

EU-MIDIS II



Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey

Migrant women – selected findings



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Introduction

Women and men with immigrant backgrounds across the European Union (EU) experience how their rights are respected in different ways, FRA's second EU Minorities and Discrimination survey (EU-MIDIS II) shows. The agency published its main results in 2017.¹ This report summarises some of the most relevant survey findings with regard to differences in women's and men's experiences. They show the need for targeted, gender-sensitive measures that promote the integration of – specifically – women who are immigrants or descendants of immigrants. Such action would also contribute to Member States' efforts to reach the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) of the global Agenda 2030 – in particular SDG 5, which requires countries to 'achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls'; and SDG 10, which requires countries to 'reduce inequality within and among countries'.²

The need for such measures was already highlighted in a previous FRA report,³ which examined national action plans and strategies on the integration of third-country nationals and found little evidence of any gendered approach or specific focus on women, despite a range of positive initiatives and good practices (mostly at local level).⁴ More recently, in May 2018, the European Court of Auditors in their briefing paper on immigrant integration also found that only seven EU countries include specific actions or an important part of funding targeting women migrants in their integration policies.⁵

This report examines the results of EU-MIDIS II in relation to immigrants and descendants of immigrants⁶ in 19 EU Member States (Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Germany, Denmark, Greece, Spain, Finland, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Sweden, Slovenia and the United Kingdom).⁷ Among the 16,149 EU-MIDIS II respondents with an immigrant background, half are women (50 %); however, there are substantial variations across countries and the survey's

target groups.⁸ The analysis examines the situation of the women surveyed as compared to that of men, as well as compared with the situation of women from the general population, where feasible. This evidence is useful for European institutions – in particular the Commission, which promotes more gender sensitive migrant integration policies through its ongoing dialogue with Member States, especially concerning actions co-financed through EU funds.⁹ The data, disaggregated by gender and by target group, are, however, particularly useful for Member States, as they can assist them in designing gender sensitive measures targeting the different needs of women of diverse immigrant origins living in the EU.

The report builds on earlier publications based on EU-MIDIS II survey data¹⁰ and examines the following areas in a series of chapters:

- Legal status and main reason for migrating;
- Education;
- Employment;
- Discrimination, harassment, violence and rights awareness;
- Values and attitudes.

International human rights framework and EU policy and law on gender and migrant integration

Respecting and promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls is an issue of fundamental human rights. All EU Member States are bound by the principle of non-discrimination on the ground of sex as firmly entrenched in all core international human rights instruments, such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights,¹¹ the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights,¹² the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination

1 FRA (2017a).

2 United Nations, General Assembly, Resolution (2015), [Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development](#), A/RES/70/1.

3 FRA (2017b), p. 7 and pp. 30-31.

4 See examples of such initiatives on the [European website on integration](#).

5 European Court of Auditors (2018), p 1.

6 See Annex II of EU-MIDIS II main results report (FRA 2017a) for more information on the composition of the EU-MIDIS II sample, which was drawn on the basis of region/country of origin and not on the basis of legal status.

7 The EU-MIDIS II survey covered Roma minorities in nine EU Member States. In April 2019, FRA issued a [report on Roma women](#) based on the survey results.

8 For example, in Cyprus the share of women surveyed (of Asian descent) was 64 % of the sample, while in Ireland, 56 % of persons of African descent surveyed were women, and in the United Kingdom, 55 %. On the other hand, the proportion of women in the sample was lower than that of men among persons of African descent in Denmark (31 %) and in Austria (26 %). In two countries the proportion of women in the sample was particularly low: in Greece, concerning immigrants of south Asian origin (5 %); and in Malta, concerning immigrants of Sub-Saharan African origin (6 %). See Annex II of the EU-MIDIS II main results report for a description of the sample, including countries/regions of origin in each Member State covered in this survey.

9 European Commission (2016).

10 FRA (2017a), FRA (2017b), FRA (2018).

11 [International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights](#), Art. 2, 3 and 26.

12 [International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights](#), Art. 2(2).

against Women,¹³ the Convention on the Rights of the Child¹⁴ and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.¹⁵ This principle is equally embedded in the European Convention on Human Rights¹⁶ and the Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence¹⁷ of the Council of Europe.

Equality between women and men is also at the core of the European Union's values.¹⁸ This is enshrined and reflected over time in its legal and political framework since 1957. Today, equality between women and men is a horizontal principal and a main objective for the EU covering all areas of life.¹⁹ In this respect, Article 21 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, which is legally binding for EU institutions and Member States when they act in the scope of EU law, prohibits any discrimination based on sex, while Article 23 requires that equality between men and women is ensured in all areas, including employment, work and pay.²⁰ Article 23 of the EU Charter also allows the adoption or maintenance of positive action in favour of the under-represented sex in a certain area.

The EU has developed over the years robust legislation to promote equality between women and men and to combat discrimination on grounds of sex, in particular in the area of employment. Several legislative measures contribute to this objective. For example, Directive 2006/54/EC focuses on equal opportunities and equal treatment of women and men in employment,²¹ Directive 2010/41/EU provides for the application of the principle of equal treatment between women and men in the area of self-employment,²² and Directive 2004/113/EC aims to implement the principle of equal treatment between women and men in the access to and supply of goods and services.²³ In relation to

violence against women, the Victims' Rights Directive (2012/29/EU) reinforces their rights as victims throughout all criminal justice proceedings.²⁴

The principle of gender equality is also part of the European Pillar of Social Rights, proclaimed in 2017 as a non-legally binding document, that embeds however a strong political commitment by all EU institutions and Member States.²⁵

At the policy level, the "Strategic engagement for gender equality 2016-2019"²⁶ of the European Commission in line with the 2011-2020 European Pact for Gender Equality²⁷ aims to increase female labour-market participation and the equal economic independence of women and men; reduce the gender pay, earnings and pension gaps and thus fight poverty among women; promote equality between women and men in decision-making; combat gender-based violence; and protect and support victims.

Despite these efforts, and although more than 9 in 10 Europeans believe that promoting gender equality is important to ensure a fair and democratic society,²⁸ progress remains slow according to the Commission's stocktaking report for 2018 on equality between men and women in the EU: "progress is moving forward at a snail's pace and in some domains is even going backwards".²⁹ Moreover, while the Council of the EU sent a strong political signal by adopting in May 2017 a decision on the EU signing the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence, the so-called Istanbul Convention,³⁰ this has not yet been possible due to strong objections by certain Member States, which contend that it contains provisions challenging traditional family 'values'.³¹

While all women are to a greater or smaller extent affected by inequalities in all the twelve critical areas identified in the Beijing Platform for Action, women who have an immigrant background face multiple challenges: as women, as migrants and as members of an ethnic minority, among others. Women who

13 [Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women](#), Art. 2.

14 [Convention on the Rights of the Child](#), Art. 2.

15 [Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities](#), Art. 3 and Art. 5.

16 [European Convention on Human Rights](#), Art. 14.

17 [Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence](#), Art. 14.

18 [Consolidated Version of the Treaty on European Union \(TEU\)](#), OJ 2012 C 326, Art. 2.

19 [TEU](#), Art. 3(3).

20 [Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union](#), OJ 2012 C 326, Art. 21, 23.

21 [Council Directive 2006/54/EC of 5 July 2006 on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation \(recast\)](#), OJ 2006 L 204, 26 July 2006.

22 [Directive 2010/41/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 7 July 2010 on the application of the principle of equal treatment between men and women engaged in an activity in a self-employed capacity and repealing Council Directive 86/613/EEC](#), OJ L 180, 15 July 2010.

23 [Council Directive 2004/113/EC of 13 December 2004 implementing the principle of equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services](#), OJ 2004 L 373, 21 December 2004.

24 [Directive 2012/29/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2012 establishing minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA](#), OJ 2012 L 315, 14 November 2012.

25 [Interinstitutional Proclamation on the European Pillar of Social Rights](#), OJ C 428, 13 December 2017.

26 [European Commission \(2016b\)](#).

27 [European Council \(2011\), Conclusion of 7 March 2011 on European Pact for Gender Equality \(2011-2020\)](#), OJ C 155, 25 May 2011.

28 [Special Eurobarometer \(2017\), 465, Gender Equality](#).

29 [European Commission \(2018b\)](#).

30 [Council of the European Union \(2017\), Decision 2017/865](#).

31 [European Parliament \(2019\), Resolution on the situation of fundamental rights in the European Union in 2017](#), P8_TA-PROV(2019)0032, Strasbourg, 16 January 2019.



migrate or are descendants of migrant women constitute a diverse group: they originate from different countries and have different citizenship and residence status. Some came to the EU to work to cover labour shortages in the healthcare or service sectors, others to work as highly skilled employees, and others as family members. About a third, on average, are highly educated, while some have qualifications that are not recognised in the EU.³² In addition, some women born in non-EU countries arrived on their own, or with their husbands and/or children, seeking international protection. These women, according to the OECD,³³ constitute a sizeable group in the EU, which could grow further through family reunification.

In 2004, the EU Council adopted the common basic principles (CBP) for immigrant integration,³⁴ reaffirmed in 2014.³⁵ The CBPs are considered to be complementary and “in full synergy” with existing EU objectives on gender equality. Among others, they call for both migrant men and women to exercise their rights and respect their responsibilities in relation to their new country of residence; they identify education, especially for

children and women, as a priority area for policy intervention; and underline the responsibility of Member States to ensure that cultural and religious practices do not hamper equality of women and do not prevent them from exercising their rights.

In the 2016 EU action plan on the integration of third-country nationals, the European Commission refers to the special attention that Member States should pay to gender aspects and the situation of migrant women when designing and implementing their integration policies and their relevant funding initiatives.³⁶ In this respect, the European Commission identifies the need to ensure access to language courses for women, and recalls that all children, regardless of their family, cultural background or gender, do have the right to education. In addition to language skills and education, the integration of migrant women in the labour market is defined as an area of particular focus. Furthermore, the action plan calls for measures in regard to care provision and support services for women, and measures to prevent gender-based violence.

32 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2018).

33 Liebig, T. and K. Tronstad (2018).

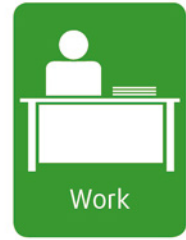
34 Council of the European Union (2004).

35 Council of the European Union (2014), [Council conclusions of the Council and the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States on the integration of third-country nationals legally residing in the EU](#), Justice and Home Affairs Council Meeting, Luxembourg, 56 June 2014.

36 European Commission (2016a).

1

Legal status and main reason for migrating



This chapter presents some important gender differences related to legal status, main reason for migration, and aspects of family reunification.

Residence and citizenship status define rights entitlements. Individuals without a legal right to stay in the country and those holding residence permits of limited duration have access to fewer rights than those with unlimited residence or, especially, those who are national citizens. In this respect it is worth mentioning that EU law ensures integration measures only for those legally residing in EU Member States.³⁷ The legal status that immigrants and descendants of immigrants have is therefore important for developing effective integration policies.

While defining the conditions and procedures for granting citizenship and determining the number of third-country nationals coming to Member States for work reasons falls within national competences, there is EU law governing conditions of entry and residence status of third-country nationals legally residing in the EU, as well as their rights, including their freedom of movement and residence in other Member States.³⁸ For example, the Single Permit Directive³⁹ provides for a common minimum set of rights for third-country workers residing legally in EU Member States. The Long-term Residence Directive⁴⁰ provides additional rights to those who have acquired a long-term residence status.

Both directives contain equal treatment clauses in several areas of life, such as employment and working conditions, recognition of diplomas and professional qualifications, education and vocational training, and tax benefits. The directive on long-term residents sets out reinforced rights, including protection from expulsion, as well as for the conditions to move and reside in another Member State.

Taking into consideration that more women than men come to EU Member States as family members, of particular importance for them is Directive 2003/86/EC on family reunification adopted in 2003. The directive was adopted as a means to facilitate migrant integration, and lays down the conditions for third-country nationals residing legally in the EU to exercise their right to family reunification. In addition to the conditions for family reunification, the directive provides for the rights that family members may enjoy when entering and establishing themselves in the host Member State. More specifically, it recognises their rights to access education, to access employment and self-employment activities, or to access vocational guidance and training.

The EU-MIDIS II survey covers a diverse range of immigrants with different migration histories in terms of the time and reasons for immigration. The sample includes women and men from 121 countries of origin, most from Morocco and Turkey and many from Somalia, Nigeria, Pakistan and Bangladesh. The countries of origin vary within the EU, reflecting country-specific migration patterns. For example, 60 % of respondents with Sub-Saharan origin in Austria come from Nigeria, while in Denmark, 91 % of this group come from Somalia. In Germany, the countries of origin of immigrants of Sub-Saharan origin are more dispersed, with most coming from Eritrea (19 %), Ghana (18 %) and Togo (11 %).⁴¹

37 Consolidated version of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU), OJ 2012 C326, Art. 79(4).

38 TFEU, Art. 79.

39 Council Directive 2011/98/EU of 13 December 2011 on a single application procedure for a single permit for third-country nationals to reside and work in the territory of a Member State and on a common set of rights for third-country workers legally residing in a Member State, OJ 2011 L 343.

40 Council Directive 2003/109/EC of 25 November 2003 concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents, OJ 2004 L 16.

41 FRA (2017a), pp. 83-85.

Country of origin is often linked to the religious affiliation of immigrants and descendants of immigrants surveyed in EU-MIDIS II: when asked about their religion, the majority of the respondents with migrant background (first-generation and second-generation respondents) identify as Muslim (72 % of women and 74 % of men).

The length of residence and the period of immigration also vary, as the time respondents immigrated was influenced by different historical, political and legal circumstances. Successive immigration movements to the EU started in the 1960s (e.g. with predominantly men immigrating from north Africa to France) and 1970s and 1980s (e.g. mostly labour emigration from Turkey to Austria, France, Germany and the Netherlands, among others, under the so-called “guest-worker” system which favoured men). Women and children followed in the context of family reunification in the 1980s and 1990s after which time an increasing share of women came both as family members and independently. In the past 20 years, immigrants from Sub-Saharan Africa came mainly to Austria, Germany, Ireland and Italy. In the EU-MIDIS II sample of first-generation immigrants, 39 % arrived before the 1990s, 20 % during the 1990s, and 41 % after 2000.⁴²

Overall, 60 % of women and 54 % of men respondents have acquired citizenship of their country of residence.⁴³ Among first-generation immigrants, slightly more women (45 %) have citizenship than men (40 %), with stronger gender differences among immigrants of Sub-Saharan origin in Finland, Ireland and Sweden – with women indicating they are nationals at higher rates than men. About 74 % of all first-generation survey respondents have secure residence: 10 % have a residence permit valid for more than 5 years and 18 % a permit valid for less than 5 years. On average, women slightly more often have long-term residence permits or have obtained citizenship in the country of residence, but there are significant country differences. Practically all respondents of immigrant descent, namely born in the EU, have a secure residence status, regardless of gender, and 87 % are citizens of their country of residence.

In 2017, according to Eurostat, family-related reasons accounted for 26.5 % of first residence permits, a rise of 6.3 % from 2016, which were issued by 23 EU countries (Figure 1). Some 35.9 % of the permits for family-related reasons were issued to women and 20.8 % to men. The share of first residence permits issued to women for employment, on the other hand, is 30.6 % – compared to 49.3 % of permits for employment issued to men.

The EU-MIDIS II survey asked first-generation immigrants, born outside the EU, about their reasons for migrating. As shown in the EU-MIDIS II main results report,⁴⁴ overall, more than one third (35 %), most often from south Asia (42 %), indicated family reasons. Twice as many women than men (49 % versus 22 %) did so, which reflects the gendered nature of specific migration patterns. For instance, the proportion of men respondents who said that the reason for migrating to the EU was employment was far greater than that of women (41 % versus 14 %). Furthermore, more men than women indicated that they migrated for the purpose of seeking protection (10 % versus 5 %).

The dependence of women migrating for the purpose of family reunification on their ‘sponsor’, usually their husband, for accessing employment or an autonomous residence permit can create problems. As mentioned previously, in 2003, the EU introduced Directive 2003/86/EC, which establishes the conditions for exercising the *right* to family reunification. While this was necessary to better coordinate across the EU the large share of third-country nationals who immigrated for family reasons, the directive leaves critical aspects to Member States’ discretion that can affect the rights exercised by family members who more often are migrant women. For example, Member States may define the conditions under which family members may access the labour market and limit that access for a period up to 12 months. Moreover, Member States may also limit access of family members to an autonomous residence permit independent of that of the sponsor for a period up to five years. In 2014, the European Commission Communication on guidance for application of Directive 2003/86/EC on the right to family reunification recommended “keeping restrictions on labour market access for family members, in particular migrant women, to a minimum”. In respect to access to autonomous residence permits, the Communication recalls that Article 15 (3) of the Family Reunification Directive requires that “Member States must issue an autonomous residence permit in the event of particularly difficult circumstances to any family members who have entered by virtue of family reunification”; it cites as examples of such circumstances cases of domestic violence against women and children, certain cases of forced marriages, risk of female genital mutilation, or cases where the person would be in a particularly difficult family situation if forced to return to the country of origin.⁴⁵ Moreover, in 2016, FRA pointed⁴⁶ to recurrent obstacles faced by many applicants. For example, long duration of processing visa and/or residence permit requests, high cost of travel expenses

42 See Annex II in the EU-MIDIS II main results report (FRA 2017a).

43 Legal requirements to give up citizenship of the country of origin can influence the choice to apply for naturalisation.

44 FRA (2017a), pp. 79-80.

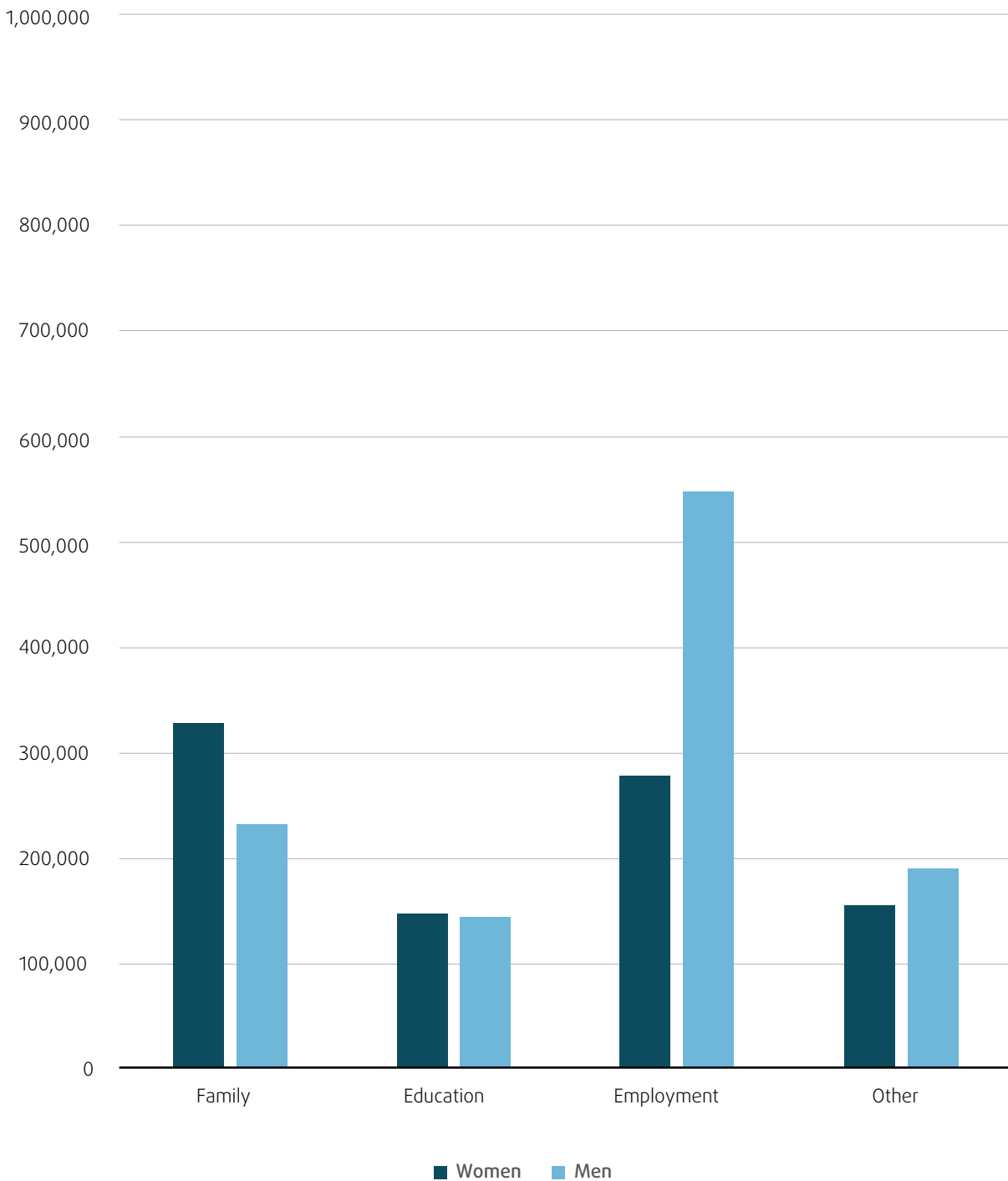
45 Commission Communication on guidance for application of Directive 2003/86/EC on the right to family reunification, COM/2014/0210 final.

46 FRA (2016).

and administrative procedures, time pressure to meet tight deadlines, limited legal aid provisions, as well as difficulties in complying with specific accommodation,

income and insurance requirements. The situation has not changed significantly since, as shown in FRA's *Fundamental Rights Report 2019*.⁴⁷

Figure 1: First residence permits issued to third-country nationals in 2017^a



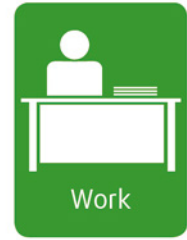
Notes: ^a Information from 23 Member States (no data for Germany, Malta, Slovakia, Finland and the United Kingdom). Education and employment data missing for Luxembourg for 2017.

Source: Eurostat database, table migr_resfas, extracted on 15 April 2019

47 FRA (2019).

2

Education



Educational qualifications and mastering the host country's language in order to access the labour market are critical aspects of integration. This is also reflected in EU legislation – such as, for example, in the Single Permit and the Long-term Residence directives.⁴⁸ However, they are not easy to achieve, particularly for immigrant women, who often also have family and child care responsibilities and are thus doubly disadvantaged – as women and as immigrants. This affects their employment outcomes in comparison to migrant men and to majority population women. Already in 2006, the European Parliament called on Member States⁴⁹ to ensure that women immigrants receive adequate and essential education in the form of language lessons and information concerning fundamental human, political and social rights and democratic principles stressing, in particular, the importance of unconditional and even priority access for immigrant women to education and language training. In this respect, the EU's Action Plan on the integration of third country nationals of June 2016 recommends that "language programmes should be provided at the earliest stage possible after arrival, adapted to each person's linguistic competences needs and combining language learning with learning of other skills and competences or work experiences. A special effort should be made to ensure that these courses reach women as well as men".⁵⁰

Some Member States established specific, gender sensitive measures. For example, since 2012, the city of Vienna in Austria offers free basic skills classes in German, maths and IT combined with childcare in kindergartens and schools.⁵¹ In 2015, Germany developed a concept for special integration/language courses⁵² targeting immigrant women, and parents, who cannot attend generally available courses for family or cultural reasons. These courses help improve the language skills of women themselves, who also "act as multipliers" improving the use of the national language within the family. In the first half of 2018, 2,974 women (87.1 % of all participants) had enrolled in these special courses, in addition to 57,103 women who enrolled in other regular courses.⁵³

2.1. Educational attainment

Overall in the EU, among the general population, more women (30 %) than men (25.9 %) have completed tertiary education.⁵⁴ This also applies to immigrant women: according to the OECD, 30 % of immigrant women resident in the EU have completed tertiary education⁵⁵ and around 33 % of those employed hold highly skilled positions, compared to 31 % of immigrant men.⁵⁶ As illustrated in [Figure 2](#), based on a random sample of immigrants and descendants of immigrants from specific countries and regions of origin outside the EU, only 62 % of women and 61 % of men respondents, aged 16-64 years, completed at least upper secondary

48 Council Directive 2011/98/EU of 13 December 2011 on a single application procedure for a single permit for third-country nationals to reside and work in the territory of a Member State and on a common set of rights for third-country workers legally residing in a Member State, OJ 2011 L 343; and Council Directive 2003/109/EC of 25 November 2003 concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents, OJ 2004 L 16.

49 European Parliament (2006), *Resolution on women's immigration: the role and place of immigrant women in the European Union*, P6_TA(2006)0437, Strasbourg, 24 October 2006.

50 European Commission (2016), p. 7.

51 See webpage on [Mum learns German!](#).

52 Germany, *Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge* (2015).

53 See flyer about the programme, available on the [website of the Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge](#).

54 Eurostat, *Population by educational attainment level, sex and age (%) - main indicators*, [edat_lfse_03].

55 OECD (2018), p. 152.

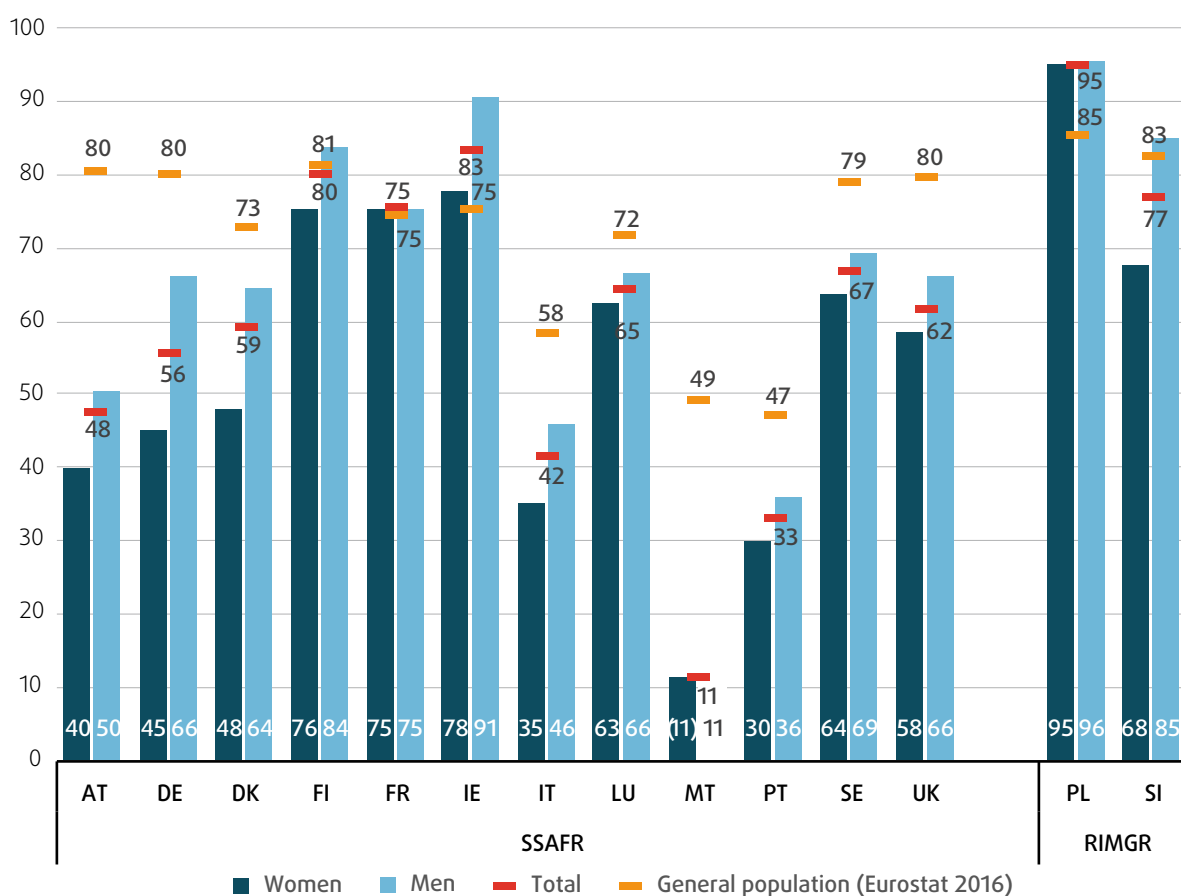
56 *Ibid.*, p. 164.

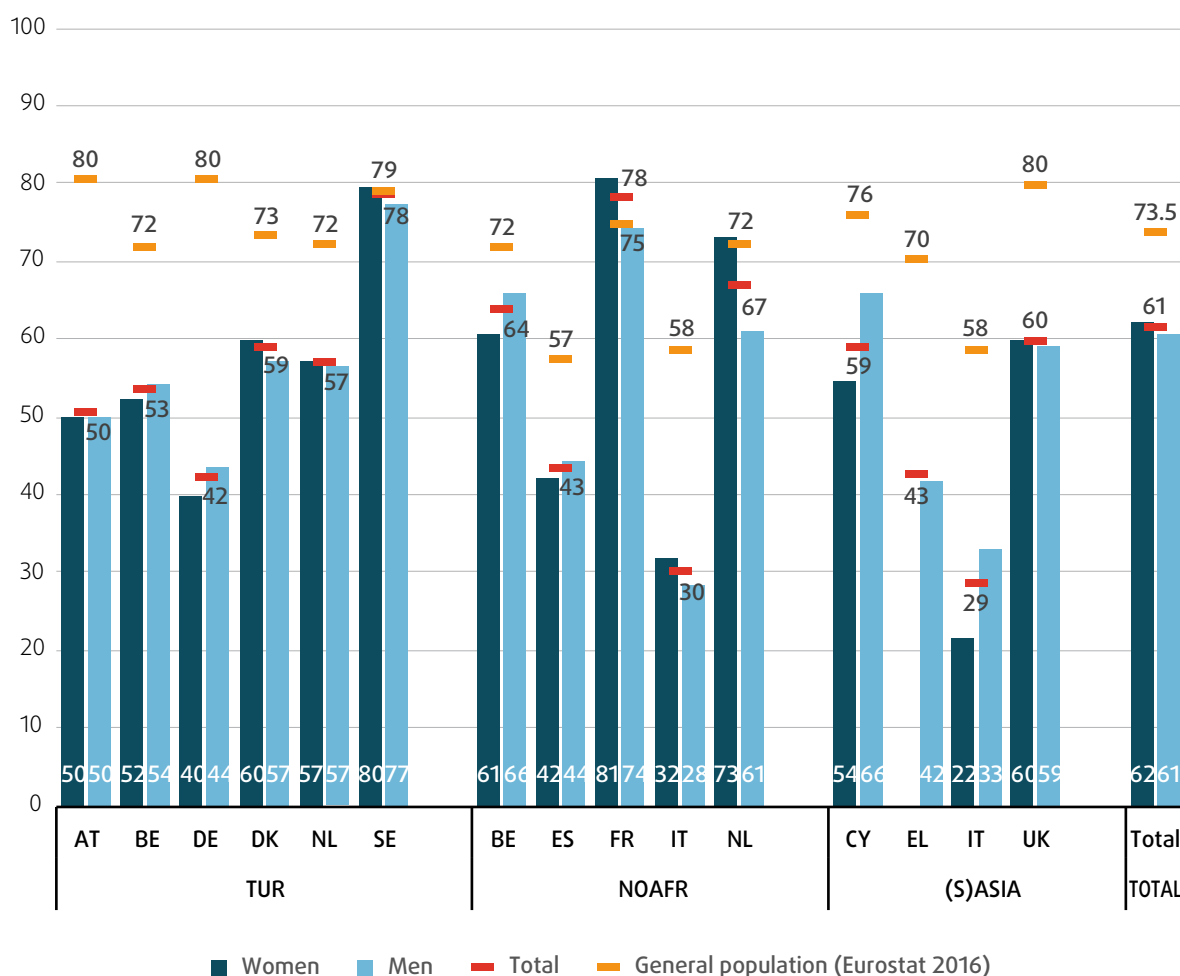
education or tertiary education (ISCED levels 3-8). This is lower than the EU average for the general population (74 % - for those aged 15 to 64 years).

While official statistics provide overall figures for all third-country nationals, the data provided by EU-MIDIS II, which are disaggregated by gender and by country of origin, can also be used by policy makers to develop gender sensitive measures that target

the specific challenges faced by different immigrant groups. For instance, while gender differences in the educational attainment of respondents with Turkish origin in all countries surveyed are very small, they are more pronounced – with more men than women having higher qualifications among respondents of African descent – for example in Ireland, Germany, and Denmark, as well as in Italy, Austria, and Finland, and among recent immigrants in Slovenia.

Figure 2: Respondents aged 16-64 years who have attained upper secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary or tertiary education (ISCED 2011 levels 3-8) in any country, compared with the general population (Eurostat 2016), by target group and EU Member State (%)^{a,b,c,d,e,f}





- Notes:
- ^a Out of all migrant respondents aged 16–64 years ($n=15,454$); weighted results.
 - ^b Highest educational level attained either in the country, where a respondent was interviewed or in any other country.
 - ^c General population 2016: Eurostat edat_lfse_03 (download 11/07/2017); age group 15–64 years; Labour Force Survey.
 - ^d Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 or 9 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses (results by gender not presented for Roma in some countries due to less than 20 observations in each). Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.
 - ^e Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and their descendants: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.
 - ^f Question: “What is the highest level of education you have completed?”

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016; Eurostat database

2.2. Knowledge and use of the host country language

In addition to educational qualifications, an essential requirement for accessing the labour market is sufficient knowledge of the language of the country. The European Union’s fourth Common Basic Principle for Immigrant Integration Policy, adopted in 2004, considers basic knowledge of the host society’s language, history, and institutions indispensable to integration. In this context, the language skills of non-native speakers was adopted as one of the EU’s Zaragoza indicators of

integration,⁵⁷ which were populated by Eurostat in 2014 using data from its ad hoc module of the Labour Force Survey on immigrants.⁵⁸ The data, which are not disaggregated by gender, show that an important share of immigrants considered their lack of language skills as an obstacle to getting a suitable job in several countries, e.g. Finland (29 %); Estonia (25.9 %); Belgium (19.6 %); Austria (19.7 %); Italy (12.1 %); Greece (11.5 %); and Germany (9.8 %).

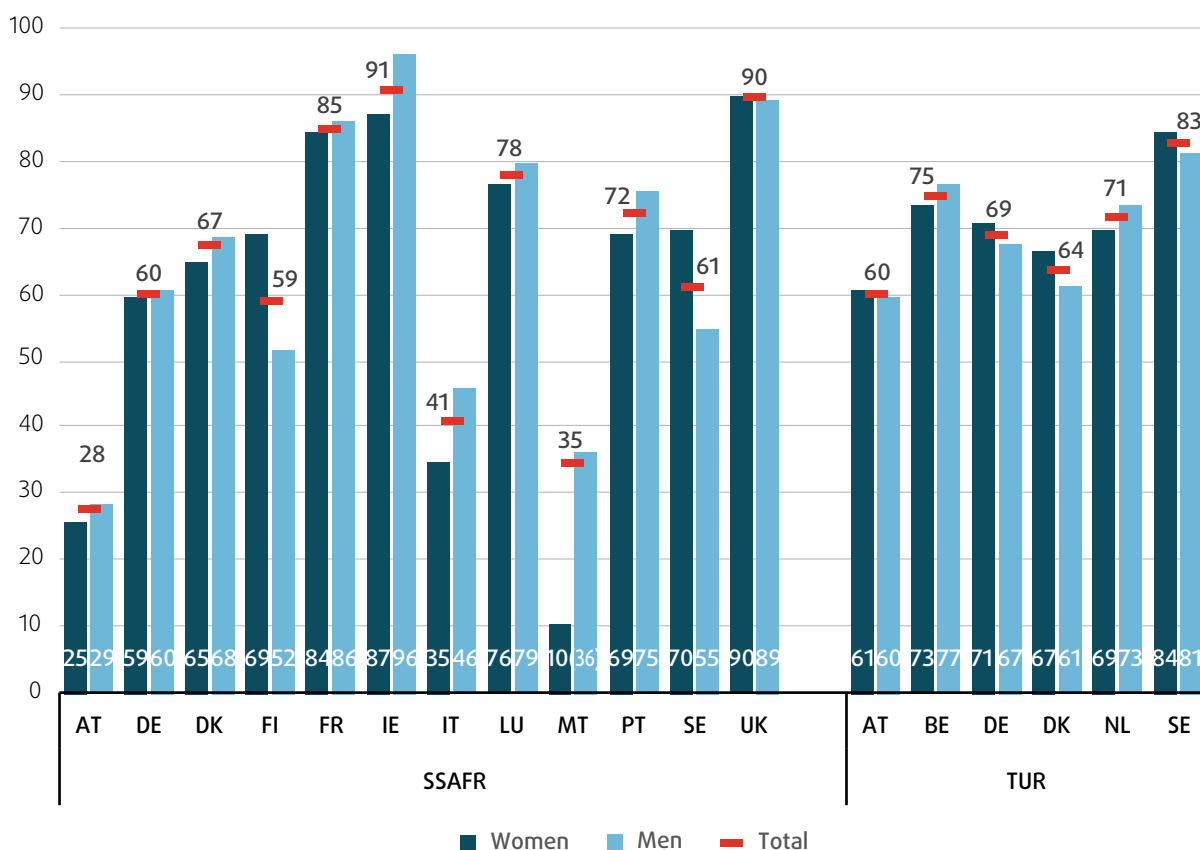
⁵⁷ Huddleston, T., Niessen, J. and Dag Tjaden, J. (2013), p. 9.

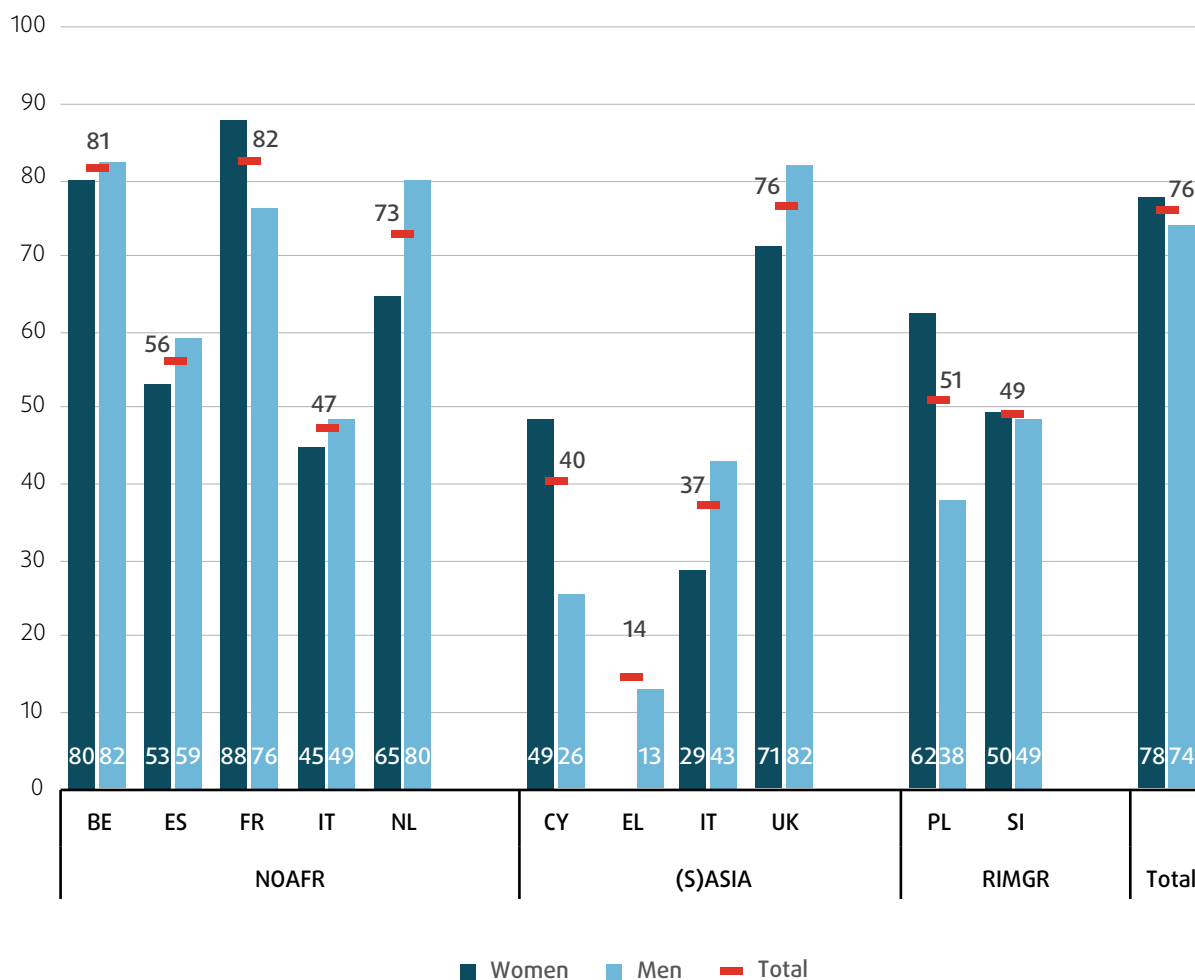
⁵⁸ Eurostat, Obstacles to getting a suitable job by migration status, labour status and educational attainment level (%), [lfsq_14oeduc].

EU-MIDIS II finds that on average, 78 % of women and 74 % of men respondents indicated having sufficient proficiency in the national language(s) of their country of residence in terms of speaking, reading and writing (Figure 3). In some countries, high levels of English or French language proficiency for certain target groups are not surprising given that these languages are widely spoken in their country of origin, as a reflection of the colonial past. Nearly all second-generation respondents, irrespective of their parents' country of origin or residence, indicated having 'good to mother tongue' language proficiency. There are a few notable differences between women and men: for example,

in Finland more women (69 %) than men (52 %) of Sub-Saharan origin can speak, read and write in the national language at 'good to mother tongue' level, as well as in Sweden (women 70 % – men 55 %). Among those of north African origin in France, the proportion of women (88 %) who speak French at 'good to mother tongue' level is higher than that of men (76 %). In the Netherlands, 80 % of men speak Dutch at this level, compared to 65 % of women. In Italy and in the United Kingdom, more men of Asian origin have good national language skills than women (Italy: 49 % versus 29 %; United Kingdom: 82 % versus 71 %).

Figure 3: Respondents with good to mother tongue language proficiency (in all three dimensions – speaking, reading and writing) of at least one national language in the country where they were interviewed, by target group and EU Member State (%)^{a,b,c,d,e}





- Notes:
- ^a Out of all migrant respondents (n=16,108); weighted results.
 - ^b Good, excellent and mother tongue level proficiency in all three dimensions (speaking, reading and writing) of at least one national language in the country where the respondent was interviewed.
 - ^c Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published (Female (S) ASIA EL).
 - ^d Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and their descendants: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.
 - ^e Question: "Using this scale, how would you describe your proficiency in [SURVEY COUNTRY NATIONAL LANGUAGE 1/2] as regards speaking/reading/writing?"

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Attending a language course is especially important for those who are not fluent or have particular difficulties with speaking the national language. Providing affordable access to language courses is a positive contribution to linguistic and cultural diversity, a cornerstone of the EU's aspiration to be united in diversity, guaranteed by Article 22 of the EU's Fundamental Rights Charter and included in Principle 8 of the EU's Common Basic Principles for Immigrant Integration Policy.

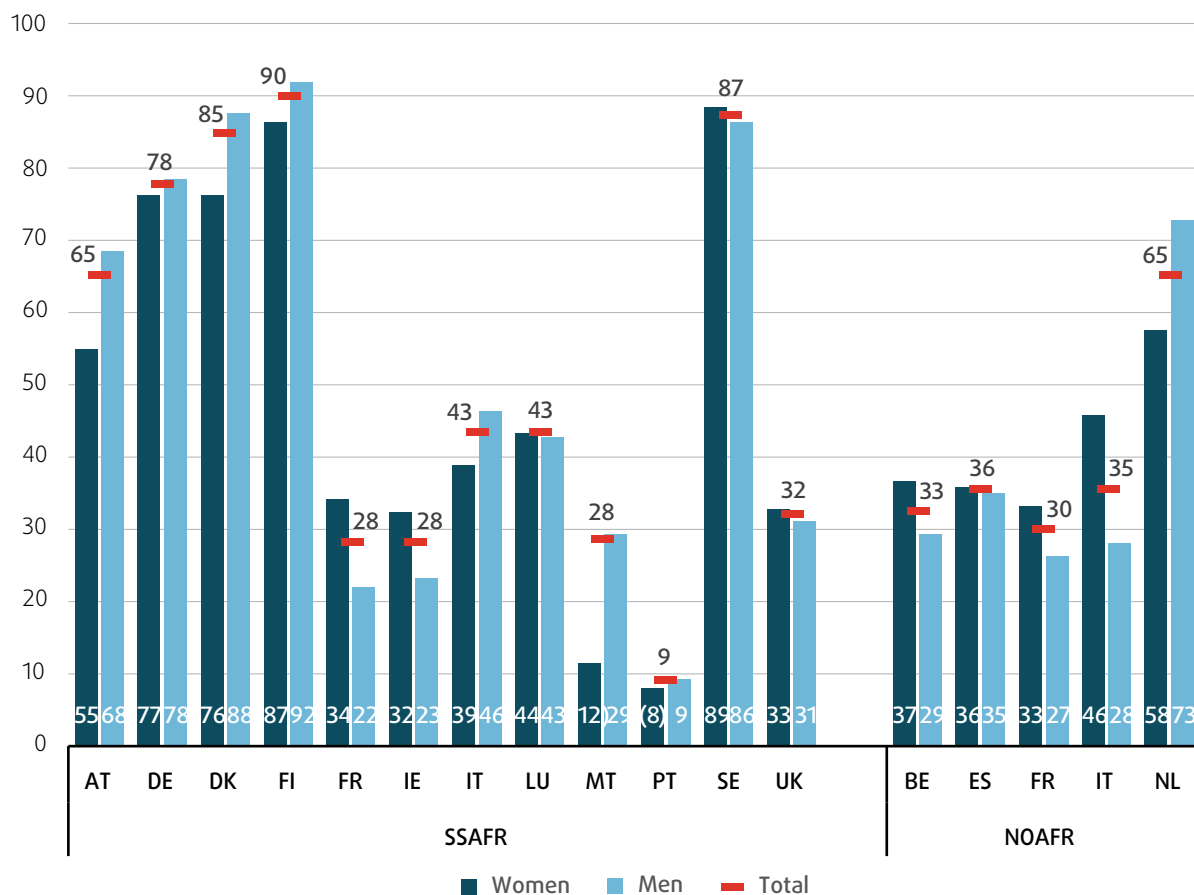
2.3. Attending language courses

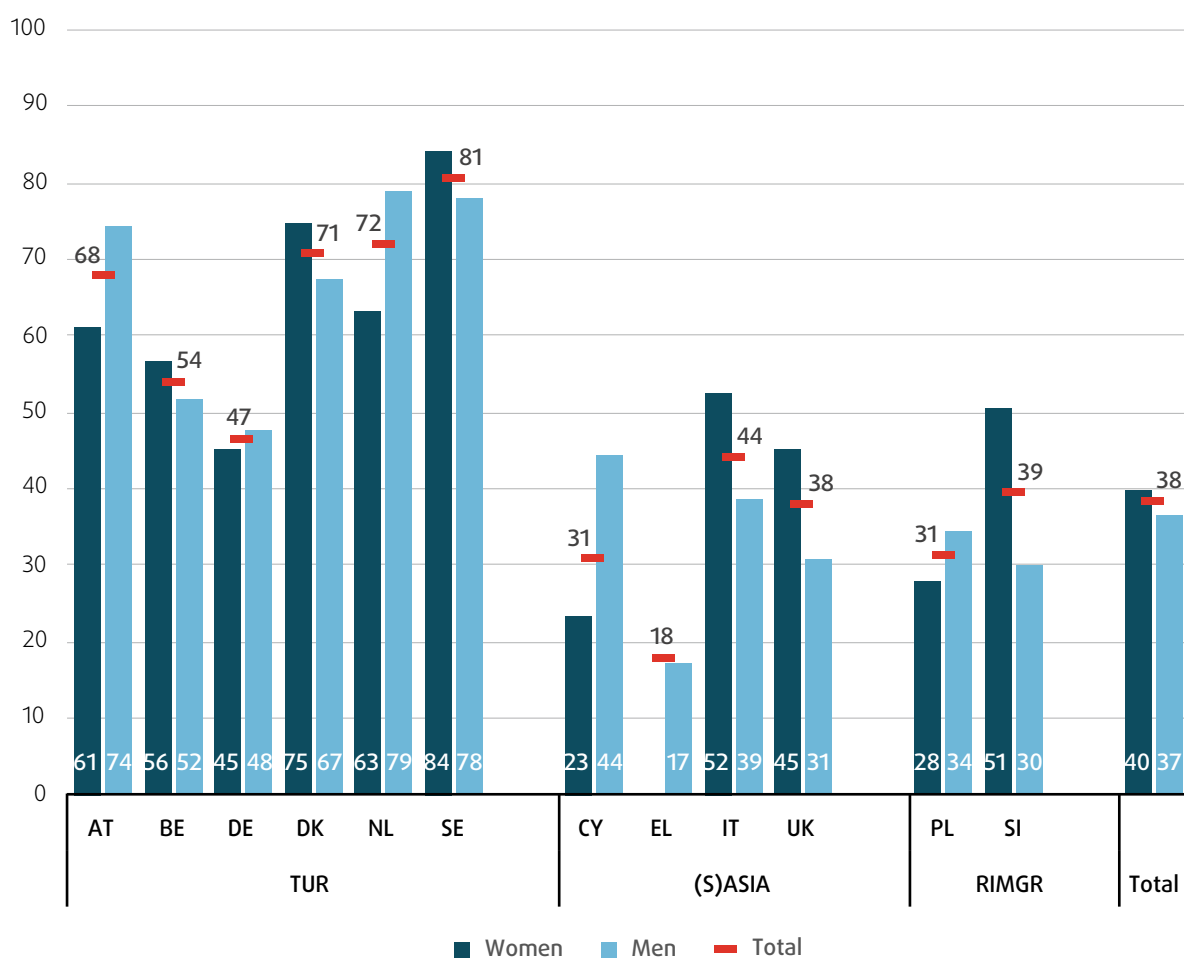
EU-MIDIS II asked first-generation respondents if they ever attended a language course since their arrival in the country, and if not, why (Figure 4). The results show substantial differences across the countries and the target groups surveyed. The large majority (more than 80 %) of women and men attended language courses in Sweden and Finland. The majority (more than 50 %) did so in Denmark, the Netherlands and Austria. However, only a minority did so in the other EU countries

surveyed (for example, in Spain, Italy and Cyprus). The lowest participation rates are found in Greece (18 %) and in Portugal (9 %), similarly for both women and men. However, most men (78 %) and women (72 %) respondents in Portugal say that they do not need such a course, as the majority (72 %) claims to have good to mother tongue proficiency in the national language.

respondents in Portugal say that they do not need such a course, as the majority (72 %) claims to have good to mother tongue proficiency in the national language.

Figure 4: Respondents aged 16+ who ever attended a national language course since their arrival in the country where interviewed, by target group, by gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}





- Notes: ^a Out of all migrant respondents who are not born in the survey country ($n=12,723$); weighted results.
- ^b Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.
- ^c Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and their descendants: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.
- ^d Question: "Since your arrival in [COUNTRY], have you ever attended a [NATIONAL LANGUAGE] course?"

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

First-generation respondents not attending a language course gave different reasons, but overall, the majority said that this was because they do not need one. For the English-speaking EU countries, this was the case for 76 % of women and 85 % of men in the United Kingdom, and 89 % of women and 100 % of men in Ireland. In France, this was the reason selected by 85 % of women and by 75 % of men. Important gender differences are found in most countries. For example, the proportion of women respondents in the Netherlands (73 %), Denmark (83 %) and Germany (70 %) who said that they do not attend a language course because they do not need one differs significantly from that of men (46 %, 71 % and 55 %, respectively). In some Member States, a proportion of respondents said that they did not attend a language course because they did not know where to go. The highest rates of men selecting

this reason was in Malta (50 %), Greece (30 %), Slovenia (20 %), and Austria (19 %), while the highest rates for women were in Cyprus (22 %), Spain (13 %, almost double than men), Italy (17 %) and Portugal (10 %). Italy is the only EU country where a third of the women (32 %) selected "lack of childcare" as a reason for not attending a language course. In Greece, one in five men respondents (22 %) gave "lack of papers" as reason, and an equally important share of men also selected this reason in Italy (17 %). However, not being able to access language courses because of "lack of papers" impedes the long-term social and economic inclusion of the persons affected. Taking into account that an important number of them might continue staying in the host Member State for a long period, to provide the opportunity for everyone, regardless of their residence status, to learn the language of the host country

could only have positive effects. This could contribute to increasing social cohesion and supporting economic development through having a better adapted and educated workforce.

The EU's Action Plan on the integration of third country nationals of June 2016 recommends that "language programmes should be provided at the earliest stage possible after arrival, adapted to each person's linguistic competences needs and combining language learning with learning of other skills and competences or work experiences. A special effort should be made to ensure that these courses reach women as well as men."⁵⁹ However, FRA's review of the national integration policies and plans, published in 2017, found that, while almost all EU countries had provisions for language learning, this was not always provided free of charge or to all immigrants.⁶⁰ As EU-MIDIS II data on knowledge and use of language show – language courses, in particular Member States, could be targeted more at women or men to

reflect the degree of their language competence. The assumption that women always need language courses more than men would benefit from a strong evidential basis to support targeted intervention.

The results presented here can be used by competent public authorities in Member States where a significant share of immigrant women and men say that they do not attend a national language course, and where they indicate that they do not speak the national language of a Member State proficiently. They can guide them in developing appropriate outreach activities and language training measures in order to ensure, as FRA recommended in 2017, that all immigrants are taught, free of charge, the national language – the knowledge of which is a legal requirement for accessing particularly long-term residence status and citizenship in certain Member States.

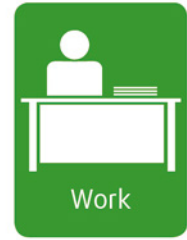
⁵⁹ European Commission (2016a), p. 7.

⁶⁰ FRA (2017b), pp. 51-52.



3

Employment



The need to focus on the participation of migrant women in the labour market is highlighted in the 2016 integration action plan of the European Commission.⁶¹ In 2015, the European Economic and Social Committee issued an own initiative opinion on the inclusion of immigrant women in the labour market,⁶² which highlights that they represent a currently under-utilised source of skills and creativity. The committee calls on Member States to “adopt policies that take account of women’s specific situation, their qualifications, knowledge of the language of the host country and whether they are first- or subsequent generation immigrants”. Furthermore, the committee calls for “better statistics, broken down by gender and nationality or origin, at both the national and European levels”. Such data, disaggregated by gender, age, ethnic origin and nationality, residence status, etc., was collected by EU-MIDIS II. It can support the development of relevant EU and national policies to improve the employment situation of immigrant women, as well as of women of immigrant descent.

In the EU, according to the OECD, immigrant women are ten times more likely to work as domestic workers than their native peers,⁶³ although this result is influenced by southern European countries, where the proportion of immigrant women providing services to households often exceeds 20 %. The OECD report also highlights the high share of immigrant women (25 %) in menial jobs, compared to 9 % of native-born immigrant women and 15 % of immigrant men.⁶⁴

Women who come to the EU as spouses, under family reunification arrangements, may face significant delays before they are allowed to work. During that

time they are financially dependent and legally tied to their husbands, with potentially serious consequences for their legal status if the marriage ends.⁶⁵ If they have limited knowledge of the country’s language they will be more likely to have difficulties interacting with people outside their community. The EU could therefore consider reviewing the Directive on Family Reunification to allow spouses to work immediately after their arrival in the EU.

3.1. Employment rates

Overall EU-MIDIS II results show large gender gaps, with fewer women engaged in paid work⁶⁶ than men in most cases (Figure 5). No gender gap is recorded by respondents of Turkish origin in Sweden. A small gap (3 percentage points) is found among respondents of Sub-Saharan origin in Germany, Luxemburg and the United Kingdom. In Cyprus, slightly more women (84 %) than men (81 %) are in paid work among respondents of south Asian origin. Among respondents of Sub-Saharan origin, in two countries – Austria and Portugal – the proportion of women in paid work is higher than that of men (20 and 8 percentage points, respectively). Except for in

65 For example, see the [UK Government’s webpage](#); and *The Independent*, “Home Office ‘helping abusive partners by producing forms making it easier to threaten spouses with deportation’”, 8 January 2016.

66 The ‘paid work rate’ was calculated in EU-MIDIS II based on the self-declared current main activity. If the main activity was indicated as ‘inactive’ or ‘unpaid’, the person was asked if they “did any work in the last four weeks to earn some money”. This question aimed to also capture informal work and miscellaneous jobs that may contribute to a family’s income. This calculation of paid work rate is not fully comparable to the ILO concept used by Eurostat, where those employed are defined as persons 15 years or older who have worked for at least one hour for pay or profit or family gain during the reference week or persons who were not at work during the reference week but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent.

61 European Commission (2016a), p. 9.

62 European Economic and Social Committee (2015).

63 OECD (2018), p. 164.

64 *Ibid.*

Sweden, fewer women of Turkish origin are engaged in paid work across the countries surveyed – for example, in Austria at 30 %, compared to 81 % of men. In the five countries where they were surveyed, women of north African origin have considerably lower paid work rates than men: this ranges from 19 percentage points in France to 40 points in Italy, where the gap for respondents from Asia is also particularly pronounced at 70 percentage points.

These results underscore the importance of targeted, gender sensitive measures to increase the participation of more migrant women in the labour market. The European Migration Network, in a study issued in February 2019, points to a number of obstacles that “are often higher for women” in accessing the labour market. These are: lack of language skills, lack of recognition of qualifications and taking a job that does not match skills and qualifications, and discriminatory practices in recruitment processes or lack of access to child care – which, looking at EU-MIDIS data, would appear to reflect the situation in particular Member States.⁶⁷

The European Commission Action Plan of June 2016 on the integration of third-country nationals highlights that “a special focus on [women’s] labour market integration is [...] indispensable”. On 19 December 2018, the EU’s Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities

for Women and Men recommended that the EU and Member States, according to their competences, “set national specific targets for female employment rates (in full-time equivalents) including for specific groups of women (with disabilities, from migrant background, etc.).⁶⁸ These recommendations need to be matched by measures targeting women in national action plans on migrant integration. Nevertheless, while some Country Specific Recommendations (CSRs) issued by the Council in 2018 in the context of the European Semester refer to the employment of immigrants – for example, for Austria, Belgium, and France – none has specific references to immigrant women. However, two CSR assessments, for Sweden and the Netherlands, include specific references to the situation of migrant women. The CSR for the Netherlands notes that “the employment rate for non-EU-born migrants is 20,6 percentage points lower than for people born in the Netherlands with an even larger gap for non-EU-born women”. The CSR for Sweden notes that “challenges remain, such as integrating people with a migrant background, especially women, into the labour market. The employment rate of non-EU born women is considerably lower than for the overall population.”⁶⁹ Considering more systematically the gender dimension in CSRs, targeting particularly migrant women, could have a positive impact on the promotion of their inclusion in the labour market and an increase in their employment rate.

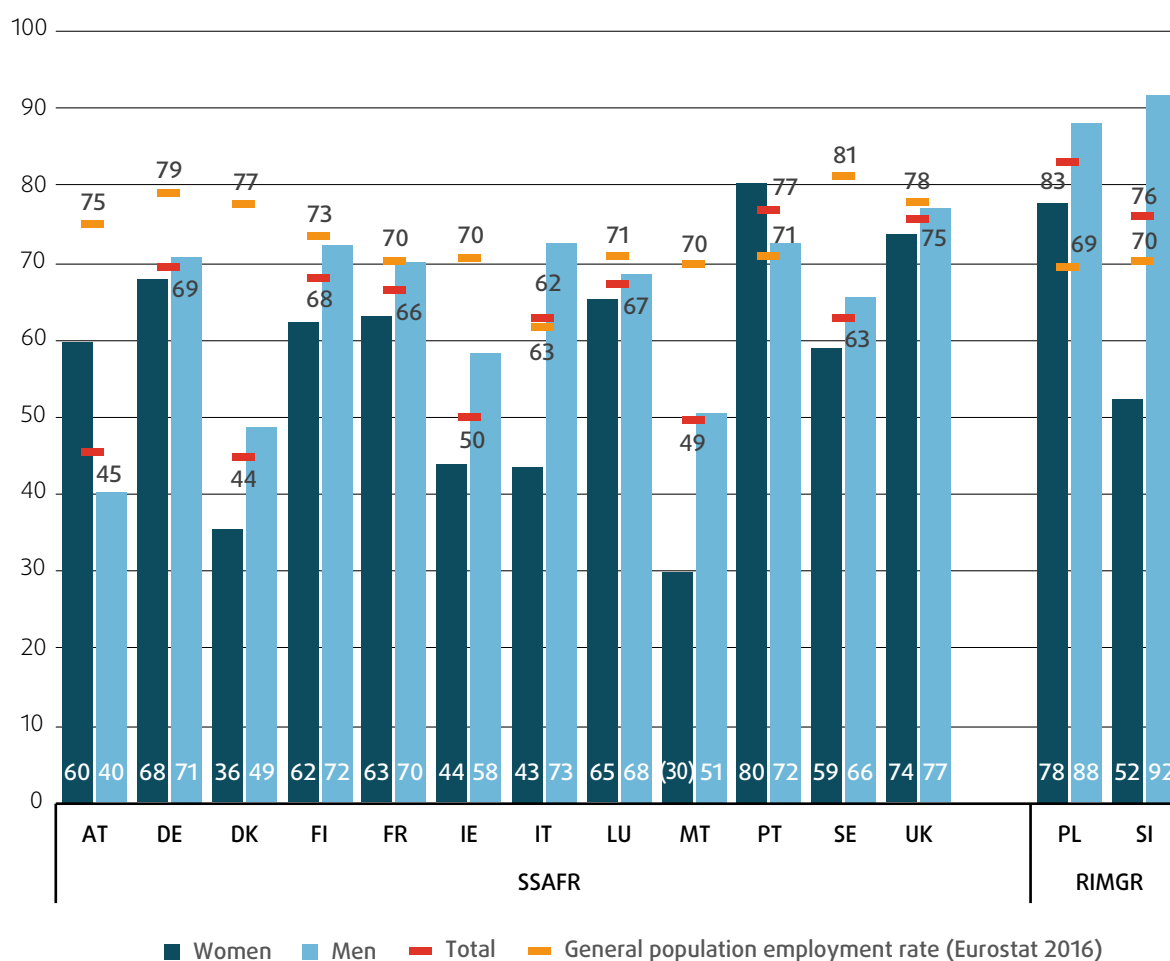
67 European Migration Network (2019), p. 15.

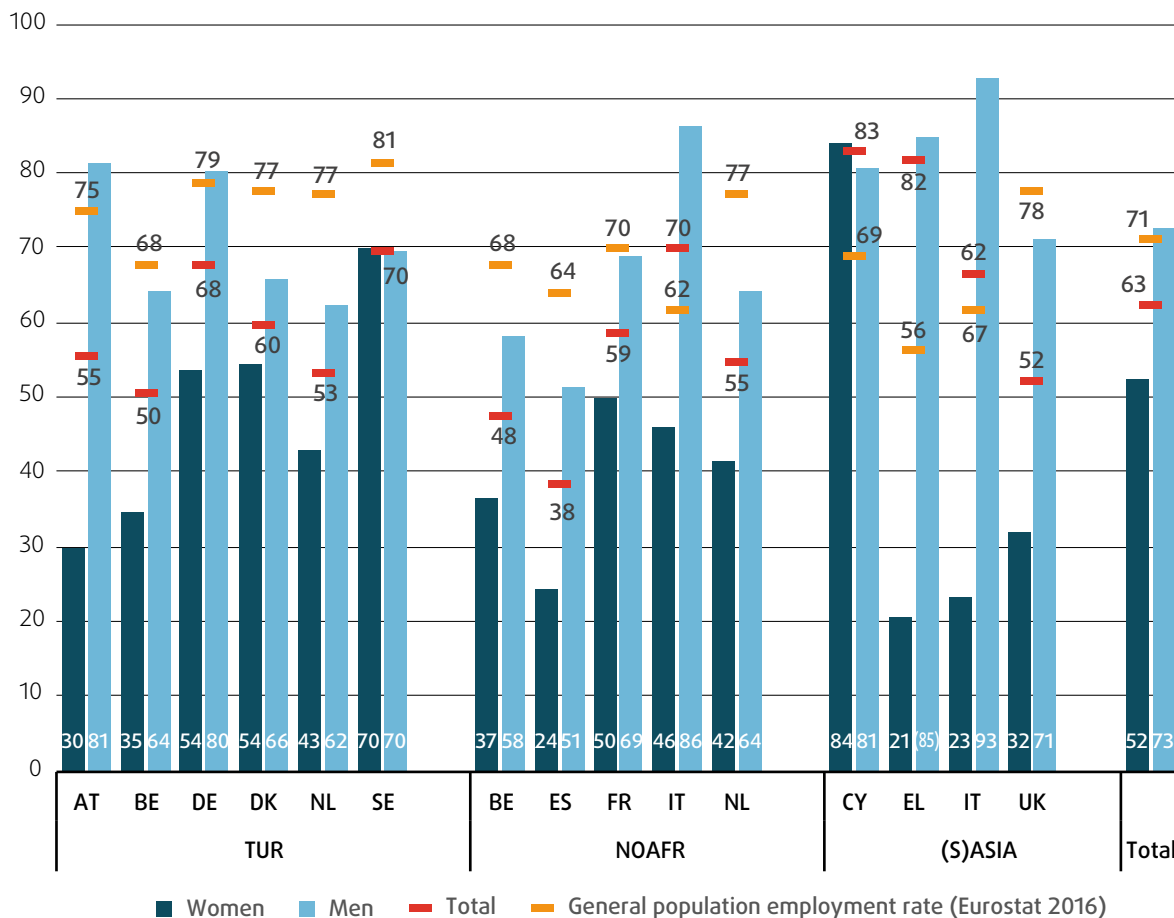
68 Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (2018), p. 7.

69 2018 European Semester: [Country Specific Recommendations/Council Recommendations](#), published on 13 July 2018.



Figure 5: Paid work rate for household members aged 20–64 years, including self-employment and occasional work or work in the past 4 weeks, compared with the Europe 2020 employment rate 2015 (Eurostat), by target group and EU Member State (%)^{a,b,c,d,e}





- Notes:
- ^a Out of all migrant household members aged 20–64 years (n=25,535); weighted results.
 - ^b Europe 2020 employment rate 2016: Eurostat t2020_10 (download 11/07/2017). This is calculated by dividing the number of persons aged 20 to 64 in employment by the total population of the same age group. The indicator is based on the ILO concept, Labour Force Survey.
 - ^c Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.
 - ^d Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and their descendants: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.
 - ^e Questions: “Please look at this card and tell me which of these categories describes your current situation best?”; “Did you do any work in the last 4 weeks to earn some money?”

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016



3.2. Not in employment, education or training (NEET)

During the past ten years, especially after the economic crisis, EU policy has increasingly focused on young people who are not in employment, education or training (NEET). Eurofound pointed out that “as a result of this disengagement, irrespective of other differences between them, all NEETs share a common status of not accumulating human capital through formal channels and therefore have a greater risk of future poor employment outcomes and social exclusion.”⁷⁰ There is a range of factors that can contribute to this disengagement of young people, but as an earlier study by Eurofound pointed out, “young people with immigration background are 70 % more likely to become NEET compared to other young people.”⁷¹

In 2016, Eurostat reported that the share of all young people (15-24) who were neither employed nor in education or training (NEET) was 11.6 % in the EU-28. The rates for native born young people⁷² was 11.0 %; for those born in another EU Member State, 14.4 %; and for

those born outside the EU 18.3 %.⁷³ The same data also indicate a large gap between women and men when they are born in another EU Member State (NEET at 16.0 % vs. 12.7%, respectively), and even more so when they are born outside the EU (21.1 % vs. 15.5 %, respectively). According to Eurostat, the gender gap among NEET could be attributed to factors such as “social conventions or pressures, which tend to place a higher importance on women’s role within the family and on men’s role in the workplace; career advice, which may reinforce gender segregation and direct women into a relatively narrow range of occupations; labour market issues, such as: employers preferring young men over young women; young women facing assimilation difficulties when returning to work after childbirth; young women being more likely to have low-paid jobs or precarious employment.”⁷⁴ These factors would also apply to women immigrants and descendants of immigrants.

For respondents aged 16-24, EU-MIDIS II results show a range of gender differences across the countries and the target groups surveyed. The highest shares of young women who are not in employment, education or training can be found among respondents in Italy (37 %), Spain (32 %) and Austria (29 %).

⁷⁰ Eurofound (2016), p. 9.

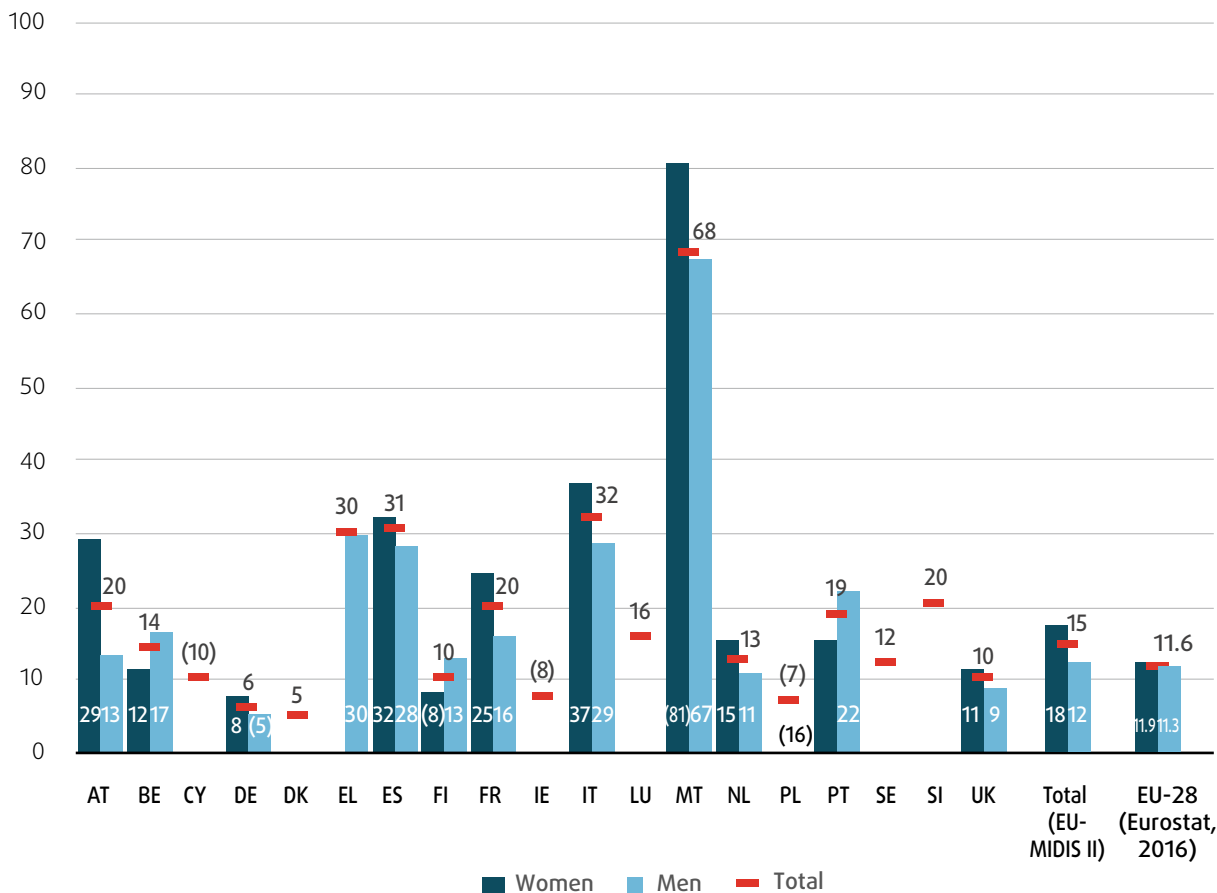
⁷¹ Eurofound (2012), p. 55.

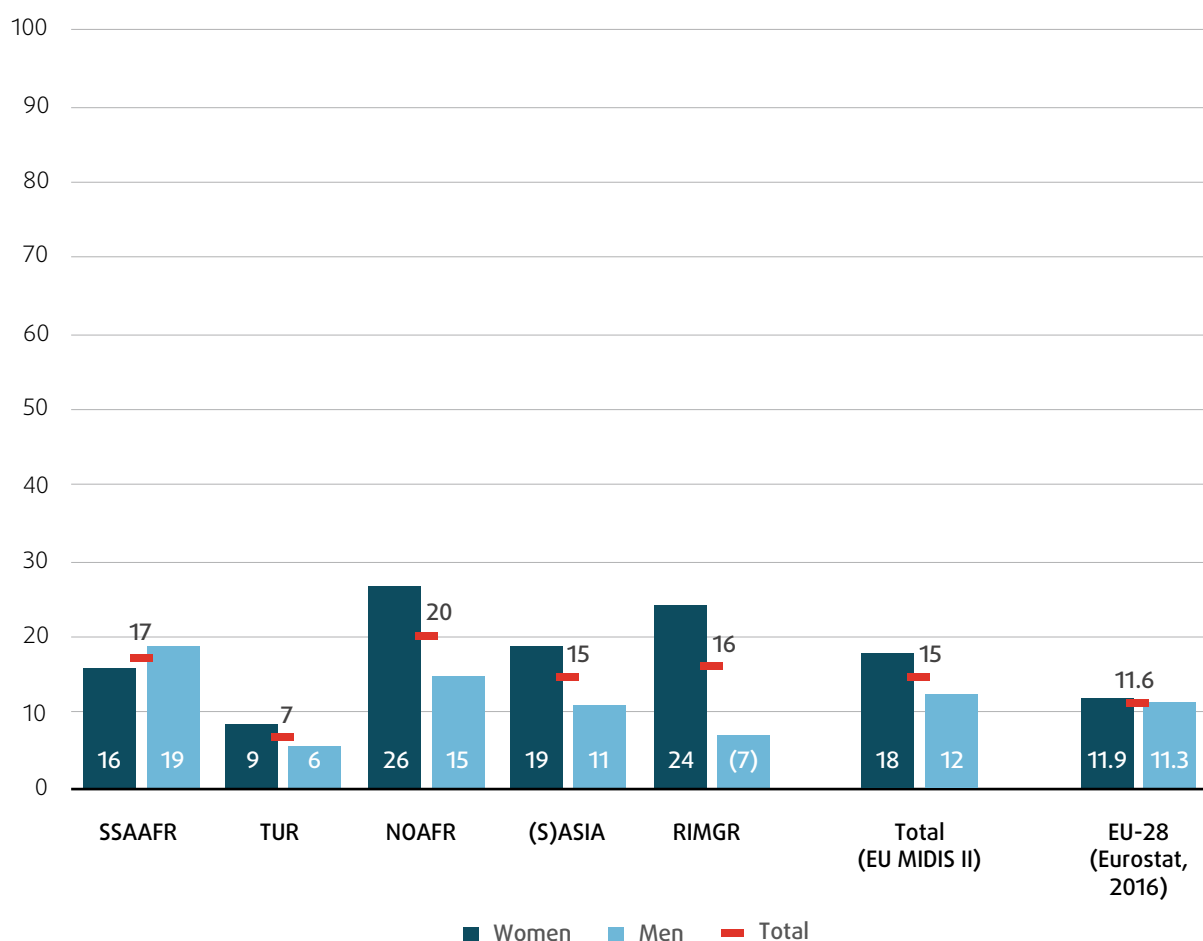
⁷² ‘Native born’ refers to those who were themselves, and whose parents were, born in the reporting country, whereas ‘foreign born’ refers to those who were born either in another EU country or in a third country.

⁷³ Eurostat NEET rate 2016: edat_ifse_28 (downloaded 15/04/2019). Percentage of the population 15-24 years that is not employed and not involved in further education or training, based on the ILO concept, by country of birth.

⁷⁴ Eurostat (2017); general population 20-34 years old.

Figure 6: Share of young persons, 16-24 years old, with current main activity neither in employment, education or training, household members, by target group and EU Member State (%)^{a,b,c,d}





- Notes:
- ^a Out of all persons aged 16-24 years in migrant households (n=7,044); weighted results.
 - ^b Eurostat NEET Rate 2016: edat_lfse_20 (downloaded 15/04/2019). Percentage of the population 15-24 years that is not employed and not involved in further education or training, based on the ILO concept.
 - ^c Based on the household questionnaire and respondent questionnaire on self-declared current main activity, not considering those who did any work in the previous four weeks to earn some money.
 - ^d Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016; Eurostat 2016, General population

Policymakers can use this disaggregated data to develop gender sensitive policies for the specific immigrant groups who appear particularly affected. Further research in Member States with the highest proportions of women who are neither in employment nor in education or training could help identify the reasons and the remedies to address this reality. Such remedies should include strong measures to tackle phenomena of discrimination that can discourage young people with a minority ethnic background from continuing their education or from applying for jobs, which – as a result – contributes to social exclusion and alienation. In parallel, policymakers need to review current

measures to increase opportunities for young women and men migrants and descendants of migrants to participate in non-formal education, including adult education, as well as in apprenticeship and traineeship schemes. Moreover, career education advice provided in schools should include information on the legal right to non-discrimination and awareness of where and how they can seek redress. Last but not least, availability of affordable and accessible child-care services is also a key element to helping young women access the labour market, education or training opportunities, including language courses, which help increase their chances of finding a job.

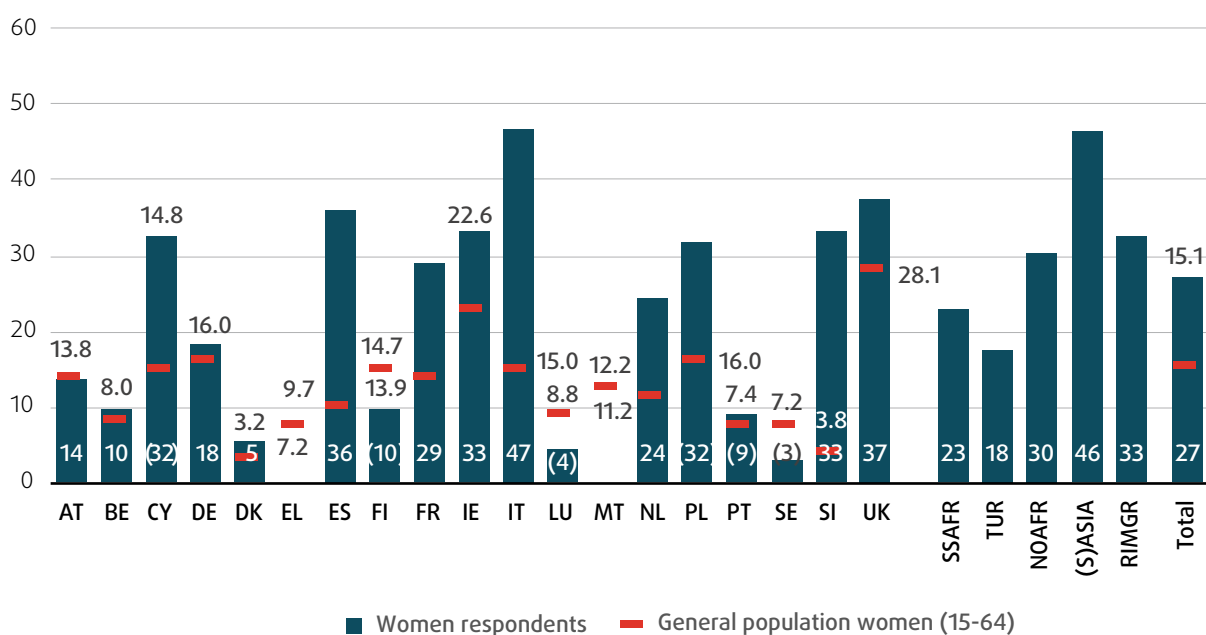
3.3. Impact of family and caring activities on women

Research points out that immigrant women also often take on family and child care obligations, which may hamper their efforts to learn the host country’s language and access its labour market, both key steps in immigrant integration.⁷⁵ The OECD notes that immigrant women in the EU who are economically inactive most commonly (35 %) cite family responsibilities as a reason, compared to around one-quarter of their native peers.⁷⁶ Another factor cited in academic literature to explain low employment rates among women immigrants is the low female participation in the labour market in most countries of origin, which “translates into a large excess gender gap in labour market integration among

non-EU migrants in Europe. This gap is further mirrored by other important aspects of societal integration”.⁷⁷

The EU-MIDIS II survey finds that overall the proportion of women respondents not looking for work because of caring obligations (small children, elderly or sick relatives) is pronounced in some EU countries, but largely disappears in others. Figure 7 shows that the highest rates for women are found in Italy (47 %), the United Kingdom (37 %), Spain (36 %), Ireland and Slovenia (both 33 %), and France (29 %). It is interesting to note that in the United Kingdom and in Ireland, the proportion of women not looking for work because of caring obligations is also quite high among the general population (28.1 % and 22.6 %, respectively). In contrast, the gap between survey respondents and women in the general population is pronounced in Italy (32 percentage points), Slovenia (29.2 percentage points), and Spain (26.3 percentage points).

Figure 7: Women respondents, aged 16 to 64 years, currently not active in labour market, not looking for work because taking care of small children/elderly/sick relatives, by EU Member State (%)^{a,b,c}



- Notes: ^a Migrant female respondents aged 16-64 who were not employed at the time of the survey and who say that they do not look for a job because of care responsibilities (n=2,731); weighted results. EU-MIDIS survey interviewed respondents age 16 and above.
- ^b General Population: Labour Force Survey 2016: Percentage of female inactive population, 15-64 years who are not seeking employment, for the main reason: looking after children or incapacitated adults. lfsa_igar (downloaded 11/04/2019).
- ^c Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016; Eurostat 2016, General population

75 See, the [European Website on Integration](#).

76 OECD (2018), p. 160.

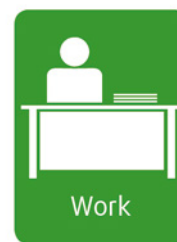
77 Barslund, M., Di Bartolomeo, A., Ludolph, L. (2017).

Early childhood education and care, beyond its critical function in improving educational performance later in school, facilitates the participation of young mothers in the labour market. The survey results show that in 12 of the 19 Member States surveyed, the majority of children in the respondents' households benefit from such services. Children's regular attendance in public or private childcare is lower in Belgium (49 %), Ireland (46 %), Italy and Poland (both 40 %), and the Netherlands (34 %).

These findings could support the development of targeted, gender sensitive measures (similar to those mentioned in Chapter 2, on education) to help migrant women with young children learn the national language and acquire work-related skills – while their children are in childcare – to foster their participation in the labour market.

4

Discrimination, harassment, violence and rights awareness



This chapter examines the distinct experiences of women and men respondents who experienced discrimination, harassment, as well as violence motivated by racism. EU law forbids discrimination and harassment on grounds of racial or ethnic origin (Council Directive 2000/43/EC implementing the principle of equal treatment irrespective of racial or ethnic origin). Furthermore, the EU adopted in 2008 criminal law provisions (Framework Decision on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law 2008/913/JHA) to ensure that serious manifestations of racism and xenophobia are punished by effective, proportionate and dissuasive criminal penalties, as well as to improve and encourage judicial cooperation in this area. In addition, the 2012 Victims' Rights Directive foresees targeted support services for victims of gender-based violence and calls for paying particular attention to victims of hate crime.⁷⁸ In 2016, and in view of evidence on the persisting rates of racially motivated crime, the European Commission set up a High Level Group to improve cooperation and coordination of the efforts of EU countries, and FRA was asked to facilitate its specific sub-group on methodologies on recording and collecting data on hate crimes.⁷⁹

It should be noted that while the EU's anti-discrimination directives apply to third-country nationals, they do not cover unequal treatment based on nationality per se, although as the Commission has pointed out, "there is sometimes an overlap between racial or ethnic origin and other grounds, in particular nationality, religion and language".⁸⁰ Moreover, as previously

mentioned, both the Single Permit and the Long-term Residence directives introduce equal treatment of third-country nationals with the nationals of the host Member State in several areas of social life.⁸¹ Nevertheless, as FRA reported, nationality-based discrimination against third-country nationals is prohibited in Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania and the United Kingdom.⁸²

During the past years, FRA's work has produced considerable evidence on the worrying extent of racism and xenophobia manifested as discrimination, harassment and hate crime across the EU. In 2009, the results of FRA's first wave of EU-MIDIS showed that a considerable proportion – one in three respondents (30 %) – felt discriminated against because of their ethnicity (with respect to one or more areas of life) in the year preceding the survey. Eight years later, the results of the second wave of this survey, published in 2017, show little progress: despite a range of legal and policy measures taken by the EU and its Member States, one in four respondents (24 %) still felt discriminated against because of their ethnic or immigrant background in the 12 months preceding the survey.⁸³

Discrimination is experienced differently by women and men, the young and the old, and by immigrants and descendants of immigrants. For example, on average, the second generation indicates higher levels of religious discrimination than the first generation of immigrants: one out of five second-generation respondents

78 Council Directive 29/2012/EU of 25 October 2012 establishing minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA, OJ 2012 L 315, Article 9 (3) and Article 22 (3).

79 See FRA Subgroup on methodologies for recording and collecting data on hate crime.

80 European Commission (2014).

81 *Ibid.*

82 FRA (2017b), pp. 29-30.

83 The generic expression 'ethnic or immigrant background' combines survey data for three grounds of discrimination that were separately asked about in the survey: skin colour, ethnic origin or immigrant background, and religion or religious belief.

(20 %) felt discriminated against because of their religion or religious beliefs, compared to one out of eight first-generation immigrants (12 %). This shows that characteristics such as gender, age or socialisation patterns (first and second generation) and their intersections affect discrimination experiences and need to be taken into account in legal and policy responses.⁸⁴

4.1. Discrimination

The overall prevalence of discrimination across all areas of life due to the respondents' ethnic or immigrant background⁸⁵ shows no substantial gender differences. On average, almost one in four women and men respondents (24 % and 23 %) said that they experienced discrimination on these grounds in the year preceding the survey. However, there are certain gender differences

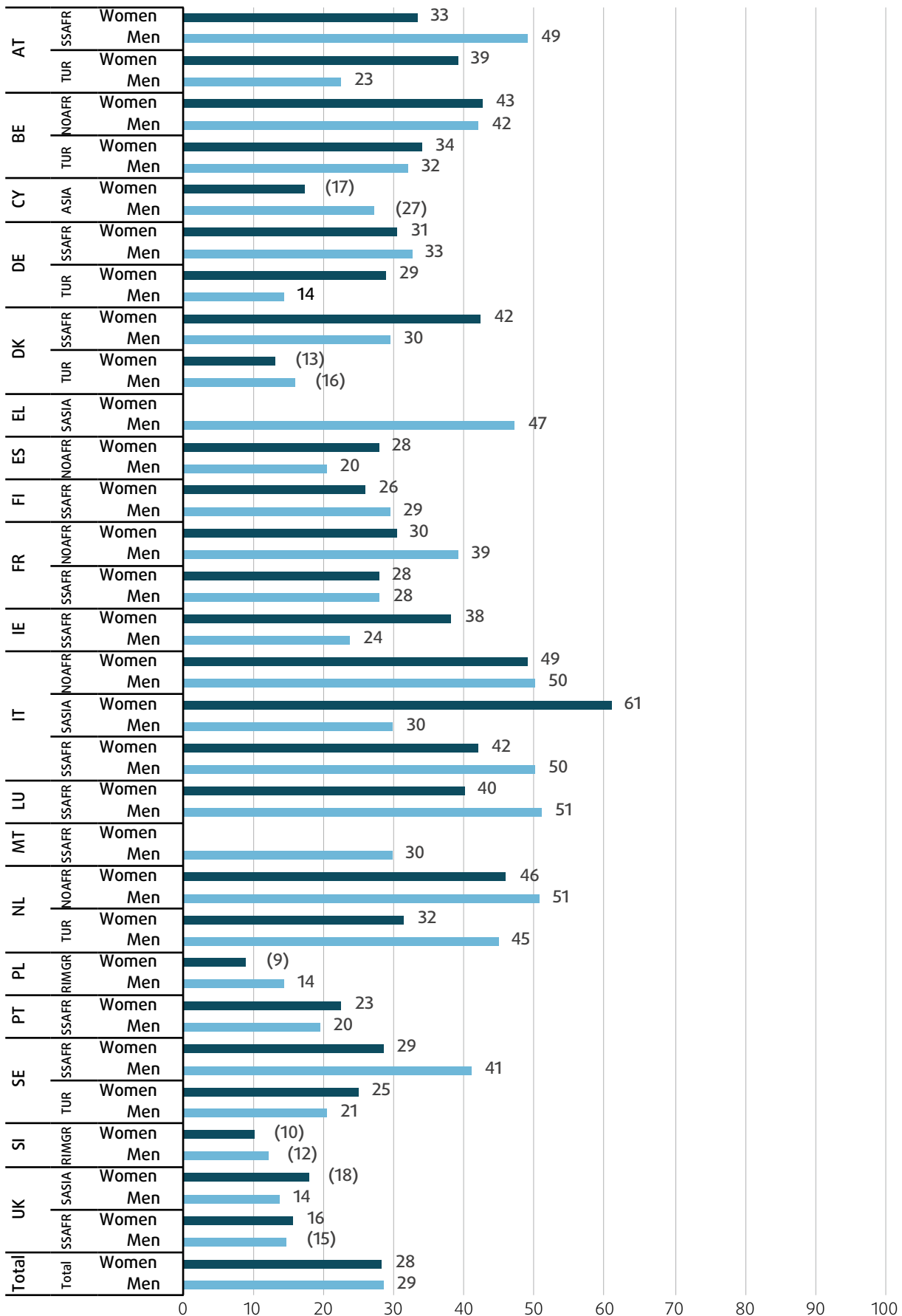
when looking specifically at experiences of discrimination when looking for work in the past five years between the countries and groups surveyed (Figure 8). For example, the share of women respondents with Turkish descent who experienced such discrimination is higher than that of men in Austria (women 39% – men 23%), Germany (women 29 % – men 14 %), Sweden (women 25 % – men 21 %), and Belgium (women 34 % – men 32 %). The share of women respondents of Sub-Saharan African descent experiencing discrimination is higher than that of men in Denmark (women 42 % – men 30 %), Ireland (women 38 % – men 24 %), and Portugal (women 23 % – men 20 %). However, more men than women of African descent experienced discrimination when looking for work in the past five years in Austria (women 33 % – men 49 %), Italy (women 42 % – men 50 %) and Luxembourg (women 40 % – men 51 %).

84 FRA (2017a), p. 14.

85 The EU-MIDIS II analysis uses 'ethnic or immigrant background' as a generic term to refer to the results for three grounds of discrimination covered in the survey: skin colour, ethnic origin or immigrant background, and religion or belief.



Figure 8: Discrimination based on ethnic or immigrant background when looking for work in the five years before the survey, by survey target group and gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}



- Notes:
- ^a Out of all respondents at risk of discrimination based on ethnic or immigrant background when looking for work in the five years before the survey (n=5,517); weighted results.
 - ^b Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published – this is the case above for results concerning female immigrants and descendants of immigrants from South Asia in Greece, and female immigrants and descendants of immigrants from Sub-Saharan Africa in Malta.
 - ^c Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and descendants of immigrants from [country/region]: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.
 - ^d Question: “When looking for work in the past 5 years in [COUNTRY] (or since you have been in [COUNTRY]), have you ever felt discriminated against for any of the following reasons?”

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

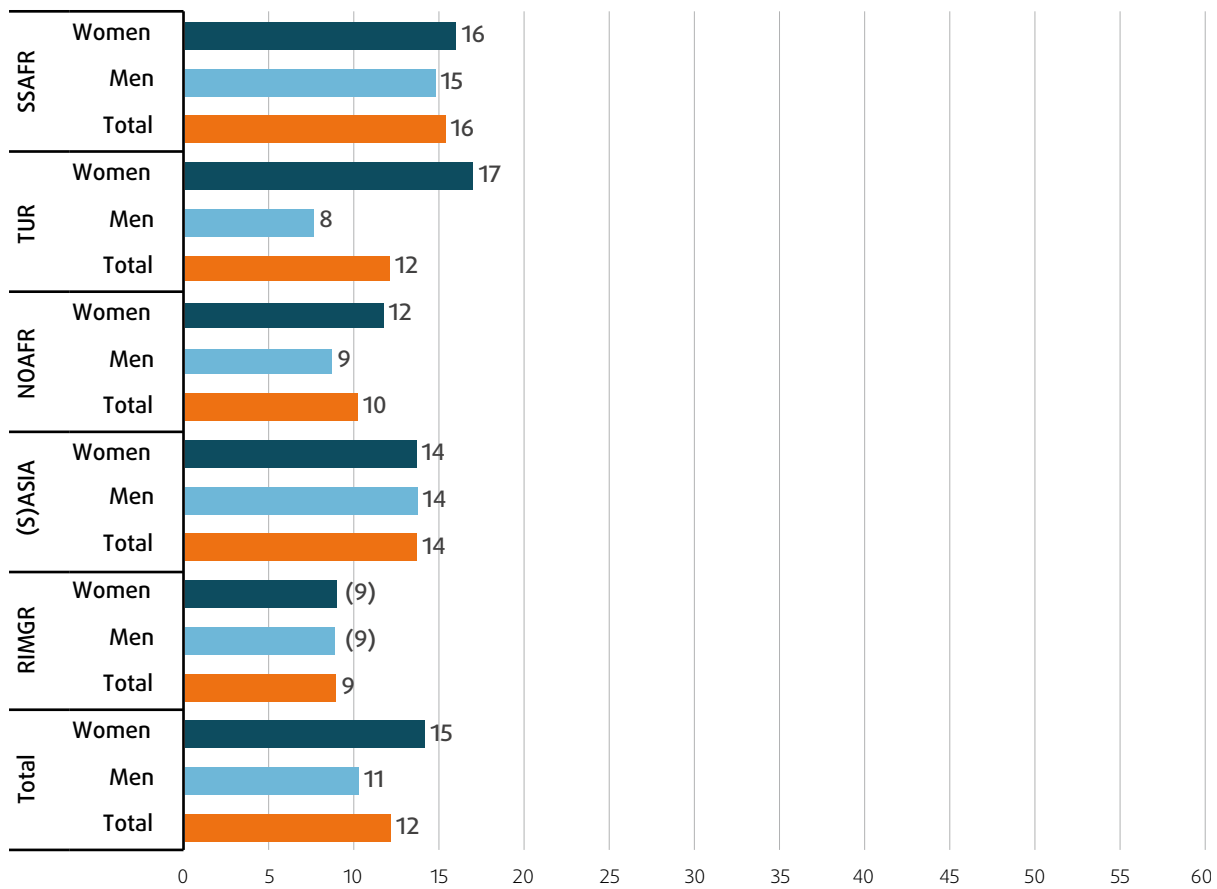
Overall women (15 %) are slightly more likely to report discrimination incidents they experience than men are (11 %). Gender gaps are noticeable when looking at the results by country or by target group (Figure 9). This is particularly pronounced among respondents from Turkey, where there is a nine-percentage point difference between men and women (women 17 %, men 8 %). Similarly, women from north Africa are on average slightly more likely to report discrimination (12 %) than men from the same group (9 %). The very low reporting rates do not allow further in-depth disaggregation of the results. Nevertheless, some prominent gender differences are found, for example, in Germany, where

more than twice as many women (17 %) than men (7 %) reported incidents of discrimination they experienced. In three additional countries, more women than men reported discrimination: Denmark (women 21 % – men 15 %); Finland (women 36 % – men 26 %) and the United Kingdom (women 19 % – men 14 %).⁸⁶ These findings suggest that there is a need to target men in information and awareness-raising efforts about the importance of reporting discrimination. Moreover, it would be useful to explore further, through in-depth qualitative research, why women migrants or women of migrant decent report discrimination more often than men.

⁸⁶ FRA (2017a), p. 44.



Figure 9: Respondents who reported or filed a complaint about last incident of discrimination, by target group and gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}



- Notes:
- ^a Out of all respondents who experienced discrimination based on ethnic or immigrant background in at least one of the domains of daily life asked about in the survey (n=7,411); weighted results.
 - ^b Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.
 - ^c Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and descendants of immigrants from [country/region]: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.
 - ^d Question: "Last time you felt discriminated against because of your ethnic or immigrant background at [domain], did you report or make a complaint about the incident?"

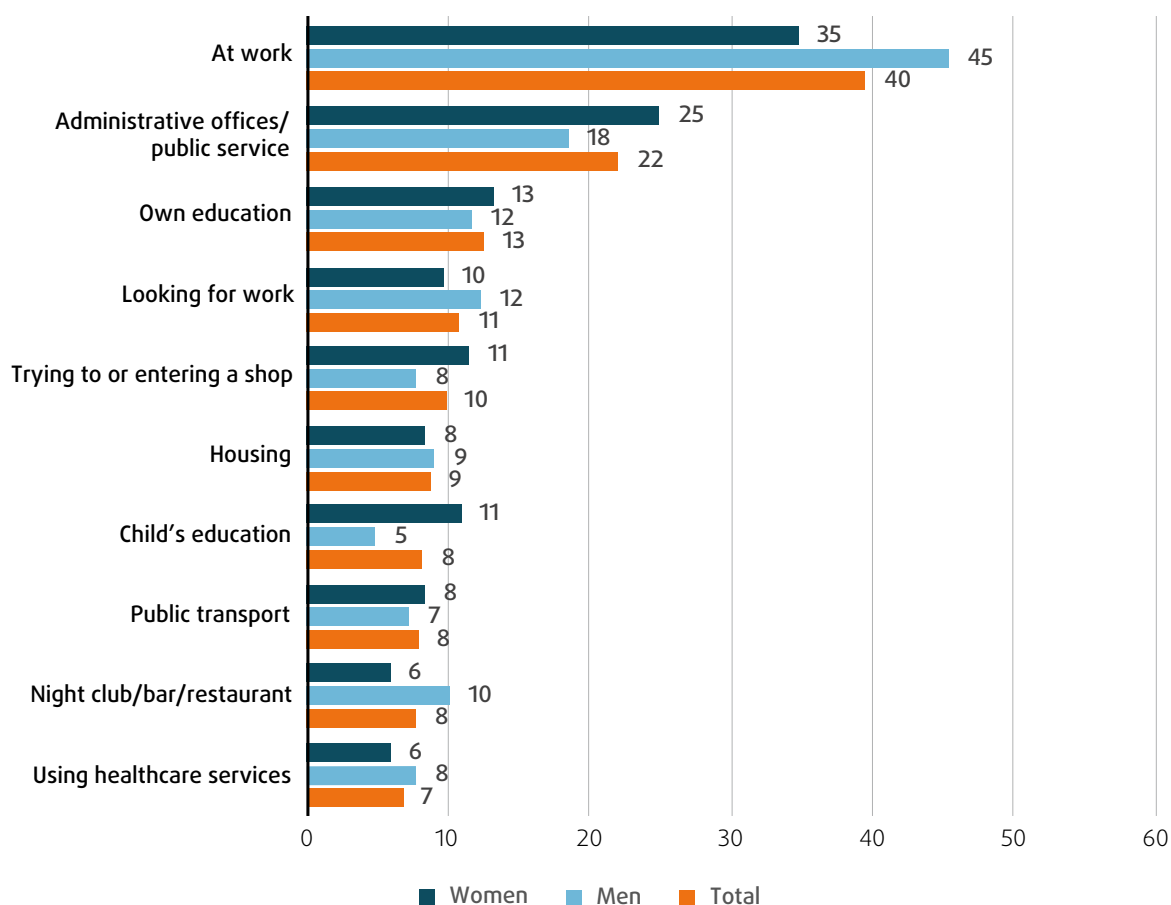
Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

On average, men are more likely to report discrimination incidents that happen at work than women (45 % and 35%, respectively). However, more women than men report incidents involving public authorities and services (25 % and 18 %, respectively), as well as incidents of discrimination in shops or incidents related to their children’s schools. This would appear to reflect

gendered roles with respect to exposure to discrimination in certain settings – for example, as more women are engaged in activities related to shopping and children’s schooling (Figure 10). Finally, incidents related to entering a night club/bar/restaurant, and to using healthcare services, are more often reported by men.⁸⁷

87 FRA (2017a), p. 46.

Figure 10: Domains of daily life where last incident of discrimination based on ethnic or immigrant background was reported, by gender (%)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents who reported the last incident of discrimination on ethnic or immigrant background in at least one of the domains of daily life asked about in the survey (n=1,521, of which men: n=790 and women: n=731); weighted results, sorted by average rate per domain.
^b Question: “Last time you felt discriminated against because of your ethnic or immigrant background at [domain], did you report or make a complaint about the incident?”

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

EU Member States have established equality bodies, as required by all EU equality directives.⁸⁸ In June 2018, the European Commission issued a recommendation on

standards for equality bodies that provides guidance on a range of issues, including on the submission of complaints, recommending that this “should also be facilitated by confidentiality and simple procedures which are free of charge”.⁸⁹ The findings presented here can guide relevant authorities, in particular equality bodies, in developing targeted, gender-specific measures to tackle the many pervasive forms of intersectional and multiple discrimination that can affect immigrant women and men in many areas of life. These could focus on particular aspects of discrimination – including non-reporting of discrimination – that affect women and men to different extents.

⁸⁸ Council Directive 2000/43/EC prohibiting direct and indirect discrimination based on racial or ethnic origin, including harassment; Council Directive 2000/78/EC prohibiting direct or indirect discrimination, including harassment, on the grounds of religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation as regards employment, occupation and vocational training; Council Directive 2004/113/EC3 prohibiting direct and indirect discrimination based on sex, including harassment and sexual harassment, in access to and supply of goods and services; Recast Directive 2006/54/EC4 on sex equality providing for a prohibition against direct and indirect discrimination based on sex, including harassment and sexual harassment, in matters of access to employment, including promotion, and to vocational training, working conditions, including pay, and occupational social security schemes; Directive 2010/41/EU5 prohibiting direct and indirect discrimination, including harassment and sexual harassment, between men and women engaged in an activity in a self-employed capacity.

⁸⁹ European Commission (2018a).

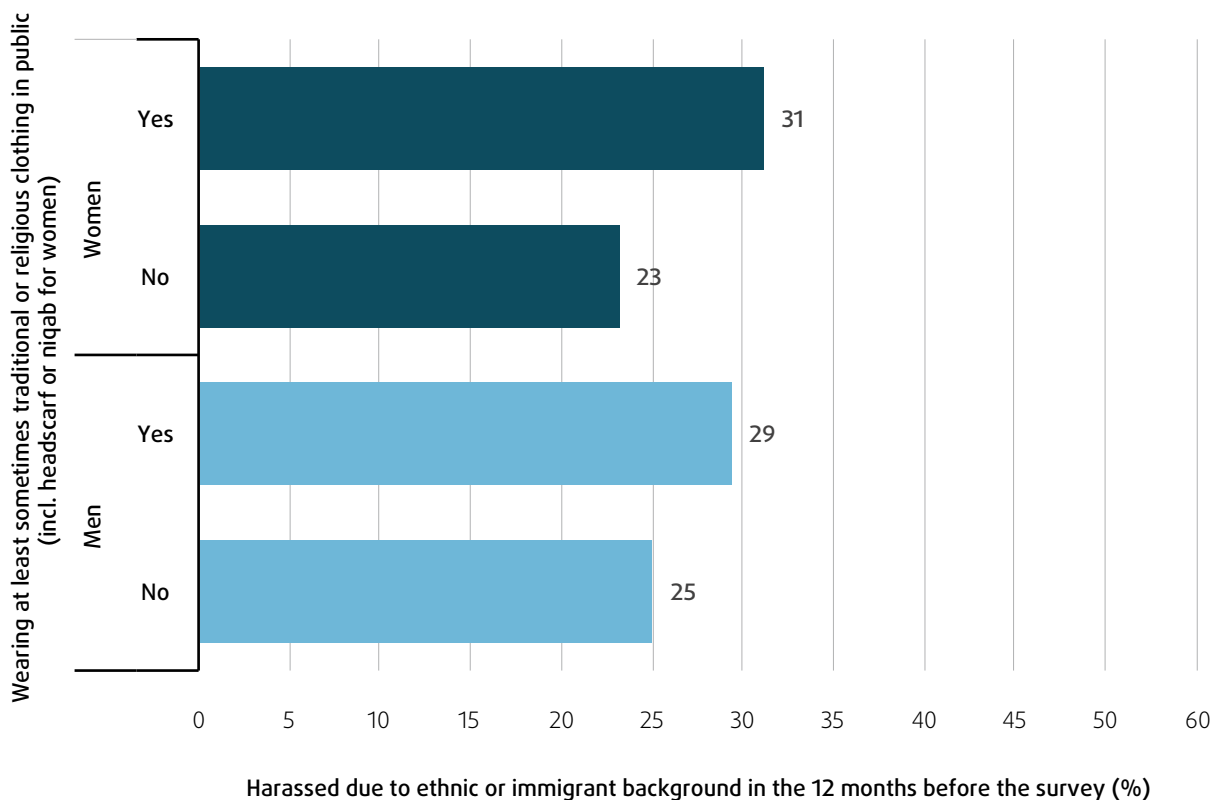
4.2. Harassment and violence

The overall results show similar rates of hate-motivated harassment and violence against women and men. They also show no gender difference in overall reporting rates. However, violent incidents reported by women more often involve someone they know in everyday life – such as an acquaintance or neighbour. Among those who experienced hate-motivated violence, twice as many women as men say that the perpetrator was a neighbour, an acquaintance, a friend or a relative. In addition, twice as many women as men are worried about potential intimidation or retaliation by the perpetrator if they report the incident to the authorities – evidence that would appear to point to incidents of inter-personal violence. The majority of both men (67 %) and women (59 %) identify as the perpetrator someone without an ethnic minority background.

However, more women (41 %) than men (26 %) indicated that the perpetrator also had an ethnic minority background, but different from theirs.⁹⁰

The survey asked respondents if they wear traditional or religious clothing in public.⁹¹ Women were also asked if they wear a headscarf or niqab and if they experienced harassment or violence when wearing it (Figure 11). Overall, about a third of Muslim respondents (29 % men and 31 % women) who at least sometimes wear traditional or religious clothing in public reported experiencing harassment. Moreover, some 39 % of Muslim women respondents who said that they wear a headscarf or a niqab outside the house experienced inappropriate staring or offensive gestures, 22 % experienced verbal insults or offensive comments, and 2 % were physically attacked.⁹²

Figure 11: Muslim respondents who at least sometimes wear traditional or religious clothing (including a headscarf or niqab for women) and experience harassment due to their ethnic or immigrant background in 12 months before the survey, by gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}



- Notes:
- ^a Out of all Muslim respondents (n = 10,527); weighted results.
 - ^b Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.
 - ^c Question: “Do you wear traditional or religious clothing when out in public that is different to the type of clothing typically worn in [COUNTRY]? This includes for example, specific traditional or religious clothing, symbols, headscarf or turban”.
 - ^d Question only asked to Muslim women: “Do you usually wear a headscarf or niqab outside the house?”.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

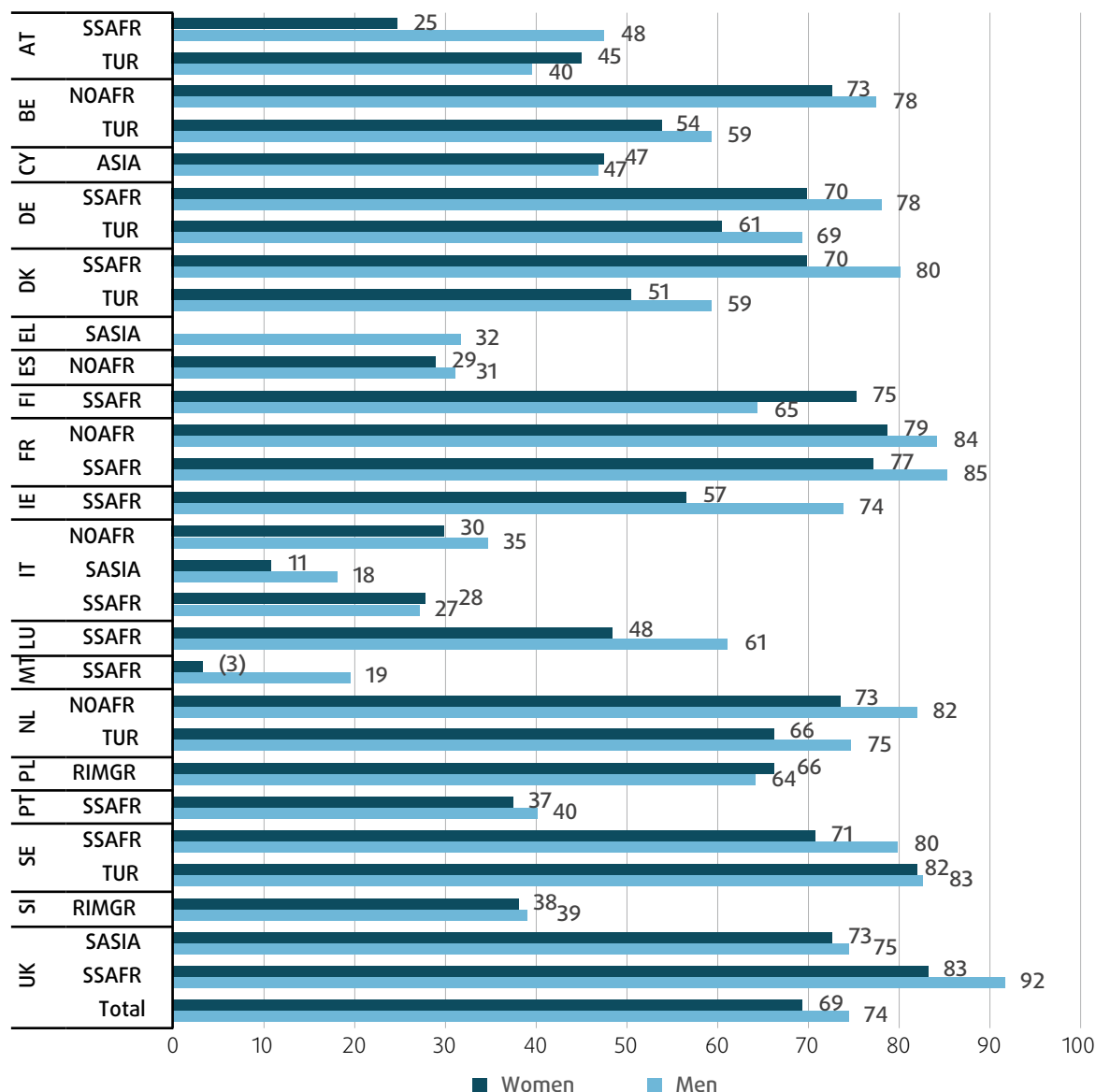
⁹⁰ FRA (2017a), p. 66.
⁹¹ FRA (2017c), p. 45.
⁹² FRA (2017c), p. 44.

4.3. Rights awareness

The survey examined respondents' awareness of the existence of anti-discrimination legislation in their country of residence. Overall, the majority of respondents – 69 % of women and 74 % of men – know about the anti-discrimination laws of their country of residence, but results differ considerably across countries

and target groups (Figure 12). Figure 12 shows that the lowest rights awareness rates are among south Asian women (11 %) and men (18 %) in Italy, and women of African descent in Austria (25 %). Low rights awareness levels are also found in Spain among women (29 %) and men (31 %) of north African descent, as well as in Greece among men of south Asian origin (31 %).

Figure 12: Awareness of anti-discrimination legislation, by target group and gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents who are immigrants or descendants of immigrants (n=16,148); weighted results.
^b Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published – this is the case above for results concerning female immigrants and descendants of immigrants from South Asia in Greece.
^c Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and descendants of immigrants from [country/region]: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.
^d Question: “As far as you are aware, is there a law in [COUNTRY] that forbids discrimination based on skin colour, ethnic origin or religion?”

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

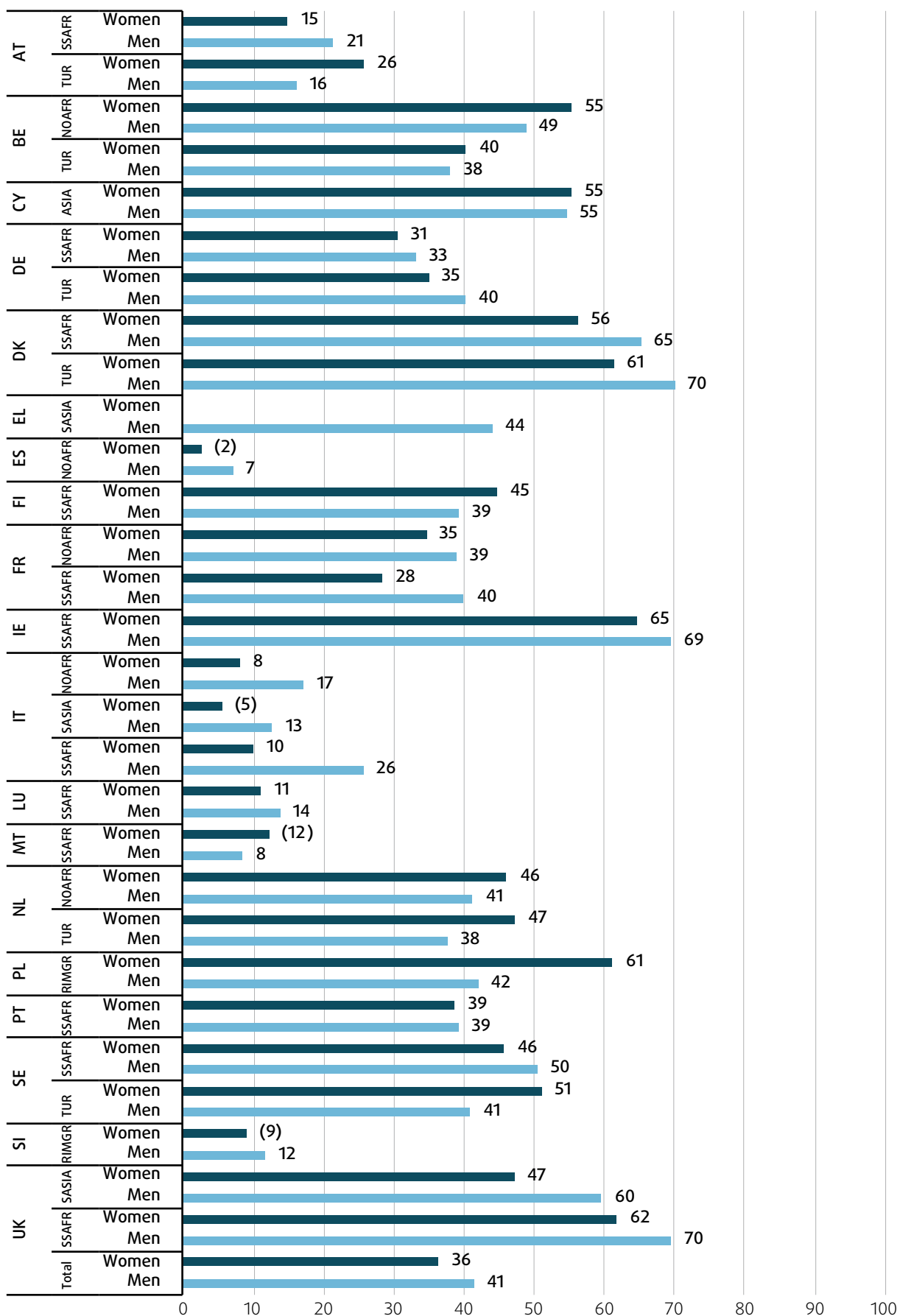
The survey also examined respondents' knowledge of the existence of organisations that offer support and advice in case of discrimination by asking whether they recognise one or more of up to three preselected equality bodies. As [Figure 13](#) shows, many respondents did not recognise any equality body – which might also explain the low reporting rates, as knowledge of the existence and operation of equality bodies is essential for reporting discrimination. On average, more men (41 %) than women (36 %) are aware of at least one equality body, but gender differences appear when looking at specific countries. For example, gender differences are prominent in the United Kingdom, among respondents from south Asia (men: 60 %, women: 47 %), and in France among respondents of Sub-Saharan African descent (men: 40 %, women: 28 %).

Everyone has the right to lodge a complaint and seek redress for incidents of discrimination in the EU. In

June 2018, the European Commission issued a recommendation on standards for equality bodies, which invites Member States to provide them with adequate resources to “enable them to carry out effective awareness-raising aimed at informing the general public of their existence and of the possibility to submit complaints about discrimination”.⁹³ While the recommendation does not include specific reference to women, it would be essential that equality bodies take into account the different ways that women and men experience ethnic discrimination and harassment. Moreover, as FRA has recommended, equality bodies and other relevant authorities, including human rights and Ombuds institutions, should proactively reach out to inform those most likely to experience discrimination, in particular ethnic minority women, of their rights and possibilities for redress. This would apply in particular to those Member States where migrant women's awareness of the existence of equality bodies is low.

⁹³ European Commission (2018a).

Figure 13: Respondents who know at least one equality body, by target group and gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}

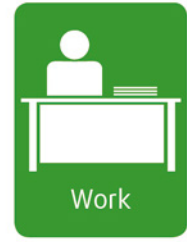


- Notes:
- ^a Out of all respondents who are immigrants or descendants of immigrants (n=16,148); weighted results.
 - ^b Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published – this is the case above for results concerning female immigrants and descendants of immigrants from South Asia in Greece.
 - ^c Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and descendants of immigrants from [country/region]: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.
 - ^d Question: “Have you ever heard of the [NAME OF EQUALITY BODY]?”

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

5

Values and attitudes



Immigration into the EU and the integration of migrants and asylum seekers remains at the top of the political agenda throughout the EU. A Eurobarometer survey conducted in November 2018 found that Europeans view immigration as the most important issue facing the EU by a considerable margin.⁹⁴ Furthermore, the Standard Eurobarometer (89) of spring 2018 found that, in 20 EU countries, at least half of respondents have a negative feeling about immigration from outside the EU. The share of respondents who feel this way is highest in countries with small numbers of immigrants, such as Slovakia (83 %), Hungary (81 %), and the Czech Republic and Latvia (both 80 %).⁹⁵

The EU Council adopted in 2004 a series of common basic principles (CBPs) for immigrant integration.⁹⁶ They highlight the importance of respect for the basic EU values: CBP 2 sets out that integration implies respect for the basic values of the EU, including respect for human rights and equality between women and men; CBP 7 points out that frequent interaction between immigrants and Member State citizens is a fundamental mechanism for integration (e.g. shared forums, intercultural dialogue, education about immigrants and immigrant cultures); CBP 9 focuses on the importance of the participation of immigrants in the democratic process and in the formulation of integration policies and measures, especially at the local level.

This chapter examines some gender differences in the survey results related to social participation and attitudes towards gender equality.

5.1. Societal participation

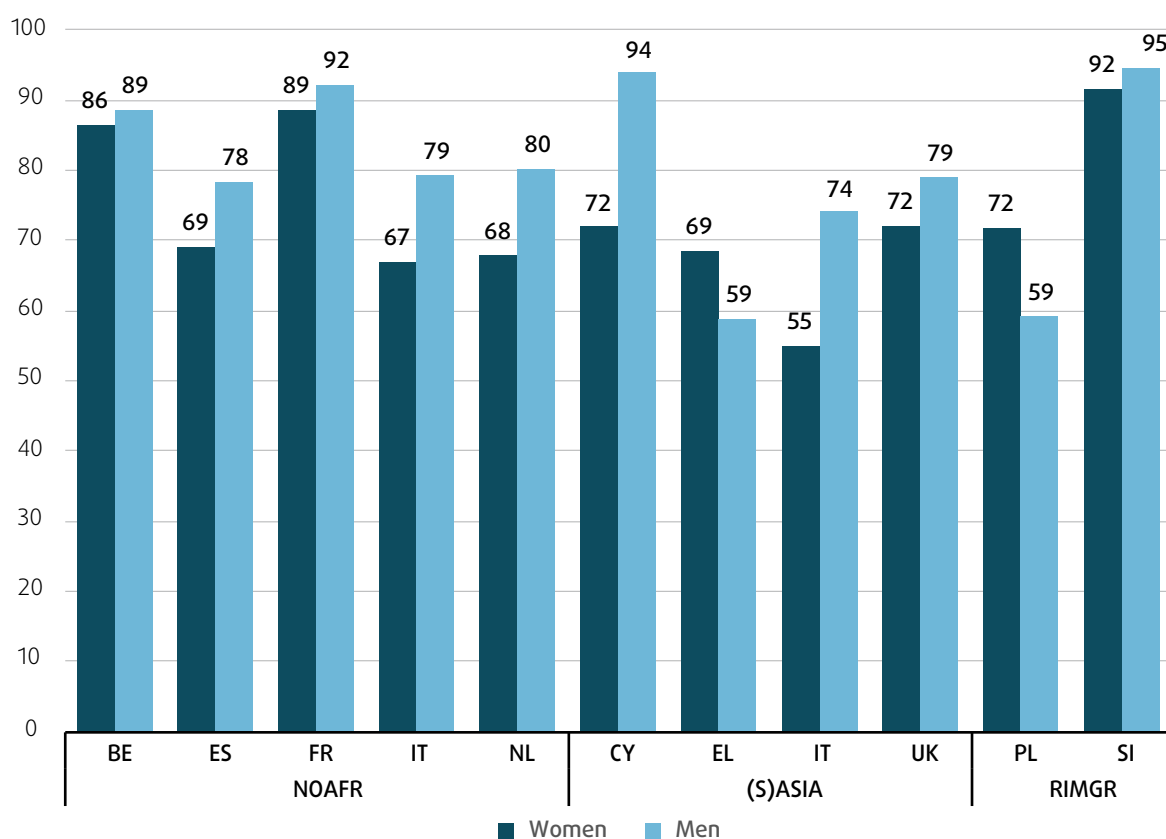
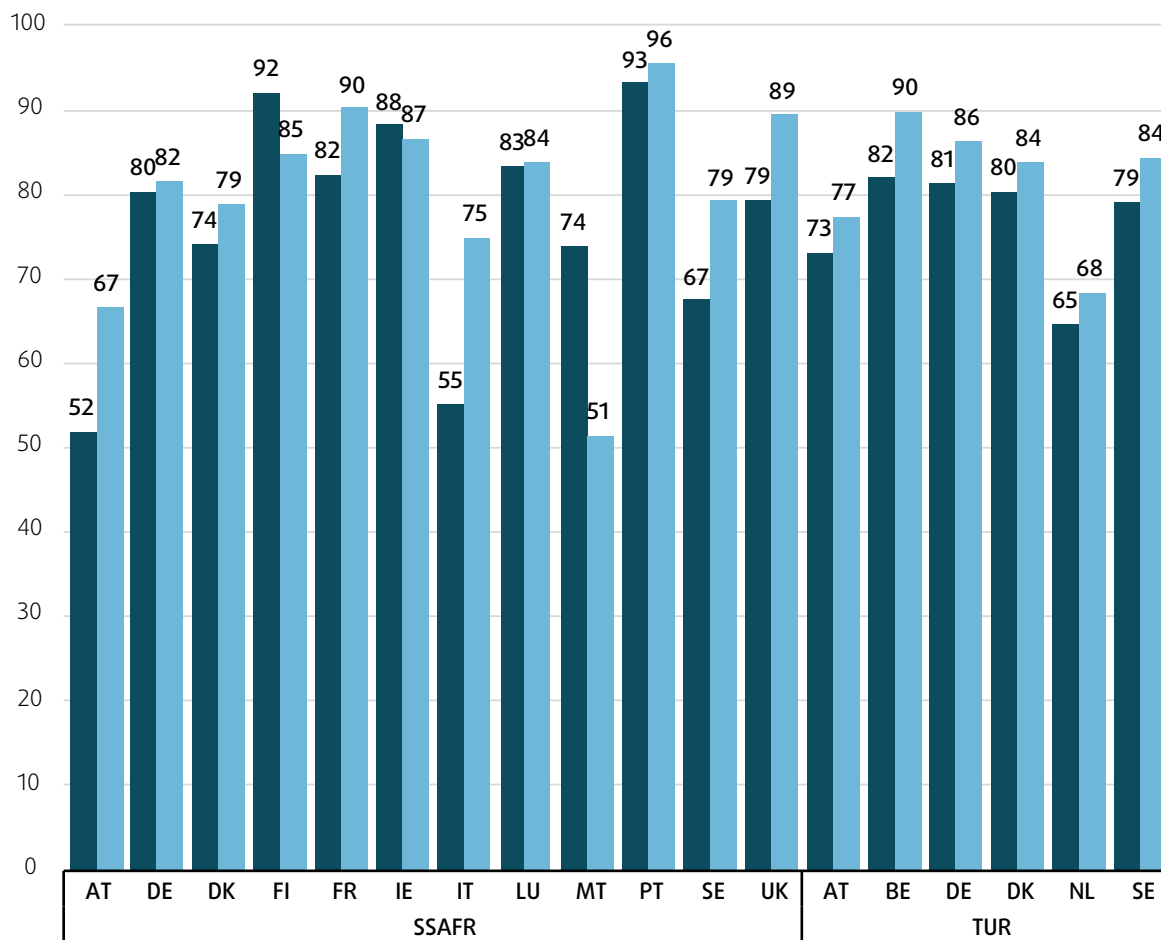
The survey challenges a popular perception that immigrants are socially segregated. The results show that, on average, most women (81 %) and men (87 %) said that they have friends without any minority background (Figure 14). A very similar proportion, 79 % of women and 82 % of men, said that they have friends among people with different ethnic minority backgrounds. The lowest shares of women respondents with friends without an ethnic minority background are found among those with African descent in Austria (52 %) and Italy (55 %), as well as among those with south Asian descent in Italy (55 %). The lowest proportions among men are observed in Malta for persons of African descent (51 %), in Greece for respondents of (South) Asian descent (59 %), and in Poland for recent immigrants (59 %). Gender differences are more pronounced in Austria among respondents with African descent (women 52% – men 67%); in Cyprus among respondents from Asia (women 72 % – men 94 %); in Italy among respondents from (South) Asia (women 55 % – men 74 %), Sub-Saharan Africa (women 55 % – men 75 %) and North Africa (women 67 % – men 79 %).

⁹⁴ Standard Eurobarometer 90, p. 12.

⁹⁵ Standard Eurobarometer 89, p. 37.

⁹⁶ Council of the European Union (2014), *Council conclusions of the Council and the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States on the integration of third-country nationals legally residing in the EU*, Justice and Home Affairs Council Meeting, Luxembourg, 56 June 2014.

Figure 14: Respondents who have friends without an ethnic minority background, by country, target group and gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}



■ Women ■ Men

- Notes: ^a Out of all respondents (n=16,148; women=7034, men=9114); weighted results.
- ^b Question: "Do you have friends who do not have a minority background?"
- ^c Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published – this is the case above for results concerning female immigrants and descendants of immigrants from South Asia in Greece.
- ^d Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and their descendants: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

The survey results can help competent public authorities target their efforts to improve the societal participation of immigrant women and men. This can include efforts to foster participation in social and political life at local level – for example in municipal politics; in school-related activities, such as parent and teacher associations; or in sports. Moreover, it could contribute to ongoing debates on the concentration of people with minority ethnic background in social housing, which should be avoided in order to foster social diversity and interaction.

5.2. Attitudes towards gender equality

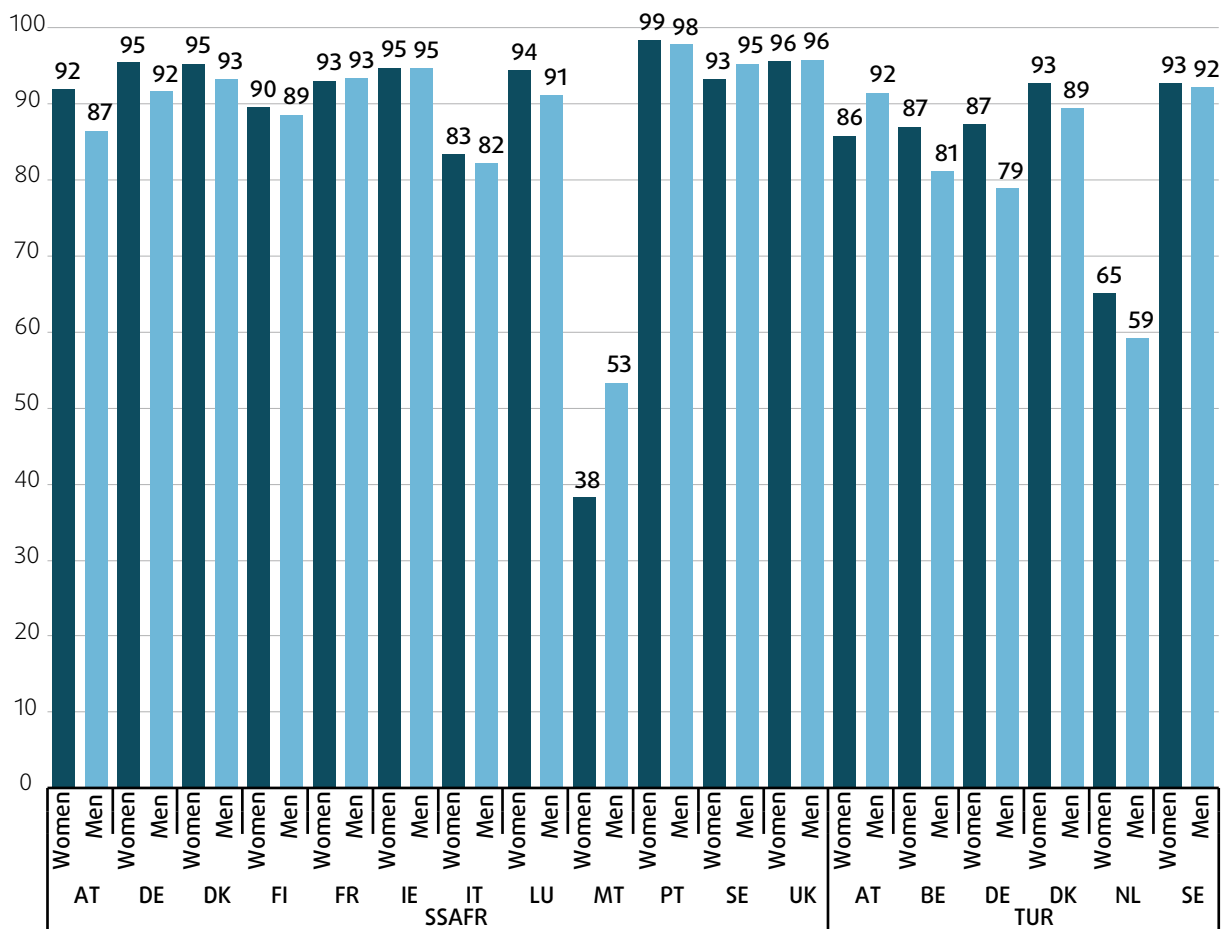
Another popular misconception, which the survey's findings challenge, concerns immigrants' attitudes towards gender equality. In this regard, the survey asked respondents if they agree with the following statements: whether both husband and wife should contribute to household income; whether having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person;

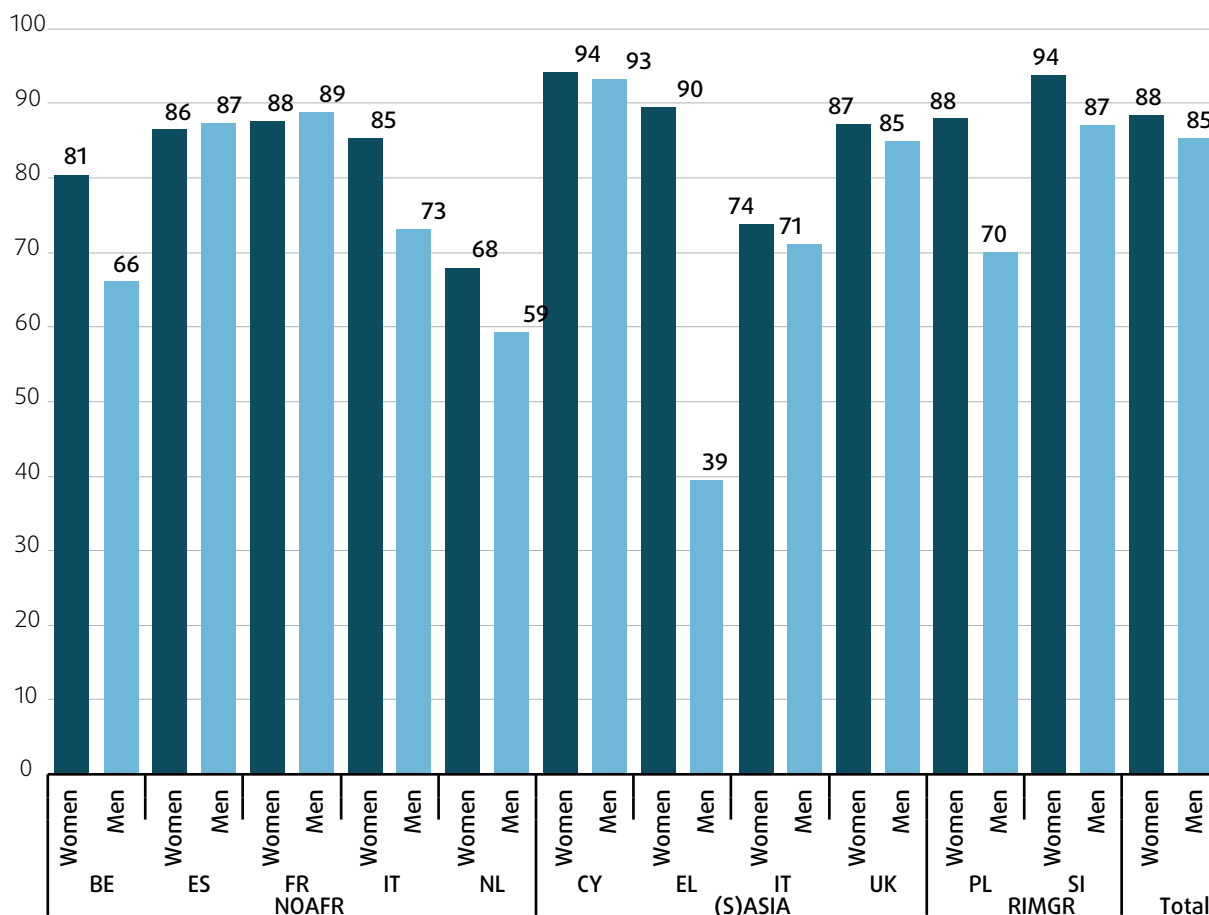
and whether men should take as much responsibility as women for the home and children.

The majority of women and men respondents, except in Greece and Malta, agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that "both husband and wife should contribute to household income" (Figure 15). Gender differences can be observed in a number of countries between women and men among the different groups. The lowest overall proportion among all respondents who agree or strongly agree with this statement is found for men in Greece (39 %) and women in Malta (38 %).⁹⁷ Large gender differences are observed among respondents of North African origin in Belgium (women 81 % and men 66 %), Italy (women 85 % and men 73 %) and the Netherlands (women 68 % and men 59 %), and among recent immigrants in Poland (women 88 % and men 70 %). Also, a higher share of immigrant women of Turkish origin than men agreed with this statement in Germany (87 % versus 79 %) and in Belgium (87 % versus 81 %), whereas in Austria more men than women agreed (86 % versus 92 %).

⁹⁷ The number of women respondents in Greece was very small and results for them cannot be compared.

Figure 15: Extent of agreement with the statement: "Both husband and wife should contribute to household income", by country, target group and gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}





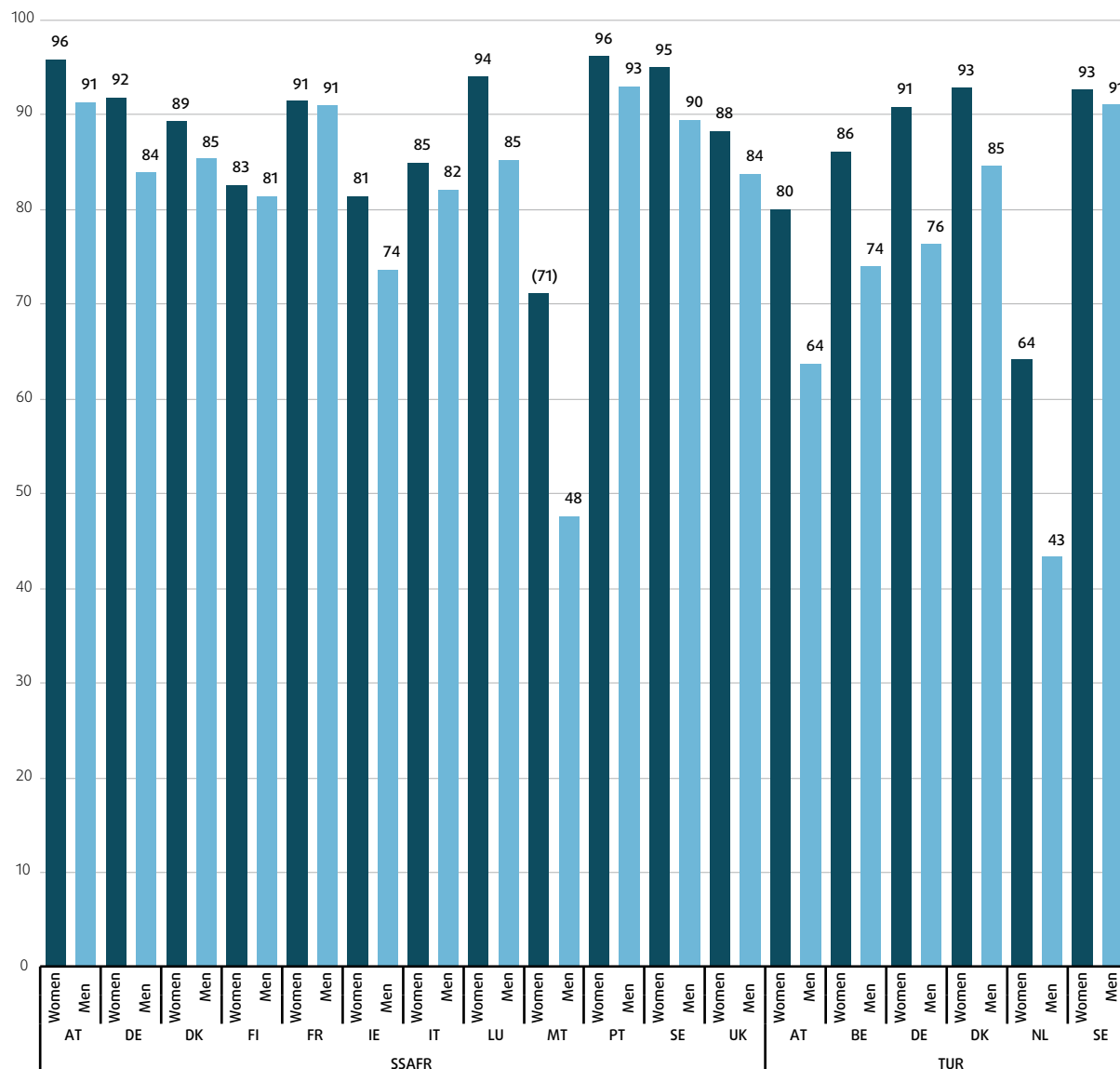
- Notes
- ^a Out of all respondents (n=16,148; women=7034, men=9114); weighted results.
 - ^b Based on respondent questionnaire: "For each of the following statements I read out, can you tell me how much you agree or disagree with each? Both husband and wife should contribute to household income." "Agree" combines answer categories "strongly agree" and "agree".
 - ^c Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published – this is the case above for results concerning female immigrants and descendants of immigrants from South Asia in Greece.
 - ^d Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and their descendants: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.

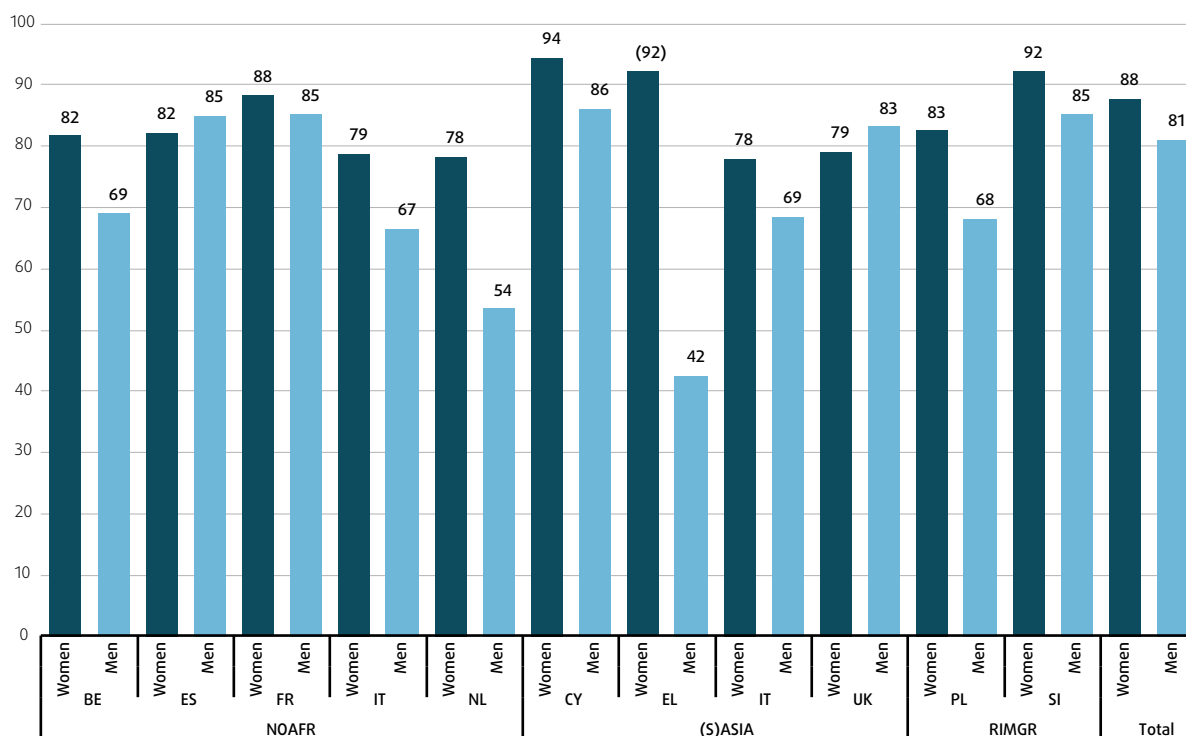
Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

The share of men respondents who agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that "having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person" is overall lower than the share of those agreeing to the previous statement, and stronger gender differences are observed (Figure 16). The lowest overall proportion among all respondents who agree or strongly agree with this statement is found in the Netherlands for

men respondents with Turkish origin (64 %, compared to 43 % of women), as well as for men respondents of North African origin (54 %, compared to 78 % of women). Gender differences are pronounced between women and men of Turkish descent in Austria (80 % women and 64 % men), Belgium (86 % women and 74 % men) and Germany (91 % women and 76 % men).

Figure 16: Extent of agreement with the statement: “Having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person”, by country, target group and gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}





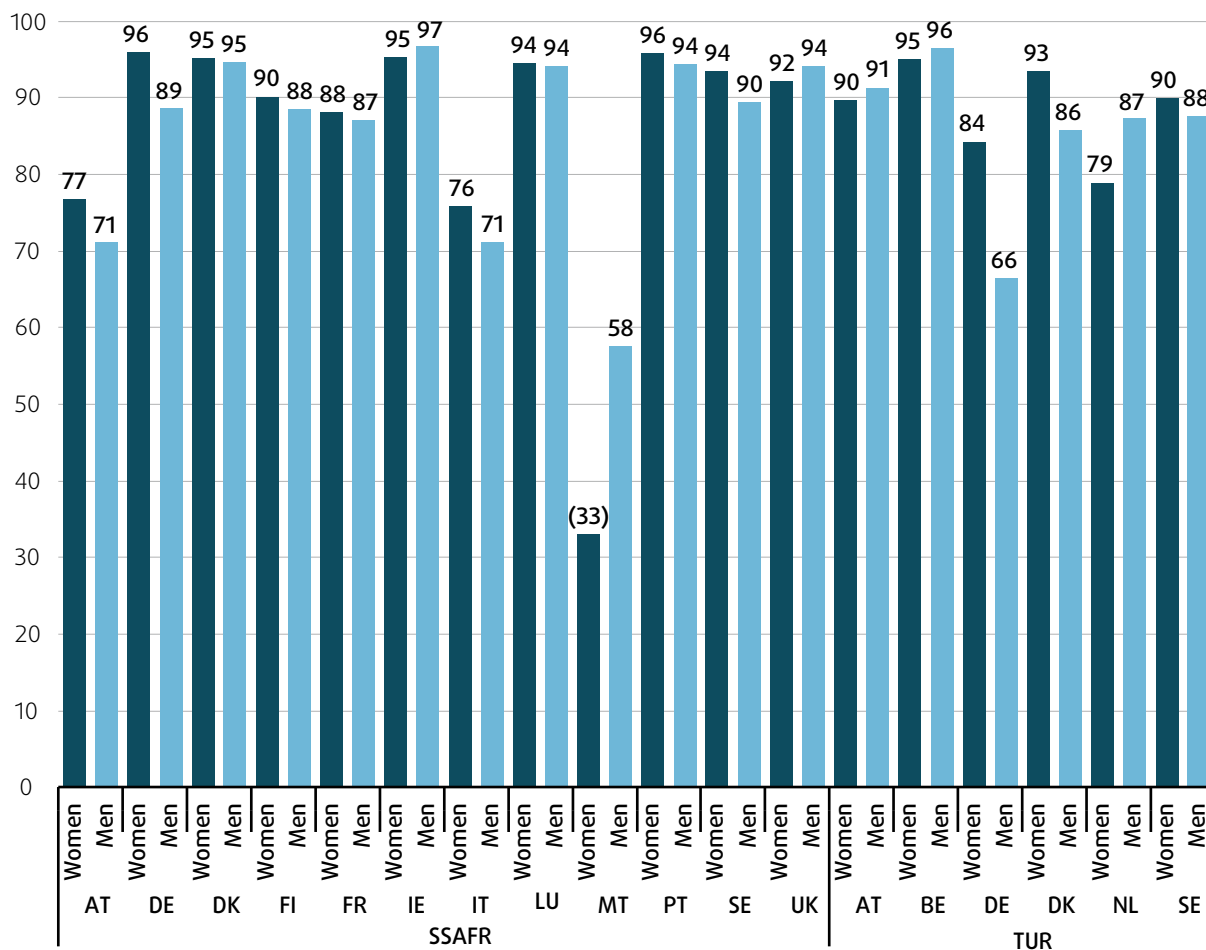
- Notes:
- ^a Out of all respondents (n=16,148; women=7034, men=9114); weighted results.
 - ^b Based on respondent questionnaire: "For each of the following statements I read out, can you tell me how much you agree or disagree with each? Having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person." "Agree" combines answer categories "strongly agree" and "agree".
 - ^c Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published - this is the case above for results concerning female immigrants and descendants of immigrants from South Asia in Greece.
 - ^d Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and their descendants: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries.

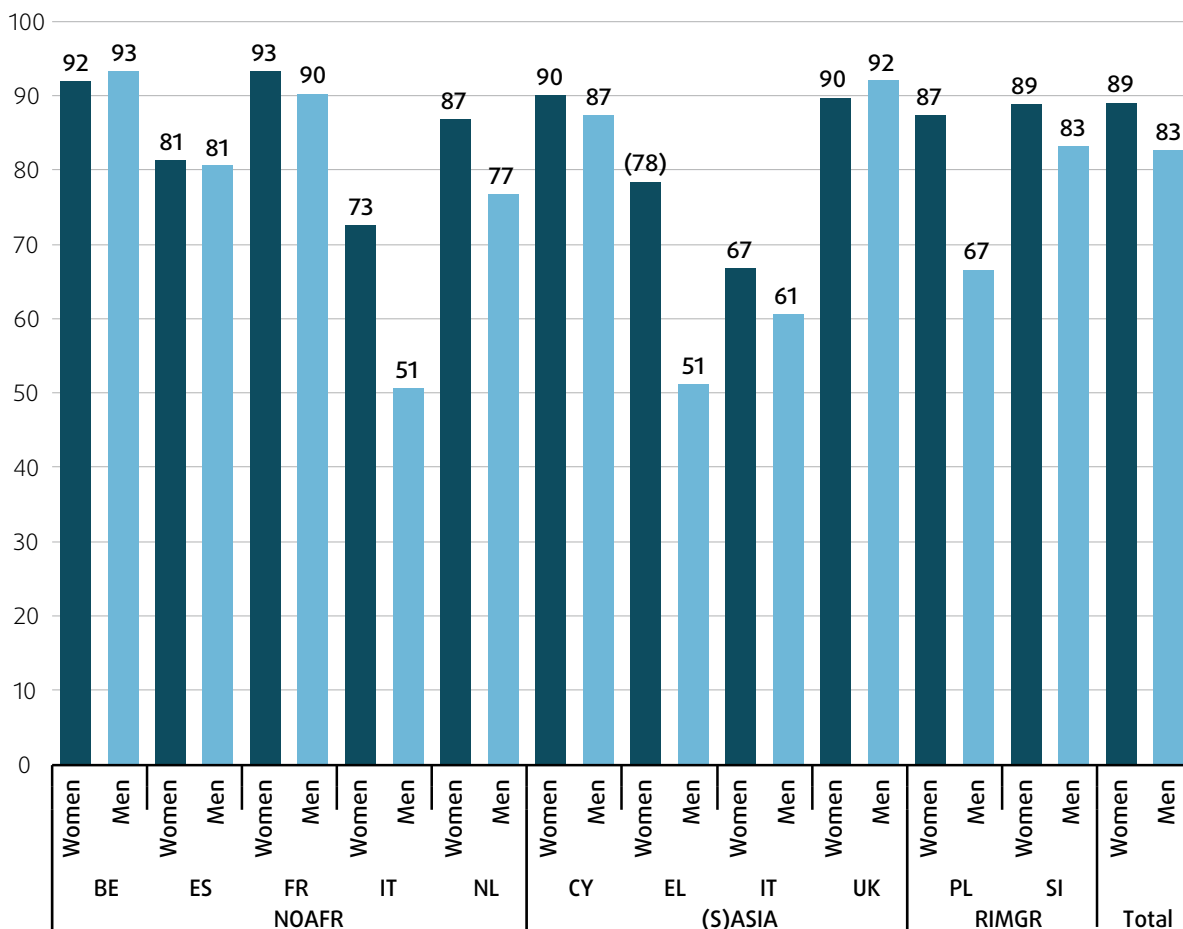
Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

The share of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed that "men should take as much responsibility as women for the home and children" is overall similar to the previous statement (Figure 17). Gender differences are more pronounced among recent immigrants in Poland (87 % of women agree with this statement, compared to 67 % of men); among those of north

African origin in Italy (73 % women and 51 % men) and the Netherlands (87 % women and 77 % men); and among respondents from Turkey in Germany (84 % women and 66 % men) and Denmark (93% women and 86 % men). In the Netherlands, a smaller share of women from Turkey agreed with this statement than men did (79 % women and 87 % men).

Figure 17: Extent of agreement with the statement: "Men should take as much responsibility as women for the home and children", by country, target group and gender (%)^{a,b,c,d}

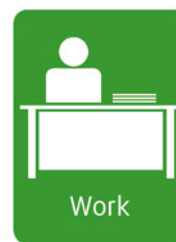




- Notes:
- ^a Out of all respondents (n=16,148; women=7034, men=9114); weighted results.
 - ^b Based on respondent questionnaire: "For each of the following statements I read out, can you tell me how much you agree or disagree with each? Men should take as much responsibility as women for the home and children." "Agree" combines answer categories "strongly agree" and "agree".
 - ^c Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parenthesis. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published – this is the case above for results concerning female immigrants and descendants of immigrants from South Asia in Greece.
 - ^d Acronyms for target groups refer to immigrants from [country/region] and their descendants: TUR = Turkey, SSAFR = Sub-Saharan Africa, NOAFR = North Africa, (S)ASIA = South Asia and Asia, RIMGR = recent immigrants from non-EU countries, RUSMIN = Russian minority, ROMA = Roma minority.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Concluding remarks



Women who migrate or are descendants of migrants constitute a diverse group in terms of culture, religion, as well as citizenship and residence status in the EU. Some came to the EU to work because of labour shortages in the healthcare or service sectors, some as highly skilled employees and others as family members. About a third, on average, are highly educated, but their qualifications are not always recognised in the EU. In addition, some women arrived on their own or with their husbands and/or children seeking international protection.

The EU-MIDIS II survey results show that these women face a range of fundamental rights challenges. This points to the need for migrant integration efforts in the EU to specifically address and tackle these challenges, including persisting gender differences among migrants and descendants of migrants. All women are affected by inequalities in the twelve areas identified in the Beijing Platform for Action, but women with an immigrant background face additional challenges. For this reason, the European Commission in their 2016 EU action plan on the integration of third country nationals refers to the special attention that Member States should pay to gender aspects and the situation of migrant women when designing and implementing integration policies and relevant funding initiatives. The data provided in this report can help more Member States identify the needs of specific groups of immigrant women so that they can target their policy responses more effectively.

“Awareness of the gender dimension” is a key aspect of the EU’s Common Basic Principles on Roma Inclusion and should also apply to immigrant integration. This cross-cutting principle should be applied to integration policies across all areas of life, as well as in the fight against racism, which is a formidable barrier to social inclusion for immigrant women and men.

At a time when immigration and the integration of migrants and asylum seekers remains at the top of the political agenda throughout the EU, the survey results challenge popular perceptions fuelled by an anti-migrant political discourse – showing, namely, that most immigrants, both women and men, are not socially segregated, having friends across the diverse ethnic spectrum of our societies. They point to the need for gender sensitive strategies and measures to increase the societal participation of immigrants in order to foster a more inclusive society. The results also show that the majority of migrant women and men have positive views on gender equality issues: considering that both husband and wife should contribute to household income, that having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person, and that men should take as much responsibility as women for the home and children. At the same time, the survey results show that almost one third of Muslim women with an immigrant origin who wear a headscarf or niqab in public say they experienced harassment. This violates their fundamental rights, including the right guaranteed by Article 10 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights to manifest one’s religion or belief, in worship, teaching, practice and observance; as well as Article 21, prohibiting discrimination on ground of religion or belief.

Learning the national language is critically important for first generation immigrants. The results show that, while the majority of immigrant women overall speak and write the national language well, some face barriers in accessing language courses when they need them for various reasons – such as ‘not knowing where to go’ or because of the lack of childcare provisions.

The lack of such provisions also discourages, in some countries, women with immigrant origin who have to care for small children, elderly or sick relatives from

looking for work. The survey results reveal large gender gaps in employment, with fewer women engaged in paid work than men, which can be the result of lack of language skills, lack of qualifications or of recognition of qualifications gained abroad, lack of state childcare and healthcare provisions, and discriminatory recruitment practices. This is particularly worrying when it comes to young people: the survey results show that the share of young women not in employment, education or training are particularly high in three of the Member States surveyed. This underscores the urgent need for these Member States to undertake further work to identify why this is happening and what the appropriate remedies are – including strong measures to tackle phenomena of discrimination, which can discourage young people with a minority ethnic background from continuing their education or from applying for jobs, contributing to social exclusion and alienation.

The analysis also highlights the consequences of the dependence of women migrating for the purpose of family reunification on their ‘sponsor’, which is usually their husband, for accessing employment or an

autonomous residence permit. The current EU legislation allows Member States to limit access of family members to an autonomous residence permit (independent of that of the sponsor) for a period up to five years, but the Commission, as well as FRA, have recommended minimising such restrictions and the administrative burden related to applications for family reunification.

Member States can use the data generated by the survey and analysed here to assess the impact of measures they have taken and should consider developing targeted and gender-sensitive measures. The EU can also draw on these data and findings to provide guidance on promoting migrant integration, through its future action plans in this area, as well as by including relevant considerations in the Country Specific Recommendations, in a way that takes gender differences fully into account. This could also contribute to achieving the aim of the global Agenda 2030 “to leave no one behind”, and its specific Sustainable Development Goal No. 5, which calls on states “to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls”.



Annex – The survey in a nutshell

The full technical report and questionnaire for the EU-MIDIS II survey are available online.⁹⁸

Selection criteria

EU-MIDIS II respondents were screened for eligibility by self-identification. Groups to be surveyed in each of the countries were selected based on multiple criteria, including the size of the target population, feasibility of carrying out a survey with the respective target population, the group's risk of experiencing 'racially', 'ethnically' or 'religiously' motivated discrimination and victimisation, their vulnerability for being at risk of social exclusion and comparability with previous FRA surveys. Target groups of immigrants and descendants of immigrants (often referred to as first- and second-generation respondents) were identified by asking potential respondents about their country of birth and their parents' country of birth. Clearly defined countries and regions of origin were used for the different groups covered in each of the countries. To be considered a member of one of the target groups of immigrants and descendants of immigrants, respondents either had to be born in one of the selected countries of origin ('first generation') or one or both of their parents had to be from one of these countries ('second generation').

For purposes of the survey, immigrants and descendants of immigrants encompass the following:

'Immigrants' include persons who were **not** born in an EU Member State or an EEA/EFTA country (Liechtenstein, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland), have their usual place of residence in the territory of the EU Member State where the survey was conducted, and had been living in the survey country for at least the previous 12 months.

'Descendants of immigrants' are persons who were born in one of the current 28 EU Member States or EEA/EFTA countries, whose usual place of residence was in the territory of the EU Member State where the survey was conducted, and who had at least one parent **not** born in an EU or EEA/EFTA country (Liechtenstein, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland).

In some EU Member States, EU-MIDIS II interviewed **'recent immigrants'**, namely, persons who immigrated to an EU Member State in the 10 years before the survey (i.e. **after** 2004), whose usual place of residence is in the territory of the EU Member State where the survey was conducted, and who had been living in the survey country for at least 12 months before the

interview. The country of birth of 'recent immigrants' can be any country other than the EU-28 and other than the EEA/EFTA countries.

EU-MIDIS II covered the following groups under the concept 'immigrants and descendants of immigrants':

- Immigrants and descendants of immigrants from Turkey (in 6 EU Member States);
- Immigrants and descendants of immigrants from North Africa (in 5 EU Member States);
- Immigrants and descendants of immigrants from Sub-Saharan Africa (in 12 EU Member States);
- Immigrants and descendants of immigrants from South Asia and Asia (in 4 EU Member States);
- Recent immigrants from other non-EU/EFTA countries (in 2 EU Member States).

Data collection

The fieldwork was conducted by Ipsos MORI, a large international survey company based in the United Kingdom, under the supervision of FRA according to strict quality control procedures participating in interviewer training sessions and observing data collection activities.

The main interview mode was Computer Assisted Personal Interview (CAPI) – face-to-face interviews administered by interviewers using a computerised questionnaire. The English source questionnaire, developed by FRA, was translated into 22 EU languages as well as into Arabic, Kurdish, Russian, Somali, Tamazight and Turkish. Interviewers were specially trained for the survey, including cultural and ethical training. Wherever possible or necessary, interviewers with the same ethnic background and/or gender conducted the interviews to increase responsiveness among the target groups.

Sampling

Most of the target groups in EU-MIDIS II can be considered as 'hard-to-reach' for survey research – in terms of being relatively small in size and/or dispersed – and due to the absence of sampling frames of the target groups. Whenever possible, a sample was drawn from a sampling frame covering the target population. However, the opportunities to sample the target population differed greatly across Member States due to different availability of sampling frames and distribution of the target group in the countries (i.e. list of persons that can

⁹⁸ FRA (2017b).

be used to make a controlled representative selection of the target group).

Advanced and new sampling methodologies had to be developed and employed in most countries, and the best possible design was chosen for each target group in each of the countries. For some target groups in some countries, a combination of different methods was used to ensure better coverage of the target population. Detailed descriptions of sampling methods used are published in the Technical Report.

In general, national coverage in some countries had to be reduced for efficiency reasons. This means that in multistage sampling, areas with lower densities of the target population were excluded because screening of the target population would not have been possible. In most countries, areas with densities below a certain threshold had to be excluded. These thresholds vary from areas with fewer than 2.7 % in Cyprus to the exceptional case of 30 % in Estonia. These cut-off points, which were unavoidable due to the need for

screening respondents in most countries, limited the overall coverage of the target population in the countries. The median coverage across countries and target groups was 60 % of the target population.

Weighting

The survey results presented in this report are based on weighted data to reflect the selection probabilities of each household and individual based on the sampling design. The weights also account for the differences in the (estimated) size of the target population in each of the countries. Where possible, the sample was post-stratified to the regional distribution and population characteristics of the covered target population.⁹⁹ In Finland and the Netherlands, the sample was also adjusted to the gender and age distribution. The sample in the Netherlands was further adjusted according to generation (first- or second-generation), country of origin for immigrants and descendants of immigrants from North Africa, and age.

⁹⁹ External information and data sources for post-stratification are limited. Therefore, in most countries only region and urbanity were used for post-stratification. For example, in Malta, there is a very low percentage of women among the target group. In the absence of detailed population statistics for the target group in Malta, it is still assumed that women were slightly under-represented in the sample but this cannot be adjusted for with the exception of non-response adjustment.



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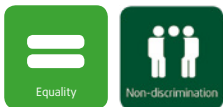
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HELPING TO MAKE FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS A REALITY FOR EVERYONE IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

FRA's second EU Minorities and Discrimination survey (EU-MIDIS II) collected information from over 25,000 respondents with different ethnic minority and immigrant backgrounds across all 28 EU Member States. The main findings from the survey, published in 2017, pointed to a number of differences in the way women and men with immigrant backgrounds across the European Union (EU) experience how their rights are respected. This report summarises some of the most relevant survey findings in this regard, which show the need for targeted, gender-sensitive measures that promote the integration of – specifically – women who are immigrants or descendants of immigrants.



SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

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