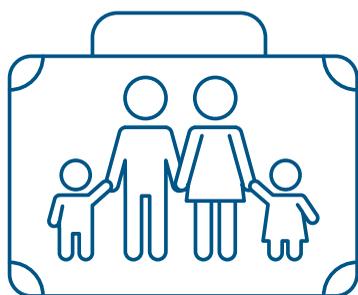

SOCIAL NEEDS IN SPAIN

Analysis of social needs of the immigrant population

Report

6.5

November 2020



Credits

"la Caixa" Social Observatory

Publisher: "la Caixa" Banking Foundation, 2020
Plaza Weyler 3
07001, Palma

ISBN 978-84-9900-250-7

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The "la Caixa" Banking Foundation does not necessarily share the opinion of the authors of this publication.

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Report 6 on social needs by population group focuses on five different social segments: children, young adults, senior citizens, women and immigrants. The bibliography that appears in each of the reports is the bibliography for all the groups.

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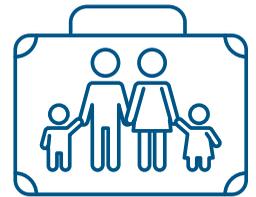
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Executive summary

Immigrants

- Once the impact of the financial crisis had abated, most immigrants found jobs again, with no major differences between them and native-born workers. However, there is still a significant income gap between the two groups due to the higher concentration of immigrants (especially women) in more insecure jobs and in sectors that are not as well paid.
- Housing is a social need that presents immigrant families with difficulties when it comes to meeting their requirements satisfactorily due to high costs, insufficient supply in the rental market and the lack of effective public aid. The consequence of this is a considerable financial overburden as a result of the spending associated with residential accommodation and access to housing that is worse in terms of its suitability for habitation.



THE IMMIGRANT POPULATION

THE SITUATION IN SPAIN



People born abroad have constituted a large population group ever since Spain became a host country in the mid-1990s. At an overall level, influxes of migrants helped to increase and rejuvenate the population, improved its state of health, raised production and balanced public finances. In social terms, these new residents are a collective which, even though it is mixed, often faces the same problems following their arrival in Spain. Education, employment, housing and access to basic services such as healthcare are all essential areas for guaranteeing their social inclusion, as are recognition and participation.

This section details a series of indicators that are useful for evaluating the degree to which immigrants' main social needs are met in comparison with the native-born population. For the purposes of this analysis, any person living in a household whose person of reference was born outside Spain is regarded as an immigrant except in the case of the indicators used in the Active Population Survey,* in which the interviewee's own place of birth is taken into account.

Note:

* The four indicators from the Active Population Survey are: 1) No-one in the household in work; 2) Insecure employment; 3) Not having reached an adequate educational level; and 4) Dropping out of school early. The other indicators are calculated based on the Living Conditions Survey/EU-SILC.

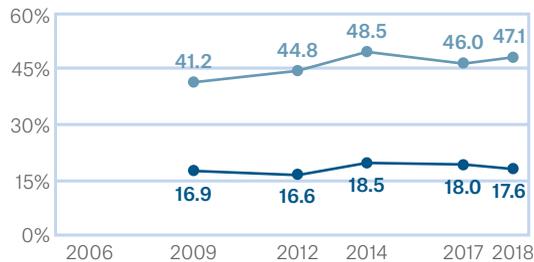


Indicators that measure social needs among immigrants in Spain

● Immigrants ● Non-immigrants

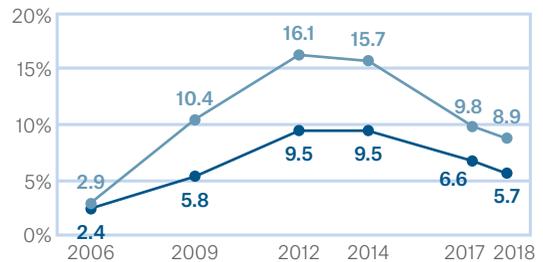
Risk of monetary poverty:

Percentage of people whose disposable income within the family is below the poverty threshold.



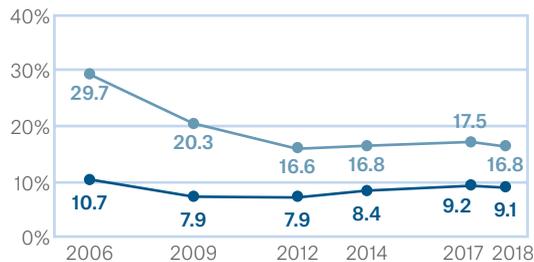
No-one in the household in work:

Percentage of people who live in a household in which none of the potentially active members of the population are in work.



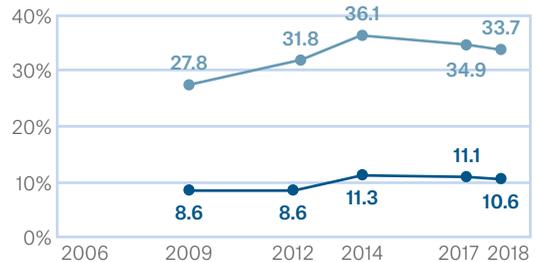
Insecure employment:

Percentage of people who live in households where everyone in work is on a temporary contract.



In-work poverty:

Percentage of people in work who live in households whose income as a family is below the poverty threshold.



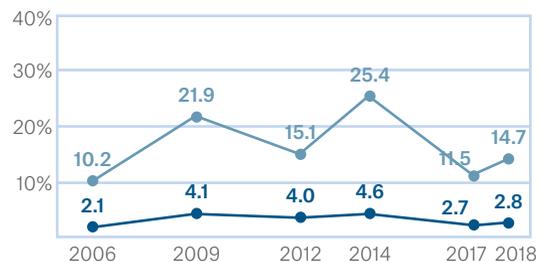
Excessive housing costs:

Percentage of people in whose households the housing costs (rent, mortgage interest and capital payments, bills, etc.), net of any possible housing benefit received, exceed 30% of the household's disposable income.



Late rent or mortgage payment:

Percentage of people living in households that have paid their rent or mortgage late at least once in the last year.



● Immigrants **● Non-immigrants**

Overcrowding:

Percentage of people whose homes do not have sufficient space according to the criterion established by Eurostat. ⁽¹⁾



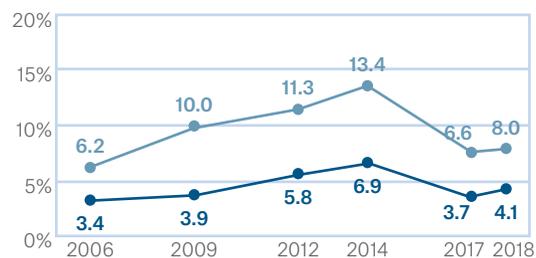
Not having reached an adequate educational level:

Percentage of people (aged between 25 and 64) who have not reached secondary education level. ⁽²⁾



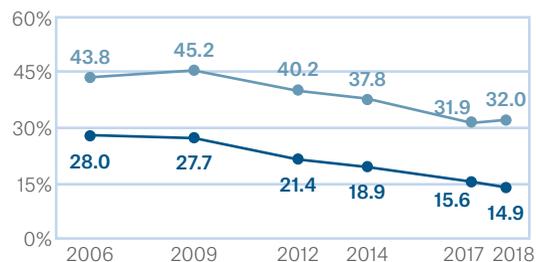
Inability to access dental care:

Percentage of adults (people aged 16 or over) who on some occasion in the last twelve months did not go to the dentist for financial reasons or because it was too far or because they had to wait too long.



Dropping out of school:

Percentage of people aged between 18 and 24 who dropped out of school early. ⁽³⁾



Notas:

(1) They do not have at least: a) a bedroom for the household; b) a bedroom for each couple; c) a bedroom for each single person aged 18 or over; d) a bedroom for every two children of the same gender aged between 12 and 17; e) a bedroom for each single person of a different gender aged between 12 and 17; and f) a bedroom for every two children under the age of 12.

(2) They have not succeeded in reaching the end of compulsory education.

(3) They have not continued their education after compulsory education (completing the last two years of secondary schooling, professional or vocational training, or any training course not subject to official oversight).

Source:

Compiled in-house using data from the Living Conditions Survey and the Active Population Survey (second quarter).

Financial wellbeing and the labour market

Families headed by an immigrant are at 2.5 times greater risk of poverty than those born in Spain, a disparity that grew during the economic crisis. The figure for 2014, based on 2013 income, was the least favourable for the immigrant population: at that time, almost one in two people were living in households with an income less than that established as sufficient to avoid the risk of poverty. The imbalance in the poverty risk is corroborated, and even exacerbated, if we examine the more extreme poverty indicators, such as those based on level of consumption or material deprivation (not included in the table).

Employment plays a key part for immigrant families, not just because of the possibility of thereby obtaining income with which to sustain themselves and also of sending remittances back to their countries of origin, but also because the renewal of the permits required to remain in the country are dependent on it in the early stages of people's migratory projects. Prior to the economic crisis, 3% of the population (around 1 million people, including immigrants and the native-born population) lived in households in which every member was unemployed. In 2013, in contrast, this figure verged on 11% of the population (around 5 million people). The fall in employment from 2009 onwards affected every family, but particularly immigrant families, among whom 16% did not have a single member in work during the central years of the recession. This opened a gap that has still not yet fully closed after years in which employment rates have improved. In fact, even though the indicators have improved for immigrants, if we compare their evolution with that of the native-born population, we can see how the divide between them has grown significantly.

Insecure jobs are a major problem in the Spanish labour market, however it does not affect all workers equally. Immigrant families depend to a greater extent on jobs that are temporary and hence more insecure and unstable: in 2006, the proportion of immigrants in families in which every contract was temporary was almost three times that of the native-born population. With the economic crisis, the values fell, as many temporary contracts ended with people becoming unemployed, and the divide reduced somewhat but did not disappear.

As well as being more precarious, the jobs taken on by immigrants are in many instances worse paid, plus the employment conditions – working hours, shifts and opportunities for promotion – are also worse. Catering, intensive agriculture, domestic work and personal services such as looking after dependent people are some of the sectors that immigrant labour tend to be employed in given the difficulty of filling these jobs with Spanish workers. A consequence of this concentration in these sectors and in less attractive jobs are the high rates of in-work poverty that are found: over a third of immigrant workers live in families with a disposable income that does not exceed the poverty threshold despite their jobs. This situation worsened during the economic crisis. This problem also exists among the native-born population, but to a lesser degree and it has not varied much over time. It is important to curb in-work poverty, among other reasons because it is particularly connected with unequal opportunities for children and child poverty, which in Spain is high in the European context.

Housing

Finding a decent home is one of the greatest obstacles faced by families that decide to settle in our country. The property bubble that developed in Spain during the period with the greatest influx of migrants (the ten boom years prior to the economic crisis) did not make things easy for households of modest means, many of which went deep into debt in order to be able to acquire a flat or had to spend a significant proportion of their pay on the rent. Whichever year we look at, the cost of housing was an excessive burden for more than half of immigrants, as it took up more than 30% of their income. Among the native-born population, this figure was three times lower.

In this context, it is not surprising that in the harshest years of the economic crisis, up to 25% of the immigrant population paid the occasional monthly rent or mortgage payment late, a situation that never affected more than 5% of other families. These late payments are significant because they reveal extreme financial difficulty (housing is almost always the last spending item that to go unpaid

when income falls) and can be a prelude to the eviction processes that leave people homeless.

One way for people to bring down the cost of their housing is to opt for smaller homes, often excessively so in relation to the people who will be living in it. Overcrowding problems, measured in accordance with the standard established by Eurostat, are rare among native-born families (between 3% and 5% depending on the year), but they affect a significant part of the population of foreign origin (between 13% and 20%). The lack of space in the home can have a negative impact on everyday life, affecting aspects such as comfort, privacy and the availability of spaces suitable for eating, studying or resting.

Health and lifestyle habits

With regard to health, Spain opted for a model in which health cards that allow access to the system are granted based on de facto residence (registration with the local council) regardless of the person's legal status. After the period in which this right was rescinded in response to the implementation (which was stricter in some regions than others) of the cuts introduced by Royal Decree 16/2012, the health system's universal coverage was restored by Royal Decree 7/2018. Even so, public healthcare only partially covers areas such as dental care, and copayments are demanded in others, such as acquiring medication. Even though the accessibility of the health system is good in Spain, including for immigrants, the economic crisis led to an increase in the percentage of people who were unable to afford certain health-related costs. In the case of dental treatment, the inaccessibility percentages doubled in just a few years, rising to around 14% among immigrants in 2014, twice the figure found among the native-born population. Between 2014 and 2017, there was a significant improvement in both groups, but the gap remains.

Education

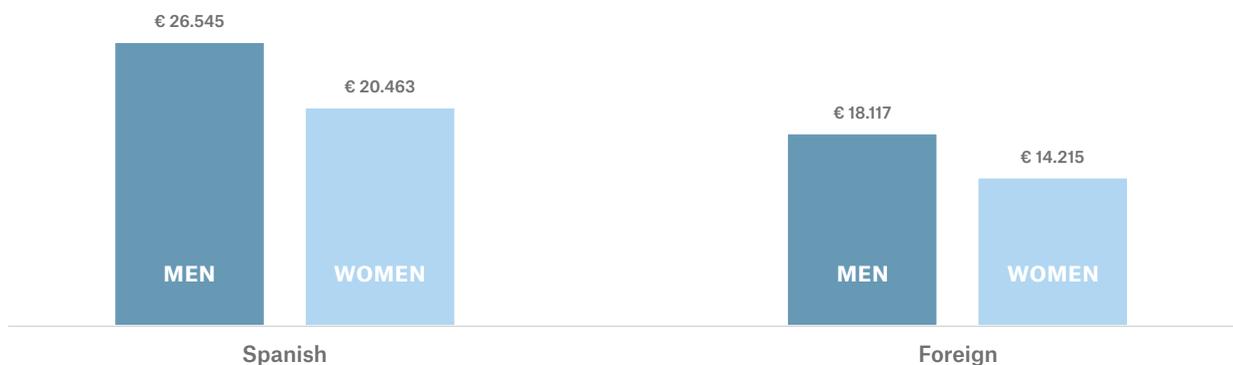
Access to education has also been guided by the principle of universality, meaning that no child has been deprived of their legal right to an education regardless of their parents' situation vis-à-vis the authorities. This is important, but even so it does not in itself guarantee equal educational opportunities, since their socioeconomic background and their status as immigrants can affect children's access to post-compulsory education and training and their academic results. The 2018 figures on young adults aged 18 to 24 who drop out of education early and on the inadequate level of education among adults aged 25 to 64 are twice as high among people of foreign origin as they are among people born in Spain. Moreover, even though these two indicators have improved since 2006, the reduction is much higher among the native-born population, widening the educational gap connected with origin. Given the importance of education and training to employability, it is worrying that almost a third of young immigrants leave the education system once they have completed their compulsory schooling.

THE TWO-FOLD SALARY GAP FOR IMMIGRANT WOMEN

In 2016, foreign women workers earned on average just over €14,000 (gross) a year, compared to the almost €27,000 earned by Spanish males. The figures in the Pay Structure Survey clearly illustrate this two-fold divide, of gender and of origin, that determines the paltry earnings of immigrant women employed in our country. A range of factors explain this situation, among them the concentration

of women, especially immigrant women, in poorly paid sectors, occupations and jobs, their greater tendency to be employed in part-time work, the importance of the informal economy, interruptions to their careers to look after household members, and the direct and indirect discrimination they suffer due to their sex and/or nationality.

Figure 2. Average annual earnings per worker by sex and nationality, 2016.



Source:

Compiled in-house using data from the National Statistics Institute (Pay Structure Survey 2016).

THE SITUATION IN EUROPE



Of the approximately 500 million people living today in EU countries, some 55 million belong to families headed by a person born in a country other than the one they live in.² Of this population of foreign origin, 94% live in one of the countries of the EU-15 and 74% live in one of the major host countries: the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Italy and Spain. Most of these people were born in countries outside the EU, though there are also consolidated migratory flows within the territory of the EU. In addition, Austria, Belgium, Ireland and Sweden are countries with high percentages of people of foreign origin, accounting for around 20% of their populations.

The poverty risk rate among immigrants residing in Spain stands at 46% and is clearly higher than that of the same group in the EU-28 as a whole. In fact, only in Spain and Greece is this figure over 40%. In comparison with the native-born population, however, Spain is not the country with the highest values, as the contrast between immigrants and locals is even greater in countries such as Sweden, Austria and Belgium, where the risk of being poor is three times higher in the case of families of foreign origin. Of the leading immigration countries, the disparity between immigrants and the native-born population's quality of life is much greater in France, Italy and Spain than in Germany and the United Kingdom, both of which are countries that have a greater proportion of highly skilled immigrants from developed countries.

Employment is a basic need for all families and especially for immigrants, whose migration is very often associated with the search for job opportunities. Even though across the whole of the EU-28, fewer than 5% of the immigrant population live in households in which every person who could potentially work is unemployed, this percentage is close to 10% in a few countries, among them Greece, Sweden, Spain and Finland. Sweden and Netherlands are, moreover, countries with the greatest disparity between immigrants and the native-born population in this indicator. In contrast, in Spain the difference according to place of birth is not that high: for people born in Spain, the likelihood of living in a household where every potentially working member is unemployed is also higher than the European average.

Note:

² Calculations based on data in the EU-SILC for the year 2017.

Figure 3. Spain's position in the ranking of immigrants' social needs in the EU-28

Position in the European ranking (green = better, red = worse)

First quartile	Second quartile	Third quartile	Fourth quartile
1 to 7	8 to 14	15 to 21	22 to 28

	Immigrants			Non-immigrants		
	Spain	European Union	2017 Position	Spain	European Union	2017 Position
<p>Risk of monetary poverty: Percentage of people whose disposable income within the family is below the poverty threshold.</p>	46.0	29.1	28	18.0	15.3	20
<p>No-one in the household in work: Percentage of people who live in a household in which none of the potentially active members of the population are in work.</p>	9.8	4.5	25	6.6	3.1	27
<p>In-work poverty: Percentage of people in work who live in households whose income as a family is below the poverty threshold.</p>	34.9	18.7	28	11.1	9.0	25
<p>Excessive housing costs: Percentage of people in whose households the housing costs (rent, mortgage interest and capital payments, bills, etc.), net of any possible housing benefit received, exceed 30% of the household's disposable income.</p>	56.5	37.5	27	17.7	23.2	12
<p>Dropping out of school: Percentage of people aged between 18 and 24 who dropped out of school early.</p>	31.9	19.2	(nd)	15.6	9.6	26

Source:
Compiled in-house using data from the EU-SILC and the EU Labour Force Survey.

Something similar occurs in relation to dropping out of school early, a comparatively very high indicator in Spain, both among the native-born population and especially among young immigrants (although in this latter case it is impossible to determine Spain's position in the European ranking due to a lack of reliable data for ten of the 28 countries). Of the countries for which data are available, the widest gap is observed in Austria, Greece and Cyprus: in these three countries, the number of young people of foreign origin who abandon their studies is three times or more that of people of native origin in a similar situation.

In-work poverty is another area in which Spain occupies an unfavourable position in the European context, and the situation of immigrants is comparatively worse than that of the native-born population, at almost double the European average. Spain is the fourth highest in the whole of Europe as regards the relative gap in this aspect between immigrants and the native-born population, behind Belgium, Sweden and Denmark and at the same level as Italy. This precariousness reduces the opportunities for economic and social advancement for children raised in immigrant families (almost one in five at the present time).

As well as employment, decent income and access to basic public services such as health and education, the immigrant population needs accessible homes where they can settle in their host country. Families of foreign origin living in Spain are faced with a particularly difficult situation in this respect: only Greece has higher excessive housing costs indicators. Of the five indicators chosen for international analysis, this is also the one in which there is the greatest gap between immigrants and the native-born population in Spain: in fact, the score obtained for native-born families is better than the European average.

A COUNTRY NOT SO OPPOSED TO IMMIGRATION

Despite the harsh economic crisis that Spain went through, it remains a country quite open to immigration. The last special Eurobarometer on the issue of migration, carried out in 2017, shows that negative attitudes towards immigrants are more likely to be disapproved of in our country than in others around us, with the exception of the idea that foreigners take jobs away from Spaniards. It is notable that only one in four Spaniards thinks that immigration is a problem, as opposed to four in every ten

Europeans. Moreover, seven out of every ten Spaniards hold the view that the integration of immigrants is satisfactory overall, a percentage exceeded only in Ireland and Portugal. The Eurobarometer also shows that Spain is one of the countries where more people state that they have friends or acquaintances of foreign origin, an aspect that reveals the degree to which immigration as a phenomenon has come to be normalised in a relative brief timespan.

Figure 4. Percentage of the population with positive and negative attitudes towards immigration, 2017.

Negative attitudes towards immigrants	Spain	EU-28
They worsen the crime problems in the country	47%	55%
They take jobs away from native-born workers	47%	39%
They place a burden on the country's welfare system	41%	56%
Immigration is more of a problem	26%	38%
The integration of immigrants is not in general satisfactory	25%	40%
Positive attitudes towards immigrants	Spain	EU-28
They help to fill jobs for which it is difficult to find workers	78%	72%
The integration of immigrants is generally satisfactory	71%	54%
They enrich the cultural life of the country	67%	61%
They have an overall positive impact on the economy	60%	51%
They bring new ideas and innovation to the country	56%	49%

Source:

Compiled in-house using data from the EU Special Eurobarometer 469 on the integration of immigrants in the European Union.

PUBLIC POLICIES:

Evaluating policies related to immigration is complex due to the multitude of aspects they address and to the wide range of tiers of government involved. At a European level, approval has been given to a number of directives intended to establish minimums in aspects such as family reunification, the status of long-term residents and moves within a single company. In addition, a series of basic common principles on the integration of immigrants was approved in 2004. These principles are expected to act as a general framework for the development of national policies. In the first principle, integration is defined as a “dynamic, two-way process of mutual accommodation by all immigrants and residents of Member States” (Council Document 14615/04 of 19 November 2004). It was in this context that the first Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration 2007-2010 was formulated, followed by a second plan for the period 2011-2014, which was hampered by budget cuts. In the final years, efforts to co-ordinate integration policies and to allocate financial resources to them dwindled at a time marked by the economic crisis, the slowing down of new arrivals and the fact that less priority was accorded to the problem by conservative governments.

One interesting instrument for analysing national immigrant integration policies is the MIPEX (Migrant Integration Policy Index), which every four years compares the institutional framework and the measures related to integration in 38 developed countries using a set of indicators organised into eight fundamental areas. Figure 32 shows the results obtained by Spain in the most recent publication, which covers the year 2014 (Huddleston et al., 2015). The index scores vary from 0 to 100, with 100 representing the most positive situation.

At a global level, Spain achieves an average score of 60 points, placing it eleventh out of the 38 countries included in the comparison. The top positions in the ranking are held by Sweden, Portugal and New Zealand, with 70 points or more, and the worst by Cyprus, Latvia and Turkey, with 35 points or fewer. By area, Spain is in a positive position in relation to policies to do with

family reunification, obtaining permanent residence and employment mobility. In contrast, its results are less favourable in education, access to nationality and anti-discrimination policies.

It should be noted that the score obtained in this index depends fundamentally on the legal framework in place; it does not reflect the effective implementation of that framework, nor the real outcomes of integration processes. In the labour market area, for example, aspects such as the right of regularised immigrants to access jobs (public, private and self-employed), access to general and targeted employment services offered by the authorities, access to professional and vocational training, the rules on recognising qualifications, employment and social security rights, and the conditions regarding access to housing aid and benefits are evaluated. Scoring high in this area, as in Spain’s case, presupposes that the laws guarantee equal (or almost equal) access to jobs, occupational training and social aid and benefits, but it does not guarantee that the results are equal in practice.

Acquiring a permanent residence permit, family reunification and the ability to acquire nationality are key areas for aligning immigrants’ rights and duties with those of other citizens, and the regulation in place in each country can facilitate or hamper immigrants’ access to full citizenship. The lower score earned by Spain in the third ambit is due to the high degree of discretionality in the process of granting nationality and to the major differences that exist depending on immigrants’ place of origin (the general residence period of ten years is reduced to two for nationals from Latin American countries, Andorra, the Philippines, Equatorial Guinea, Portugal and people of Sephardic origin).

In health and education, value is placed not only on equal legal access but also the existence of specific plans aimed at meeting immigrants' needs. Spain, like other countries in Europe where immigration is a recent phenomenon, has not fully adapted its education and health systems to the growing social diversity. In the case of education, where the score is a clear 'fail', the worst results are obtained in indicators to do with assessing prior learning in compulsory education, support measures to enable immigrants to join professional and vocational training programmes and higher education, language teaching programmes, teacher training to address immigrants' specific needs, measures to counter segregation at school and measures to incorporate people of foreign origin as education professionals. In health, the main stumbling blocks come from the restrictions to healthcare that affect immigrants without official papers introduced by Royal

Decree 16/2012, which remained valid up to 2018, and the lack of cultural mediation programmes in healthcare.

In the area of political participation, Spain obtains an intermediate score: even though the basic political human rights (freedom of association, to belong to political parties, etc.) are adequately protected, electoral rights are very restrictive and insufficient support is given to the existence of consultative organisations and bodies that represent immigrant collectives. Moreover, Spain has not developed effective anti-discrimination policies, which is reflected in its low position in the country ranking (29th out of 38) of this aspect.

Figure 5. Key results for Spain in the Migrant Integration Policy Index, 2014.

1. Mobility in the labour market:

Do immigrants have equal rights and opportunities to access jobs and improve their skills?

2. Family reunification:

How easily can immigrants reunite with family?

3. Education:

Is the education system responsive to the needs of the children of immigrants?

4. Health:

Is the health system responsive to immigrants' needs?

5. Participación política:

Do immigrants have comparable rights and opportunities to participate in political life?

6. Permanent residence:

How easily can immigrants become permanent residents?

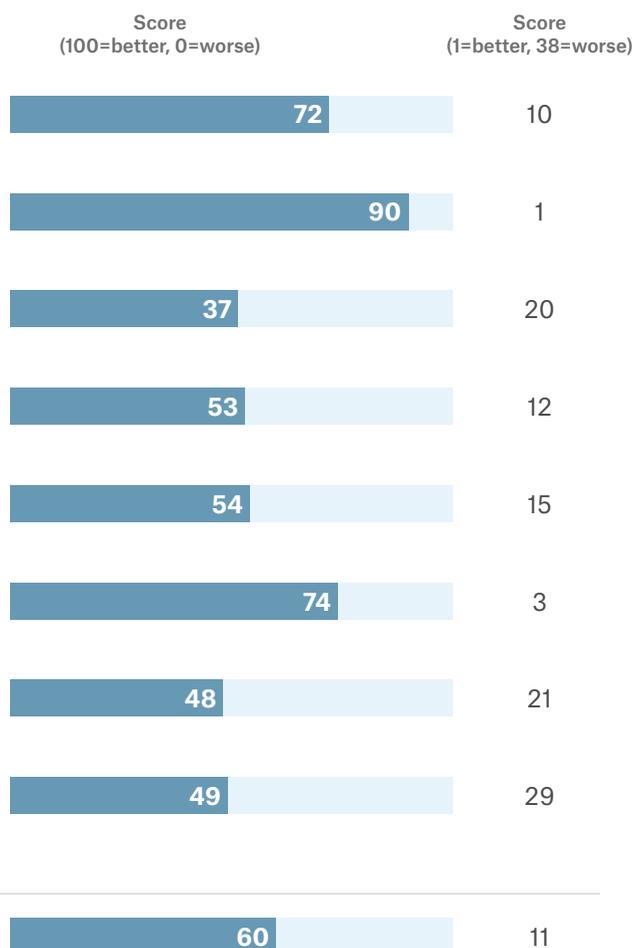
7. Access to nationality:

How easily can immigrants become citizens?

8. Anti-discrimination:

Is everyone effectively protected from racial/ethnic, religious, and nationality discrimination in all areas of life?

TOTAL



Source:

Compiled in-house based on Huddleston et al. (2015).

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