



# Analysis of Existing Quantitative Data on Family Migration: Spain

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# 1. Introduction

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*Impact of Admission Criteria on the Integration of Migrants (IMPACIM)* is a research project of the **European Union (EU) Fund for the Integration of Third-Country Nationals**. The objective of the project is to describe and analyse the impact of legal and institutional frameworks (restrictions and entitlements) on integration outcomes of third-country family migrants residing in four EU member states: Germany, the Netherlands, Spain and the United Kingdom. In particular, the project explores how admission criteria that impose restrictive conditions of access and stay for family migrants affect their accommodation and integration in areas related to employment, education, healthcare, welfare benefits, political and civic participation, and housing. In addition, the project intends to establish which features of legal regulation of family-related migration and integration are common to the four countries and what accounts for the differences in approach?

This part of the project concentrates on the empirical analysis of available statistical data sources in order to explore and describe the integration of the family migrants in the specific context defined by legal and institutional context of each country. The data analysis is expected to provide an insight into the relations between immigration status and integration process. This report presents results of the analysis of the integration outcomes of family migrants in Spain. The empirical evidence provided comes from administrative and sample-based survey data. The report is organised as follows. Chapter 2 provides a brief description of the data used and main operative definitions of family migrants used for the purposes of our analysis are discussed. Chapter 3 explores the size and composition of family migrants in Spain as well their main socio-demographic characteristics. In Chapter 4, we explore two dimensions of migrants' human capital (education and host-country language knowledge) as well as access to training and education in Spain. Chapter 5 explores socio-economic integration of family migrants in Spain. More specifically, we explore levels of labour market participation and occupational attainment (in terms of occupational status and income). In the final part of this chapter we describe channels used by family migrants to access the Spanish labour market. Chapter 6 addresses issues of migrants' civic participation, specifically voting in general and local elections, and involvement in civic society activities. Chapter 7 focuses on housing. In the last chapter, the main conclusions are presented.

## 2. Data sources

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Statistical data on family migration and integration of family migrants is relatively scarce in Spain. There are no specific sources of data covering general aspects of family-related migration, so it is still challenging to make an empirical assessment of the overall phenomenon. To the best of our knowledge no general research based on survey methodology on family migration has yet been carried out in Spain. Nevertheless, there are specific administrative records and some survey research that can provide at least a partial insight into some dimensions of family migration.

### 2.1. Administrative data

As far as the general characteristics of the family migrants are concerned, this report relies on statistical data provided by the Spanish government. Spain's Ministry of Labour and Social Security provides data regarding the number of visas issued for family reunification. In our report, data on visas issued for this purpose are compared to the yearly evolution of other types of visas. We also make use of statistical data on family reunification resident permit holders. As far as it is possible, we break down information on this issue by basic socio-demographic variables such as gender, age, nationality and province of residence in Spain. This information covers the years 2008-2011. Finally, we analyse data on the evolution of the number of temporary residence permits for international students and their relatives.

### 2.2. Survey data

In the analysis of the integration outcomes we combine three main statistical data sources.

#### 2.2.1 National Immigrant Survey (INS-2007)

This survey conducted by the National Institute of Statistics (Instituto Nacional de Estadística) at the start of 2007 based on a population sample of 15,465 people over 15 years old and who were born abroad. This survey includes detailed information on personal characteristics such as gender, age, education level, country of origin, year of arrival, marital situation, family structure

and geographical location of its members, household composition, occupation, civic participation, housing, migration trajectories and declared reason for migrating. The target population was foreign-born residents of Spain regardless of their nationality<sup>1</sup> and legal status. The sampling population consists of foreign-born residents of Spain, 16 years of age and older, who have been in Spain for at least one year. If the duration of their stay was less than one year, they needed to state their intention to stay for at least one year in order to be included in the sample. The sampling method was based on multi-stage strategy of selection of households and individuals.

### **2.2.2 Immigrant Citizens Survey ICS-2011**

This survey is a Spanish edition of the Migration Policy Group's pilot survey on migrants' integration and policy in Europe carried out in 2011 in several European countries - Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Portugal and Spain. The survey includes detailed information on several migrant integration issues: employment, language, civic and political participation, family, long-term residence, citizenship and type of resident permit (current permit and the first permit after arrival). The Immigrant Citizens Survey (ICS) aimed to reach those immigrants who were foreign-born non-EU residents of Spain, residing in the country for more than one year, holding or renewing any type of legal status and who are over 15 years old. The sampling frame was drawn from local population registers in two of Spain's biggest cities, Madrid and Barcelona (Spanish National Institute, June 2011). A simple random sample of 994 individuals was selected from all residents belonging to the target group.

### **2.2.3 Spanish Labour Force Survey (SLFS) - Module on the Situation of Immigrants and Their Children in the Labour Market - SLFS-2008**

The SLFS (Encuesta de Población Activa) is a continuous, quarterly survey with a nationwide scope. It is aimed at the population that resides in main family dwellings. The 2008 Module focused on the labour market situation of immigrants and their children. The core SLFS provides a wide range of labour market-related variables: professional situation, unemployment, occupation and economic sector. It also provides basic socio-demographic data. The module on the situation of immigrants and their children in the labour market provides additional mediating variables such as years of residence in the host country, reason for migrating, legal

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<sup>1</sup> Both, TCN and UE citizens have been included.



situation, language and sources of support when obtaining jobs. This study is based on stratified, two-stage sampling, the census sections being the units in the first stage and the family dwellings in the second. The *Module on the Situation of Immigrants and Their Children in the Labour Market* sub-sample consisted of 5,656 individuals.

### **2.3. Definitions and operationalisation**

As already stated, our study addresses questions related to diverse aspects of family migrants' social, economic and civic integration. Within the IMPACIM project, a family migrant is defined as a third-country national (TCN) who:

- (a) enters for family reunification (where an individual already in the country is joined by their spouse, fiancé(e), civil partner, child or other relatives, or
- (b) enters for family reunion through marriage or civil partnership, or
- (c) enters with a labour migrant or international student who is permitted to be accompanied by his/her dependants.

Given that our analysis is based on secondary statistical data sources, variables related to the immigrant status included in available data sets does not fit perfectly to the definition of family migrants presented above. Therefore, in order to identify family migrants, we make use of variables available in our data sets so that they approximate as closely as possible our theoretical definition of family migrants:

- National Immigrant Survey (INS-2007) – Family migrants are those individuals who are TCNs and whose principal motive for migrating to Spain was their intention to rejoin other family members already residing in Spain.
- Immigrant Citizens Survey ICS-2011 – Family migrants are those respondents who declare that the first residence permit obtained upon arrival to Spain was for the family reunification.

- Spanish Labour Force Survey 2008 – Family migrants are those respondents who indicate that a main reason for migrating to Spain was to reunify or accompany a family member.

In order to make our analysis as insightful and comprehensive as possible, throughout this report we will compare family migrants' integration outcomes with non-family migrants, defined as individuals who are TCNs and who moved to Spain for any other reasons or motives.

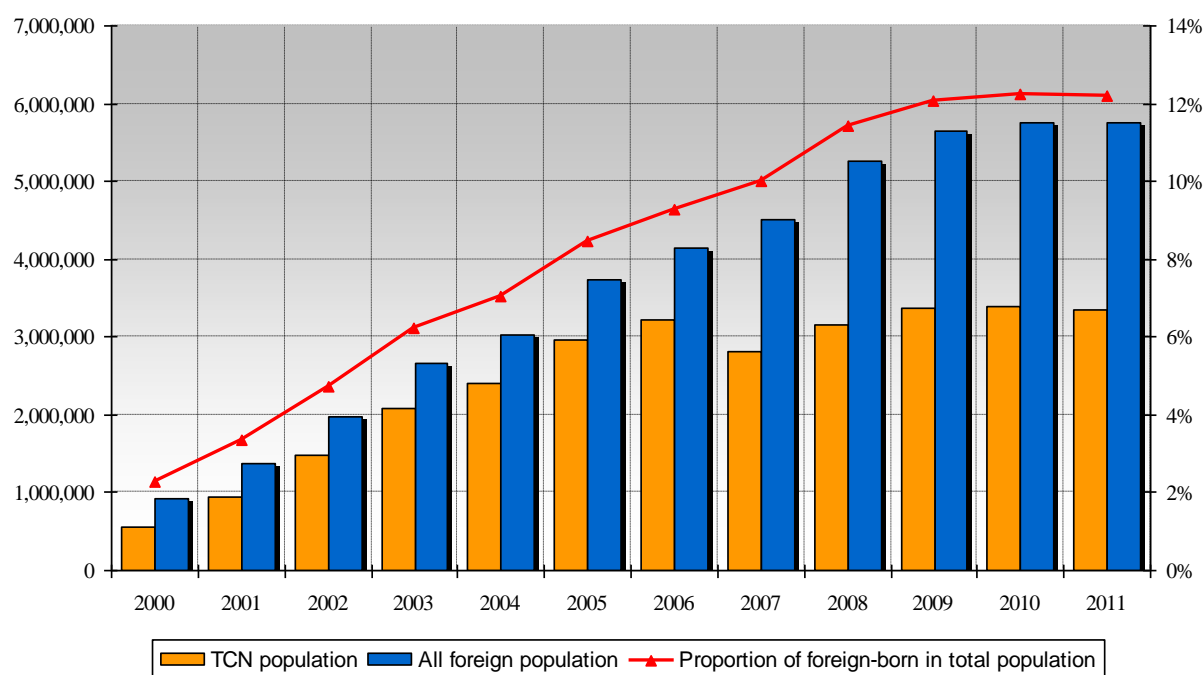
### 3. Family migration to Spain

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#### 3.1. Migration phenomena in Spain

In the late 1980s Spain became a destination for economic immigrants, in keeping with the general trend observed among Mediterranean countries. However, it was not until the end of the 1990s that the migratory flows towards Spain heavily increased. Between 2000 and 2011, the total number of registered foreigners grew by six times and increased from 923,000 to 5,750,000. Nevertheless, in recent years this intense inflow slowed down as a result of the serious economic crisis that began in 2007, with a corresponding dramatic increase in unemployment and budget cuts. The foreign-born population currently represents 12% of the total population in the country (figure 3.1).

**Figure 3.1: Evolution of foreign population in Spain 2000-2011**



Source: *Municipal Register Statistics*

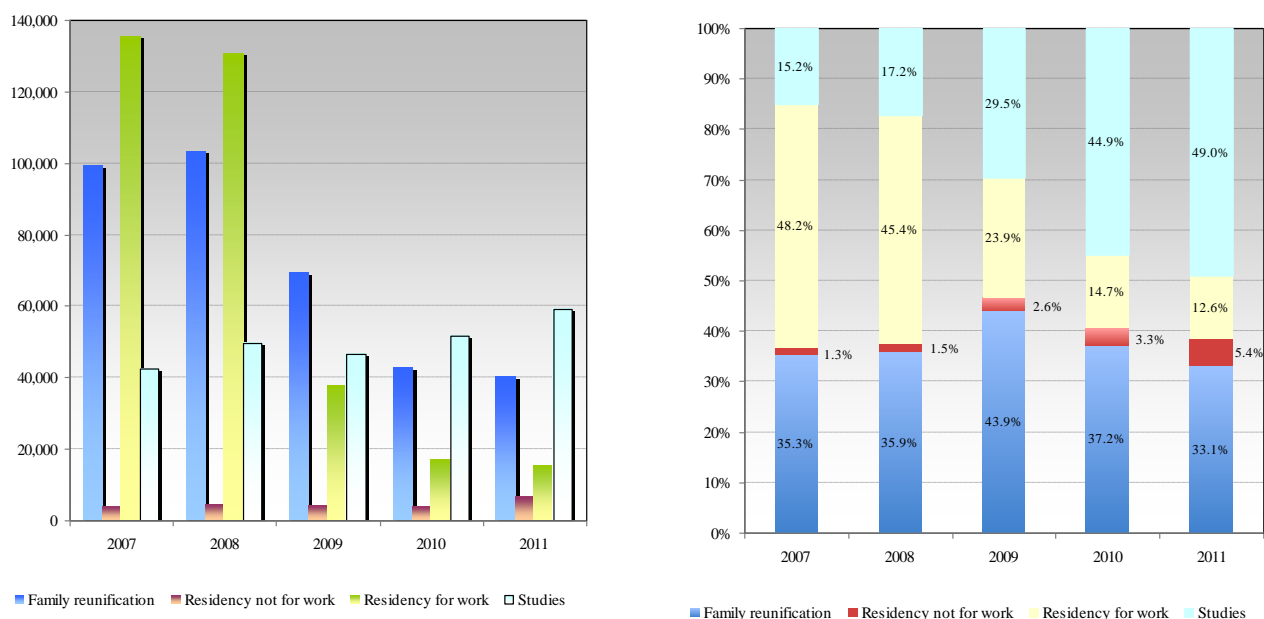
When analysing the evolution of family migration, several peculiarities of the Spanish (and more broadly Mediterranean) migration model should be borne in mind. Firstly, since 1990 until the

outbreak of the economic crisis, the migration of TCNs was mainly motivated by economic motives (Cachón 2009). The factors that explain this phenomenon are very complex. Nevertheless, at least part of the explanation is related to the growth of the Spanish economy over the past decade and growing demand of the labour market during a period of intense job creation. A booming economy led directly to the growth in the demand for low-skilled and unskilled workers in sectors such as agriculture, construction, services and domestic work (Stanek and Veira 2012; Cebolla and González 2008). High rates of irregularity can be considered another feature of the Spanish migratory model. This characteristic traditionally has been explained as an effect of very restrictive conditions for legal entry, reduced capacity to control the immigration flow across borders and inefficient internal controls. A considerable number of migrants used a tourist visa, valid for three months, to enter Spanish territory and once it expired they overstayed (Sabater and Domingo 2012).

In Spain, migrants' family members traditionally had strong incentives to enter the country on tourist visas and overstay illegally, especially if they were interested in working in Spain. Firstly, this channel of entering Spain allowed them to join their spouses much sooner than the legal procedure of family reunification. Secondly, until the 2009 reform of the Migration Law, the legal employment opportunities of family members who overstayed their tourist visas and those regularly reunified were not much different upon arrival, as the latter could not apply for a work permit until they had resided in Spain for one year. In this context, regular family migration traditionally represented a small share of migratory flow to Spain (González Ferrer 2011).

In the last few years of the last decade, the share of the regular family migration in the total migratory stream has been growing. The reasons for this change were twofold. First, there was a progressive stabilisation of the foreign population as an effect of gradual social and economic integration of primary migrants who decided to reunify with their family members. Secondly, as already mentioned in previous IMPACIM documents, several restrictions on family reunification (such as access to the labour market) have been removed. This change is reflected in the proportion of visas obtained by non-EU nationals for family reunification (see Figures 3.2a and 3.2b). The available data show that a share of visas issued for this purpose increased by 10%, from 35% in 2007 to approximately 45% in 2009.

**Figures 3.2a and 3.2b: Visas issued to TCNs from 2007-2011 by type**



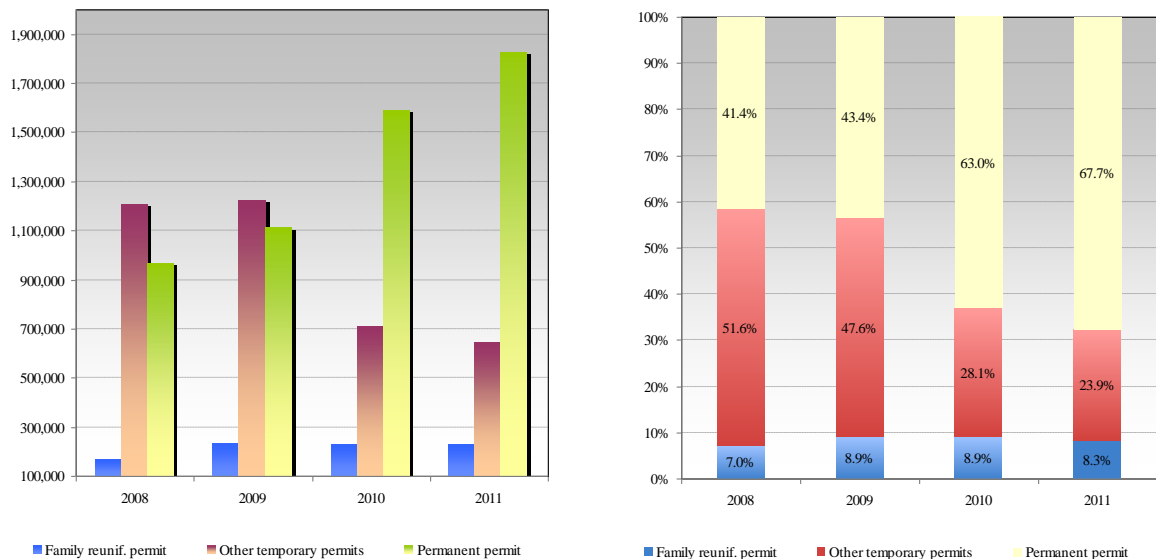
Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security

Since 2010, the proportion of family reunification visas has decreased. Family migrants accounted for 37% and 33% of all migrants who received long-duration visas in 2010 and 2011, respectively. This change is mainly related to the already mentioned decrease in migration flows as a result of the economic downturn and the corresponding dramatic increase in unemployment and budget cuts. The deterioration in living conditions of the considerable part of the population along with a sharp decrease in labour force demand have been two main causes of the substantive decrease in the number of new arrivals.

Interestingly, despite changes in terms of a composition and magnitude of family migration, no considerable changes have been observed in terms of stock. When family reunification permit holders are analysed, it can be observed that since 2009 no significant changes have taken place either in absolute or relative terms. As shown in Figures 3.3a and 3.3b, between 2009 and 2011 the overall number of family reunification permit holders remained stable at the average level of 227,000. Similarly, the proportion of this category of permit holders among all the regular migrants in Spain remained at 8% during this period. We shall stress that these data should be interpreted with caution as they underestimate a real proportion of family migrants. More specifically, these data do not include those reunited family members who obtained an independent resident and work permit after their first five years after arrival in Spain or those who

were granted the condition of permanent resident after a five-year period of continuous residence.

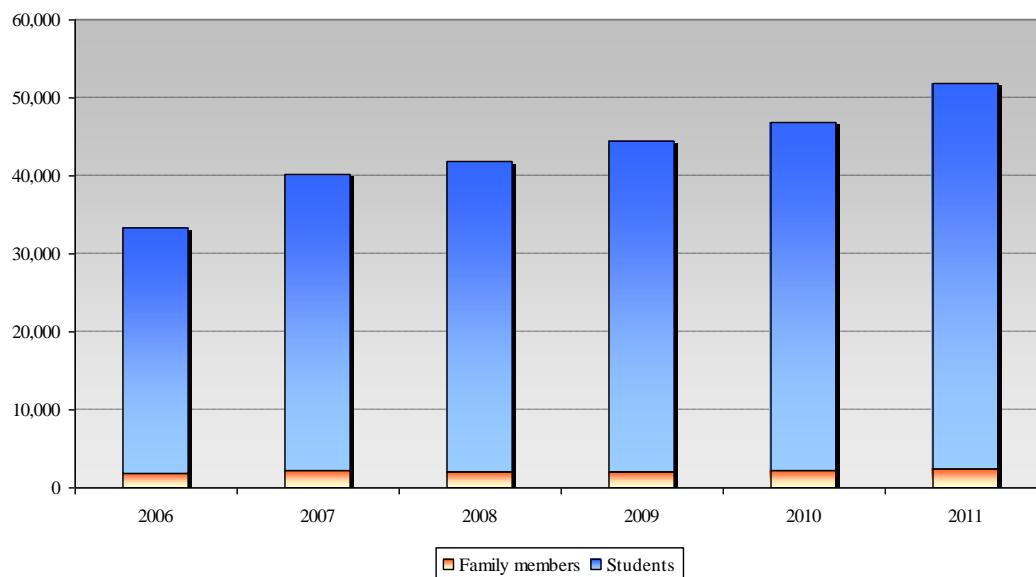
**Figures 3.3a & 3.3b Evolution of non-EU nationals' residence permits in Spain by type**



Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security

Administrative statistics on the foreign population also includes data regarding foreign students' family members with temporary residence permits. In this case it can also be observed that this category of immigrants remained stable in terms of absolute numbers between 2006 and 2011, even though the total number of foreign students has not ceased to grow. Nevertheless, it should be emphasised that this category of migrants accounts for a very tiny part of the population of family migrants in Spain. Between 2006 and 2011 the number of student permit holders' relatives did not exceed 2,500 (Figure 3.4).

**Figure 3.4 Evolution of the number of temporary residence permits for students and their relatives**



*Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security*

### 3.2. Composition by age, gender and origin

According to the Spanish government's statistics, in 2011, 36% of reunified family migrants were under 16 years old, 62% were between 16 and 64 years old and 2% were above 64 years old. These three categories are established according to the possible relation to their activities, as students at the age of compulsory education, potential workers and retired persons. The distribution by age is very similar among regions, except in the autonomous city of Ceuta, where reunified family migrants who are under 16 years old are as numerous as family migrants who are between 16 and 64 years old (49% in both cases).

The gender composition varies from one age group to another. Among family migrants under 16 years old, women represent 46% of the family migrants, whereas they represent two-thirds of family migrants above this age. Out the entire population of family migrants, women represent 59% (Table 3.1). In Spain, family reunification is a feminised phenomenon, more linked to marriage strategies and reunification of spouses than the reunification of children.

**Table 3.1 Distribution by age and gender among reunified family migrants in Spain (2011)**

Age	Total	Men	Women	% Women
Under 16 years old	81,166	43,438	37,728	46.0%
From 16 to 64 years old	139,047	46,442	92,605	67.0%
Above 64 years old	4,810	1,581	3,229	67.0%
Total	225,023	91,461	133,562	59.0%

*Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security*

Among reunified family migrants, ten national groups represent up to 85% of the total population (Table 3.2). The age composition is different for each nationality. Among Moroccans, Chinese, Ukrainians and Indians, the proportion of reunified children (between 29% and 32%) is lower than the average for reunified family migrants. On the contrary, the proportion of reunified children is higher among Pakistanis, Dominicans and Ecuadorians (between 41% and 46%). Among Bolivians, they represented nearly 58% of the reunified family migrants in 2011.



**Table 3.2 Distribution by age and nationality among reunified family migrants in Spain (2011)**

Country of origin	Total	Under 16 (%)	16 to 64 (%)	Above 64 (%)
Morocco	55,813	30.6	68.4	1
Colombia	28,526	34.2	63.1	2.6
Ecuador	28,123	45.4	53.6	1
China	23,875	29.2	68.7	2
Peru	20,794	37.9	56.6	5.4
Dominican Republic	11,898	45.7	54.2	0.1
Pakistan	9,911	41.1	57.5	1.4
Bolivia	6,236	58.3	40.8	0.9
Ukraine	4,567	30.6	65.6	3.8
India	4,453	32.1	67.5	0.4
Others	30,827	34.8	61.3	3.9
Total	225,023	36.1	61.8	2.1

*Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security*

Among reunified adult migrants, the proportion of men and women varies between national groups (Table 3.3). Among adult migrants between 16 and 64 years old from Pakistan, Morocco or India, reunification is highly feminised, as women represent between 73% and 80% of the age group. On the contrary, among adult migrants from Bolivia, Ecuador and Colombia, women represent less than 60% of the age group, whereas men are more numerous among migrants from the Dominican Republic. Among adult migrants above 64 years old, the feminisation is higher when migrants come from Ukraine, Morocco and Colombia (between 71% and 76%). On the contrary, the proportion of men is higher when migrants come from China, Pakistan and Bolivia (between 40% and 50%).

These patterns may have an impact on the need to access different benefits in terms of personal needs. The concentration of family migrants among adults between 16 and 64 years old may create some needs in terms of professional training and their integration

into the labour market. Reunified children may have special requirements to enable them to access the educational system, which is compulsory until they reach 16 years old. Among adult women, special needs may concern pregnancy and the care of young children. Older family migrants may have special needs in terms of welfare benefits; meanwhile men's and women's medical needs are different. On the other hand, language may have less impact among reunified migrants from Latin America, whereas family migrants from Asia, Africa or Eastern Europe may experience more difficulties. From a territorial perspective, the impact may be different since the distribution of national groups and their family migrants is not homogeneously spread among Spain's regions.

**Table 2.3 Gender and nationality of reunified adult family migrants in Spain (2011)**

Country of origin	From 16 to 64 years old		Above 64 years old	
	Women %	Men %	Women %	Men %
Morocco	77.1	22.9	71.3	28.7
Colombia	59.1	40.9	75.7	24.3
Ecuador	53.2	46.8	63.1	36.9
China	61.1	38.9	50.1	49.9
Peru	65.8	34.2	63.5	36.5
Pakistan	73.4	26.6	53.8	46.2
Dominican Republic	48.6	51.4	68.1	31.9
Bolivia	50.6	49.4	58.9	41.1
Ukraine	69.9	30.1	70.9	29.1
India	79.6	20.4	66.7	33.3
Others	71.2	28.8	70.8	29.2
Total	66.6	33.4	67.1	32.9

Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security

### 3.3. Territorial distribution

According to the Spanish government, 50% of reunified family migrants settled in Catalonia (34%) and Madrid (17%) in 2011. In Catalonia, 80% did so in the province of Barcelona. The coastal region of Valencia and the southern region of Andalusia hosted 15% of the family migrants reunified during that year. The last 35% of family migrants settled in the other thirteen regions and the autonomous cities of Melilla and Ceuta (Table 3.4).

In the main regions where reunified family migrants settle, the distribution by nationality is different (Figure 3.5). In Spain, 46% of family migrants are from Central or South America, 30% from Africa and 20% from Asia. In Catalonia, the percentage of Latin Americans (39%) is lower than the national average, whereas the proportion of Asians is higher (27%) and Africans represent 30% of family migrants. In Madrid, the

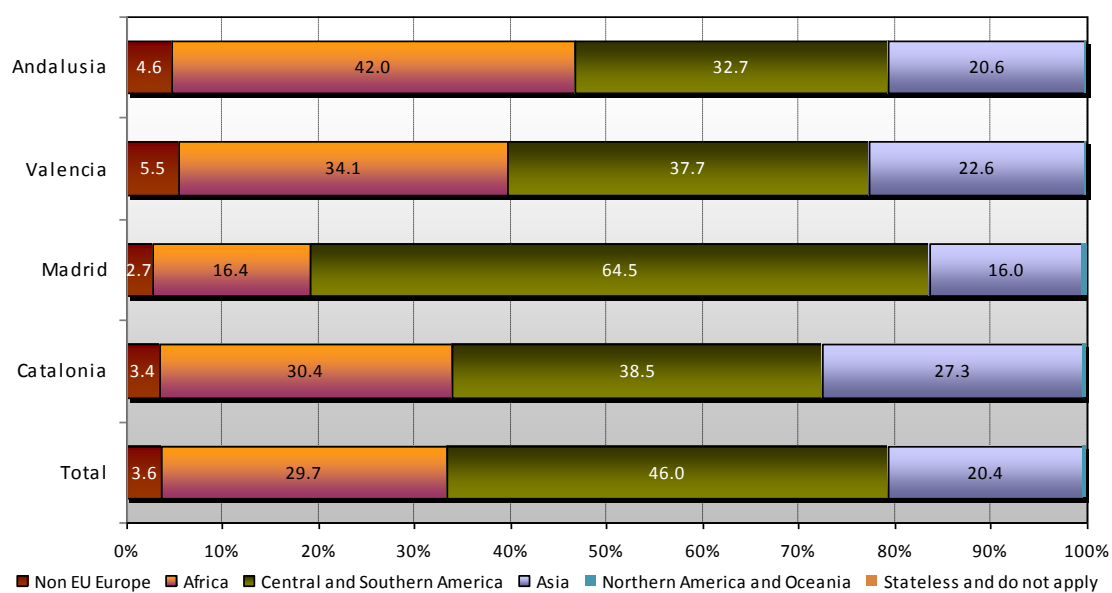
proportion of Latin Americans is higher (65%), whereas Asians and Africans both represent 16% of family migrants. In Valencia and Andalusia, the percentage of Latin Americans is lower than the national average (38% and 33%), whereas the proportion of non-EU Europeans (approximately 5%) and Africans (34% and 42%) is higher. These observations are consistent with the distribution of TCNs with resident permits.

**Table 3.4 Distribution of family migrants reunified according to region**

Region	2008		2009		2010		2011	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
	49,54		73,08		70,49		76,36	
Catalonia	4	30.1	2	31.9	5	31.4	2	33.9
	23,95		42,45		38,85		38,35	
Madrid	4	14.6	2	18.5	0	17.3	4	17.0
	16,99		20,48		21,67		21,82	
Valencia	9	10.3	5	8.9	1	9.6	7	9.7
	15,16		19,42		18,31		15,84	
Andalusia	7	9.2	2	8.5	2	8.1	1	7.0
Castilla y León	8,497	5.2	8,401	3.7	9,958	4.4	9,067	4.0
Aragon	7,072	4.3	8,651	3.8	9,608	4.3	8,689	3.9
Canary Islands	6,414	3.9	7,200	3.1	8,557	3.8	8,470	3.8
Castilla - La			10,54					
Mancha	5,862	3.6	5	4.6	8,564	3.8	8,096	3.6
Balearic Islands	5,740	3.5	7,677	3.3	7,343	3.3	7,757	3.4
Basque Country	3,291	2.0	4,734	2.1	5,965	2.7	6,720	3.0
Galicia	3,536	2.1	5,002	2.2	5,238	2.3	5,788	2.6
Murcia	8,008	4.9	8,721	3.8	5,867	2.6	4,462	2.0
La Rioja	3,352	2.0	4,145	1.8	4,460	2.0	4,030	1.8
Navarre	2,898	1.8	3,451	1.5	3,444	1.5	2,929	1.3
Cantabria	1,782	1.1	2,047	0.9	2,832	1.3	2,879	1.3
Asturias	1,438	0.9	1,951	0.9	2,287	1.0	2,477	1.1
Extremadura	691	0.4	885	0.4	842	0.4	753	0.3
Melilla	192	0.1	258	0.1	411	0.2	399	0.2
Ceuta	57	0.0	80	0.0	74	0.0	74	0.0
Do not apply	125	0.1	22	0.0	34	0.0	49	0.0
	164,6		229,2		224,8		225,0	
Total	19	100	11	100	12	100	23	100

Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security

**Figure 3.5 Nationality of family migrants in the main regional receiving contexts (2011)**



Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Security

## 4. Education, training and language

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The human capital embedded in the skills and education of migrants is a relevant factor explaining their social and economic integration outcomes (Friedberg 2000). In other words, poor proficiency in the native language, less education and limited transferability of skills have a negative impact on migrants' capacity to adapt to the new social, cultural and economic conditions of the receiving country. Therefore, access to schooling and professional and language courses, as well as the recognition of overseas qualifications lie at the heart of a successful integration process. In this chapter we explore two dimensions of migrants' human capital (education and host-country language knowledge) as well as channels of the access to training and education in Spain.

### 4.1. General educational level

Table 4.1 provides basic information on the highest education level obtained by migrants irrespective of place of acquisition. Some interesting differences between family and non-family migrants can be observed. First of all, the general educational level is lower among family migrants. The proportion of migrants in the highest educational categories (upper secondary and tertiary) is, on an aggregate level, lower among those who came to Spain for family reasons. More specifically, 50% of family migrants have achieved upper secondary or tertiary education, against 60% of non-family migrants. When gender is taken into account, differences between family and non-family migrants seem to be more acute in the female population. About 52% of women who arrive in Spain for family reasons hold diplomas from upper secondary or tertiary education, while 67% of non-family female migrants hold these diplomas.

**Table 4.1 Highest level of education completed – family and non-family migrants by gender (%)**

Education level	Family migrants			Non-family migrants		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
No education, primary not completed	7.9	14.9	12.3	12.5	8.2	10.8
Primary education	19.9	14.9	16.7	14.6	13.9	14.3
Lower secondary	26	18	20.9	16.2	12.2	14.6
Tertiary education	9.7	16.4	14	15.4	21.7	17.9

Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Differences between family and non-family migrants persist when they are broken down by basic age categories (see Table 4.2). In each age group, family migrants' educational levels are significantly lower compared to non-family migrants. Approximately 65% of family migrants belonging to the 25-44 age category<sup>2</sup> completed upper secondary or tertiary education, against 71.5% for non-family migrants. The educational gap is even higher if the remaining two age groups (45-59 and 60 and above) are compared. In relative terms, the difference regarding the highest levels of education (upper secondary or tertiary) between family and non-family migrants is almost 13% in both age categories.

<sup>2</sup> The youngest age group (16-24) has been excluded from this part of analysis because an important proportion of migrants belonging to this category has not completed their educational cycle.



**Table 4.2 Highest education completed – family and non-family migrants by age group (%)**

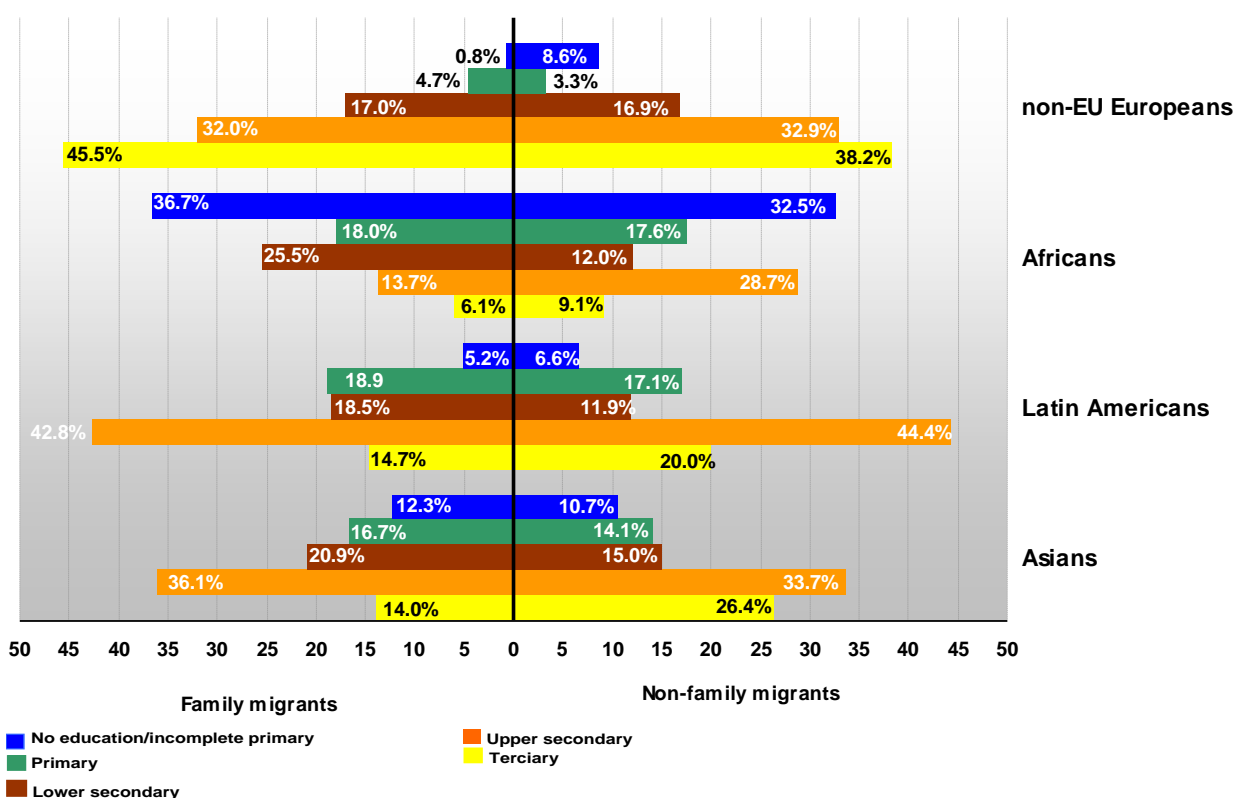
Education level	Family migrants			Non-family migrants		
	25-44	45-59	>59	25-44	45-59	>59
No education, primary not completed	0.5			0.5		
Primary education	13.7	19.0	15.6	12.4	11.4	9.5
Lower secondary	20.5	19.5	17.7	15.7	14.8	12.0
Upper secondary	44.4	40.0	47.9	48.4	51.4	52.7
Tertiary education	20.9	20.5	17.7	22.9	22.0	25.8

Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

In addition, we analysed the relation between education level and country of origin<sup>3</sup>. This information is plotted in Figure 4.1, which includes percentage of the highest education completed by the migrant according to his or her nationality and migration status. First of all it can be observed that differences between nationalities are more important than those related to the migratory status. As already observed in other studies, qualification levels are strongly related to the origin of migrant (Reher and Requena 2009). In other words, the origin has a bigger impact on educational attainments than being a family or non-family migrant. Secondly, if we distinguish between higher (upper secondary and tertiary) and lower qualifications, we observe that in almost all origin categories non-family migrants are better educated than family migrants. This educational gap is particularly sharp among Africans, where the proportion of non-family migrants with higher qualifications is almost 18% higher than in case of family migrants. Non-EU Europeans constitute a clear exception to this pattern. The percentage of non-EU European family migrants of this origin with a tertiary diploma is higher than non-family migrants. Interestingly, the proportion of migrants with no education completed is significantly higher among those who did not come for family reasons.

<sup>3</sup> Migrants from North America, Australia and Oceania are not included in the analysis given the very small sub-sample size.

**Figure 4.1 Highest education completed by country of origin – family and non-family migrants**

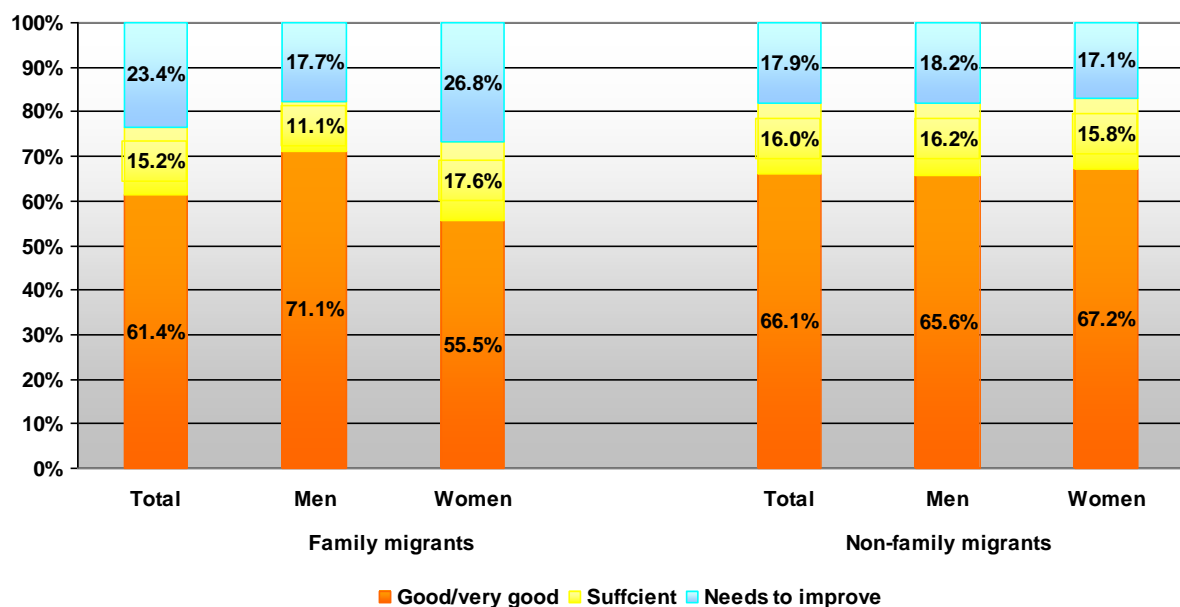


Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

## 4.2. Spanish language competence

A considerable share of migrants in Spain originate from Spanish-speaking countries. Nevertheless, for approximately half of TCNs Spanish is not their mother tongue. Figure 4.2 shows a declared Spanish language competence among migrants coming from non-Spanish speaking countries. Spanish language competence is slightly lower among family migrants. More specifically, almost 23.5% of family migrants recognise that they need to improve their knowledge of Spanish in order to communicate more efficiently in everyday life. In the case of non-family migrants, approximately 18% declare to be in this situation. Interestingly, there is no considerable variation by gender among non-family migrants. Values for men and women are very close to the average. In the case of migrants who arrived in Spain for family reasons, the situation is different. It can be observed that women have lower language competency. One out of four women in this category recognises that she needs to improve her Spanish, against 17% among men.

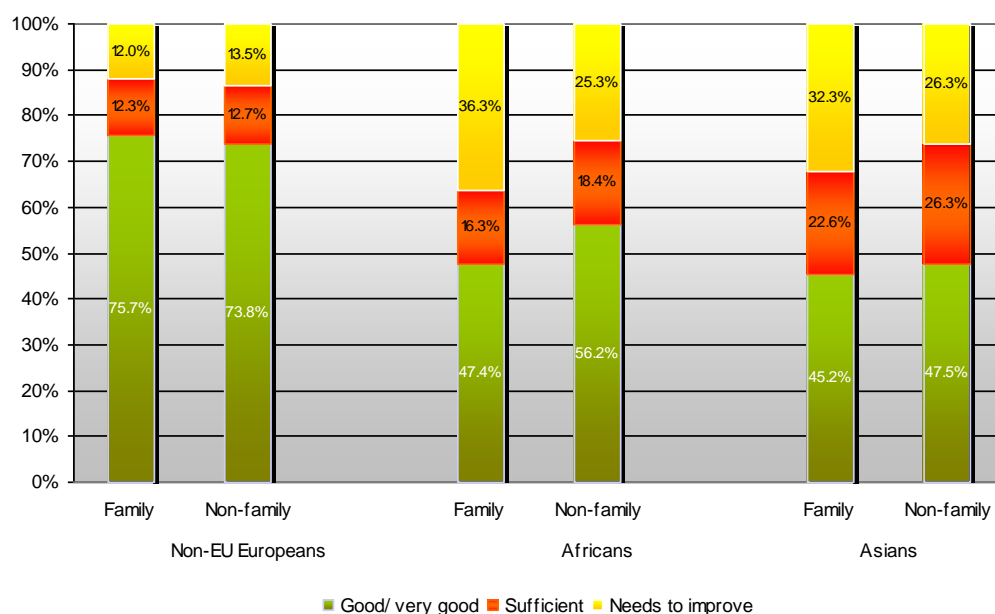
**Figure 4.2 Declared Spanish language competence by gender (Latin Americans excluded)**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Non-significant differences between non-EU family and non-family migrants are observed when we consider origin (see Figure 4.3). In both cases, approximately three out of four non-EU migrants considered their language competence very good or good. The picture is different when other regions of origin are analysed. More specifically, approximately 36% of African family migrants considered that they needed to improve their Spanish language knowledge. In contrast, one out of four non-family African migrants recognised that their Spanish is not sufficient to communicate in everyday situations. There are also differences between family and non-family migrants among Asians, even though the differences are smaller when compared to African migrants.

**Figure 4.3 Declared Spanish language competence by country of origin (Latin Americans excluded)**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

### 4.3 Access to training

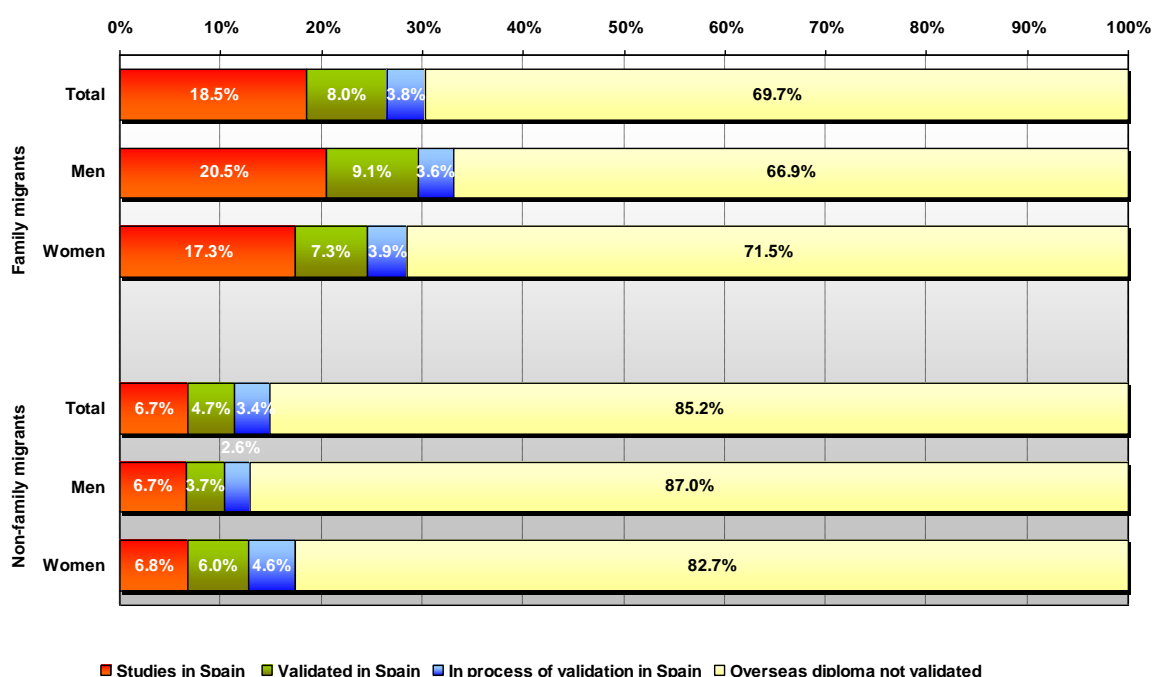
There is a large amount of evidence on the positive impact of migrants' investment in host-country-specific skills - such as education or language - on their social and economic integration (Chiswick 1986). Moreover, acquiring host-country-specific skills may also increase the transferability of skills acquired before migration, thereby increasing the returns to post-migration human capital investments. In this part we will analyse several aspects of migrants' strategies to improve or adapt their qualifications to Spanish labour market demands.

Figure 4.4 shows a proportion of migrants who obtained diplomas in Spain and obtained validation of their overseas diplomas. On a general level (gender not included), there is a considerable difference between family and non-family migrants. Almost 19% of family migrants obtained their highest education in Spain, against approximately 7% for non-family migrants. Family migrants are also more inclined to apply for recognition of their qualifications obtained overseas. Almost 12% validated their overseas diploma or at least applied for validation of their foreign diplomas.

When disaggregated by gender, differences between non-family and family migrants persist. Nevertheless, the differences between family and non-family migrants within the female population are less pronounced when compared to the male population. Consistently, men

who arrived in Spain for family reasons obtain Spanish diplomas and recognition of their overseas diplomas more frequently than women.

**Figure 4.4 Places where migrants obtained their highest level of education (by gender)**

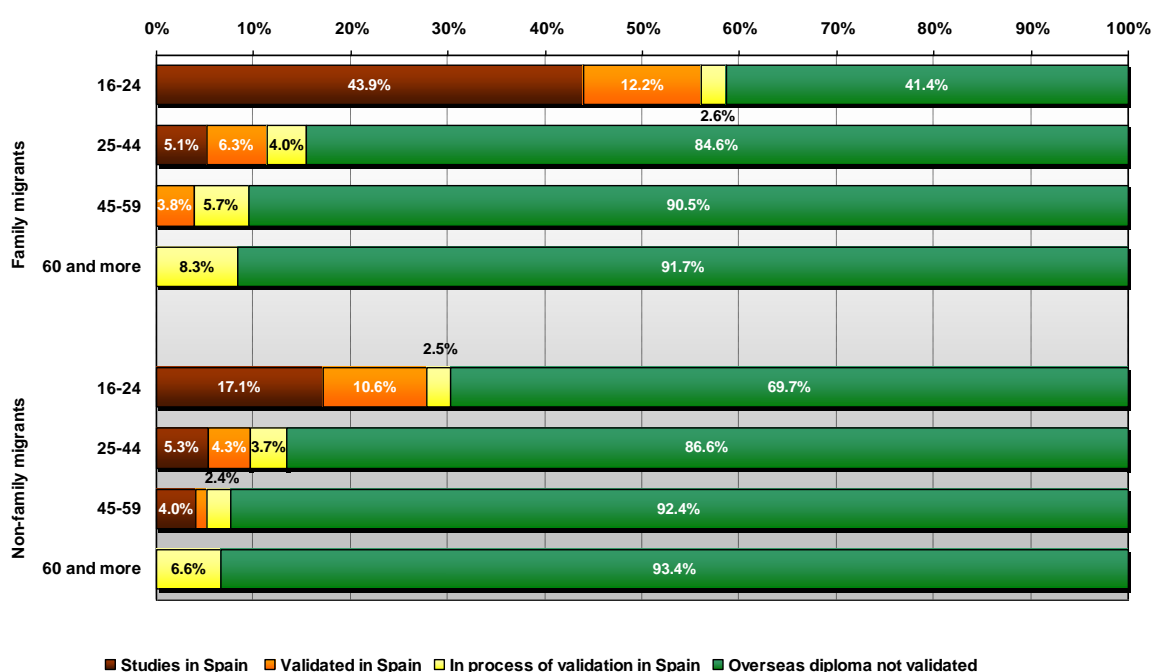


Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

These differences might be related, on one hand, to the fact that, as we already know, the age structure of family migrant population, is on average younger compared to the non-family migrant population. Therefore, there are proportionally more school-age children and youngsters among family migrants. On the other hand, given that family migration is usually planned for the long-term, we can expect that migrants would be more interested in obtaining host-country qualifications. Thirdly, another cause of differences observed in the Figure 4.4 may be related to motivations for family migrants. Given that the main reason for coming among family migrants is to avoid separation or to reunite with family member in order to continue or resume interrupted family life, we can expect that family migrants will have a higher share of participation in non-economic activities. Therefore, we can expect that among young family migrants we will observe a higher share of participation in schooling. Data in Figure 4.5, which show the distribution of family and non-family migrants with diplomas obtained or recognised in

Spain, confirm these hypotheses. The youngest (16-24 years old) family migrants are more interested in studying in Spain than their peers who did not come for family reasons. Almost half of the youngest family migrants obtained their highest education in Spain. This is in clear contrast to the young non-family migrants. In this specific category, only 17% reached their highest level of education in Spain.

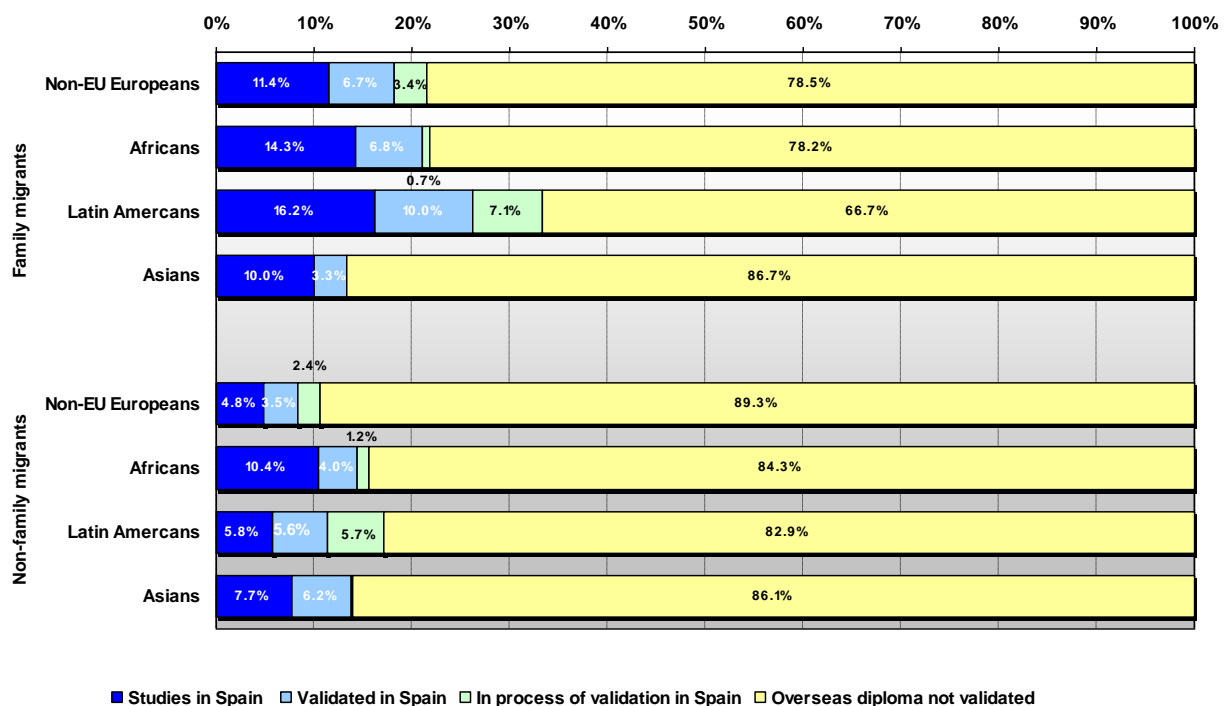
**Figure 4.5 Places where migrants obtained their highest level of education (by age)**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Differences regarding investment in host-country-specific skills persist if we break down our data by origin (Figure 4.6). In each origin group, the proportion of family migrants who completed their education in Spain is higher when compared to non-family migrants. In addition, it also seems quite clear that in the whole population of migrants who arrived in Spain for family reasons, Latin Americans are more inclined to obtain their highest educational diploma in Spain and to validate their overseas diplomas.

**Figure 4.6 Places where migrants obtained their highest level of education (by country of origin)**



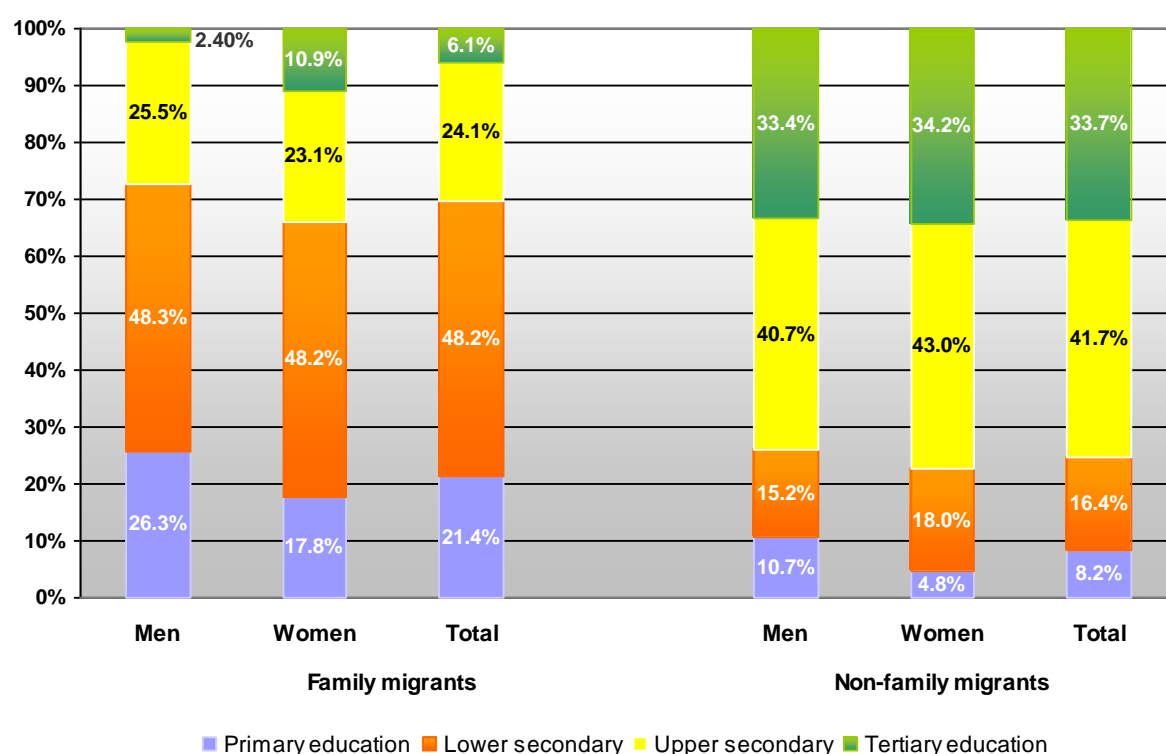
Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

If we take into account only migrants who obtained their diplomas in Spain, we can observe remarkable differences between family and non-family migrants regarding the highest educational level completed. Data in Figure 4.7 show that non-family migrants who obtained their diploma in Spain are better educated than family migrants. More specifically, family migrants whose highest qualifications at the time of the survey were primary or low secondary education account for approximately 70% of the total. In contrast, only 25% of non-family migrants with Spanish education declare having primary and secondary school diplomas. This educational gap is, at least partly, due to age structure differences. Therefore, we may assume that for at least a part of the population analysed the highest educational level declared at the time of the survey is not a definitive one.

In addition, if we compare the male and female population in each category, we observe that in the case of non-family migrants there are no significant differences. In contrast, some striking differences between men and women can be observed among family migrants. Compared to men, women have higher educational levels, especially when tertiary education is taken into account. When migrants who completed their highest education level in Spain are taken into

account, almost 11% of family migrant women obtained a tertiary level diploma. This is in clear contrast to men with a Spanish tertiary education, who account for only 2.5% of the male population of family migrants educated in Spain. If we combine the two highest educational levels (tertiary and upper secondary), women outnumber men by 6%.

**Figure 4.7 Level of education obtained in Spain by gender**

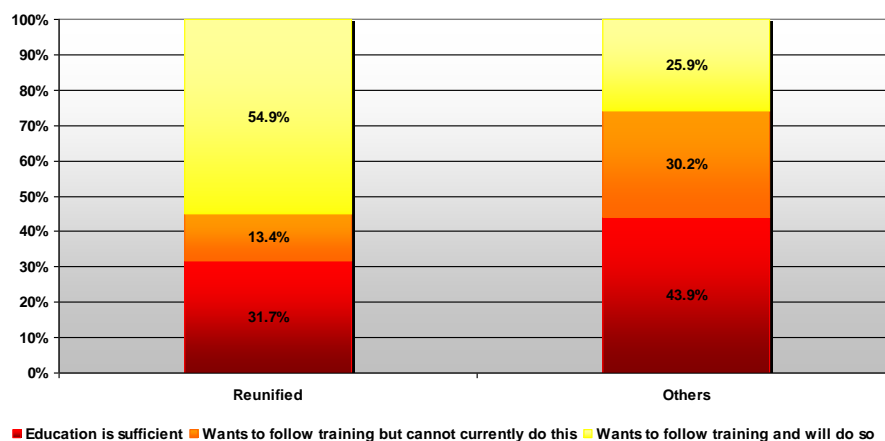


Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Our previous explanations for the striking differences between family and non-family migrants regarding obtaining education in Spain seems to be confirmed, to some extent, by the data on the willingness to continue education and training in the future, which are provided in the Figure 4.8. According to the Immigrant Citizens Survey ICS-2011, more than half of migrants who came under the family reunification scheme declared that they are interested in continuing their education and only a quarter of non-reunified migrants declared their willingness to continue their studies. Interestingly, the proportion of migrants who declared that they would like to continue improving their level of qualification but cannot currently do that is significantly lower than in case of other migrants.



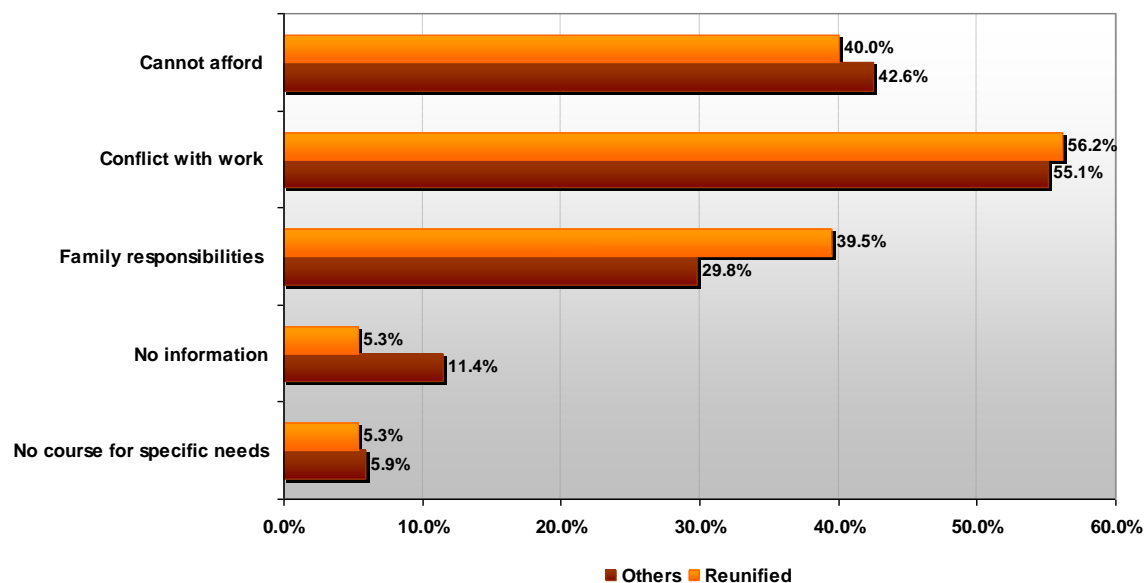
**Figure 4.8 Interest in continuing education and training**



*Immigrant Citizens Survey ICS-2011*

Figure 4.9 shows that, for both categories of migrants analysed in this study, the main obstacles for those who wish to continue improving their qualifications is a conflict with work and the costs of training. In addition, in 39.5% of cases, reunified migrants indicate family responsibilities as a factor that prevent them from accessing education and training, which contrasts clearly with 29.8% of cases among non-reunified migrants who report the same problem. On the other hand, reunified migrants seem to have better access to information on training opportunities, which may be related the impact of the family networks.

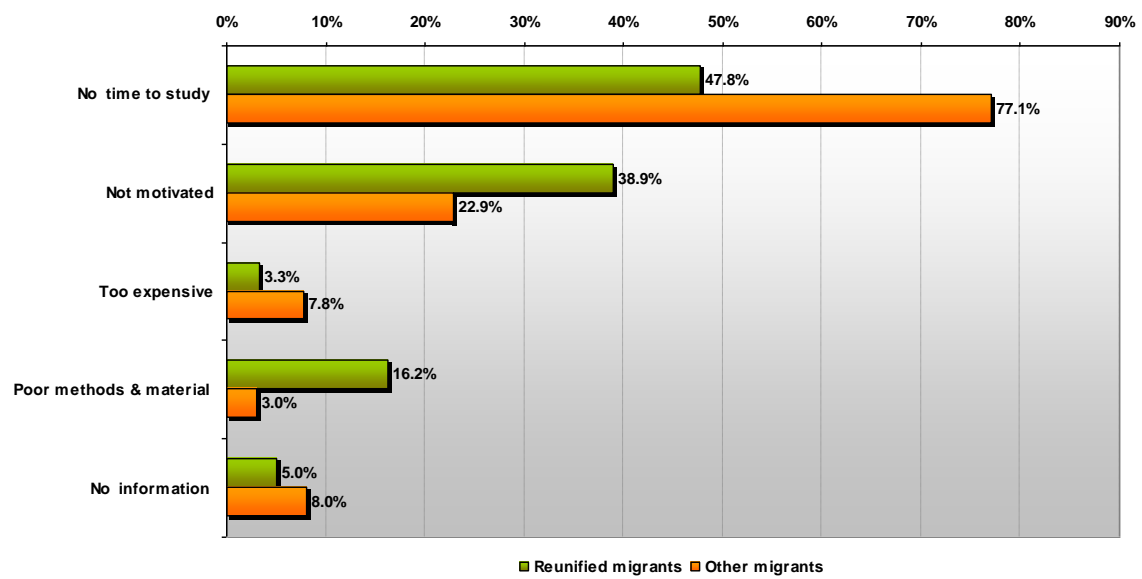
**Figure 4.9 Barriers in access to education and training**



*Immigrant Citizens Survey ICS-2011*

According to the SLFS, access to language courses among TCNs is very limited. Only 4.4% of family migrants and 3% of non-family migrants declare that they were participating at the moment of the survey or had been participating before in language courses provided through employment services, associations or private companies. In addition, Figure 4.10 shows the five main barriers perceived by family and non-family migrants according to the Immigrant Citizens Survey. The main self-perceived barriers faced by migrants are time constraints and a lack of motivation. Nevertheless, reunified migrants are less affected by lack of time for participating in language courses compared to other migrants. On the other hand, migrants who came to Spain under family reunification schemes seem to be more affected by the lack of motivation when compared to other categories of migrants.

#### 4.10 Self-perceived barriers in access to language courses (Spanish or Catalan)



*Immigrant Citizens Survey ICS-2011*

## 5. Socio-economic integration

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The migratory boom and the changing ethnic structure of the labour market have generated considerable interest among policy-makers and researchers. In recent years, several studies have been carried out in order to assess how foreign workers have fared in relation to Spanish citizens (Bernardi et al. 2011; Amuedo-Dorantes and De la Rica 2007). Although the patterns of post-migratory occupational adjustment seem to be fairly clear, there are still other aspects of how immigrants are integrated into the labour market that remain unknown. One such area is the phenomenon of family migration. In this part of the report we will explore socio-economic integration of family migrants in Spain. More specifically, we analyse levels of labour market participation, occupational attainments (in terms of occupational status and income) and institutional and non-institutional channels of labour incorporation.

### 5.1. Labour market participation

According to National Immigrants Survey (NIS-2007), labour market participation is substantially lower among migrants who arrived in Spain for family reasons compared to those who came for other reasons (Table 5.1). When all the TCN population is taken in to account, it can be observed that only approximately half of the family migrants were occupied at the moment of the survey. In contrast, three out of four non-family migrants were employed at the time of the study. Family migrants are more likely to stay at home looking after their families and also to be a full-time student. Several complementary hypotheses could be offered in order to explain the observed differences between labour market participation of family migrants and non-family migrants. Firstly, it should be taken into account that at a time of the survey reunified family migrants were not entitled to work during the first year of their residency in Spain. Therefore, the disparities may at least partly be explained as an effect of the restrictions on the access into labour market. Secondly, different motivations for coming to Spain also should be considered. In the case of family migrants, the main reason for immigrating is to avoid separation (in case of simultaneous migration) or to reunite with a family member who is already residing in the receiving country in order to continue or resume interrupted family life. Therefore, we can expect that family migrants will have a higher share of participation in non-

economic activities such as studying or housework. Thirdly, we can assume that family migrants find more difficulties to find and retain employment due to the structural constraints of the Spanish labour market. More specifically, the lack of institutional solutions to the problem of family and work balance in Spain - such as access to public nurseries, flexible schedules or more opportunities for part-time occupation - may drive family migrants out of the labour market (Meil Landwerlin et al. 2008). These hypotheses will be discussed again throughout this section.

Table 5.1. shows the remarkable differences between family migrant men and women<sup>4</sup>. On the one hand, the analysis shows that men have considerably higher rates of occupation than women. On the other hand, women are more likely to work as a housewife, while men are at a higher risk of becoming unemployed. More precisely, the proportion of unemployed among men is almost 7% higher than in the case of women. In contrast, almost 40% of women are taking care of their family members. These results suggest that the traditional division of productive and reproductive roles determines household strategies of economic participation. Women more frequently have to reconcile their economic activity with housework. One of the ways to avoid conflict with traditional family roles is to abandon or not to access to the labour market (Parella 2003). Secondly, not only do women have to reconcile their economic activity with housework, but they also have limited access to the resources needed to enter the labour market, such as social networks (Stanek 2011). Therefore housework seems to be a more frequent alternative to unemployment for women rather than men.

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<sup>4</sup> In addition, differences between men and women among non-family migrants also can be observed, but they are considerably lower.

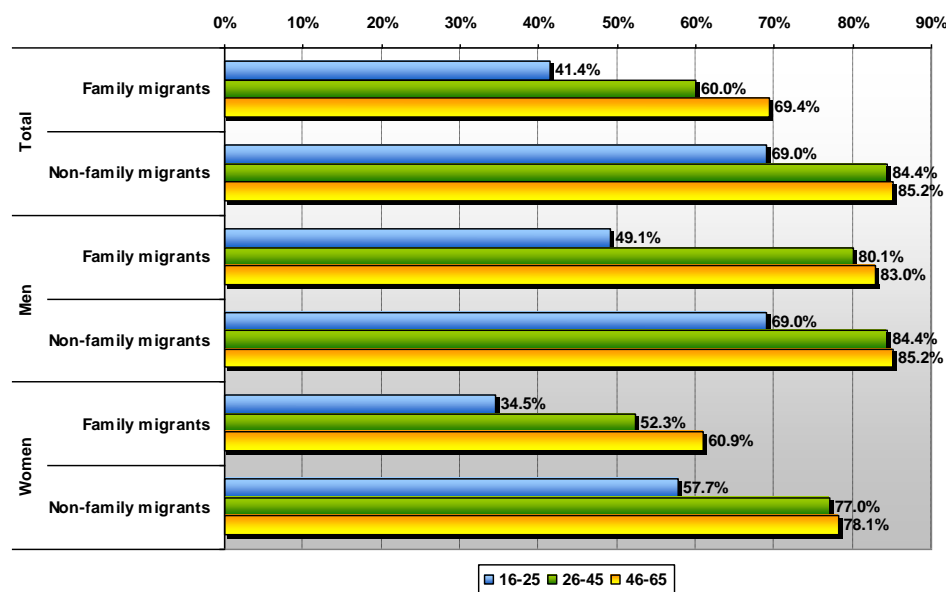
**Table 5.1. Labour market participation of migrants – total population**

Employment status	Family migrants			Non-family migrants		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Employed						
Employees	60	40.6	47.7	83.5	67.2	77
Self-employed	2.7	5.8	4.7	3.8	6.5	4.9
Unemployed	10.5	3.7	6.2	6	4	5.2
Retired	2.7	1.1	1.7	0.1	0.7	0.3
Housework	6.3	39	27	1.4	16.5	7.5
Studying	14.3	7.6	10	2.8	3.3	3
Other situations	3.6	2.3	2.8	2.4	1.8	2.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source : National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Figure 5.1 shows rates of participation of family migrants and non-family migrants in the labour market by gender and age, taking into account migrants at economically active ages (16-65). The comparison confirms some of the hypotheses presented previously. We observe that there is no important differences between family and non-family male migrants who are over 25 years old. Nevertheless, there is an important gap among younger male migrants. Whereas approximately 50% of male family migrants in the age group 16-25 are employed, almost 70% of non-family migrants declared being employed. These results confirm our hypothesis that family migrants are motivated to resume interrupted family life.

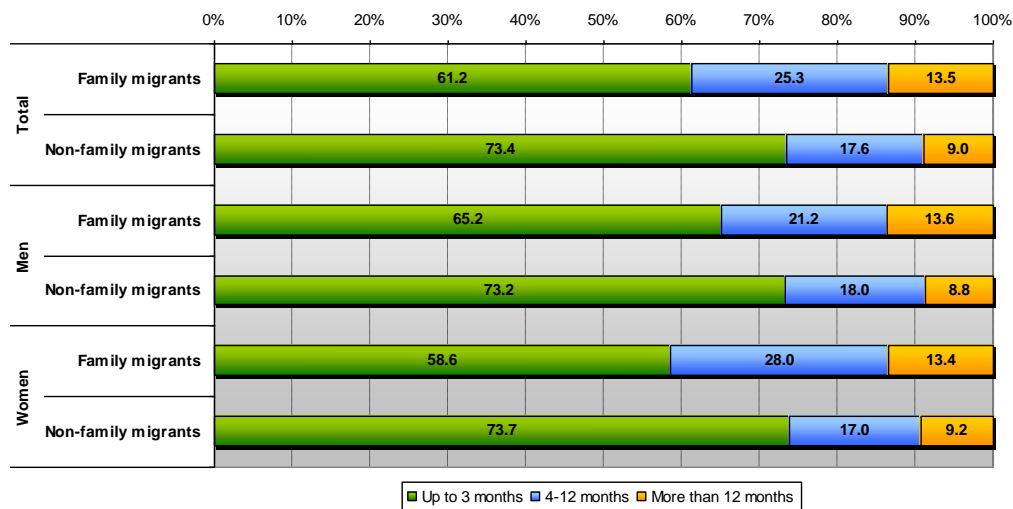
**Figure 5.1 Employment rate by gender and age group – only migrants in economically active ages (16-65)**



Source : National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

However, in the case of the female population, the pattern is not so clear. Figure 5.2 reveals significant differences between female family and non-family migrants in all age groups. Women who arrive in Spain when accompanying their family members or reuniting with them are less likely to enter and remain in the labour market. Of course, *motivational* hypothesis should not be ruled out. Nevertheless, a complementary explanation could be provided. More precisely, Figure 5.2 provides data on how long it took before a migrant found a first job once he or she begun to look for it. Only 58% of the female family migrants acquired a job in first three months, compared to 73% for non-family female migrants. These differences can be interpreted as a effect of the already mentioned structural constraints of the Spanish labour market that hinder their access to the labour market, as women are faced with the challenge of reconciling their economic activity with reproductive work at home.

**Figure 5.2 Time spent searching for a first job upon arrival – once a migrant begins to search for a job**



Source : National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Figures 5.3a-5.3b provide data on family and non-family participation in the labour market in relation to time spent in Spain. We pay special attention to Figure 5.3b, which illustrates how being unemployed relates to the time spent in Spain. Firstly and in both cases, time spent is negatively related to unemployment. In other words, as time of stay passes, both categories of migrants have lower likelihood of being unemployed. This pattern is additionally confirmed by Figure 5.3a, which shows rates of employment in relation to time spent in Spain. Secondly, Figure 5.3b shows very slight differences between family and non-family migrants who spent at least one year in Spain. Nevertheless, there are substantive differences in rates of unemployment between those who came to Spain for family reasons and those who for other reasons when only newcomers are taken into account. Approximately 7% of non-family migrants who spent less than one year in Spain were unemployed. Among newly arrived family migrants, nearly 15% declared that they were unemployed. Even more interestingly, this gap narrows considerably in the case of migrants who spent more than one year in Spain. To sum up, the data provided confirms that legal restrictions in the access to the labour market faced by the family migrants had a considerable impact on this group's labour market participation. It should be noted, however, that those restrictions have been removed by the reform of the Migration Law in 2009. Unfortunately, there is no recent statistical data available that would shed light on how this legal change has affected family migrants' participation in recent years.



### Figures 5.3a –5.3b Labour market participation in 2007 by time spent in Spain

Figure 5.3a Employed

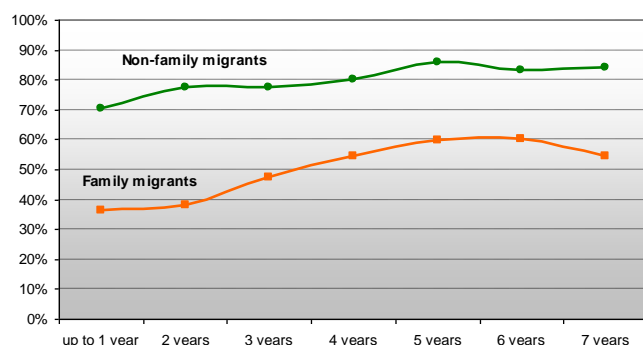
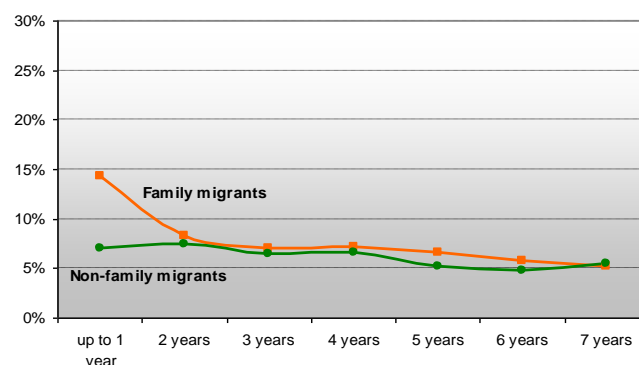


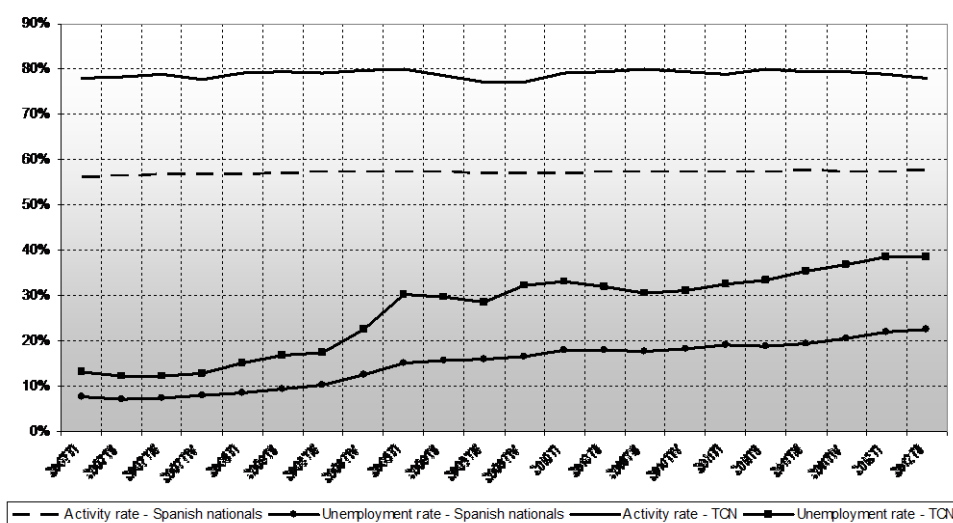
Figure 5.3b Unemployed



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Before we move on the next section, it should be stressed that the data we presented illustrates the labour market participation of migrants before the outbreak of the economic crisis. In the last few years, the Spanish economy experienced a sharp increase in unemployment rates (Garrido et al. 2010). An increase in the number of unemployed has been evident in all populations in Spain, but non-EU migrants residing in this country have been especially affected by this phenomenon. In addition, it has been observed that the percentage represented by the inactive population has decreased considerably. This change is a result of the coping strategies of household, as previously inactive family members try to enter the labour market as a response to the unemployment of the main breadwinner (Arango et al. 2012). Unfortunately, we can only provide information on general TCN immigrant populations as there is no available statistical data source where the category of family migrants could be identified.

**Figure 5.4 Evolution of activity rates and unemployment: Spanish nationals and non-EU nationals**



Source: National Statistical Office. Labour Force Survey 2007- 2012

## 5.2 Labour market attainment – occupational status and income

In order to explore the labour market attainment of family migrants in relation to non-family migrants, we will use two commonly used indicators. Firstly, we will analyse the occupational position within a broader socio-economic structure (Loury et al. 2005). Secondly, we will analyse income per hour, which is also commonly used as a gauge of social position and a mobility indicator (Borjas 1985; Allensworth 1997; Powers and Seltzer 1998; Chiswick 1978).

In order to explore the occupational position of migrants we made use of the European Socio-economic Classification (ESeC) schema. The ESeC schema was set to operationalise socio-economic positions in official microdata in a comparable way. Therefore it is particularly useful in cases of cross-country studies. The ESeC is based on theoretical assumptions derived from the Erikson-Goldthorpe-Portocarero (EGP) class scheme (Erikson and Goldthorpe 1992) in which socio-economic positions are defined by two main dimensions: the level of human capital a given job requires from the worker and how difficult it is for the employer to monitor the tasks performed by the worker (Rose and Harrison 2007).

Table 5.2 provides detailed information on the occupational distribution of migrants in Spain based on their family status. Data show most migrants are employed in low-skilled jobs in Spain regardless of their family situation. This is consistent with the results of other analyses of migrants' labour market attainments in Spain (Cachón 2009). Approximately 60% of working

family migrants are employed in unskilled and semi-skilled occupations. The proportion of workers in the lowest-ranking jobs is only slightly lower among non-family migrants. Consistently, no considerable differences between family and non-family workers have been observed, if gender is taken into account.

*Table 5.2 Occupational position – detailed ESeC categories (%)*

	Family migrants			Non-family migrants		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Large employers, higher managers/professionals	0.6	1.3	1	2.1	2.3	2.2
Lower managers/professionals, higher supervisory/technicians	0.2	2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Intermediate occupations (Higher-grade white-collar workers)	2.2	5.4	4	2.7	4.2	3.3
Small employers and self-employed (non-agriculture)	0.4	1.2	0.8	1.1	1	1
Small employers and self-employed (agriculture)	2.7	0.1	1.3	1.5	0.4	1.1
Lower supervisors and technicians	0.1	0	0.1	0.4	0	0.3
Lower sales and service	9.2	21.6	16.1	4	20.6	10
Lower technical	33.2	2.7	16.1	39.3	3.2	26.3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

*Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007*

Given the high concentration of migrants in medium- and low-skilled occupations and in order to simplify the following analysis in our model, we will use collapsed categorisation of three basic classes (see Table 5.3). The first category aggregates highly skilled non-manual workers and large employers; the second category aggregates lower ranking non-manual workers and skilled and semi-skilled manual workers; and the third category is made up of routine workers.

**Table 5.3 Occupational position – collapsed categories**

Detailed categorisation	Collapsed categories	Family migrants			Non-family migrants		
		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Large employers, higher Lower managers/professionals, higher supervisory/technicians Intermediate occupations (higher- grade white- collar workers)	Large employers, highly skilled	2.90%	8.60%	6.10%	6.00%	7.70%	6.60%
Small employers and self-employed Small employers and self-employed (agriculture) Lower supervisors and technicians Lower sales and service Lower technical	Semi- and low- skilled non- manual workers and skilled and semi-skilled manual workers	45.60 %	25.60 %	34.40 %	46.20 %	25.20 %	38.70 %
Routine	Unskilled manual workers	51.40 %	65.80 %	59.50 %	47.80 %	67.00 %	54.70 %

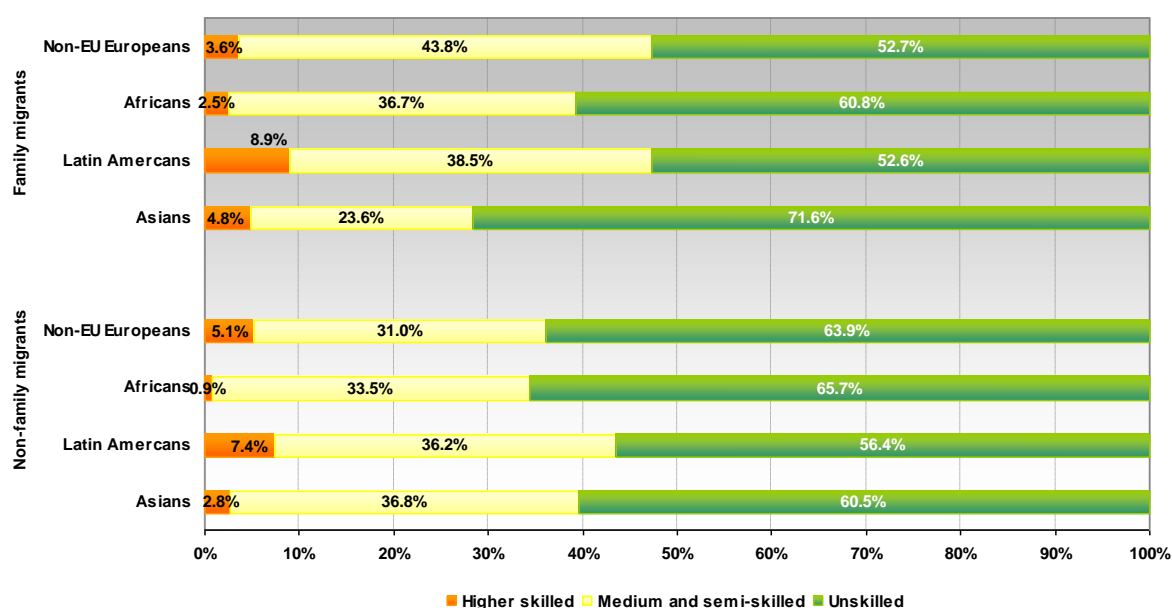
Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Labour market attainment is determined by the several factors such as the education level and origin- and host-country language fluency (Chiswick et al. 2003; Bernardi et al. 2011; Redstone Akresh 2008). In the next sections we will explore the extent to which the above-mentioned factors determine socio-economic integration of family migrants.

As far as origin is concerned, the occupational distribution of family and non-family migrants shows some particularities in specific groups (see Figure 5.5). The data shows that among non-EU European migrants, those who came for family reasons are less concentrated in unskilled occupations, compared to their non-family counterparts. In addition, it should be observed that non-European family migrants find more occupational opportunities in medium- and semi-skilled

occupations than any other origin group. On the other hand, however, their chances to obtain a job in highly skilled occupations are relatively low. Asians are another group with relatively large differences between family and non-family migrants. However, by contrast to non-EU European migrants, Asian family migrants have a higher likelihood of working in the lowest ranking jobs compared to the non-family migrants. Finally, in the case of Latin Americans and Africans, differences between family and non-family migrants are relatively low.

**Figure 5.5 Origin and occupational position**

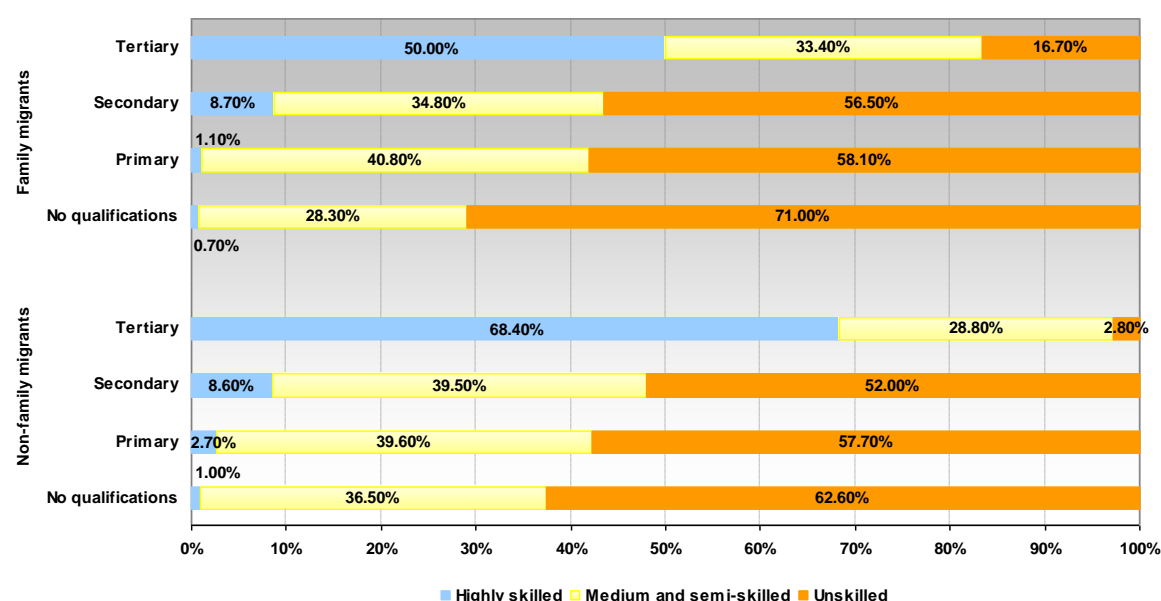


Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Figure 5.6 shows the migrants' occupational attainment in relation to their education. In case of migrants with primary and secondary education, no considerable differences can be observed. However, some differences are observed among migrants with tertiary education and with no education. First of all, the data show that family migrants with this level to education are more exposed to an education-occupation mismatch in comparison to non-family migrants. Approximately 68% of non-family migrants with tertiary education work in highly skilled occupations. This is in clear contrast with the occupational distribution of family migrants with this education level, in which case only 50% succeed in achieving employment in the highest-ranking jobs. On the other hand, almost 17% of highly educated family migrants ended up in unskilled occupation, against 3% of non-family migrants. Secondly, among migrants with the

lowest levels of education, family migrants seem to have a higher probability of ending up in unskilled jobs and a lower probability of working in highly skilled occupations when compared to non-family migrants with the same educational characteristics.

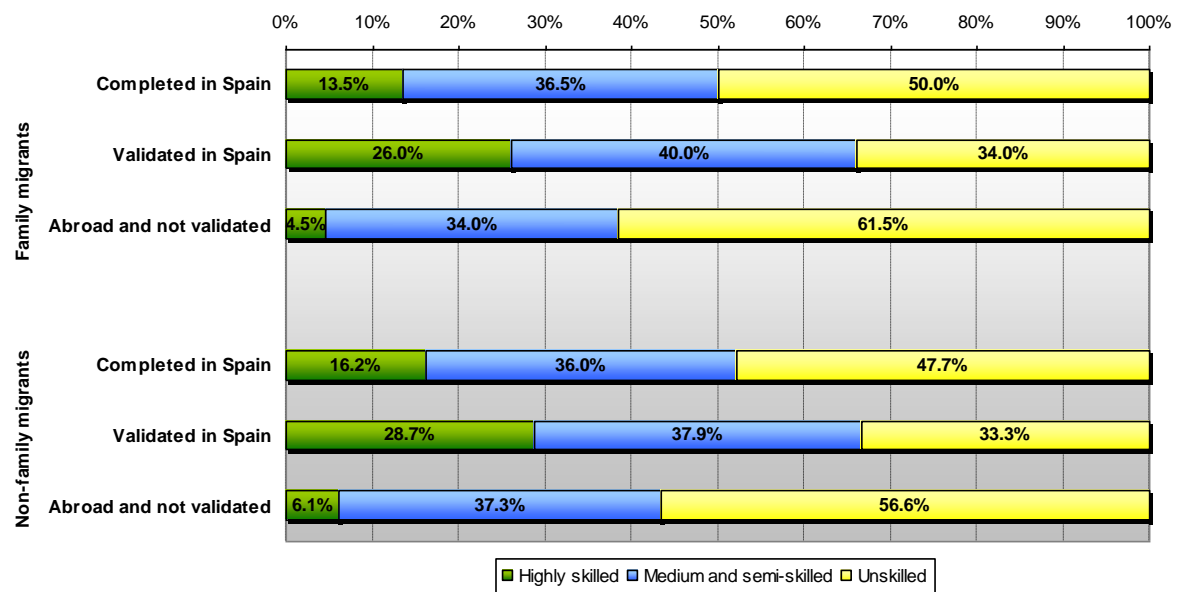
**Figure 5.6 Education and occupational position**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

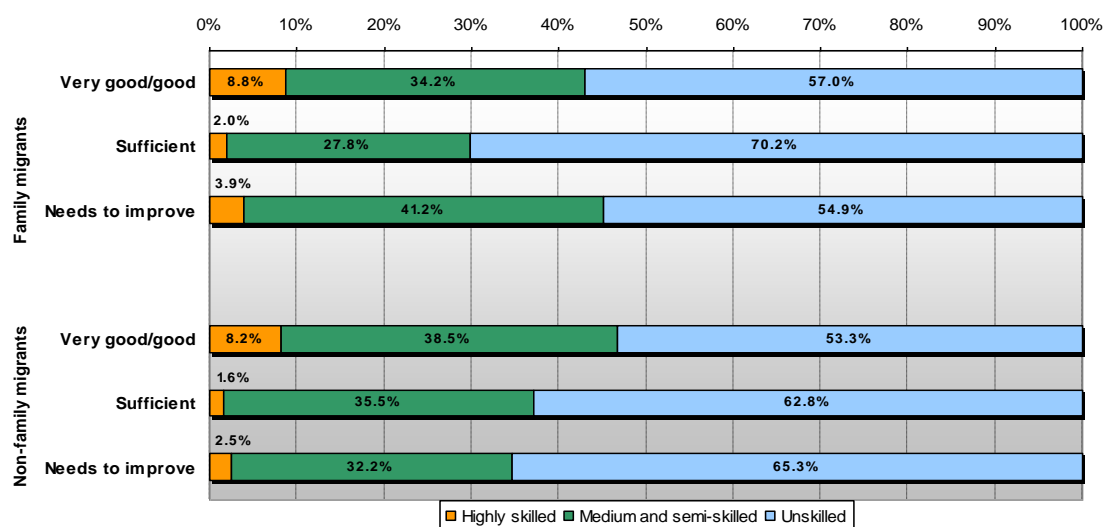
In the next two figures we explore the relationship between occupational attainment and the other features of the migrants' human capital. Figure 5.7 shows the relationship between the occupational status and the country where the education was completed. In this domain there are no considerable differences between family and non-family migrants. For both categories, completing studies in Spain or validating overseas education imply higher chances of working in highly skilled occupations. Similarly, Spanish language competence has no differentiated effect on the family and non-family occupational position (see Figure 5.8).

**Figure 5.7 Occupational position and the country of education/validation of diploma**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

**Figure 5.8 Occupational position and language fluency (only non- Spanish-speaking countries)**

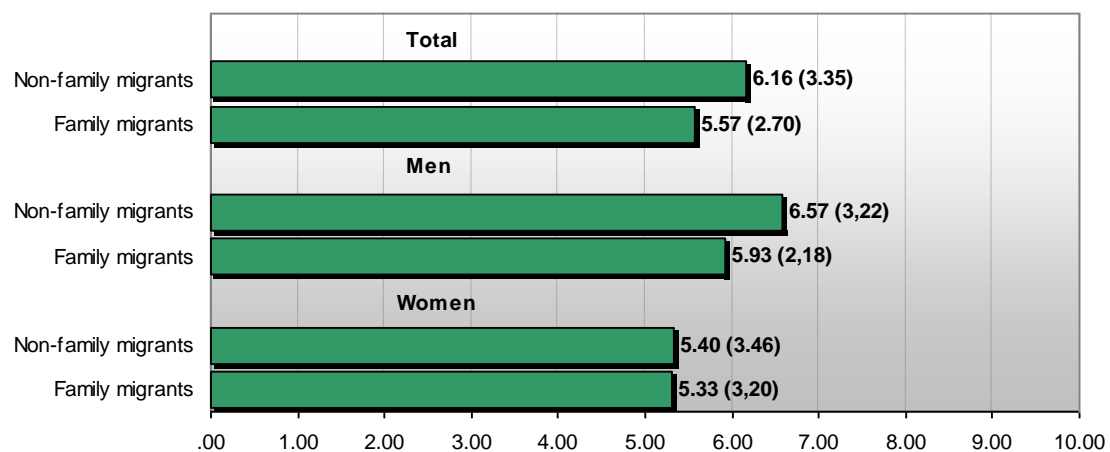


*National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007*

Now we will focus on income as an indicator of the situation of migrants in the socio-economic structure in Spain. Figure 5.9 shows the average hourly pay in the principal occupation declared by respondents in the National Immigration Survey NIS-2007. The comparison between categories of migrants who came to Spain for family reasons and those who came for any other reason reveals that, on average, non-family migrants have significantly higher incomes from their principal jobs. Those differences do not persist if we analyse differences between those two categories of migrants desegregating our sample by gender. There is still a significant difference among men, but the income of women in both categories is nearly the same. On the other hand, if we compared hourly pay between men and women within each category, it can be easily seen that the gender gap among family migrants is lower than among non-family migrants.



**Figure 5.9 Average hourly net pay in principal occupation by gender (Euros)\***



\*Standard deviation in brackets

Total t-test = -2.890\*\*

Men t-test= -3.436\*\*

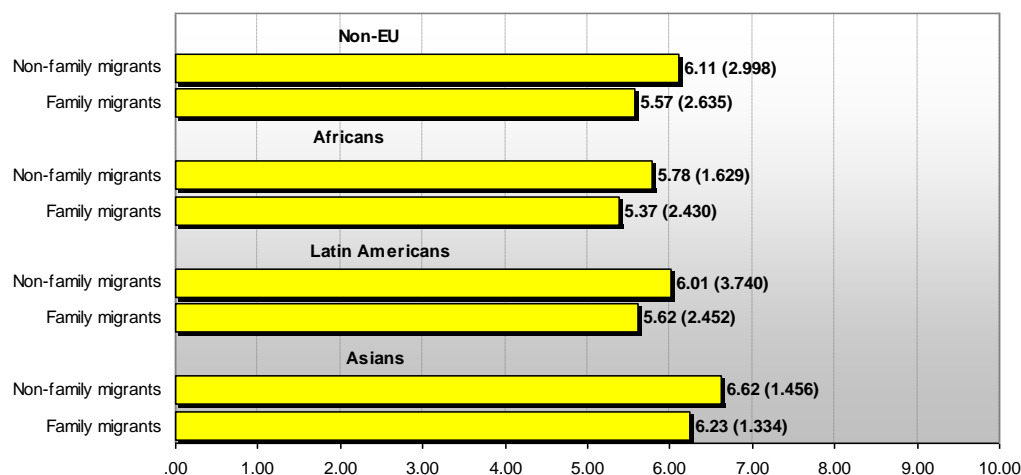
Women t-test= 0.195

Levels of significance: \*\*\* at 1%, \*\* at 5%, \* at 10%

Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

If we analyse differences between family and no-family migrants among origin groups, it can be seen that within each category there is an income gap between family and non-family migrants. Nevertheless, statistical testing reveals that only among non-EU European migrants and Latin Americans are those differences statistically significant.

**Figure 5.10 Average hourly net pay in principal occupation by origin (Euros)\***



\*Standard deviation in brackets

Non-EU t-test = -2.695\*

Africans t-test = -1.484

Latin Americans t-test = -2.095\*

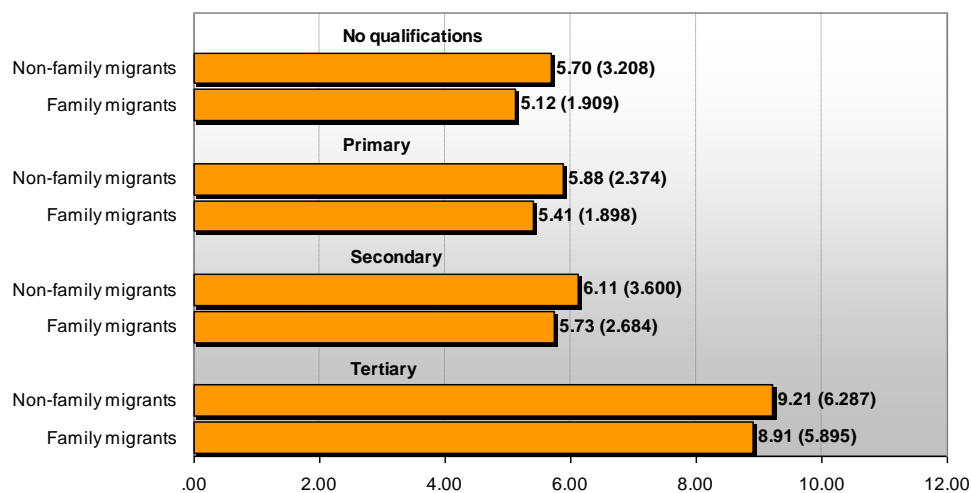
Asians t-test = -.884

Levels of significance: \*\*\* at 1%, \*\* at 5%, \* at 10%

Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

As shown in Figure 5.11, the educational level, a basic indicator of the human capital, seems to have a significant impact on the net pay of migrants only in case of migrants with tertiary education. Hourly net pay of migrants with this level of education is on average €3 higher than the hourly wage of migrants with secondary education, regardless their migratory status. This wage gap contrasts remarkably with the relatively small differences observed among the remaining educational categories. On the other hand, there are no statistically significant inequalities between hourly net pay of the family and non-family migrants. However, it should be also taken into consideration that even if those differences are slight and not statistically significant, they are still observable in each educational category.

**Figure 5.11 Average hourly net pay in principal occupation by education level (Euros)\***



\*Standard deviation in brackets

No qualifications t-test= -2.263

Primary t-test=-2.113

Secondary t-test= -2.154

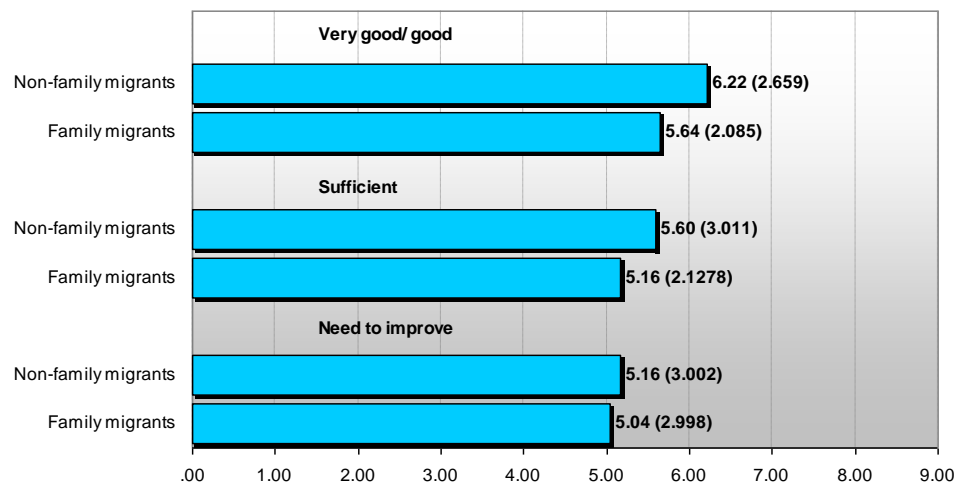
Tertiary t-test=-0.884

Levels of significance: \*\*\* at 1%, \*\* at 5%, \* at 10%

Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

Figure 5.12 shows that the Spanish language competence is statistically associated with migrants' income. The hourly pay of employed migrants who declared very good or good knowledge of the Spanish language was higher than the hourly pay of migrants who need to improve their language in order to communicate better. Data also show that outcomes based on Spanish language fluency are unequal when we consider family and non-family migratory status. More specifically, migrants who came for family reasons and who declared that their fluency in Spanish was very good, good or sufficient obtained significantly lower income when compared to non-family migrants who declared the same level of language competence.

**Figure 5.12 Average hourly net pay in principal occupation by fluency in Spanish (Euros)\***



\*Standard deviation in brackets

Very good/ good t-test= -3.092\*\*

Sufficient t-test=-1.840\*

Needs to improve t-test= -.208

Tertiary t-test=-0.884

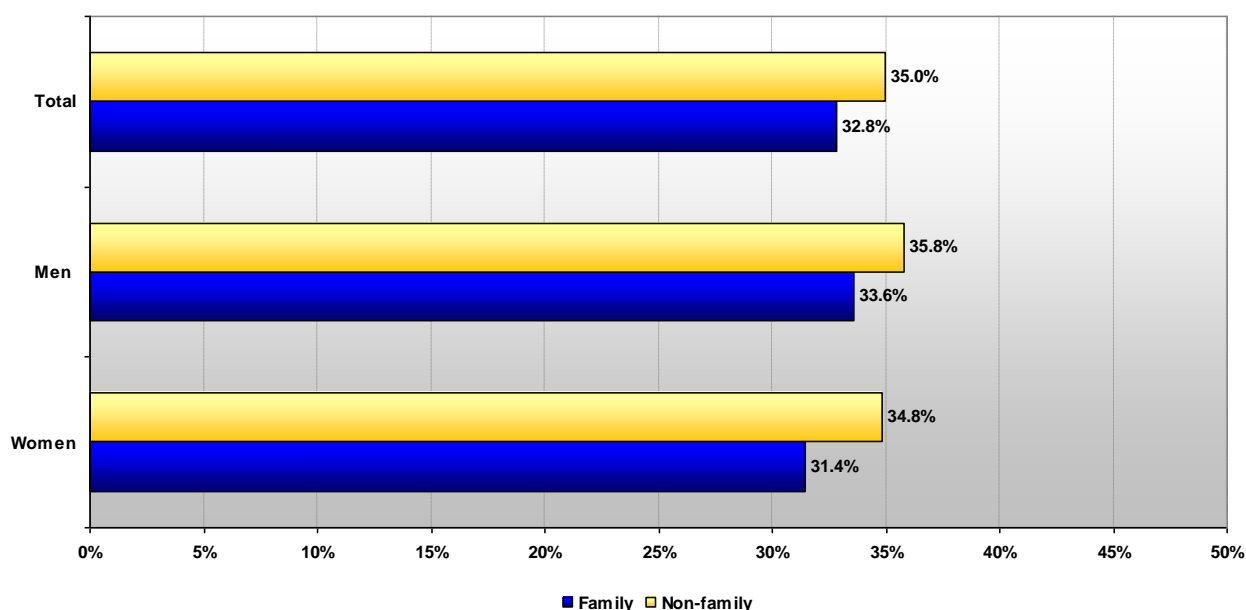
Levels of significance: \*\*\* at 1%, \*\* at 5%, \* at 10%

Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

### 5.3. Sources of assistance in finding employment

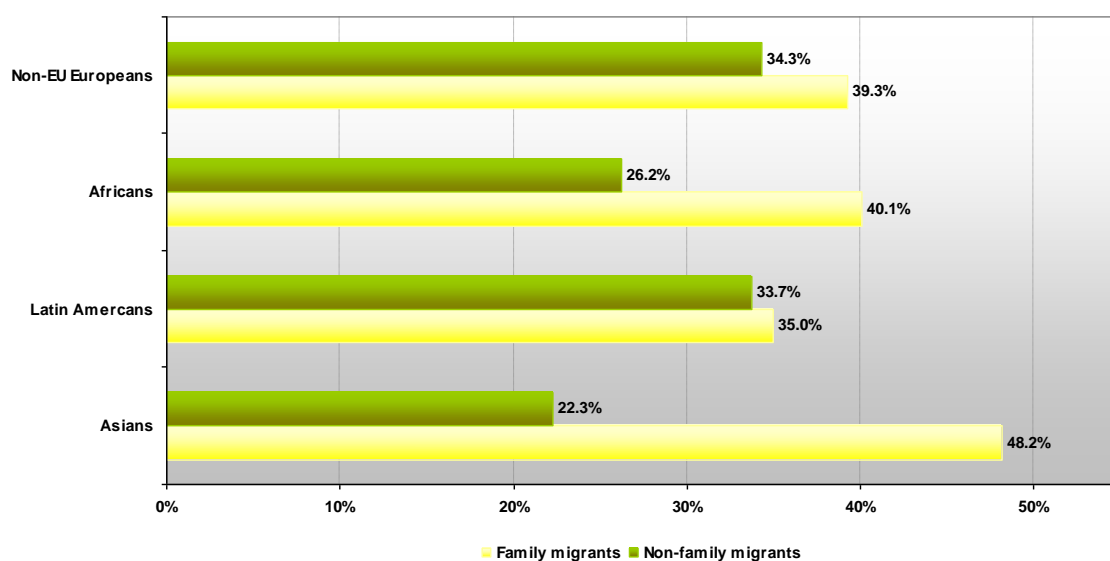
In this section we compare institutional mechanisms to gain access to the labour market used by family and non-family migrants. As shown in Figure 5.13, the percentage of family migrants within economically active population who declared having received any assistance (institutional and non-institutional) is slightly smaller in comparison to non-family migrants. As can be expected, those differences can be observed also when we break down our data by gender. In addition, Figure 5.14 shows important differences between family and non-family migrants when we account for the country of origin. More specifically, family migrants depend more on assistance in seeking jobs than non-family migrants. Differences are especially striking in the case of Africans and Asians, where differences between these two categories of migrants are 14% and 26%, respectively.

**Figure 5.13 Migrants who received assistance in seeking employment**



Source: Labour Force Survey LFS- 2008

**Figure 5.14 Migrants who received assistance in seeking employment by country of origin**

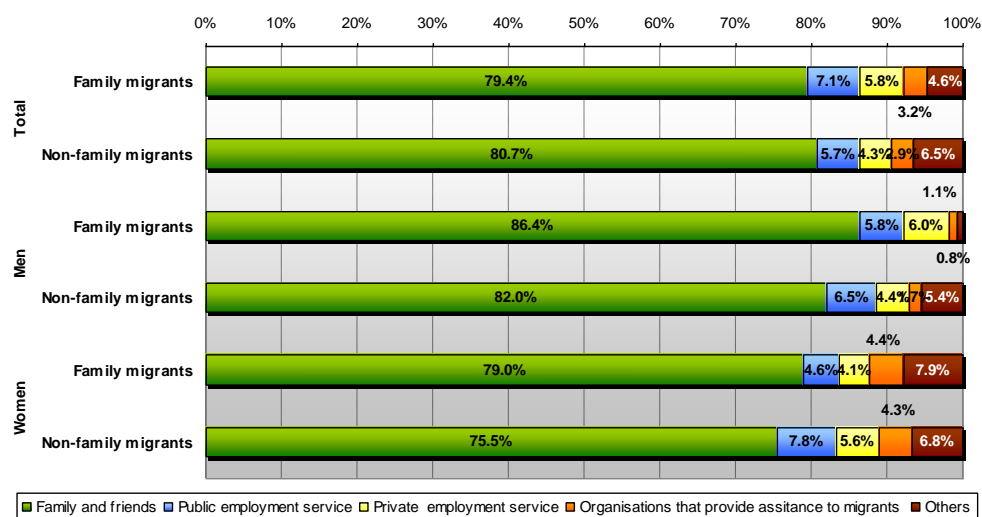


Source: Labour Force Survey LFS- 2008

Data on sources of assistance received in finding employment shown in Figure 5.15 demonstrate that migrants rely mainly on their social networks, regardless of their family or non-family status. The proportion of migrants who received any kind of assistance in order to find a job is very similar when family and non-family migrant categories are compared.

However, when data is broken down by gender some interesting patterns can be observed. On a general level, men use informal channels of assistance more frequently than women. Male family migrants are especially dependent on social networks. Among those migrants, more than 86% used family and friends to seek a job in Spain. Non-family male migrants depend on informal structures slightly less (82%). Finally, the comparison of sources used by migrants reveals that family migrants rely more on family and friends than non-family migrants do within each gender category. These results are consistent with previous findings that show that public services for employment within the Spanish social protection system have had a relatively small impact on migrant labour market integration (Moreno and Bruquetas 2011; Cachón Rodríguez 2009).

**Figure 5.15 Sources of assistance received in finding employment by gender**



Source: Labour Force Survey LFS- 2008

## 6. Civic participation

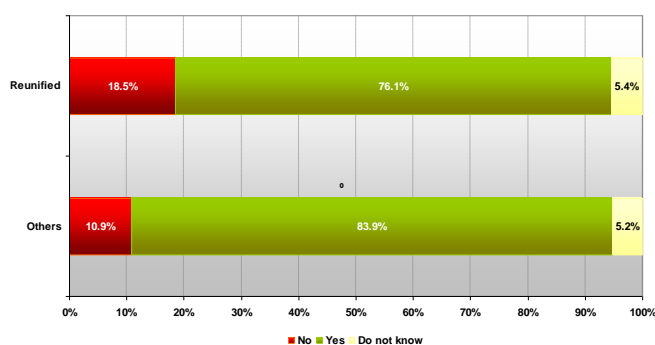
This section addresses issues of migrants' civic participation and specifically voting in general and local elections, and involvement in civil society activities.

### 6.1. Participation in general and local elections

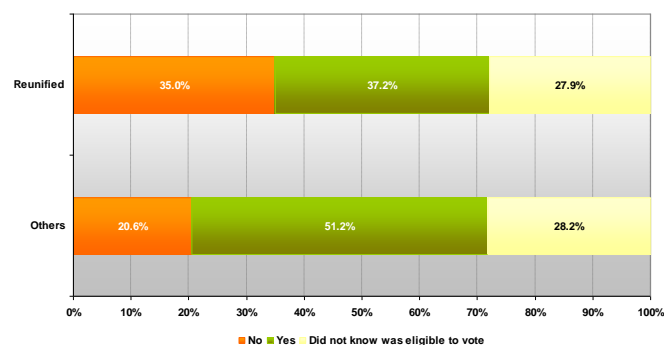
According to ICS-2011, a vast majority of migrants express an interest in voting in general elections. It should be added that in this case all respondents participating in the survey were asked regardless of whether they were entitled to vote or not. On a purely declarative level, reunified migrants are less inclined to participate in elections. Similarly, if we move from hypothetical cases to the real behaviour, we can observe that family migrants are less disposed to exercise the right to vote in general elections. Among reunified migrants entitled to vote in the election<sup>5</sup> before the ICS-2011, only 38% stated having voted, which contrasts clearly with voter turnout of non-reunified migrants, which was more than 51%.

**Figures 6.1a and 6.1b**

**Figure 6.1a Would you vote if there were general election tomorrow? (all migrants)**



**Figure 6.1b Voting in last national elections (only migrants with Spanish nationality)**

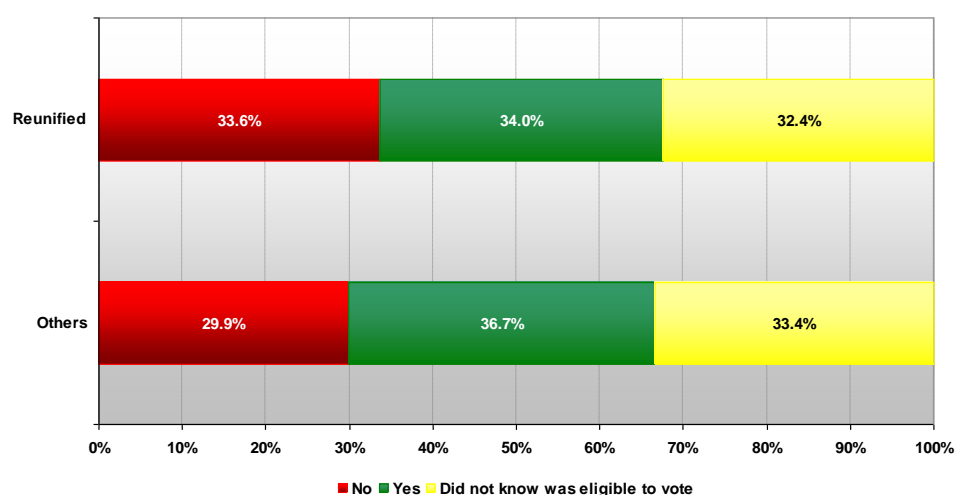


*Immigrant Citizens Survey ICS-2011*

<sup>5</sup> Only migrants with Spanish nationality included

Since 2011 documented immigrants who have resided for at least five years in Spain are entitled to vote in local elections. Nevertheless, the right to vote in local elections is limited to non-EU citizens whose countries had previously signed an agreement with the Spanish government. In 2011, the list of countries included Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Equator, Paraguay, Peru, Cape Verde, Iceland, Norway and New Zealand. The Immigrant Citizens Survey provides information on participation in the last local election that took place in May of 2011. According to the data presented in Figure 6.2, the proportion of reunified migrants who voted in local election was slightly lower than other migrants (respectively 33.6% and 29.9%).

**Figure 6.2 Voting in May 2011 local elections\***



\*Sub-sample only includes naturalised migrants and migrants from countries mentioned above that signed an agreement with the Spanish government

*Immigrant Citizens Survey ICS-2011*

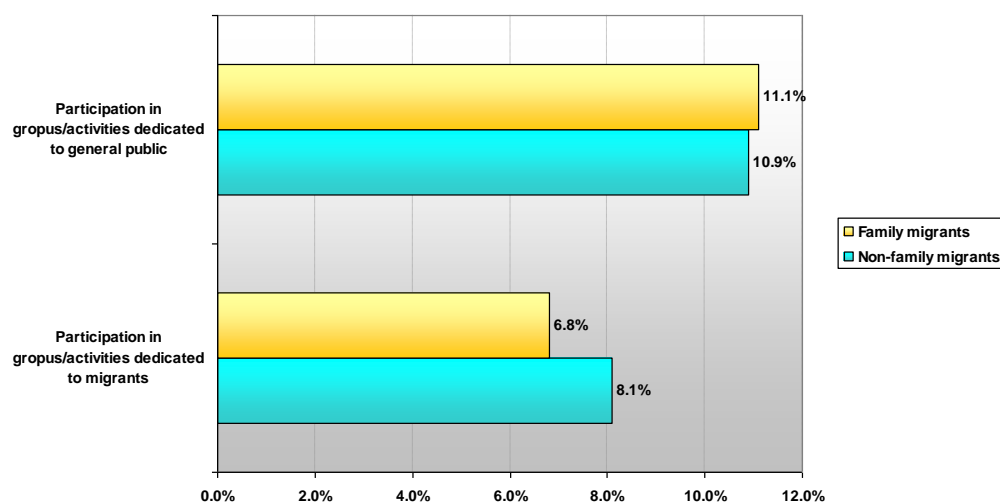
## 6.2. Participation in civic activities and groups

Data provided by National Immigrant Survey ENI-2007 show that participation in the activities of civil society groups, associations, political parties and trade unions is very low (Figure 6.3). Analysis shows a relatively low level of involvement in civic activities dedicated to the general public (NGOs, political movements and parties, and religious, cultural, educational and sporting groups and associations). Approximately 11% of all migrants declared that they had participated in at least one such group or entity. No differences between family and non-family groups have



been observed. Participation in activities addressed specifically to migrants is even lower. Only 6.8% of family migrants and 8.1% of non-family migrants declared involvement in such activities.

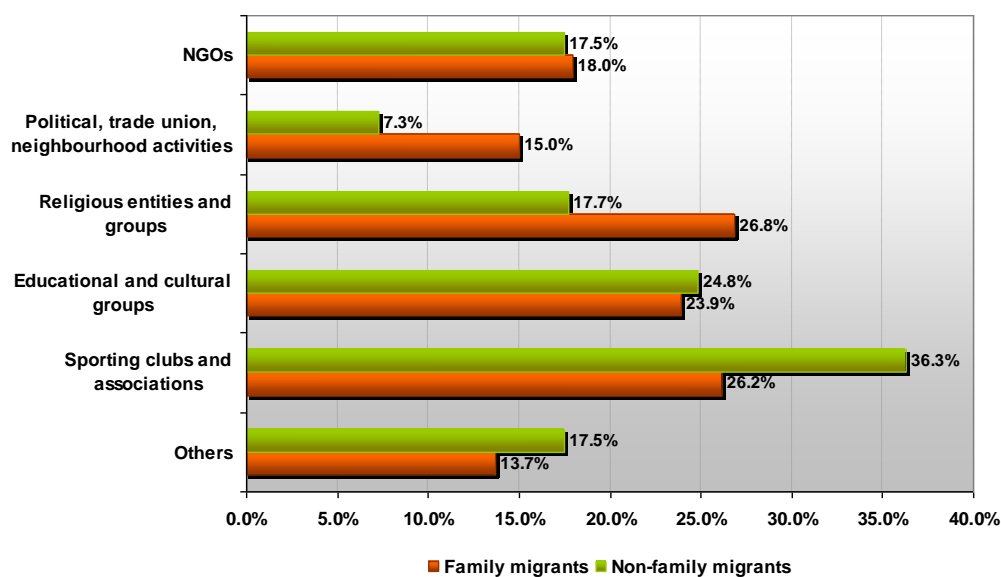
**Figure 6.3 Declared participation civil society activities**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

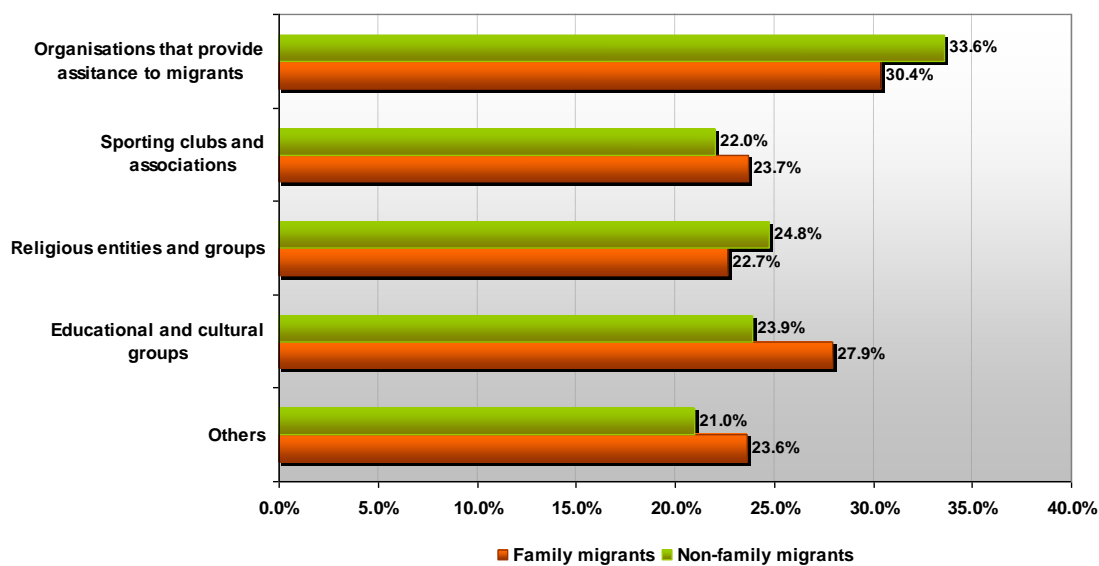
Among activities dedicated to the general public, migrants participate mainly in sporting clubs and associations as well as religious, educational and cultural groups and activities. Interestingly, when compared to other migrants, those who came for family reasons show more involvement in religious activities but are less interested in sporting activities. On a general level, migrants are also interested in participation in groups that provide assistance to the migrant population. It can be also observed that non-family migrants are slightly more involved in such activities. We can suppose that the activity of such organisations constitutes to some extent a substitute for family network support. On the other hand, family migrants are more involved in educational and cultural activities addressed to migrant communities.

**Figure 6.4a Participation in specific activities and groups – general public**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

**Figure 6.4b Participation in specific activities and groups addressed to migrants**

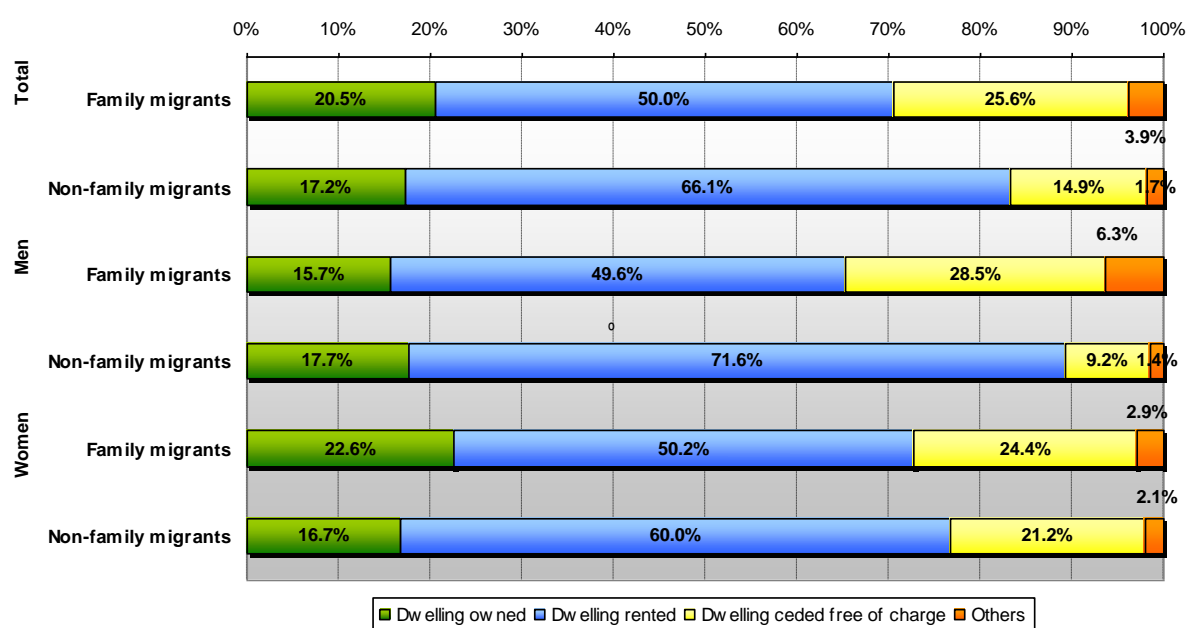


Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

## 7. Housing

According to the National Immigrant Survey, among family migrants there are more dwelling owners compared to non-family migrants (20.5% against 17.2%). In addition, more than a quarter of family migrants occupy dwellings ceded to them free of charge. Among non-family migrants, the proportion of those who accessed the same housing is 10% lower. As can be expected, non-family migrants are more likely to live in rented flats or houses. Almost two out of three non-family migrants live in rented dwellings. This is in clear contrast to family migrants, half of whom are in this situation.

**Figure 7.1 Access to dwelling by gender**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

When we take gender into account, differences between family and other migrants persist, but some interesting patterns can also be pointed out. More specifically, dissimilarities between these two categories of migrants are more pronounced in the case of men. Male migrants who arrived in Spain for family reasons depend strongly on housing that was ceded to them free of

charge (28%). On the other hand, they are less likely to rent when compared to their non-family counterparts.

If we compare types of dwelling across gender categories, other differences surface. Interestingly, female family migrants form a category with proportionally more access to ownership. Almost 23% of women who came to Spain for family reasons reported living in their own dwelling, which is approximately 7% more than in the case of male family migrants.

Table 7.1 sheds more light on migrants' modes of access to housing. It provides a detailed categorisation within each general type of access to housing discussed previously. Among the home owners, a vast majority still have to pay off the mortgage. No differences between family and non-family migrants can be pointed out in this regard. Similarly, there are no considerable differences in ways both categories access rented accommodation. It should be observed that a vast majority of family and non-family migrants who lived in rented dwellings at the moment of survey had dealt directly with the landlord (approximately 82% and 85%, respectively). As shown in Table 7.1, using the services of a real estate agency is the second most relevant modality of accessing accommodation through renting. More than 13% of family migrants and 11% of non-family migrants obtained their dwelling this way within this category. Finally, it should be also highlighted that access to rented housing through a public institution is extremely low (less than 1% among family and non-family migrants who rented their dwelling). This confirms that the involvement of Spanish public institutions in covering migrants' housing needs is very limited, as already mentioned in previous IMPACIM documents<sup>6</sup>.

Unlike previous cases, some important differences between family and non-family migrants can be pointed out among migrants who were occupying dwellings free of charge at the moment of survey. In this regard, those migrants who arrived in Spain for family reasons and accessed housing free of charge rely, above all, on family members (89%). In the case of non-family migrants, the sources of rent-free housing are much more diverse. Besides family, non-family migrants rely on friends to access such housing (16%). In addition, almost a third of non-family migrants within this category reside as in-house employees. It should be mentioned that this group consists mainly of women working in domestic service.

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<sup>6</sup> See for instance IMPACIM WP3 Spanish national report

**Table 7.1. Access to dwelling by gender**

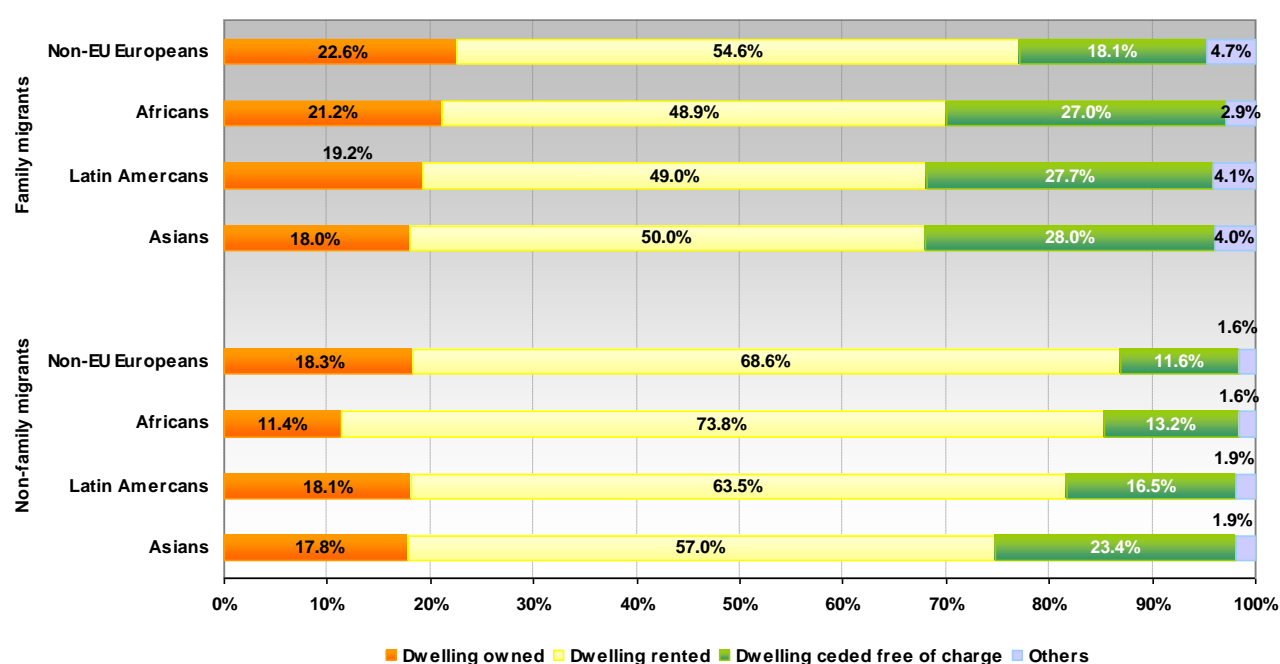
Type of housing	Family migrants	Non-family migrants
<b>Dwelling owners</b>		
Completely paid or inherited	5.90%	6.30%
With payment pending	94.10%	93.70%
<i>Total</i>	100%	100%
<b>Renting</b>		
Rented from a private owner	81.80%	84.90%
Rented from a real estate agency	13.10%	11.40%
Rented from a public institution	0.80%	0.50%
Rented from an employer	0.90%	0.60%
Sub-rented from another inhabitant	2.80%	2.40%
Others	0.70%	0.30%
<i>Total</i>	100%	100%
<b>Let free of charge</b>		
By a family member	89.20%	40.50%
By a friend	2.40%	16.60%
By an institution or company	2.60%	11.60%
Reside as in-house employee	5.80%	31.3%
<i>Total</i>	100%	100%

*Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007*

Finally, in Figure 7.2 we explore ways family and non-family migrants access housing in relation to their country of origin. In all the origin categories, family migrants depend more on access to housing let free of charge, in comparison to those migrants who did not come for family reasons. In addition, in all categories of origin, non-family migrants depend more on rented housing. Among family migrants, non-EU Europeans are a group that takes the least advantage of charge-free housing and has the highest levels of home ownership and housing rental. In this

regard, non-European family migrants differ slightly from the rest of the origin categories, which are relatively homogeneous. If we explore the data across origin and migratory status, we can observe some differences in access to ownership. Within the African immigrant community, the gap between family and non-family migrants who are home-owners is the largest among all origin groups. More than 21% of African family migrants **own their** housing against 11.5% of African non-family migrants. In the case of other origin groups, differences between family and non-family migrants are less pronounced. Latin American and African family migrants depend strongly on dwellings ceded free of charge, which differentiates them clearly from their non-family counterparts. Differences between Asian family and non-family migrants are less prominent compared with the rest of origin groups.

**Figure 7.2. Access to dwelling by origin**



Source: National Immigrant Survey NIS-2007

## 8. Conclusions

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In this report we undertook an analysis of the available statistical datasets in order to establish links between migratory status (family or non-family) and integration outcomes – particularly in areas of employment, access to education, political and civic participation, and housing. In order to make our analysis as insightful and comprehensive as possible, we compared family and non-family migrants' integration outcomes.

Family-related regular migration has never become a predominant pattern of migratory inflows into Spain, unlike other EU countries. At least three main reasons can be pointed out. Firstly, migratory flows are a relatively recent phenomenon, therefore the principal migratory current has been composed by the primary migrants, mainly male or female breadwinners that assumed the risk related to the initial migration (Requena and Sánchez-Domínguez 2011). Secondly, family members willing to go to Spain had strong incentives to enter the country on tourist visas and overstay illegally, especially if they were interested in working. Thirdly, although the share of regular family migration in the total migratory stream had been growing as result of the gradual social and economic integration of primary migrants in the second half of the previous decade and there were changes in policies regarding family reunification, this trend was arrested by the economic downturn. As shown in our analysis, since 2009 visas issued for family reunification reasons have been decreasing in both absolute and relative terms. On the other hand, permits issued for family reunification and for international students' family migrants have not experienced major changes in absolute terms since 2009.

Regarding demographic composition, female family migrants outnumber the male population in absolute and relative terms. In addition, an analysis of age and gender shows that family migration is not only a feminised phenomenon but also mostly linked to marriage strategies and reunification of spouses. It can be observed that nationals from four countries - Morocco, Colombia, Ecuador and China - accounted for more than 60% of all reunified migrants in 2011. Catalonia and Madrid are the two regions where approximately half of all reunified family migrants settled.

On average, family migrants have lower levels of education. This educational gap may be related to some extent to the fact that an important proportion of family migrants are still of schooling age and have not finished their educational cycle. Our analysis shows that differences between nationalities are more important than those related to migratory status. Regarding Spanish language knowledge, differences are relatively small. However, when gender is considered, female family migrants seem to have significantly lower levels of linguistic competence compared not only with male family migrants but also with non-family female migrants.

Regarding the acquisition of the host-country-specific skills and education, we observe that, compared to non-family migrants, a significantly higher proportion of family migrants reached their highest educational level in Spain or validated their diplomas in this country. On the one hand, this phenomenon can be explained as a result of the greater proportion of children and youngsters in the age structure. On the other, we consider that those differences are related to family migrants' life strategies.

On a general level, family migrants have shown relatively lower participation in the Spanish labour market compared to non-family migrants. A more detailed examination showed that this gap is particularly pronounced in the case of the youngest cohorts and female population. We consider that these inequalities are due, at least to some extent, to:

- (a) restrictions in the access to the labour market for reunified family migrants that were in force at the moment of the survey,
- (b) the higher disposition of family members to be involved in non-economic activities (studying, housework) as a result of the decision-making within the household, and
- (c) the higher risk of finding themselves out of the labour market as a consequence of the lack of an institutional solution to the problem of family-work balance in Spain.

Regarding labour market participation, as far as occupational position is considered, no significant differences have been found. Both, family and non-family migrant workers are concentrated mostly in low-ranking occupations. Furthermore, the data analysis reveals that the proportion of women in unskilled position is considerably higher when compared to men, regardless of their family or non-family status. The results of our exploration of labour market



participation seem to be more conclusive when income is taken into account. Non-family migrants have significantly higher incomes than family migrants. However, those differences arise mainly from the income gap between family and non-family male migrants. Interestingly, educational level does not have a differentiated impact on labour market participation in terms of occupational position or in terms of income. The only exceptions to this are family migrants with tertiary education whose chances to obtain highly skilled jobs in Spain are lower in comparison to their non-family counterparts. The country of origin plays a limited role in differentiating family and non-family migrants' labour market participation. However, non-EU European non-family migrants seem to be more successful in the Spanish labour market than their family migrant counterparts.

Our analysis of the institutional and non-institutional channels of access to the labour market shows that migrants rely mainly on their social networks, regardless of their family or non-family status. The proportion of migrants who received assistance in order to find a job is very similar when family and non-family migrant categories are compared.

The analysis shows a relatively low level of involvement in civic activities such as voting in local elections or participation in civil society groups and organisations among both categories of migrants. However, non-family migrants seem to be slightly less involved in civic activities.

We observed interesting differences in patterns of access to housing between family and non-family migrants. The proportion of housing owners is slightly higher among family migrants. In addition, family migrants are more likely to live in a dwelling that was ceded free of charge. These differences are most pronounced among male migrants. Finally, we observe that access to rented housing through public institutions is extremely low (less than 1%) for both categories, which confirms that the involvement of Spanish public institutions in covering migrants' housing needs is very limited.

To conclude, the analysis of the available data showed that the differentiation between family and non-family migration is not a decisive factor that conditions migrants' integration outcomes in Spain. On a general level, our study suggests that gender, country of origin and educational level seem to have a more important impact on social and economic adaptation in Spain than family or non-family migratory status. We can see this pattern as a consequence of the fact that, as already pointed out in previous IMPACIM documents, regulation of family migration has usually been a marginal aspect in Spanish legislation, since the main interest has focused on

economic migration in relation to the needs of the labour market. Therefore, access to entitlements and restrictions in the access to specific rights and benefits mainly depends on the administrative situation of migrants (i.e. temporary or permanent resident permit) regardless of their family or non-family migratory status. Nevertheless, there are some dimensions of the migrants' integration process where being a family migrant seems to play an important role. This is the case where there are remarkable inequalities in the labour market participation between family and non-family migrants. As stated above, we interpret those differences as a result of the contextual (restriction in the access to the labour market that remained in effect until 2009), structural (lack of consistent family policies in Spain) and individual (individual or households' decisions) factors. Another area where the distinction between family and non-family migrants is noteworthy is access to education. Migrants who arrived for family reasons seem to be more interested in obtaining Spanish education or at least validating their overseas diploma. We consider that this difference is related on the one hand to the younger demographic structure and on the other to specific family and migratory decisions.

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