funds recently dispersed under the funding schemes listed in Table 23⁷. Of the total funds allocated under these schemes of just over €16 million, just under 60% were earmarked for non-governmental organisations, around 21% for local development companies, and almost 6% to two private companies involved in labour activation programmes⁸. No funds were allocated to government departments, and around 0.3% of funds were allocated to local authorities (DJE 2016a, 2016b, 2017b, 2017c, 2018b). Many of the funded programmes target specific groups of migrants, for example refugees, asylum seekers, third country nationals, women or young people, or specific regions. For example, of the 15 projects funded under the National Funding Programme, just 5 have a nationwide scope, and each of these in turn targets a small group of people⁹. There is considerable overlap between many of the proposed projects, and the links between the proposed projects and mainstreamed social services is not always apparent.

7.1 Settlement services for specific immigrant groups

Our first focus was on settlement services directed towards particular immigrant groups. We investigated the situation for three immigrant groups: those with EU13 nationality; those with a non-EU nationality (described as Rest of World); and returning Irish nationals. In general, we found limited evidence of services that targeted specific groups on the basis of nationality. Instead, we found services that targeted people on the basis of status (with a particular emphasis on refugees and, to a lesser extent, asylum seekers), or that focused on specific, limited programmes, or that were offered generally to migrants. Given the specific issues considered by the Zaragoza indicators, we paid particular attention to employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. Using websites, social media and other **publicly** available information, we drafted an initial list of settlement services that we then presented to stakeholders. Following feedback from the workshop, our overview of settlement services for migrant groups in general, and for specific migrant groups, is presented in Table 24. General settlement services for migrants are mainstreamed in Citizens'

⁷ The National Funding Programme, Communities Integration Fund and the Dormant Accounts Fund were distributed in 2017 (DJE 2017b, 2017c), while the Communities Integration Fund was also distributed in 2018 (DJE 2018b). Figures for AMIF and PEIL relate to calls in 2016 (DJE 2016a, 2016b)

⁸ These are Seetec (Welcome to Work project) and People 1st (Women's Integration, Skills and Employment Project), both allocated under PEIL (DJE 2016a)

⁹ Of the 5 programmes with a nationwide scope, one targets migrant teachers; one targets primary teachers; and two target young people. Just one programme has no restrictions on participation (Fáilte Isteach, a volunteer English language training programme) (DJE 2017b)

Information Centres, and also provided by governmental (e.g. ETBs) and non-governmental organisations, some of which are specific migrant support agencies (e.g. Immigrant Council of Ireland, Migrant Rights Centre Ireland, NASC, New Communities Partnership, AkiDwA, Cairde, SPIRASI). Settlement services for specific migrant groups are disproportionately provided by non-governmental organisations. Some of these have a national profile (e.g. Irish Refugee Council), but most are small scale and run on a voluntary basis by co-ethnics. These migrant-led organisations face particular challenges in developing and sustaining settlement service provision (Ejorh 2015; Landy 2015).

Table 24: Settlement services for specific immigrant groups

	Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
General	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Citizens Information Centres - New Communities Partnership - Migrant Rights Centre Ireland 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Citizens Information Centres - Education and Training Boards - Fáilte Isteach - Local Development Companies - Mother Tongues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Local Development Companies - Family Resource Centres - Cairde - AkiDwA - SPIRASI - SARI 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Immigrant Council of Ireland - Migrant Rights Centre Ireland - NASC Immigrant Support Centre - New Communities Partnership - AkiDwA
EU13	Forum Polonia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Polish Educational Society in Ireland - Education Now Centre for Slovak Children in Ireland - Lithuanian School - Slovak Centre In Ireland 		Forum Polonia

	Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
Rest of World	Irish Refugee Council	Irish Refugee Council	Irish Refugee Council	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Irish Refugee Council - Africa Centre - Wide range of national organisations (e.g. Afghanistan, Bolivia, Malawi, Morocco, Tanzania, Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Guinea, India, Palestine, Brazil, Somalia, Sudan, Turkey)
Returning Irish			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Crosscare Migrant Project - Safe Home Ireland 	

The provision of immigrant settlement services in Ireland shown in Table 24 remains limited and inconsistent. There is a wide range of small non-governmental organisations, organised for example on the basis of nationality, language, or specific special interest. There is a small number of non-governmental organisations with wider remit and reach, many of which are based in the Dublin region. Some settlement services are mainstreamed, for example information provision through the Citizens' Information Centres or social inclusion measures for disadvantaged groups through Local Development Companies. However, there is limited evidence of mainstreaming in relation to some of the key immigrant integration outcomes, particularly housing. There remains a considerable settlement service provision gap in relation to EU13 and Rest of World immigrants in Ireland.

7.2 Regional settlement services

As Ashton et al highlight, while settlement services are generally well provided and well documented in large urban areas, there is more limited information and analysis of service provision in smaller urban and rural areas (Ashton et al 2016: 70). In order to address this issue in the Irish context, we focused on settlement services in two regions: Dublin and the Border. Given the specific issues considered by the Zaragosa indicators, we paid particular attention to employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship. Using websites, social media and other publicly available information, we drafted an initial list of settlement services that we then presented to stakeholders in the Dublin and Border regions for feedback. Following feedback from

the workshops, our overview of settlement services in the two regions is presented below. Table 25 provides details about the Dublin region, and Table 26 about the Border region. In general, settlement services at the regional level are more likely to be provided by local authorities, LDCs and ETBs, with a smaller number of non-governmental organisations involved. Many of the pro-migrant non-governmental organisations listed in Table 24 are based in large urban centres, and tend not to have a clearly delineated spatial focus.

Table 25: Settlement services in the Dublin region

Provider	Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
Local authorities			Housing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Fingal County Council ■ DLR Council ■ Dublin City Council ■ South Dublin Council 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fingal Ethnic Network - Fingal multi-agency Integration Project - DLR Ethnic Minority Integration Forum - Dublin City Integration Forum - South Dublin Migrant Integration Forum
Non-governmental organisations	Local Development Companies (LDCs) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ballyfermot / Chapelizod ■ Empower ■ Dublin South City ■ South Dublin County ■ Fingal LEADER ■ Northside ■ Southside DLR ■ Dublin North West Area ■ Dublin City Community Co-op Partas 	LDCs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ballyfermot / Chapelizod ■ Empower ■ Dublin South City ■ South Dublin County ■ Northside ■ Southside DLR ■ Dublin North West Area ■ Dublin City Community Co-op Fáilte Isteach Ivosta 	LDCs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ballyfermot / Chapelizod ■ Empower ■ Dublin South City ■ South Dublin County ■ Dublin North West Area ■ Dublin City Community Co-op 	LDCs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ballyfermot / Chapelizod ■ Empower ■ South Dublin County ■ Northside ■ Dublin North West Area

Provider	Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
Other		Education and Training Boards (ETBs) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ City of Dublin ■ Dublin & Dun Laoghaire Family Resource Centres	Family Resource Centres	

Table 26: Settlement services in the Border region

Provider	Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
Local authorities			Housing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Cavan Local Authority ■ Donegal County Council ■ Monaghan County Council ■ Leitrim County Council ■ Sligo County Council ■ Louth County Council 	
Non-governmental organisations	Local Development Companies (LDCs) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Breffni Integrated ■ Monaghan Integrated ■ Inishowen Development Partnership ■ Donegal ■ Leitrim ■ Sligo LEADER Partnership ■ Louth LEADER Partnership Fáilte Isteach Culture Connect	LDCs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Breffni Integrated ■ Monaghan Integrated ■ Inishowen Development Partnership ■ Donegal ■ Leitrim ■ Sligo LEADER Partnership 	LDCs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Breffni Integrated ■ Monaghan Integrated ■ Inishowen Development Partnership ■ Donegal ■ Leitrim ■ Sligo LEADER Partnership ■ Louth LEADER Partnership Diversity Sligo Drogheda Homeless Aid	- Multicultural Network (Cavan) - Donegal Intercultural Platform - Leitrim Intercultural Forum - Sligo Intercultural Forum - Louth Minority Ethnic Consortium

Provider	Employment	Education	Social Inclusion	Active Citizenship
Other		Education and Training Boards <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Cavan & Monaghan ■ Louth & Meath ■ Donegal ■ Mayo, Sligo & Leitrim 	Family Resource Centres	

In addition to the overview of settlement services provided in Tables 25 and 26, a number of small non-governmental organisations exist in both the Border and the Dublin regions. Often, these are organised around specific national groups, or around specific social activities. While they provide opportunities for social interaction and may well be involved in the provision of informal settlement service supports, their role in the formal provision of settlement services is not clearly delineated. As an example, Appendix 3 provides a list of the community organisations in the Dublin and Border regions that received funding from the Communities Integration Fund in 2017 and 2018. This gives an overview of the types of community organisations that are addressing the broader issue of immigrant integration and the types of services they provide. The funded organisations include those involved in sports, cultural and community activities, local authorities, and national-level non-governmental organisations. A broader range of organisations is funded in Dublin than in the Border region though, in both regions, very few receive repeat funding (10% in the Border region; 13% in the Dublin region).

7.3 Settlement service gaps in contemporary Ireland

The overview of settlement services, when taken in conjunction with the immigrant integration outcomes, show that there are clear gaps in relation to settlement service provision in contemporary Ireland. The **provision** of settlement services is fragmented. In many cases, government departments do not make specific provision for services for immigrants, either as standalone services or as services that are mainstreamed. Instead, settlement services are provided by a combination of local authorities, local development companies, non-governmental organisations and others. Many of these organisations are in competition with each other and, increasingly, with private companies, for the limited funds that are directly available for integration-related services. The nature of funding for immigrant integration services means that it is difficult to sustain the provision of services in a consistent way over a longer period. The **availability** of settlement services is socially and spatially uneven, with considerable differences in the services that are available to specific groups and in specific regions. Additionally, there is no clear evidence that

settlement services, when provided, are targeting the specific integration needs of groups and in regions. **Access** to settlement services is often restricted on the basis of immigration status. For example, some programmes are offered only to particular groups of immigrants, such as refugees; while other groups, such as international students, are not permitted to access many social support schemes (Gilmartin et al 2016). Social inclusion programmes, particularly in relation to employment, are often targeted towards those who are unemployed or, in some instances, underemployed, so may not be available to immigrants who are working but experience deskilling, or to those who do not satisfy the Habitual Residence Condition. While there are examples of good practice in the provision of settlement services, and evidence of commitment and dedication on the part of many settlement service providers, the overall landscape is fragmented and uneven, with considerable barriers to participation. Overall, the fragmented, uneven and restricted availability of settlement services means that immigrant integration processes in Ireland are underdeveloped, and need to be reconsidered in light of Ireland's new immigrant reality.

8

Conclusion

enhancing immigrant integration processes and outcomes in contemporary Ireland

The recent standardisation of immigrant integration outcomes by the OECD and the European Commission, through the development of the Zaragoza indicators, has provided a framework for the systematic assessment of immigrant integration in Ireland. Using existing data from large-scale data sets, we expanded the existing assessment in two ways. First, we considered immigrant integration outcomes for two groups of immigrants defined by nationality: EU13 nationals and Rest of World nationals. This shows that EU13 and Rest of World nationals have poorer outcomes in relation to employment, social inclusion and active citizenship than their Irish counterparts. The issue of housing tenure is a particular concern, as is sectoral concentration in employment and levels of deprivation. Second, we considered immigrant integration outcomes for two regions: Dublin and the Border region. This showed considerable differences in outcomes for immigrants in the two regions, with significantly poorer outcomes overall in the Border region. It will be important to continue tracking these outcomes over time, in order to identify areas of difficulty for immigrant integration. It will also be important to expand the range of Zaragoza indicators that are assessed in the Irish context. As our work has shown, issues such as trade union membership, share of public sector employment and skills recognition – all mentioned as useful indicators for international comparison – highlight clear differences in outcomes for native and non-native residents of Ireland, and should be incorporated into future assessments of immigrant integration.

If we are to monitor immigrant integration outcomes in Ireland, then ensuring robust and useful data is important. Existing large-scale data sets provide a good starting point, particularly for first-generation migrants. The Census gives a comprehensive account at a particular point in time that is particularly useful because of its broad coverage and longitudinal data. Other data sets, specifically the Labour Force Survey (formerly the Quarterly National Household Survey), the Survey of Income and Living Conditions (SILC), and the European Social Survey (ESS) give additional detail on a range of important issues. However, as Barrett et al point out (2017: 112-115), immigrants and minorities may not be appropriately represented in many of these surveys. More broadly, the question of how immigrants are identified from survey data in Ireland requires further attention. Earlier work primarily highlighted self-reported nationality as the marker of immigrant status. The considerable increase in the numbers of people taking up Irish citizenship means that nationality is no longer as useful a marker. While place of birth is an alternative marker, it also includes those who are Irish nationals by descent and would need to be adjusted accordingly. Neither of these markers identify residents of migrant origin, specifically second-generation migrants who were born in Ireland of migrant parents. Additionally, it is very difficult to examine in detail the experiences of immigrants who are Irish nationals through existing data sets, even though recent research highlights that this group faces specific difficulties in integration (Crosscare Migrant Project 2018). As the immigrant population of Ireland becomes more established, it will be important to adjust our data collection measures to also fully understand integration outcomes for the second generation. In our work, it was often difficult to access regional data, even though we used broad nationality and regional categories, thus ensuring that anonymity could be preserved. Enabling easier access to regional data on immigrant integration will be important to understand how place affects both integration processes and outcomes. The fact of immigrant legal status, for example time spent as an asylum seeker, is also obscured in much survey data, even though earlier research suggests that there is a clear connection between legal status and immigrant integration (MCRI 2008).

In this report, we focus primarily on the Zaragosa indicators. As Gregurović and Župarić-Ilić (2018) suggest, there are difficulties with such comparative measures. Their focus was on integration policies, but their argument has broader relevance for how we understand integration outcomes. Given this, we conclude that the Zaragosa indicators are an important starting point, but it will be important to refine our assessment of integration outcomes further in order to capture the specificities of the Irish context. In the broader project, we worked with community organisations to identify other, potential, measures of immigrant integration that could be accessed using existing large-scale data sets. We provide more details in Appendix 4, but note that existing data sets, specifically the Census, the Labour Force Survey, the Survey of Income and Living Conditions, the European Social Survey and the Healthy Ireland Survey, provide information that could be useful in developing context-specific

markers of immigrant integration in Ireland. From this, it is clear that a more holistic view of immigrant integration in Ireland could be developed and assessed both through existing data sets and through new, focused research. As an example, a detailed study of integration among four nationality groups in Ireland (MCRI 2008) makes use of Ager and Strang’s conceptual framework to assess levels of economic, political, social and cultural integration. Alternatively, more recent research highlights the importance of social as well as economic factors for immigrant integration (Gilmartin and Migge 2015; Bobek et al 2018), issues that are also highlighted in Appendix 4. While maintaining clear sight of the Zaragosa indicators, it is also important to recognise and document the specificities of immigrant integration in Ireland, and to expand how immigrant integration outcomes are assessed.

Measuring outcomes is one aspect of understanding immigrant integration. It is important that outcomes are used to inform both processes and policies. From our assessment of immigrant integration processes, particularly settlement services, we conclude that there are gaps in the provision of settlement services. These gaps relate to the availability of settlement services to particular immigrants and in particular regions, and to the issues that available settlement services address. As an example, the issue of housing is not comprehensively addressed by available settlement services, despite clear evidence that immigrants are in a very vulnerable position in the Irish housing market.¹⁰ The funding structure for settlement services, which is often short-term and competitive, together with the reliance on the non-governmental sector for the provision of services, means that it is difficult to plan or, at times, offer crucial services. If immigrant integration outcomes are to improve, then a more coherent, coordinated and longer-term approach to effective integration processes, in the form of appropriately-targeted settlement services, is required.

This is an important time for appraising immigrant integration and settlement services in Ireland. This report shows clear evidence of shortcomings in immigrant integration processes and outcomes that need to be addressed urgently. As levels of immigration to Ireland continue to increase, this is a pressing issue both for new immigrants, for more established immigrants, and for the children of recent immigrants. If the “long-term vision of Ireland [is] a society which harnesses the benefits of integration”, then integration processes and integration outcomes require our immediate attention.

¹⁰ In contrast, assistance in finding housing is a key component of the settlement services provided to immigrants in Canada.
See <http://www.cic.gc.ca/english/newcomers/services/index.asp>.

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Appendix 1: Project workshops

28 June 2017 (Maynooth)

Workshop 1: Alternative indicators of integration: Employment

Workshop 2: Alternative indicators of integration: Housing

29 June 2017 (Maynooth)

Workshop 1: Alternative indicators of integration: Health

Workshop 2: Alternative indicators of integration: Civic Engagement

24 October 2017 (Maynooth)

Community workshop 1: Finding and presenting data (Data sources)

Community workshop 2: Finding and presenting data (Data visualisation)

5 December 2017 (Cavan)

Settlement workshop 1: Border

7 December 2017 (Blanchardstown)

Settlement workshop 2: Dublin

11 December 2017 (Maynooth)

Settlement workshop 3: National immigrant groups

3 September 2018 (Blanchardstown)

Roundtable discussion 1: Dublin

5 September 2018 (Cavan)

Roundtable discussion 1: Border

6 September 2018 (Maynooth)

Roundtable discussion 3: National

Appendix 2: Key immigrant integration outcomes, 2010-2013 and 2016

	Indicator	2010	2011	2012	2013	...	2016
Employment	Employment rate	61.0%	59.0%	58.9%	58.9%	...	60.0%
	Unemployment rate	16.1%	18.2%	18.5%	18.1%	...	13.1%
	Activity rate	72.7%	72.1%	72.3%	72.0%	...	69.0%
Education	25-34 year olds with tertiary educational achievement	52%	49%	53.5%	50.4%	...	55.0%
	Early leavers from education (20-24)	15.4%	10.4%	16.8%	8.7%	...	5.7%
	Mean achievement scores for 15 year olds in English reading	486 (native) 457 (non-native)	500 (native) 443 (non-native)	same	525 (native) 506 (non-native)	...	251
Social inclusion	Mean annual net income (needs adjusted)	€18,097	€19,630	€17,731	€17,105	...	€15,584
	<i>At risk of poverty</i> rate	18.4%	13.0%	16.4%	15.5%	...	21.1%
	Consistent poverty rate	2.9%	6.5%	7.8%	7.4%	...	8.8%
	People (16+) perceiving their health as good or very good	90.7%	91.6%	89.7%	90.8%	...	89.3%
	Households that are property owners	32.9%	26.5%	28.0%	26.6%	...	26.3%
Active citizenship	Annual naturalisation rate			7.4%	16.8%	...	7.5%
	Ratio of non-EEA immigrants with Irish citizenship to those without	13%	16%	21.2%	31.3%	...	45%
	Non-EEA immigrants (16+) with long-term residence permits	5%	7%	6.0%	4.8%	...	1.8%
	Immigrants among local elected representatives	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	...	0.6%

Sources: McGinnity et al 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014; Barrett et al 2017.

Appendix 3: Community Projects awarded grants by the Communities Integration Fund, 2017 and 2018

Dublin

Location	Name	2017 €	2018 €
Dublin 1	ACET Ireland	5,000	
	Akidwa	5,000	5,000
	Blue Fire	5,000	
	Cairde	5,000	
	Discovery Gospel Choir	4,900	4,600
	Dublin City Inter Faith Forum	5,000	5,000
	Neighbourhood Youth Project 2	3,500	
	O'Connell Secondary School	5,000	
	Outhouse LGBT Community & Resource Centre	4,000	4,997.50
	Polish Peace Corps	3,340	
	Praise Tabernacle	5,000	
	Sport Against Racism Ireland	5,000	5,000
Dublin 2	AMAL Women's Organisation	5,000	
	ENAR Ireland	5,000	
	Irish Refugee Council	5,000	
	Literature Ireland, TCD	4,950	
	The Ark Children's Cultural Centre	5,000	5,000
Dublin 3	Young People At Risk (YPAR)	4,800	
Dublin 4	Railway Union Cricket Club	4,840	
Dublin 5	Artane Coolock Family Resource Centre	4,395	
Dublin 7	SEN Polish Complementary School	3,280	
	Welcome Café	5,000	5,000
Dublin 8	Capital Strength Weightlifting Club	4,992	
	LIR Anti Racism Training & Education Programme	3,300	
	Rialto Community Radio	5,000	
	Street Feast, Rialto	5,000	
Dublin 9	Belvedere Football Club	2,800	
Dublin 13	Baldoyle United	5,000	
	Clare Hall Resident's Association	4,500	

Location	Name	2017 €	2018 €
Dublin 15	Fáilte Isteach, Tyrellstown	3,000	3,000
	i-Smile International, Mulhuddart	5,000	5,000
	Mulhuddart Community Centre	2,000	2,480
	Pinoy Badminton Association Ireland	5,000	
	Rekindle Talent, Ladyswell	4,670	
	Scoil Bhríde (Cailíní), Blanchardstown	5,000	
	Tyrellstown Cricket Club	1,500	
	Tyrellstown Resident's Association	3,240	
	Tyrellstown Social Club (Women's Group)	3,150	
	Verona Sports & Leisure Club, Clonsilla	4,220	
	West Dublin Rhinos American Football	4,760	
Dublin 17	Moatview Early Education Centre	2,000	
Dublin 22	South Dublin County Partnership, Clondalkin	2,280	5,000
Dublin 24	An Cosán, Tallaght	5,000	
	Tallaght Community Arts	4,850	
Balbriggan	Balbriggan Community Council	3,300	
	Balbriggan Cricket Club	3,320	
	Balbriggan Tourism	5,000	
	Foroige-Balbriggan Youth Service	5,000	
	Irish Vikings Club	5,000	
	Musicantia Ltd	5,000	5,000
Dublin City	Refugee and Migrant Solidarity Ireland (RAMSI)		2,700
	Sports Across Ireland Ltd		5,000
	Donnycarney Football Club		5,000
	Tus Nua Artane Coolock FRC		4,500
	Tasnuva Shahim Foundation Ireland (Lovin' Eire)		5,000
	KLEAR		5,000
	Near Media Co-Op		5,000
	City of Sanctuary Dublin		5,000
	First Fortnight Limited		5,000
	Outlandish Theatre Platform CLG		4,965

Location	Name	2017 €	2018 €
	Intercultural Language Service		5,000
	Latin America Solidarity Centre		4,960
	Jesuit Refugee Service (JRS) Ireland		4,750
	Hill Street Family Resource Centre		5,000
	St Andrew's Resource Centre		3,000
	Stella Maris Football Club		4,664.80
	Social Enterprise Development Company		4,905
	LGBT Ireland		5,000
	Association of Brazilian Families		4,240
	Henrietta Street Senior Citizens Services (HSCS)		1,694
Dun Laoghaire-Rathdown	Muslim Sisters of Eire		5,000
	The Welcome Table		3,000
	Southside Partnership Dublin		3,090
Fingal	Loving and Affectionate Family		5,000
	Swim Ireland		5,000
	Balbriggan Integration Forum CLG		5,000
	Polka		1,240
	Swords Intercultural Centre		1,000
	i-Smile International		5,000
	Fingal Ethnic Network		4,100
	Safer Blanchardstown		5,000
	Faite Isteach Tyrrelstown		3,000
	Teen Talk		3,400
TOTAL GRANTS - DUBLIN		215,887	194,326.30

Border

Location	Name	2017 €	2018 €
Cavan	Cavan Congolese Community Forum	3,840	
	Bounce Back Youth Service South East Cavan		5,000
Monaghan	Border Bounce Gymnastics Club	5,000	
	Teach Na nDaoine Family Resource Centre	3,000	
	Wezesha International		3,000
	Failte Isteach Monaghan		3,500
Donegal	Donegal Bay Rowing Club	2,800	
	Donegal Family Resource Centre	1,400	
	Donegal Youth Services	5,000	
	Inishowen Development Partnership		4,995
Leitrim	The Leitrim Design House	4,950	
	Drumshambo Parish Pastoral Council		3,000
	Leitrim International Community Group		2,000
Sligo	Sligo Family Resource Centre	5,000	5,000
	Sligo Global Kitchen	5,000	5,000
	Irish Refugee Council		4,950
Louth	Culture Connect	5,000	
	Dee Hub	5,000	
	Drogheda Homeless Aid	2,310	
	Omeath District Development CLG		2,000
	Dundalk FM		4,009
TOTAL GRANTS - BORDER		48,300	42,454

Source: DJE 2018b

Appendix 4: Alternative indicators of integration

Employment	Housing
Volunteer / non-paid work	Access to housing
Job search	Quality of housing
Quality of job	Cost of housing
Overqualification/deskilling	Homelessness
Discrimination	Discrimination
Education/training	Relationship between tenure and employment
Reasons for leaving employment	Spatial concentration

Health	Civic Engagement
Mental health / wellbeing	Participation in education
Physical health (including nutrition)	Media
Access to health care (including language)	Trade Unions
Cost of healthcare	Education curriculum
Gender and culture	Language issues
Discrimination	Intercultural activities
Social inclusion / exclusion	Social activities and interaction
	Religion
	Arts, culture, sports
	Leadership
	Public Participation Network (PPN)
	Young people /old people
	Funding
	Safety
	Volunteering
	Practices of Irish people
	Political representation
	Community groups-openness
	Stereotypes
	Difference
	Undocumented

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IRISH RESEARCH COUNCIL
An Chomhairle um Thaighde in Éirinn

Maynooth University Social Sciences Institute
Maynooth University,
Maynooth, Co Kildare,
Ireland.

Phone: +353 1 708 6000

Fax: +353 1 628 9063

Web: www.maynoothuniversity.ie/social-sciences-institute

September 2018