



# Measuring International Labour Mobility

**DRAFT**

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## Abbreviations and acronyms

BPM6	Balance of Payments Manual (Sixth Edition)
BRIH	Base Register on Individuals and Households (Italy)
CAPI	Computer-assisted personal interviewing
CATI	Computer-assisted telephone interviewing
CES	Conference of European Statisticians
CIS-STAT	Interstate Statistical Committee of the Commonwealth of the Independent States
COMAR	Mexican Commission for Refugee Assistance (Mexico)
CONAPO	National Population Council (Mexico)
CPR	Central Population Register (Norway)
EBOPS	Extended Balance of Payments Services classification
EMIF Sur	Survey on Migration in the South Border (Mexico)
ENADID	National Survey of Demographic Dynamics (Mexico)
ENIGH	National Survey of Incomes and Expenditures of the Households (Mexico)
ENOE	National Survey of Occupation and Employment (Mexico)
EU	European Union
EU-LFS	European Union Labour Force Survey
Eurostat	Statistical Office of the European Union
FATS	Foreign affiliates statistics
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
ICBS	Israel Central Bureau of Statistics
ICLS	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ICSE	International Classification of Status in Employment
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INEGI	National Institute of Statistics and Geography of Mexico
INM	National Institute of Migration (Mexico)
INPS	Social security register (Italy)
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPUMS	Integrated Public Use Microdata Series
IRTS	International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
ISIC	International Standard Industrial Classification
ISTAT	Italian National Institute of Statistics
LFMS	Labour Force Migration Survey (Republic of Moldova)
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MSITS	Manual on Statistics of International Trade in Services
NSO	National statistical office
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PIBA	Population and Immigration Authority (Israel)
RES	Register-based employment statistics (Norway)
SCIF	Survey on Social Conditions and Integration of Foreign Citizens (Italy)

SEGOB	Secretariat of the Interior (Mexico)
SNA	System of National Accounts
TSA-RMF	Tourism Satellite Accounts: Recommended Methodological Framework 2008
TurkStat	Turkish Statistical Institute
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNPD	United Nations Population Division
UNSD	United Nations Statistics Division
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
UPM	Migration Policy Unit of the Mexican Secretariat of the Interior (Mexico)
WTO	World Trade Organization

# I. Introduction and background

1. Globalization expands and accelerates the movement of information, capital, goods, services and people across international borders. This applies in particular to common market areas such as the European Union with free movement of goods, capital, services and labour. As it has become easier to travel and take up work in other countries, international labour mobility has greatly increased and has become a topic of growing policy importance. Policymakers have an interest in understanding both the short-term and long-term effects of labour mobility. However, while there is an increased demand for statistics on labour mobility, producing comprehensive and comparable statistics on the topic remains challenging.

2. Because the measurement of international labour mobility touches upon economic, social and demographic domains, labour mobility is considered from different viewpoints, which separately cannot provide a full picture. For example, migration statistics cover migrants but not those who work in another country without changing place of residence. They also more often measure long-term migration than short-term migration, and do not always include the purpose of the move. Tourism statistics measure short-term moves only. Labour market statistics often lack information on mobility. The improvement of statistics on labour mobility thus requires coordination across several statistical domains and data collection systems, at both national and international levels.

3. Recognising the importance of improving statistics on international labour mobility, the Bureau of the Conference of European Statisticians (CES)<sup>1</sup> reviewed this area in-depth in February 2015. The in-depth review identified three principal challenges facing producers of statistics on labour mobility: “improving data comparability and coordination of work; enhancing accessibility of existing information; and filling data gaps” (Statistics Austria, 2017).

4. Addressing the challenge of “improving data comparability and coordination of work” is necessary for several reasons. First, coordination between producers of labour, migration, tourism, and trade in services statistics within a country could help compilers of statistics on labour mobility to take advantage of the unique information produced in each domain. In addition, international harmonization of definitions and methodology for measuring labour mobility is important for assessing its overall global impact. Harmonization of concepts and improved data availability are required to answer to policy needs and to understand the changing economic realities surrounding international labour mobility.

5. The second challenge of enhancing the accessibility of existing information should also be addressed. International organizations have taken important steps in aggregating statistics from different countries and making international comparisons. This challenge will also be

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<sup>1</sup> The Conference of European Statisticians is composed of national statistical organizations in the UNECE region (for UNECE member countries, see [http://www.unece.org/oes/nutshell/member\\_states\\_representatives.html](http://www.unece.org/oes/nutshell/member_states_representatives.html)) and includes in addition Australia, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Japan, Mexico, Mongolia, New Zealand and Republic of Korea. The major international organizations active in statistics in the UNECE region also participate in the work, such as the Statistical Office of the European Commission (Eurostat), the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the Interstate Statistical Committee of the Commonwealth of the Independent States (CIS-STAT), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the World Bank.

met by countries themselves through better utilization of existing data sources and improved dissemination of these data.

6. Lastly, filling data gaps is another essential activity to be taken on by statisticians. These gaps can be filled through improvements in the collection of data through surveys, administrative sources and improved data integration, though each comes with unique challenges – including, but not restricted to, budgetary limitations. Data collection should be tailored to the specific requirements of measuring international labour mobility as will be discussed in this report.

7. Based on the in-depth review, the CES Bureau established the Task Force on Measuring Labour Mobility in October 2015. The Task Force worked in conjunction with the concurrent International Labour Organization (ILO) Working Group on Labour Migration Statistics to minimize any possible contradictions and increase synergy between the two groups. While the ILO Working Group focused on the concepts and definitions, the UNECE Task Force focused on countries' practices in the compilation of labour mobility statistics and the guidance that could be provided on this basis.

8. Members of the ILO Working Group and ILO staff have contributed to the present report. The ILO Working Group prepared "Guidelines concerning statistics on international labour migration" (International Labour Office, 2018), which were adopted by the 20<sup>th</sup> International Conference of Labour Statisticians (Geneva, 10-19 October 2018). These elaborate in greater detail the concepts and definitions related to labour migration. The concepts presented in this report are aligned with the ILO Guidelines.

9. This report contains the results of the UNECE Task Force. It introduces the main definitions and concepts of statistics on international migration, labour and labour mobility (chapter II) and provides an overview of data availability (chapter III). Practical examples of how international labour mobility is measured in Israel, Italy, Mexico and Norway are shown in chapter IV. Conclusions and recommendations based on these case studies are provided in chapter V and a description of issues for future work in chapter VI.

## II. Concepts<sup>2</sup>

10. International labour mobility comprises all movements of natural persons from one country to another for the purpose of employment or supply of services.

11. Statistics on international labour mobility should rely on statistical frameworks in the areas closest to it, namely, international migration and labour. It is important that the relevant concepts in these areas are understood before addressing the issues specific to labour mobility. This chapter is organized along these lines, beginning with a section on international migration that relies on the United Nations Recommendations on statistics of international migration (United Nations, 1998) and the UNECE Handbook on the use of administrative sources and sample surveys to measure international migration (UNECE, 2016). Section II.B on labour follows, based on the ILO Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization (International Labour Organization, 2013). Section II.C then describes the conceptual issues specific to international labour mobility.

### A. International migration

#### 1. *Basic concepts*

12. Migration, both internal and international, is often studied by looking at its magnitude, characteristics of migrants, and the impact migration has on both migrants themselves and areas from which they come and to where they go. At its most basic level, migration consists of two primary units of analysis, the person (who moves) and geography (where the person moved from and where the person moved to). The United Nations Recommendations on statistics of international migration (United Nations, 1998) define migrants as persons who have changed their place of usual residence where “usual residence” is defined as the place where a person normally spends the daily period of rest. International migrants are thus persons whose usual residence has changed from one country to another. Duration and purpose of stay are frequently used criteria for defining a migration typology.

13. While “usual residence” is the recommended basis on which to define international migration, the concept can be difficult to apply in practice. The place of residence tends to be based on registers or self-declaration, rather than direct verification. The concept does not prevent someone absent for just less than a year from being considered a usual resident. Additionally, it does not always prevent the double counting of a person as a usual resident of more than one country. Eurostat has begun to explore alternative concepts (Eurostat, 2018), such as “actually resident”, “legally present” and “annual resident” population, with a view to incorporating a potential change in the new architecture of EU population statistics after the 2020 round of censuses. Note that no agreement has yet been reached, but discussions are ongoing.

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<sup>2</sup>This section benefitted from the draft report “Towards improving statistical standards on international migrant workers” (International Labour Office, 2016) discussed at the 2nd meeting of the ILO Working Group on Labour Migration Statistics (Turin, 15-17 November 2016) and from the report on that meeting (International Labour Office, 2016).

14. Stock and flow are the two basic measures characterizing the size of migration. International migrant stock is the total number of international migrants living in a country at a particular point in time, while the international migration flow is the number of migrants entering or leaving a country over the course of a specific period, e.g. one year.

## *2. Measurement of migrant stock*

15. The stock of international migrants includes all those residents of a given country who have ever changed their country of usual residence. In practice, obtaining this information on a country's population is rarely possible directly. For the purpose of practical measurement, United Nations recommends defining the migrant stock as "all persons who are usual residents of that country and who are citizens of another country (foreign population) or whose place of birth is located in another country (foreign-born population)".

16. The foreign-born population of a country includes all persons who have that country as country of usual residence and whose place of birth is located in another country. This group corresponds to the stock of international migrants that migrated at least once in their life and reside outside of their country of birth. People born outside their country of current residence, but who are citizens of that country at birth (e.g. born abroad of national parent(s) living abroad) are sometimes excluded from statistics on foreign-born population. Persons born in the country are defined as native-born.

17. The recorded country of birth should be based on geography at the time of data collection. This ensures that those who have never moved, but whose country of birth changed due to international boundary changes, are not counted as foreign-born.

18. Foreigners are the group of persons who do not have citizenship of the country of residence. Foreigners can be foreign-born or native-born, as can persons that have citizenship of the country (nationals). According to this approach, naturalised immigrants do not appear in the migrant stock because they are citizens of their country of residence.

19. Both methods of measurement have advantages and disadvantages. The advantage of using citizenship-based criteria to measure migration is that it is a relatively objective measure commonly reported across many countries. It also corresponds to the needs of national governments designing and implementing policies to regulate international mobility. Disadvantages are that a person's citizenship can change over time, a person can be a citizen of more than one country at a time and foreigners are not migrants if they were born in the country of residence.

20. The advantages of using country of birth as a measure are the permanence of this characteristic (place of birth does not change) and its direct relationship to changing country of residence over one's lifetime. However, foreign-born people include nationals (either those born abroad of native parents or naturalized citizens), and country borders can change over time, possibly making someone foreign-born who has never made an international move. Some countries use the mother's place of usual residence at time of birth rather than actual place of birth. Additionally, countries may wish to add a variable for "born in the country", according to the boundaries at the time of the event for those countries where it may be sensitive to describe some respondents as "foreign born" if they had to leave their place of residence because of war or political disruption (paragraph 651, (UNECE, 2015)).

21. These distinctions are particularly relevant to the measurement of labour mobility. Policymakers may have particular interest in noting the participation of either foreigners or foreign-born residents in the labour market. The differences in these groups should be taken

into account when comparing different datasets as well as when measuring those residing outside of a country, but participating in that country's labour market.

22. To measure the integration of migrants, an additional population group, descendants of the foreign-born (persons with foreign/national background), is often identified. This group includes those persons born in the country whose parents were born outside the country. Persons in this group may or may not have directly experienced an international migration event. Several generations of descendants of international migrants can theoretically be distinguished. However, in practice, data collection usually pertains to those persons whose parents were born abroad (often referred to as the "second generation").

### *3. Duration of stay and measurement of migration flows*

23. For the purposes of measuring migration flows, the United Nations Recommendations define an international migrant as "any person who changes his or her country of usual residence". As shown earlier, a person's country of usual residence is that in which the person lives, that is to say, the country in which the person normally spends the daily period of rest. Temporary travel abroad for purposes of recreation, holiday, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage does not entail a change in country of usual residence.

24. Migrants' duration of stay, either actual or intended, is an important criterion for the measurement of migration flows. In practice, most countries collect migration flow data on the reference period of one year, though some survey questions refer to a five-year period. In terms of international migration data availability, in-flow data (immigration) are much more common than out-flow data (emigration).

25. The United Nations Recommendations further define two types of migrants by the duration of stay criterion. Long-term migrants are defined as those who move to a country other than their country of usual residence for a period of at least one year, while short-term migrants are people who move to a country for a period of at least three months but less than one year.

26. In practice, the distinction between short- and long-term migrants is often unclear, given different data collection systems used by different countries. The complete United Nations definition for long-term migrants is "a person who moves to a country other than his or her usual country of residence for a period of at least one year (12 months), so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence." The complete United Nations definition for short-term migrant is "a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least 3 months but less than a year (12 months) except in cases where the movement to that country is for purposes of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment, or religious pilgrimage". The basic distinction is that long-term international migrants are usual residents of the country concerned and of no other country, while short-term international migrants retain usual residence in another country.

27. Among others, short-term migrants may include those who move for work or study-related reasons, asylum seekers or other humanitarian migrants, those moving for family reunification or formation, and climate-related migrants if the duration of their moves were at least 3 and less than 12 months.

28. To count migrants according to these definitions, the country of usual residence needs to be determined as does the migrant's duration of stay. Per the United Nations Recommendations "the act of being inscribed in a population register or country other than

their own, being granted a permit to reside in a country, or declaring intention of staying for at least one year, are all ways of making the concept of change of usual residence measurable.” In practice, this can sometimes complicate data comparability between countries as countries often use different methods to determine duration of stay.

29. As an example, while some countries determining the duration of stay criterion for a long-term migrant by actual duration, others use the intended duration. In addition, different countries have different time criteria for determining a change in usual residence when entering migrants into their population registers (e.g. 3 months, 6 months, 12 months). Duration of stay is often inferred from visa types or permit lengths and these permits often have varying lengths of duration, depending on type and formal agreements between countries. For example, many countries now have visa free regimes that allow persons to move to countries for up to three months without a visa or registration. Another complication is that self-declaration of length of intended stay upon entry by migrants will not necessarily correspond to their actual time spent in the country.

30. Consequently, the United Nations recommends using actual duration of stay rather than intended duration of stay, since this method provides a more accurate picture of long-term migration. Where intended durations of stay are used, it is recommended that migration figures be retroactively adjusted using a lag of one and a half years to produce migration flow statistics. These “status changes” include short-term migrants who become long-term, foreigners originally admitted as non-migrants, irregular migrants who have become regularized as long-term migrants as well as asylum seekers whose refugee status has been determined. It should be noted that such changes are often difficult to account for methodologically, and can be difficult to explain from a policy perspective.

31. These difficulties in measurement are magnified when measuring the flow of short-term migrants. Accounting for short-term migrants is increasingly important to users of migration statistics, given increased globalization and frequent repeated moves back and forth across international borders. This was emphasised recently in the context of defining circular migration (UNECE, 2016).

32. Technically, short-term migrants do not typically change their country of usual residence (which may remain their country of origin), but for the purposes of international migration statistics, the country of usual residence of short-term migrants is considered to be the country of destination during the period they spend in it. In practice, they are often not counted as usual residents of the destination country, because they do not meet the duration threshold for usual residence set by that country. By contrast, tourists are not considered to be short-term migrants according to the United Nations Recommendations (United Nations, 1998). Diplomatic/consular staff and military personnel serving overseas are also not considered to be migrants according to the Recommendations, because they “may consider that their country of usual residence remains their country of citizenship since their presence in the country where they are posted is strictly temporary and they continue to work for their own Government”. While these definitions also exclude temporary migrant workers who move to a country for a period of less than three months, these workers are considered relevant to the measurement of labour mobility.

#### **4. Purpose of stay**

33. In addition to distinguishing between short- and long-term migration, migration flow statistics are also often further disaggregated by purpose of stay. Some basic groupings by purpose of stay are those moving for work-related, family-related, education-related, and for

humanitarian reasons. However, as people have mixed and multiple motives for migrating, there is no simple answer to the question of why people move. To the extent that immigration statistics are based on the administrative registrations of residence and work permits issued by immigration authorities, these distinctions are normally reflected in the statistics.

34. People who move for temporary work for a period of less than three months will not be counted as migrants, but are still important to be measured from a labour mobility perspective. Other categories of migrants include those admitted for education or training, those who move for the purposes of family reunification or formation, and those admitted for humanitarian reasons, which include refugees, asylum seekers, and foreigners granted temporary protected status. In addition, migrants may be granted legal permission to move to (or live in) a country based on criteria like ancestral ties, retirement, entrepreneurship, or by having an irregular migration status regularized.

35. It should also be noted that categories classifying migrants by purpose of stay are not necessarily mutually exclusive, which can create challenges when determining these groups. As people often move for many reasons, determining a single reason for each of their moves can be difficult. However, purpose of move can be gleaned from different data sources. One of the most common methods to determine a migrant's purpose of stay is to use the legal reason for a migrant's stay in the country from their visa or resident permit information. The purpose of stay may also be determined from arrival/departure cards, particularly between countries where visas are not required. Another method is to ask migrants themselves as to their reason for move, through either a household survey or population census. However, the results of these two different methods can vary greatly. In addition, with regard to labour mobility, a non-work-related purpose of move does not preclude a person from also being employed in the destination country.

### **5. Irregular migration**

36. Irregular migrants remain the most difficult migrant group to measure. In theory, international migrants should be determined by change of country of usual residence, thus if the duration of stay criterion is met, irregular migrants should also be counted. In practice, irregular migrants, by the nature of their status, are often missing from the data sources used to measure migrants.

37. It is also important to distinguish between irregular entry and irregular stay. Irregular migrants may be authorized to enter a country, but then remain without authorization due to overstaying visas, failing to obtain permits, having an application for international protection rejected or a refugee status withdrawn. Others bypass formal methods altogether and enter a country via invalid travel documents or through non-controlled borders, which are examples of irregular entry.

38. In this paper, the term 'irregular migration' is used to refer to both irregular entry and irregular stay. This is in line with the International Organization for Migration (IOM) definition of an irregular migrant (International Organization for Migration, 2011), as: "A person who, owing to unauthorized entry, breach of a condition of entry, or the expiry of his or her visa, lacks legal status in a transit or host country. The definition covers inter alia those persons who have entered a transit or host country lawfully but have stayed for a longer period than authorized or subsequently taken up unauthorized employment (also called clandestine/undocumented migrant or migrant in an irregular situation). The term "irregular" is preferable to "illegal" because the latter carries a criminal connotation and is seen as denying migrants' humanity."

39. Because irregular migrants often use informal methods of entry, it is extremely difficult to measure this population, especially seasonal migrants and others who repeatedly move back and forth between two or more countries. This often leads to under measurement of this group when standard data sources are used. Given the inherent difficulties in measuring this population, sources often rely on border apprehension data (plus police records on returns/deportation/expulsions). However, this method is limited in its accuracy as only a fraction of such migrants are apprehended at the point of border crossing. This proportion of apprehension is highly dependent on fluctuations corresponding with the intensity of border enforcement and police controls within the country. It is often only after regularization of irregular migrants that accurate “after the fact” measurements of the magnitude of such migrants can be obtained (based on the number of regularizations/amnesties applied for or granted). These same issues arise when looking at sub-groups of irregular migrants, such as trafficked or transit migrants.

### B. Labour

40. In 2013, participants at the Nineteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians discussed and adopted revised statistical standards on work, employment and labour underutilization. The new standards introduced several perspectives with important implications for official work and labour-force statistics programmes around the world. Major innovations included a statistical definition of “work” covering all paid and unpaid productive activities; an activity-based framework which specifies five different forms of work; a narrower definition of employment as “work for pay or profit”; new measures of labour underutilization to complement the unemployment rate; separate definitions and headline indicators for unpaid forms of work, including own-use production work, volunteer work and unpaid trainee work; and general guidance designed to support countries in establishing a coherent system of work and labour-market statistics for meeting demands for frequent and more structural data needs.

41. Persons may be classified in a short reference period, according to their labour force status as being:

- (a) In employment
- (b) in unemployment
- (c) outside the labour force; and among these in the potential labour force

42. Priority is given to employment over the other two categories, and to unemployment over outside the labour force. The three categories of labour force status are, thus, mutually exclusive and exhaustive. The sum of persons in employment and in unemployment equals the labour force. Persons outside the labour force are those of working age who were neither in employment nor in unemployment in the short reference period.

43. “Labour force” refers to the current supply of labour for the production of goods and services in exchange for pay or profit.

44. “Potential labour force” is defined as all persons of working age who, during the short reference period, were neither in employment nor in unemployment and: (a) carried out activities to “seek employment”, were not “currently available” but would become available within a short subsequent period established in the light of national circumstances (i.e. unavailable jobseekers); or (b) did not carry out activities to “seek employment”, but wanted employment and were “currently available” (i.e. available potential jobseekers).

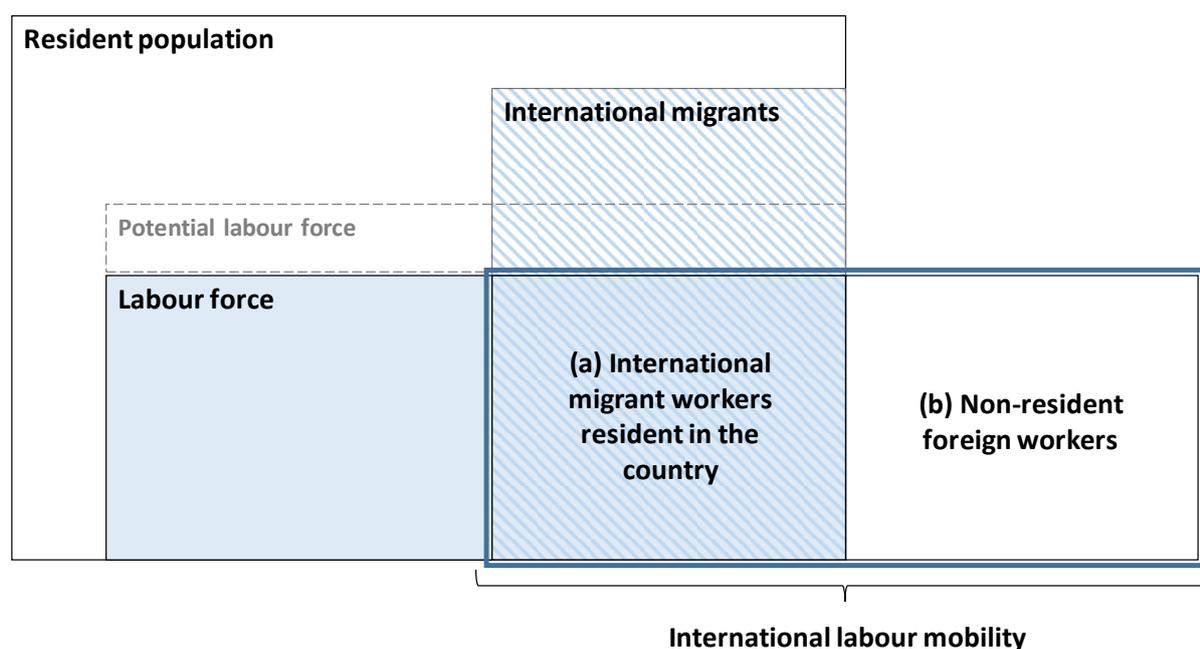
## C. International labour mobility

### 1. Overview

45. International labour mobility comprises all movements of natural persons from one country to another for the purpose of employment or supply of services.

**Figure 1**

**Relation of the concepts of usually resident population, international migration, labour force and labour mobility in a country**



46. International labour mobility comprises all movements of natural persons from one country to another for the purpose of employment or supply of services.

47. Figure 1 provides a conceptual overview of the main population groups relevant to labour mobility and their relation to existing definitions of usual residence, migration and labour force. When looking at the population currently present in a country from the labour mobility perspective, the following two broad groups are of primary interest:

- (a) International migrant workers who changed their place of usual residence to the destination country and are in the labour force of that country;
- (b) Non-resident foreign workers who moved across borders for the purpose of employment or supply of services and who are not usual residents of the destination country.

48. The migrant workers may have arrived in the country for any reason. In measuring the in-flow of migrants, it is important to distinguish them by purpose of stay. This would allow identifying “for-work migrants”, that is persons who arrived with a documented or declared intention of undertaking or seeking work at the time of entry into the destination country. While those who migrated for reasons other than work (e.g. as dependants, refugees or students) are not directly part of labour mobility at the time of their move, they may later contribute to the stock of migrant workers. They may also directly contribute to labour

mobility at the time of their move, as even though employment is not the reason for their move, they may look for work as soon as (or before) they arrive in the country. The ILO Guidelines concerning statistics on international labour migration (International Labour Office, 2018) provide more detail on concepts, definitions and proposed indicators.

49. The following sections address the three main groups for the measurement of international labour mobility:

- (a) Stock of international migrant workers resident in the country;
- (b) Non-resident foreign workers;
- (c) Flow of migrants including for-work migrants.

### ***2. Stock of international migrant workers resident in the country***

50. In order to define the stock of international migrant workers resident in the country, it is necessary to put together the concepts of “international migrant” and “worker” discussed in sections II.A.2 and II.B, respectively.

51. Regarding the aspect of work, the main issue is whether to apply the concept of “work” or “being in the labour force”. Work is defined as “any activity performed by persons of any sex and age to produce goods or provide services for use by others or for own use” whereas labour force comprises the employed, that is, persons working for pay or profit, and the unemployed. It is pertinent to refer to the belonging to the labour force and define an “international migrant worker” as an “international migrant who is in the labour force of the country of which he/she is now a usual resident”. This could include dual citizens, who migrated to their other country of citizenship and participated in the labour force.

52. According to this definition, international migrant workers do not include people engaged in other forms of work than employment, such as own-use production, unpaid trainee work and volunteer work.

53. The migrant status and work status are defined in relation to the current moment. They are not related to the reasons for migration.

54. Some international migrants are not allowed to work for pay or profit. Others may be subject to restrictions limiting the type and/or location of the work they can undertake. At the same time, many of the international migrants who are subject to employment restrictions may want to work and in fact do so informally. On these grounds, the following two categories are included in the potential labour force:

- (a) Those seeking but not available for employment because of restrictions related to their status as international migrant;
- (b) Those available for but not seeking employment because of restrictions related to their status as international migrant.

### ***3. Non-resident foreign workers (residents working abroad)***

#### **Overview**

55. An important group of interest in labour mobility are those who engage in economic activity in the country concerned without changing their country of usual residence. From the

perspective of the country where they work, they are “non-resident foreign workers”; from the perspective of their country of usual residence, they are “residents working abroad”.

56. This group includes cross-border workers, non-resident service suppliers, seasonal workers, business travellers who receive remuneration from the country of origin, posted workers and others. Non-resident service suppliers, posted workers and business travellers are considered non-resident foreign workers if they stay in their country of destination for less than 12 months. Cross-border workers, seasonal workers and others are considered as non-resident foreign workers if they stay in the receiving country less than 3 months. If they stay at least three months, they are considered short-term migrants with usual residence in the country of destination (see para 32).

57. Non-resident foreign workers could also include those who commute across borders to work without a formal permission to work in that country.

58. Information on both citizens and foreigners working under these arrangements are of interest when measuring labour mobility.

59. Knowing how many non-resident foreign workers are entering a country in the context of short term employment contracts or to provide services (flows, stocks, as well as the number of associated trips) is very important for analysis of labour mobility. Given the interest that labour mobility (migrant/non-migrant, employment/postings, short-term/long-term movements) generates amongst officials and research institutions involved in migration/labour/trade in services issues, these statistics would provide a useful gauge about the relative importance of such movements within wider economic international mobility.

60. An important criterion for distinguishing between different categories of people who arrive is whether the destination country considers the worker as an actual or potential usual resident. This is normally reflected in the type of legal residence status a worker is granted and often is implicit in the migration type. Seasonal workers, posted workers, cross-border workers, project workers and other such categories have limited rights and are not expected to change their usual place of residence. However, in some cases their status may change or lead to a continuous stay for more than a year, in which case they would be considered in the stock of international migrants.

61. As indicated in the in-depth review of labour mobility and globalization (Statistics Austria, 2017), in principle there is no need to create a new statistical framework, but rather build upon existing ones by defining a clear taxonomy of categories as outlined above and adjust for eventual gaps as necessary.

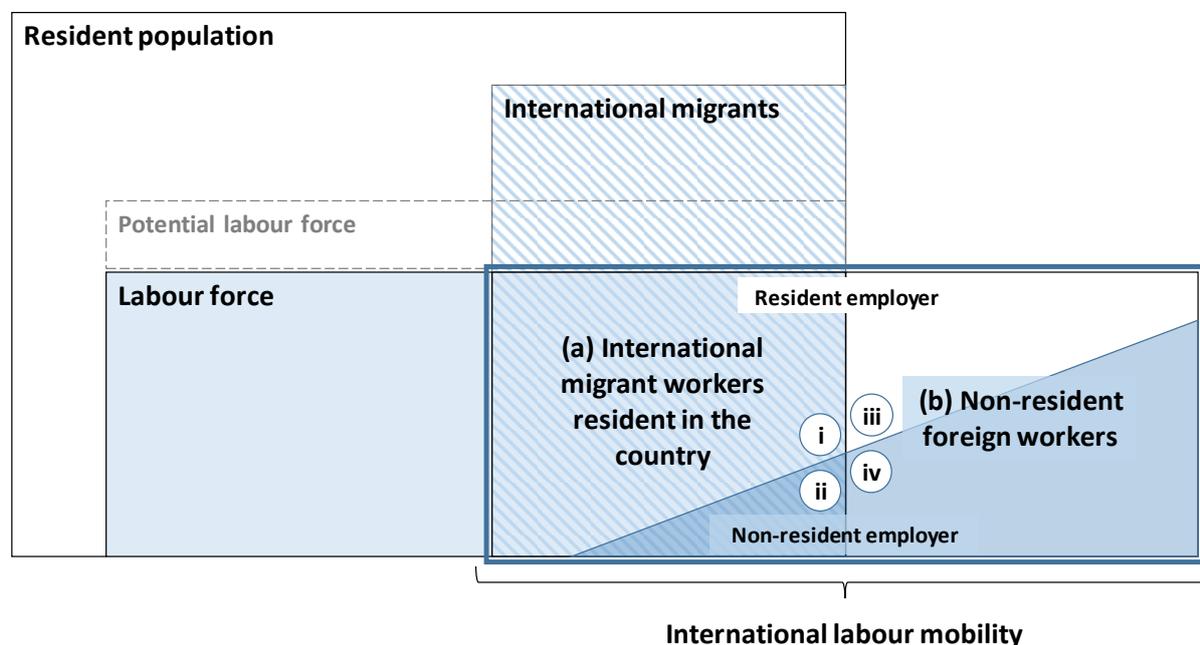
62. Statistical frameworks on migration and labour are generally more developed than those on labour mobility.<sup>3</sup> The ILO Guidelines concerning statistics on international labour migration (International Labour Office, 2018) are an important recent development in filling the gap. Concepts of service suppliers and people engaged in short-term employment in other countries, have only received attention in the context of statistical recommendations on trade in services (United Nations, 2010).

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<sup>3</sup> See work of ILO, OECD, Eurostat, IOM, UNECE, UNPD, UNDESA.

## Taxonomy<sup>4</sup>

**Figure 2**  
**Groups of labour mobility in relation to the usually resident population and residence of employer**



63. This section deals with non-resident foreign workers who are engaged in short term employment in the economy visited, regularly commute to another economy for employment (whether short or long term), or provide services based on a "service contract" and subsequently return to their home country. All these categories involve movement of persons across borders. Within the European Union (EU), the latter can commonly be referred to as "posting of workers" or "short-term assignments".<sup>5</sup> In the terminology of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS: General Agreement on Trade in Services, 1994) article I), paragraph 2, lit d) those providing services and subsequently returning to their home country are labelled as "mode 4" or "presence of natural persons". Harmonised statistics on this matter are scarce and it is therefore of utmost importance to address this phenomenon.

64. Figure 2 provides a conceptual overview of the scope of labour mobility and its relationship with existing definitions of usual residence, migration and labour force. The triangle shape in the figure highlights labour mobility involving non-resident service suppliers. This cuts across the definition of usual residence established in population statistics as it relates to persons who are temporarily posted to a workplace abroad, such as consultants,

<sup>4</sup> This section is based on the in-depth review prepared by Statistics Austria for the Bureau of the Conference of European Statisticians (Statistics Austria, 2017), as well as chapter V of the Manual on Statistics of International Trade in Services 2010 (MSITS 2010) (United Nations, 2010) and chapter 16 of the MSITS 2010 Compiler's Guide (United Nations, 2014). It is aligned with the ILO Guidelines concerning statistics on international labour migration (International Labour Office, 2018), which became available after the present report was completed and endorsed by the Conference of European Statisticians.

<sup>5</sup> The complexity of this phenomenon is well described by the fact that researchers have identified 12 more or less synonymous terms used in literature and they came up with a typology referring to 18 dimensions with more than 45 different categories of short-term assignments (Green, Baldauf, & Owen, 2009)

temporary agency workers or self-employed service providers. Even if such an arrangement will typically be short-term, GATS does not imply any particular duration of stay. The Annex on Movement of Natural Persons in GATS determines, “The Agreement shall not apply to measures affecting natural persons seeking access to the employment market of a Member, nor shall it apply to measures regarding citizenship, residence or employment on a permanent basis.”

65. The residence of employers as defined in the Balance of Payments Manual 6th edition (BPM6) uses the criterion of one year. In that context, residence of institutional units is defined as follows:

“The residence of each institutional unit is the economic territory with which it has the strongest connection, expressed as its centre of predominant economic interest. [...] An institutional unit is resident in an economic territory when there exists, within the economic territory, some location, dwelling, place of production, or other premises on which or from which the unit engages and intends to continue engaging, either indefinitely or over a finite but long period of time, in economic activities and transactions on a significant scale. The location need not be fixed so long as it remains within the economic territory. Actual or intended location for one year or more is used as an operational definition; while the choice of one year as a specific period is somewhat arbitrary, it is adopted to avoid uncertainty and facilitate international consistency. [...] A household is resident in the economic territory in which household members maintain or intend to maintain a dwelling or succession of dwellings treated and used by members of the household as their principal dwelling. Being present for one year or more in a territory or intending to do so is sufficient to qualify as having a principal dwelling there. [...] As a general principle, an enterprise is resident in an economic territory when the enterprise is engaged in a significant amount of production of goods and/or services from a location in the territory.”

66. BPM6 Chapter 4 and MSITS 2010 Chapter 3 provide more information on residence of employers. In the present report, residence of foreign workers refers to usual residence (more than 12 months for long-term migrant workers and more than 3 and less than 12 for short-term migrant workers) whereas residence of institutional units/ employers refers to the concept of "predominant centre of economic interest" where one year is used as the criterion.

67. The combination of usual residence of persons with the residence of employers or place of employment yields four groups (*i-iv* in Figure 2):

- (a) Migrant workers whose employment relation is with
  - i. A resident entity in the host country:
    - 1. Long-term migrant workers, including self-employed persons: stay of at least 12 months
    - 2. Short-term migrant workers: stay between 3 to 12 months
  - ii. With a non-resident entity: stay of at least 12 months (e.g. long-term posting)
- (b) Non-resident foreign workers whose employment relation is
  - iii. With a resident entity: stay of less than 3 months (e.g. seasonal or frontier workers)
  - iv. With a non-resident entity or self-employed persons: stay of less than 12 months (e.g. short-term posting)

68. National accounts count the labour input of foreigners who work for resident producer units (groups *i* and *iii* in Figure 2) as contribution to the domestic value added. Balance of

payment statistics distinguish the same groups by determining whether the work is based on an employment or a service contract. The latter is characterised by payments for a specific result without control over the method of work whereas employment relations imply remuneration for working time including control over the method of work. The Guide on the Impact of Globalization on National Accounts ( (UNECE, 2011), paragraph 10.32) considers the definitions in the 2008 System of National Accounts (SNA) and the Balance of Payments Manual Sixth Edition (BPM6) (International Monetary Fund, 2009) as consistent with population statistics.

69. The Manual on Statistics of International Trade in Services 2010 (MSITS 2010) ( (United Nations, 2010), paragraph 2.79) integrates the United Nations Recommendations on statistics of international migration, SNA 2008 and BPM6 as well as the definition of business travellers in the International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics (IRTS) (United Nations, 2008). The integrated classification is presented in Section C.2 of the Manual.

70. The MSITS breaks mode 4 down into 3 main categories for compilation of data:

- (a) Contractual service suppliers, whether employees of a foreign service supplier (ii and sub-category of iv) or self-employed (sub-category iv and sub-category of i.1);
- (b) Intra corporate transferees who initially work for a non-resident service supplier who has established a commercial presence, and are sent to work in the commercial presence. For simplicity, it is assumed here that for short-term transfers (i.e. less than 3 months) the employment relationship remains with the non-resident supplier (sub-category of iv), for longer-term transfers (i.e. 3 months or more) it is with the receiving entity (sub-categories of i.1 and i.2);<sup>6</sup>
- (c) Service sellers/ persons responsible for setting up a commercial presence (part of group iv).

71. The following categories are of primary interest:

- (a) Short-term migrant workers (i.2)<sup>7</sup> and non-resident foreign workers (iii) whose employment relationship is with a resident entity;
- (b) Non-resident foreign workers whose employment relation is with a non-resident entity or who are self-employed (iv).

72. As foreseen above, an important factor to distinguish between categories (a) and (b) is where the employment relationship stands, or how to determine if a person is self-employed, providing services on behalf of his employer in the destination country, or in an employer-employee relationship in the host country. Box 1, which is drawn from MSITS 2010, describes how this distinction could be made. The *Guide on the impact of globalization on national accounts* details how important this distinction is in terms of impact on national accounts and productivity measurement ( (UNECE, 2011) box 10.1).

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<sup>6</sup> MSITS 2010 also includes foreign employees directly recruited by foreign established companies although admitting that these may also be considered as migrants.

<sup>7</sup> This category is mentioned here to complement stays of less than 3 months for employment purposes. It is not covered by the definition of non-resident foreign workers, as according to United Nations Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration, it is assumed that their place of usual residence changes for the period they stay in the destination country.

**Box 1****Self-employed or employee?<sup>8</sup>**

The terms “self-employed” and “independent” as applied to service suppliers are often used interchangeably. BPM6 recommendations describe these individuals (hereafter referred to as “self-employed”) as operating their own unincorporated enterprises and selling the output they produce.<sup>9</sup> Self-employed persons, who may also employ others, are generally responsible for decisions on markets, scale of operations and finance and are likely to own or rent the machinery or equipment with which they work.

An employer-employee relationship exists when there is an agreement between an entity and an individual whereby the individual works for the entity in return for remuneration in cash or in kind. Normally, both parties enter such agreements voluntarily and they may be formal or informal. The remuneration is normally based on either the time spent at work or some other objective indicator of the amount of work undertaken. If an individual is contracted to produce a given result, it suggests a service contract relationship between the entity and a self-employed person.

It may not always be clear whether an employer-employee relationship exists between the individual and the entity or whether the individual is self-employed and is supplying a service to the client entity. Provision of several types of services may pose such problems because entities may choose either to purchase a service from a self-employed worker or to hire an employee to perform the job. The status of the worker has important implications for the international accounts. If an employer-employee relationship exists between the worker and the entity for which the work is being done, the corresponding payment constitutes compensation of employees. If the individual is self-employed, then the payment constitutes a purchase of services.

Several factors may have to be considered in determining whether an employer-employee relationship exists. An important test is that of control. The right to control or to direct as regards both what shall be done and how it shall be done, is a strong indication of an employer-employee relationship. The method of measuring or arranging for the payment is not important as long as the employer has effective control over both the method and the result of the work undertaken by the individual. However, a certain control over the work being undertaken may also exist for the purchase of a service. Therefore, other criteria should also be used to define more clearly the employer-employee relationship. If the individual were solely responsible for social contributions, this would suggest that he or she is a self-employed service provider. In contrast, payment of social contributions by the employer is an indication that an employer-employee relationship exists. If the individual is entitled to the same kind of benefits (for example, allowances, holidays and sick leave) that the entity generally provides to its employees, this indicates the existence of an employer-employee relationship. Payment of taxes by the individual on the provision of services (such as sales taxes or a value-added tax) is an indication that the individual is a self-employed service provider.

Often the payment of taxes or social security contributions will determine the perception of the individuals involved. This will also determine the way in which accounting systems record their remuneration. Consequently, this will define how the distinction is made in available sources for statistics (registration in the client economy of a transaction as compensation of employees or as payment for a service).

<sup>8</sup> Derived from MSITS 2010 and BPM6

<sup>9</sup> BPM6 recommendations for the identification of the self-employed and employees are consistent with those of the 2008 SNA. Those recommendations are also broadly consistent with the recommendations contained in the resolution concerning the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93), adopted by the fifteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in January 1993, and with other resolutions of the Conference concerning the definitions of the economically active population. For more information on ISCE, see <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/class/icse.htm>.

## Linking the taxonomy to existing statistical frameworks

73. As stated in the *Guide on the impact of globalization on national accounts*, "the definitions and recommendations in the various statistical frameworks seem sufficiently harmonized to ensure that the population and labour statistics collected according to UN/ILO frameworks may be used in the national accounts and balance of payments without adjustments." In other words, the United Nations Recommendations on statistics of international migration (United Nations, 1998) and the ILO Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization (International Labour Organization, 2013) are sufficient to cover the needs identified.

74. Other statistical frameworks are of particular interest here: the International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics 2008 (IRTS) and the Tourism Satellite Accounts: Recommended Methodological Framework 2008 (TSA-RMF) (United Nations, 2008). This section presents how these frameworks could be used and extended in order to develop relevant additional indicators on labour mobility for non-resident foreign workers.

75. IRTS is a comprehensive methodological framework for the collection and compilation of tourism statistics. This conceptual framework defines tourism and refers to related concepts such as country of residence, place of usual residence and usual environment. It introduces the activity of visitors from the point of view of their expenditure and presents the standard classification of products and productive activities that need to be used to conduct a comparable analysis of the demand and supply related to tourism. An extension of IRTS is the tourism satellite account, by which tourism statistics are linked with the mainstream of macroeconomic analysis (see TSA-RMF).

76. IRTS identifies international visitors as non-residents travelling in the country of reference, or residents travelling outside of it, being on a tourism trip. They must not be in an employer-employee relationship with an entity resident in the country visited and receive compensation for the labour input provided. This framework proposes to breakdown trips according to their main purpose, i.e. personal (holidays, leisure and recreation, education and training, health and medical care, etc.) and business and professional purposes.

77. The flows of visitors whose main purpose of trip is business and professional includes the activities of the self-employed and employees, as long as they do not correspond to an employer-employee relationship with a resident producer in the country visited, as well as those of investors, businessmen, or any other type of professional purposes. Although IRTS recognizes that for some countries, it may be difficult to distinguish between business and professional trips, it suggests that for some others it may be sufficiently important to disaggregate this information further. We will outline below how this framework could be used to derive relevant information on non-resident foreign workers whose employment relation is with a non-resident enterprise or who are self-employed.

78. As indicated above, the IRTS category "business and professional purposes" of trip is a particularly interesting category to analyse. The category includes the self-employed or employees whose employment relation is with a non-resident enterprise (stay of less than 12 months, e.g. short-term posting, contractual service providers).

79. Statistics resulting from this framework will not cover:

- cases where there is a change of usual residence from one country to another;
- employment-related movements of less than three months (employer-employee relationship with a producer resident in the host economy).

## Data sources

80. The potential data sources for statistics on non-resident foreign workers are enterprise surveys, administrative sources, household and labour-force surveys, population censuses and border or passenger surveys. There are no dedicated and comprehensive data sources for such movements and stays, which means that compilers should select and when possible combine the following sources:

- (a) Administrative sources, such as population registers, migration records, work permits, social security and employment documents. They are more pertinent in countries of destination. Entry and exit cards may serve as a sample frame for border/ passenger surveys.
- (b) Border/passenger surveys should be considered for obtaining characteristics of those who travel for business, work or employment purposes, combined with surveys at border crossings;
- (c) Household/labour-force surveys could help to obtain information for outgoing persons, in particular the self-employed, as well as absent or recently returned household members; and can be combined with counts of outgoing persons/trips;
- (d) Enterprise surveys
  - i. Trade in services surveys covering mode 4 would probably be the best source to collect data on non-resident foreign workers whose employment relation is with a non-resident enterprise, i.e. alongside statistics on the value of the contracts;
  - ii. Foreign affiliates statistics (FATS) data sources could be useful on intra-firm movements or direct recruitments by foreign affiliates;
  - iii. Other enterprise surveys, covering specific services sectors, or temporary employment or recruitment agencies could also be specially tailored to capture information of interest.
- (e) Business registers may contain information needed to identify potential self-employed service suppliers;

81. Partner country statistics may provide useful information given that it may be difficult or impossible to collect details on characteristics of incoming persons or trips through surveys of enterprises or households, or by using administrative records for outgoing persons. Partner country information could be analysed/compared using a clearing house, administered by a central institution, although the feasibility of data exchange may depend on the willingness and capacity to provide quality data in the partner country. Compilers also need to be cautious in using partner country statistics, since definitions, national legislation and regulations may differ.

### *4. Flow of migrants including for-work migrants*

82. The flow of international migrants is the number of migrants entering or leaving a country over the course of a specific period, normally taken as one year. In the context of international labour mobility, the interest is in the flow of “for-work migrants” and their share among all international migrants.

83. In the case of out-flow of workers and in-flow of foreign migrant workers, the concept of for-work migrants is not referring to the current participation in the host country’s labour force, but that of the documented or stated objective or intention of such participation in the

future. In the case of return flow of citizens, the reference is not to current participation, but to participation in the past, in another country.

84. For-work migrants enter a country with the documented or stated objective of seeking or undertaking employment. Seeking or undertaking employment does not have to be the only reason for the entry, nor even the main reason – it suffices for it to be just one of the reasons if there are several reasons for the migration. To measure this group, the reasons for the move have to be recorded and tabulated in a way that enables identification of whether seeking or undertaking employment was one of the documented or stated reasons for the entry.

85. In most situations, better data can be collected in the destination country on the in-flow than in the country of origin on the out-flow. The predominant data sources are geared towards identifying the in-flow of foreigners more than the in-flow (return) of citizens.

86. The reason or motive for the migration (including the intention to undertake employment) may also remain undocumented and undeclared. This can result from several factors. Firstly, the omission may be intentional, such as in the case of a person entering on a tourist or study visa but then staying on to seek or undertake work. Secondly, the intention may be overshadowed by some more powerful and immediate reason for the migration, as in the case of a person entering the country as a refugee or asylum seeker. Many such persons need or want to seek employment, but that will not be the stated reason for their move. Thirdly, there may be no opportunity to state the reason for entry, as in the case of irregular migrants, or migrants whose entry is not subject to controls.

87. From the perspective of linking the information on the flow to the stock of international migrant workers, it is to be noted that for-work migrants may or may not actually undertake work or continue to work and migrants entering with other objectives may or may not actually remain outside the labour force.

## III. Overview of data availability

### A. Sources

88. This chapter is concerned with empirical information on the current situation concerning data availability on international labour mobility in different countries. It addresses issues concerning data availability on the three main measurements relevant to labour mobility: (i) stock of international migrants and migrant workers, (ii) non-resident foreign workers and (iii) flow of migrants including for-work migrants, as defined in section II.C of this report.

89. The measurement of labour mobility touches upon various statistical domains using a variety of sources. In order to identify good practices, ILO prepared a set of questionnaires requesting information on the availability of statistics on the migration of workers to and from each country, and the sources and methods used in compiling such statistics.<sup>10</sup> In this chapter, we examine and draw implications from a broad analysis of the results of ILO questionnaires concerning data availability on the three main measurements of interest in labour mobility identified above. For the present purpose, the most useful indicators from the ILO survey analysed here concern the type of information that is available in different countries from different national data sources.<sup>11</sup>

### B. ILO methodological questionnaires on international labour migration statistics

90. ILO circulated seven types of questionnaires (see Table 1). The questionnaires were sent to the national statistical offices (NSOs) of all ILO member States, with the request that each relevant questionnaire be completed by the appropriate unit of the NSO and/or the ministry or agency responsible for a particular data source. Depending on the data sources available, the same questionnaire could require response by more than one government ministry or agency. Not all countries answered all questionnaires and some countries responded more than once to a particular type of questionnaire (e.g. providing information on

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<sup>10</sup> In 2015 the ILO circulated a series of methodological questionnaires on International Labour Migration Statistics as part of the Working Group on Migrant Workers. In July 2016 the ILO shared the data collected in the questionnaires with the UNECE Task Force on Measuring Labour Mobility, and the research on the questionnaire was presented at the second meeting of the Working Group on the Labour Migration Statistics, Turin, Italy, 15-17 November 2016.

<sup>11</sup> ILO plans to publish more detailed results from the enquiry in a separate publication.

more than one household survey). Of the 190 countries<sup>12</sup> originally contacted, 128 countries returned at least one questionnaire, giving a total of 480 questionnaires.<sup>13</sup>

**Table 1**  
**Numbers of responding countries and questionnaires received**

Questionnaire	Total		Europe and Central Asia	
	Types of questionnaires received	Number of responding countries	Types of questionnaires received	Number of responding countries
Q1 Population Census	122	122	48	48
Q2 Household Surveys	120	86	68	42
Q3 Border/Admission Statistics	49	48	20	19
Q4 Establishment Census	18	18	4	4
Q5 Establishment Surveys	18	16	10	8
Q6 Administrative Sources	126	72	89	40
Q7 Estimation of International Migrant Workers	27	26	11	10
<b>All questionnaires /Countries</b>	<b>480</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>250</b>	<b>50</b>

91. As can be seen in Table 1, most questionnaires were answered once by each country. Only Household Surveys (Q2) and Administrative Sources (Q6) have significant differences between the number of questionnaires received and number of responding countries. For the purpose of analysis, the country questionnaires were consolidated in the following *data sources* (S1-S10). Each source is unique, in that at most only one of it is present in a country, irrespective of the number of questionnaire types it is based on.

(S1) Population census (same as Q1)

(S2) All household surveys, including Labour Force Survey (LFS) (consolidation of all questionnaires of type Q2 returned by the country into a single source, S2)

(S3) Population and social security registers; other administrative sources (consolidation of all questionnaires in a subset of Q6 into a single source)

(S4) Establishment census and surveys (consolidation of questionnaires in Q4 and Q5 returned by the country into a single source, S4)

(S5) Private and public employment services (consolidation of all questionnaires in a subset of Q6 into a single source, S5)

(S6) Registers of international migrants, migrant workers, work permits issued (consolidation of all questionnaires in a subset of Q6 into a single source, S6)

(S7) Border/admission statistical sources (consolidation of all questionnaires of type Q3 into a single source)

<sup>12</sup> The term “country” is used in a general sense to indicate a country, territory or other relevant administrative unit suitable for the ILO data collection.

<sup>13</sup> Of the 190 countries and territories approached, 67 per cent responded, accounting for 70 per cent of the world population. The proportion of countries responding reaches 90 per cent in Europe and Central Asia, but remains below 50 per cent in the Americas and Arab State regions. However, in terms of the proportion of the population covered, Americas have one of the highest figures (84 per cent; USA is included, though not Brazil); while it is the lowest for Arab States (30 per cent). Overall, the ILO country survey has achieved very respectable response rates. The achieved level of response is actually better than the above figures indicate, given that the subject matter of the enquiry is information on *international migrant workers*, to which the contribution of China is much smaller than indicated by the size of its total population.

- (S8) Register of nationals issued work permit for abroad (consolidation of all questionnaires in a subset of Q6 into a single source)
- (S9) LFS (the LFS questionnaire returned using Q2)
- (S10) Questionnaire on the Estimation of International Migrant Workers in the Country (consolidation of all questionnaires of type Q7 returned by the country).

## C. Availability of data sources on international labour migration and mobility from ILO survey

**Table 2**  
**Number of countries reporting a source, as percentage of all responding countries in a region**

	Any (no.)	S1	S2	S1 &/or S2	S3	S6	S3 &/or S6	S4	S5	S4 &/or S5	S7	S8	S9	Any (%)
Africa	31	100	65	100	13	19	32	32	13	45	45	3	29	100
Americas	15	73	60	100	27	7	33	7	0	7	33	7	40	100
Arab States	5	100	100	100	40	0	40	40	0	40	20	0	80	100
Asia & the Pacific	19	100	32	100	5	21	26	11	11	16	37	5	11	100
Europe & Central Asia	44	95	91	100	55	39	73	18	23	34	41	5	77	100
Other small territories	14	100	43	100	43	29	64	14	7	21	21	0	29	100
Percentage of respondents	100	95	67	100	32	25	49	20	13	30	38	4	46	20

92. A number of pertinent observations on the pattern emerging from Table 2 follow.

### 1. Population census and household surveys (S1, S2)

93. Population census and household surveys are the most widely available sources of statistics on international labour migration. All responding countries report at least one of these two data sources, with 122 (95 per cent) reporting a population census with relevant information, and 86 (67 per cent) reporting at least one household survey, including 81 (63 per cent) reporting the availability of sources of both types. The main merits of census as a source are that (i) the census can provide information on small domains (small areas and small populations) because of its large size; and (ii) its coverage of the resident population tends to be more complete than that in typical sample surveys. The main merits of sample surveys arise from (i) their higher frequency (hence timeliness), and (ii) greater flexibility and richness of content.

94. Across the UNECE area, the concept of usual residence is widely used in population censuses (UNECE, 2014), with 80 per cent of countries using some version of the usually resident population as the concept of reference. The typical duration of stay threshold for usual residence was defined by either having lived at the residence for 12 months before the reference date, or having the intention to stay for 12 months beyond the reference date. The consequence of this was that short-term migrants were typically not counted in the usually resident population in the census, and indeed this group was only included in 16 per cent of countries in the region.

95. Among household surveys, the labour-force survey (LFS) is the most common source (at 43 per cent), followed by income, expenditure or living conditions surveys (26 per cent).<sup>14</sup> This scenario has important practical implications.

96. In almost all cases, population census and/or surveys obtain information on basic demographic characteristics (age, sex, marital status) along with individual's employment status. A clear majority cover 95 per cent or more of the country's population, though under one-half (47 per cent) report covering refugees and asylum seekers. Typically, household surveys do not cover institutional households such as hotels, dormitories, hostels, camps, homes, prisons and homes for the elderly, which can influence the accuracy of results for non-residents, as they tend to have different dwelling patterns than the domestic population. Information on country of birth and/or on the country of citizenship along with information on the person's employment status is available in a vast majority (90 per cent) of the countries, making it possible to identify international migrant workers in the population. In addition, over half (55 per cent) the countries report information on whether the individual has ever lived abroad.

97. Nearly half (47 per cent) report that the source(s) cover refugees apart from other non-citizens.

98. Nearly 75 per cent of the countries report information on country of citizenship, and 85 per cent on country of birth. Information on employment status is available in practically all countries. Among these, in 65 per cent all three items of information are available together in the same source: such information makes it possible to identify international migrant workers in the population. A similar picture pertains to information on the migrant's previous country of residence and on duration since last immigration.

99. A majority (60 per cent) obtain some information on former household members who have moved out to live abroad for intended or actual duration exceeding a certain specified threshold.

100. One-third of the countries (34 per cent) report some information on remittances sent and/or received by international migrants. Most of these record remittances received by migrants from abroad, and only half of these record remittances sent back.

## ***2. Population-based registers***

101. Population-based registers containing information concerning international labour migration – which include general population and social security registers and other similar administrative sources, as well as registers of international migrants and of migrant workers, and work permits issued – are the second important source of information. One-half of the responding countries report the availability of at least one such source. The type of information on international migrant workers contained is of similar scope and type to that contained in population censuses and surveys. However, the availability of this type of source is quite different across regions: three-quarter of countries in Europe and Central Asia but only one-quarter in Asia and the Pacific report population-based registers containing information on international labour migration. Registers of international migrants and of

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<sup>14</sup> The 2014 EU-LFS included an ad hoc module on "Labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants" with 25 countries participating. This module will be repeated in the 2021 EU-LFS, with information on the educational background of migrants, main reason for migrating, self-perceived language skills, and obstacles and support to labour market participation.

[http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU\\_labour\\_force\\_survey\\_-\\_ad\\_hoc\\_modules](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/EU_labour_force_survey_-_ad_hoc_modules)

migrant workers, and work permits issued (S6) are also most prevalent in Europe and Central Asia (39 per cent), but otherwise the pattern is complementary (opposite) to the above for general population and social security registers.

102. Information on employment status along with on basic demographic characteristics is available in one-in-five (19 per cent) countries. The remaining countries report the availability of basic demographic characteristics only, without information on individuals' employment status. Whether the person has ever lived abroad is recorded in 35 per cent of the countries, i.e. in nearly three-quarters of the countries reporting the presence of the data source. Refugees and asylum seekers are included in less than half of the countries reporting the presence of the data source.

### **3. Establishment surveys**

103. Even though the two sources are very different in terms of statistical methodology as well as content, generally countries tend to report only one of establishment surveys or employment services. Only a few countries in Europe and Central Asia report having both types of sources.

104. Establishment census and surveys (S4) with relevant information concerning international labour migration are reported by one-in-five (25/128) of the responding countries. Generally, the scope and content of the information relevant for international labour migration in sources of this type tends to be limited. For instance, one-half of the available establishment census and surveys do not cover the informal sector, and only one-in-five cover establishments of all sectors and sizes. Where a migrant is employed by an individual rather than an organization, they will not be covered by establishment surveys.

105. While the coverage of employment services, where they exist, is generally national, fewer than one-in-four state that refugees and asylum seekers are covered. In either type of source, only a minority (one-in-four overall) include information on employment status and country of citizenship or birth – which are among the basic variables required for the identification of international migrant workers. Practically no information is recorded on the migrant's duration since arrival into the country. Similarly, practically no information is reported on remittances sent or received by migrant workers.

### **4. Employment services**

106. Private and public employment services (S5) are reported less frequently (by 13 per cent of the responding countries). They are most common in Europe and Central Asia (23 per cent) but practically absent in Americas and Arab States. Employment status along with information on country of birth and/or country of citizenship – needed for identifying migrant workers – is reported by only 6 per cent (8/128) of responding countries. A similar proportion report availability of information on former household members who have moved abroad. Very few contain information on whether the person has ever lived abroad, and none report information on country of previous residence.

## 5. *Border/admission statistics*

107. These sources (S7) cover information from the country's border/admission statistics obtained from immigration/emigration forms at the borders and other points of entry and exit from the country. In contrast to the sources listed above which, by and large, concern migration stocks, border/admission statistics constitute a major source of information on migratory flows in both directions. Border statistics are available in a little under 40 per cent of the countries responding to the ILO survey; furthermore, a third of all responding countries report that such statistics are maintained on a continuous basis. Generally, they cover all ages and contain information on sex and age of the individuals.

108. It is highly relevant to note that over 80 per cent of the exiting border/admission records cover special categories of migrants, including irregular and transient migrants, refugees and asylum seekers. On the other hand, only one in four among those contain information on employment status along with information on country of citizenship or birth and last country of residence – items necessary for the identification of international migrant workers.

109. Over half of the countries with border/admission records also report the coverage of nationals going to live abroad. In half of the cases, information concerning reason for departure, intended duration of stay abroad, as well as on destination country is collected.

## 6. *Register of nationals issued permits for work abroad*

110. Register of nationals who have been issued permits for work abroad (S8) are reported by very few countries, only 5 among the 128 responding countries (4 per cent). The country of destination is reported by 3 per cent (4 cases). The implication is that *available information on both flows and stocks of workers migrating abroad is very limited in most countries*. Partial information is available from population censuses and household surveys: a majority (60 per cent) of these obtain some information on former household members who have moved out to live abroad for intended or actual duration exceeding a certain specified threshold; one-in-three also report some information on remittances sent and/or received by international migrants. However, such information on out-migrating workers is likely to be seriously underreported.

## 7. *ILO module on international labour migration*

111. ILO has developed a labour migration module, which can be added to existing household surveys, in particular to LFSs in countries of origin and countries of destination. The module was piloted in 2006–2007 in four countries (Armenia, Ecuador, Egypt and Thailand) and then implemented as part of the LFS in Ukraine and Moldova in 2012. The module provides a rich source of data including social and economic characteristics of migrant workers. The survey covers: the scale, scope and pattern of distribution of labour migration; socio-demographic composition of migrant workers (including educational attainment and training before departure abroad); and frequency, duration, economic activities and working conditions of migratory trips.

112. The Labour Force Migration Survey (LFMS) was conducted in the Republic of Moldova in the last quarter of 2012 in order to assess the extent of labour migration out of the country and to describe the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrant workers. Administered as a module of the regularly conducted Labour Force Survey (LFS),

the LFMS was developed and implemented by the National Bureau of Statistics of the Republic of Moldova.

113. LFMS had a target population of individuals aged from 15 to 64 years who had either (i) left the country to work or look for work abroad within 24 months preceding the date of the survey or (ii) who intended to leave the country to work or look for work within six months following the survey. The survey used three separate questionnaires to gather information on migrant workers: (i) a questionnaire to collect information on household members living abroad; (ii) a questionnaire on household members who had not been abroad in the previous 24 months and who intended to migrate within six months following the survey date; and (iii) a questionnaire on household members who had been abroad in the previous 24 months and had returned and were residing in Moldova at the time of the survey.

114. Similarly, in 2012 the State Statistics Service of Ukraine, in collaboration with ILO, conducted the Survey on Labour Migration (SLM) in order to estimate the size of labour migration out of Ukraine and analyse the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrant workers.

## IV. Country case studies

### A. Structure

115. Four countries volunteered to prepare country case studies for the Task Force: Israel, Italy, Mexico and Norway. The Task Force established a common framework for the case studies, aligned with the main measurements relevant to international labour mobility (section II.C):

- (a) Stock of international migrant workers with externally displaced persons as a sub-category;
- (b) Non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad;
- (c) Flow of migrants including for-work migrants.

116. The goal of the case studies was to collect and present current practices on the collection of data and preparation of statistics in these areas. They describe the availability of data for these measurements in each country, characterize the most important data sources as well as present a brief analysis of the effect of labour mobility on the local economy and labour force.

117. Each country compiled data tables according to the template specified in the framework as far as data was available. The data is the basis for the discussion on availability and the analysis presented in the below chapter. Full data tables will be made available at the UNECE website.

## B. Israel

### 1. Introduction

118. Israel is a small country in the Middle East with a population of 8.5 million as at the end of 2015 (Table 2.1, (Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, 2016)). Approximately 75 per cent of the population is Jewish, 21 per cent Arab and 4 per cent others. In 2015, there was 2.0 per cent annual population growth, 19.8 per cent of which was due to the migration balance (Table 2.12, (Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, 2016)).

119. Immigration to Israel has varied greatly across different periods (Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Most of the immigrants are Jews from around the world. The last major immigration wave was in the 1990s surrounding the collapse of the Soviet Union. In 1990, almost 200,000 immigrants arrived in Israel and the total number of immigrants arrived in Israel between 1990 and 2001 reached 906,500.

120. Israel's labour force was 3.9 million in 2016 (age 15+) with a 64.1 per cent participation rate, 61.1 per cent employment rate, and 4.8 per cent unemployment rate (Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, 2017). Israel's largest industries were education; wholesale and retail trade; and manufacturing, mining and quarrying (456, 430, and 425 thousand employed persons, respectively) (Table 2.1, (Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, 2017)).

121. Since the early 1990s, certain industries (e.g. agriculture, construction, in-home caregiving) have had government agreements and quotas for bringing workers from specific countries (e.g. China, Philippines). Another group of foreign workers are irregular migrants from Africa who arrived in Israel through Egypt. Since 2012-2013, the border controls with Egypt have been reinforced and the flow of these irregular immigrants into Israel has mostly ceased. There is also some commuting into Israel from neighbouring countries and territories (Jordan and the Palestinian Authority) and out of Israel to the Palestinian Authority.

### 2. Data

#### Stock of international migrant workers

122. In Israel, the stock of international migrants is defined as all persons who have changed their place of usual residence to Israel and do not have either Israeli citizenship or a permanent residence permit. Persons who have Israeli citizenship (such as naturalised immigrants) or a permanent residence permit are not part of the stock of international migrants. This definition is different from the usual definitions adopted in the countries that measure the stock of migrants as the number of foreign or foreign-born persons. Statistics on the stock of international migrant workers are available from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) but only migrants living in residential dwellings are covered. Those living in non-residential dwellings, for example on construction sites, are not covered in the LFS.

123. Foreign workers employed by a non-resident enterprise (such as posted workers or those on consultancy contracts) staying in the country for more than one year continuously are also included in this group but cannot be identified in the stock of international migrants, because information on whether the employer is resident or non-resident is not recorded.

124. Country of birth and entrance year of non-citizens (and sometimes month) are used to identify international migrant workers. Country of citizenship is limited to whether or not the

person has Israeli citizenship and permanent residents are treated as citizens. Permanent residents are people who have a permanent residency permit from the Ministry of the Interior. This permit provides rights (e.g. work, social benefits) and demands obligations (e.g. pay taxes) very similar to those of citizens. Therefore, permanent residents are treated as citizens in many of ICBS's statistics including LFS and other household surveys.

125. The usual place of residence is defined according to the United Nations census recommendations. The threshold of 12 months is based on actual length of residence for temporary residents and intention to stay for new immigrants. Employment is defined according to recommendations from the ILO.

### Possible improvements

126. Within the framework of the current LFS, it may be possible to make small changes in the questionnaire and sample so that full employment data may be collected for all persons living in residential dwellings, regardless of the length of their stay. Similarly, the questionnaire could be expanded to collect details on place of work abroad (country, industry, occupation and hours worked). For those working in Israel, the distinction between a locally owned enterprise and a foreign owned enterprise can be added. The information could be used for studying non-resident foreign workers while inclusion in the survey population and/or labour force remains based on ILO definitions.

127. A larger change could be expanding the survey coverage to non-residential areas to include construction sites and agricultural sites. An appropriate sampling frame would have to be found to make this change.

128. Another way of estimating the stock of international migrant workers, as defined in Israel, is based on counting those who have entered before a specific time but not exited by that time, including those who entered with a work permit and those who entered as tourists. This process assumes that people from certain countries with expired work permits and tourists who overstay their visas stay for the sake of work. As calculated by the Israel Central Bureau of Statistics (ICBS) Demography Department, at the end of 2015 the stock of migrant workers estimated in this way consisted of approximately 104,000 who entered with work permits and approximately 79,000 who entered as tourists since 1995 (Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, 2016). These numbers may be overestimated due to mistakes in registration at the border or change of status while in the country.

129. The ICBS Macroeconomics Department publishes<sup>15</sup> data on employed foreign workers including those from the Palestinian Authority.

130. Irregular migrants are also part of this group, although measuring their entrance is less clear-cut. See the section on externally displaced persons below for more details.

### Externally displaced persons

131. In Israel, externally displaced persons are mainly irregular migrants (mostly from Eritrea and Sudan) who made their way through Egypt to Israel. Basic quantitative data on this group comes from the Population and Immigration Authority (PIBA) and is processed in different ways by various users.

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<sup>15</sup> [http://www.cbs.gov.il/ts/databank/databank\\_main\\_func\\_e.html](http://www.cbs.gov.il/ts/databank/databank_main_func_e.html) - Choose "National Accounts (data from 1995, SNA 2008)" from the left and then choose "Employed Persons and Work Hours of Employed Persons".

132. According to the Demography Department of ICBS, which publishes estimates on these migrants (Israel Central Bureau of Statistics, 2016), their number at the end of 2015 was approximately 43,200 persons, regardless of labour-force characteristics. The report *Labour Migration to Israel* (Center for International Migration and Integration and Population and Immigration Authority of Israel, 2016) presents a similar estimate.

133. According to the internal calculations of the Macroeconomics Department of ICBS, employed persons constitute almost 50 per cent of this group, that is, approximately 22,300 persons in 2015.

134. Entrance of such irregular migrants has mostly stopped due to the reinforcement of the border with Egypt.

135. Although those externally displaced persons who live in residential dwellings should be covered in the LFS, there is no specific sampling for this population and there is often a fear of cooperating with official government representatives in the form of interviewers. Therefore, only approximately 7,000 externally displaced persons are identified in the LFS (using country of birth and non-Israeli citizenship).

#### **Non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad**

136. Part of the information of interest is covered by existing statistics. There are statistics available on residents of Israel working abroad and persons commuting to work to in Israel. The source of data on Israeli residents working abroad is LFS, but they are identified only if they work as a representative of an institution or corporation operating in Israel. Those working for a foreign employer are categorized as not participating in the labour force. As mentioned above (regarding the stock of international migrant workers), the LFS questionnaire could be expanded to collect details on place of work abroad (country, industry, occupation, hours worked) – regardless of the country of origin of the institution or corporation.

137. Commuters into Israel are workers from the Palestinian Authority who work in Israel. Their number is approximately 90,000 to 95,000, and the majority work in construction. The Macroeconomics Department of ICBS produces these statistics based on data from the Palestinian LFS. Commuters into Israel are not covered in the ICBS LFS since they do not reside permanently in Israel. To cover the full population of non-migrant foreign workers and residents working abroad alternative sources of information would need to be considered.

#### **In-flow of migrants including for-work migrants to the country**

138. Data on in-flow of migrants including for-work migrants to the country are collected, processed and disseminated by the demographics department at ICBS based on border control files.

139. Data on arrivals and departures are available by the category of permit (where a movement in or out is counted) and on persons entering and exiting (where an actual person is counted) for persons with work permits. The source of data is the Population and Immigration Authority. Statistics are published by year of move ensuring that all arrivals and entrants meet the criterion of “not yet met the 12-month threshold to change their usual place of residence”. Data are received monthly and calculations are possible for any period requested.

140. The in-flow of non-resident service suppliers (such as posted workers or those on consultancy contracts) is covered as part of the in-flow of persons with work permits.

141. No labour-force characteristics are available beyond the assumption that those holding a work permit are employed.

### 3. Sources

#### Labour Force Survey (LFS)

##### Population

142. The sample of LFS is drawn from the *de jure* population of Israel aged 15 and over. This includes:

- (a) Permanent residents living in Israel;
- (b) Permanent residents living abroad continuously for a period of one year or less;
- (c) New immigrants and potential immigrants, from the moment of their arrival in Israel;
- (d) Tourists or temporary residents living in Israel continuously for more than a year (not including foreign diplomats and United Nations personnel).

143. In each dwelling sampled, all persons are asked about their residency status and their year of entry (and month of entry – for those who entered in the past two years). Permanent residents (with a national ID number) are asked about their first year of entry and temporary residents (without a national ID number) are asked about their latest year of entry. Each dwelling may include one or more households. A household (or family) may include both members who belong to the population and members who do not belong to the population.

##### Sampling

144. LFS is a panel survey. Each year's sample is divided into 12 mutually exclusive and complementary groups (panels). The panels are introduced into the survey investigation in 12 consecutive months, where one panel each month is introduced in the calendar year following the year in which the sample is drawn. Each panel is investigated eight times according to a pattern known as 4-8-4. In the rotational structure of this pattern, eight investigations are performed for each panel in the following way: the investigation in the introduction month and in the three following months (investigations 1-4), a break of eight months, and four more consecutive investigations in the following months (investigations 5-8).

145. The main sampling unit in the LFS is a dwelling. The survey is planned so that each panel contains about 1,500 dwellings. Dwellings are sampled from the Dwellings and Buildings Register that is built and maintained by the ICBS. The register is constructed from municipal tax files and only residential dwellings are included in the sampling frame. The register provides coverage for urban localities (2,000 residents and over). For rural localities, sampling is usually from lists of households or dwellings supplied by the locality, because the ICBS does not have the municipal tax file.

146. People living in institutions are covered in the LFS. University dormitories and immigrant absorption centres are covered in the regular (current) survey but have their own sampling frames. Old age homes, children's dormitories, hospitals, prisons etc. do not have sampling frames and/or are not accessible to regular investigation. They are covered in the permanent sample taken from the latest population census (2008). Military bases are also not

accessible. Soldiers with a civilian address (usually their parents; Israel has a compulsory draft at age 18) are investigated at the civilian address. Those without a civilian address are not covered.

147. Bedouin tribes in the south who live outside of localities are covered in the permanent sample. Others living outside of localities are not covered.

148. More information on the Labour Force Survey is available from the following sources:

- (a) ICBS website:  
[http://www.cbs.gov.il/reader/?MIval=cw\\_usr\\_view\\_SHTML&ID=417](http://www.cbs.gov.il/reader/?MIval=cw_usr_view_SHTML&ID=417)
- (b) Introduction to Labour Force Survey 2013, publication number 1616:  
[http://www.cbs.gov.il/webpub/pub/text\\_page\\_eng.html?publ=68&CYear=2013&CMonth=1](http://www.cbs.gov.il/webpub/pub/text_page_eng.html?publ=68&CYear=2013&CMonth=1)
- (c) Website of the Macroeconomics Department, National Accounts:  
[http://www.cbs.gov.il/reader/?MIval=cw\\_usr\\_view\\_SHTML&ID=421](http://www.cbs.gov.il/reader/?MIval=cw_usr_view_SHTML&ID=421)
- (d) Time series databank:  
[http://www.cbs.gov.il/ts/IDad817685c40f42/databank/building\\_func\\_e.html?level\\_1=37](http://www.cbs.gov.il/ts/IDad817685c40f42/databank/building_func_e.html?level_1=37)
- (e) Demography Department annual data, Chapter 4-Immigration:  
[http://www.cbs.gov.il/reader/shnatonenew\\_site.htm](http://www.cbs.gov.il/reader/shnatonenew_site.htm)
- (f) Population and Immigration Authority (PIBA):  
[https://www.gov.il/he/Departments/publications/reports/foreign\\_workers\\_in\\_israel\\_2016\\_report](https://www.gov.il/he/Departments/publications/reports/foreign_workers_in_israel_2016_report) (scroll down for English)

#### **4. Analysis**

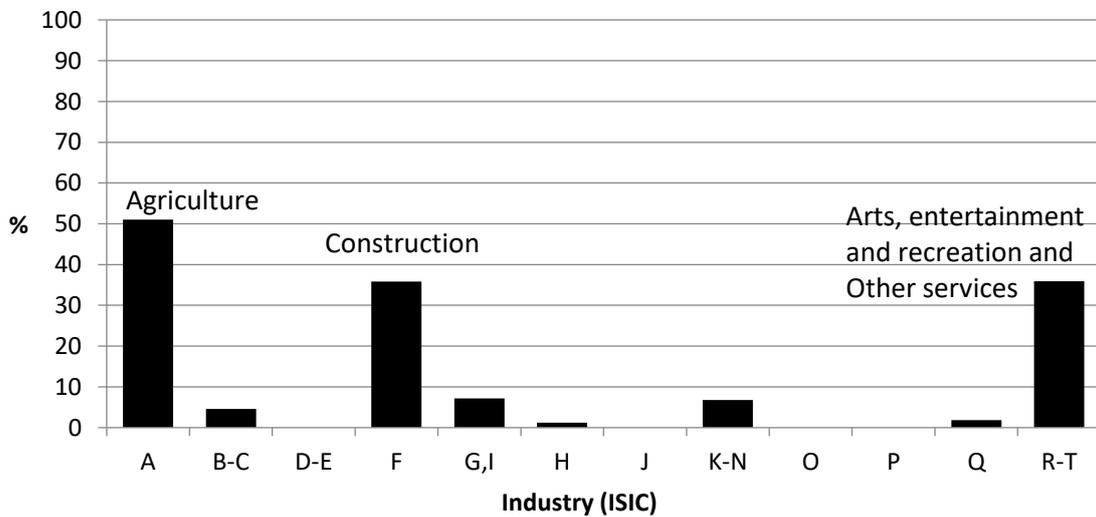
149. The share of hours worked by non-resident foreign workers employed by Israeli entities is a good approximation of their contribution to GDP. The figures below are based on statistics from the ICBS Macroeconomics Department. As can be seen in the figures, the share of hours worked by foreign workers is around 10 per cent in recent years, following a peak of 13 per cent in 1998-2000. The share of hours worked by foreign workers is especially high in agriculture (50 per cent of the total hours worked); arts, entertainment and recreation, other service activities and households as employers (36 per cent, mostly in-home caregiving); and construction (36 per cent).

**Figure 3**  
**Share of non-resident foreign workers in employed persons and in hours worked 1995-2015, per cent<sup>16</sup>**



Source: Calculation of Israel Central Bureau of Statistics

**Figure 4**  
**Share of non-resident foreign workers in hours worked by industry in 2015, per cent<sup>16</sup>**



A	Agriculture, forestry and fishing
B-C	Manufacturing; Mining and quarrying
D	Electricity supply
E	Water supply, sewerage and waste management

<sup>16</sup> Foreign workers include those who work in Israel and have their usual residency outside of Israel.

#### IV. Country case studies

F	Construction
G	Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles
H	Transportation, storage, postal and courier activities
I	Accommodation and food service activities
J	Information and communications
K	Financial and insurance activities
L	Real estate activities
M	Professional, scientific and technical activities
N	Administrative and support service activities
O	Local, public and defence administration and social security
P	Education
Q	Human health and social work activities
R	Arts, entertainment and recreation
S	Other service activities
T	Households as employers

Source: Calculation of Israel Central Bureau of Statistics

## C. Italy

### 1. Introduction

150. The population residing in Italy in 2016 amounted to 60.7 million people. In the last ten years the population has grown by 2.6 per cent with the increase being exclusively due to people with foreign citizenship, whose percentage of the total population has nearly doubled. If only the working age population (15-64 years) is considered, the share of the foreign population is even higher (10.1 per cent, equivalent to about 4 million people).

**Table 3**  
**Resident population in Italy (on 1<sup>st</sup> January) by citizenship status, 2007 and 2016**

Resident Population	2007		2016	
	Number	% of population	Number	% of population
Foreign Citizenship	2 938 922	5.0	5 026 153	8.3
Italian Citizenship	56 192 365	95.0	55 639 398	91.7
<b>Total population</b>	<b>59 131 287</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>60 665 551</b>	<b>100.0</b>

151. The Italian labour force in 2016 consisted of 25.8 million people, with a 64.9 per cent participation rate (64.3 per cent nationals; 70.4 per cent foreigners), 57.2 per cent employment rate (57.0 per cent nationals; 59.5 per cent foreigners), and 11.7 per cent unemployment rate (11.2 per cent nationals; 15.4 per cent foreigners).

152. Italy's largest employing industries were manufacturing<sup>17</sup> (18.2 per cent) and trade<sup>18</sup> (14.2 per cent) but there were strong differences between Italians and foreigners: among foreign citizens, the highest percentage of employed persons was concentrated in household services.

153. The nationalities playing the biggest role in the Italian labour market are Romanian, Moroccan, Albanian, Ukrainian, Filipino, Moldavian, Indian, Peruvian, Chinese and Ecuadorean.

### 2. Data

#### Stock of international migrant workers

154. The main source of data on international migrant workers is the Labour Force Survey (LFS). Starting from LFS, it is possible to describe the characteristics of the labour force in Italy, broken down by country of birth and citizenship. In Italy, it is considered important to distinguish whether a person has Italian citizenship by birth, or acquired it later. For this purpose, five groups are defined:

- (a) Native-born citizens;

<sup>17</sup> International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC), Section C

<sup>18</sup> ISIC Section G

- (b) Native-born non-citizens;
- (c) Foreign-born, citizens by birth;
- (d) Foreign-born, citizens by acquisition;
- (e) Foreign-born non-citizens.

155. For groups *c-e* (foreign-born), the length of stay in Italy is also considered. It is important to note, however, that as LFS only captures the resident population, it is unlikely to grasp the immigrants who have arrived recently. For this reason, analysis is restricted to immigrants who have been in Italy for more than five years.

156. As required, for each group of migrants (distinguished by country of birth, citizenship and length of stay) the main work-related characteristics are described (employee/self-employed, part time/full-time, economic activity and occupation). In addition to this information, LFS can add further characteristics of international migrant workers. For example, by combination of “year of migration” and the “year in which he or she started his or her first work”, it is possible to know if they started the first job after arriving in Italy. The information on the reason for migration, any work experience abroad and obstacles related to labour market are available only for the second quarter of 2014, as they were collected in an *ad hoc* module of the LFS.

157. According to the ILO recommendations, the information detected from LFS in Italy allows us to define the concept of a migrant worker both in a restrictive sense (migrants in the labour-force) and by distinguishing the concepts of unemployment (including long-term unemployment), under-utilization of immigrant labour (underemployed), and the potential labour force.

#### Externally displaced persons

158. In Italy, the share of new residence permits issued each year for asylum and humanitarian protection has increased considerably in recent years: it rose from 3.7 per cent in 2007 to 28.2 per cent in 2015. At the same time, the share of permits issued for employment reasons reduced significantly, decreasing from 56.1 per cent to 9.1 per cent for the period concerned. The number of asylum seekers and migrants for humanitarian reasons recorded in 2016 was particularly high, reaching 77,927.

159. Longitudinal studies have demonstrated that a significant percentage of residence permits initially issued for asylum or other forms of protection were converted to permits for work reasons. In particular, 24.6 per cent of the migrants admitted in Italy in 2011 with a permit for asylum or humanitarian reasons had a permit for work in 2016. Currently Istat (Italian National Institute of Statistics) is carrying out analysis to estimate the percentage of asylum seekers and refugees who are regularly employed in Italy.

#### Non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad

160. Partial information is available on non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad. Data on Italian residents working abroad is available from LFS, but without specifications of enterprise's residence. Therefore, people self-employed in his/her own company that is registered abroad and residents commuting to work abroad (every day or other period) are covered but cannot be identified as such.

161. Information about residents commuting to work abroad is also available in the population census 2011 – data on population commuting daily to work abroad (for population 15 years old and over) by nationality and economic sector.

162. As far as non-resident foreign workers are concerned, an elaboration was made from the European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) to estimate how many residents of other EU countries say they work in Italy. The elaboration was based on a dataset provided by Eurostat (EU-LFS Anonymised Microdata) covering 23 countries which signed the bilateral agreement on the exchange of anonymised LFS data between NSOs. In the full dataset, for each employed person there is both information about country of residence (COUNTRY) and country of work (COUNTRYW), so it is possible to count how many people in each country declare to work in another country. In this case study, Istat counted how many people work in Italy (COUNTRYW) but do not have Italy as their residence country (COUNTRY) for the period 2011-2014. In 2014, the result was 74,000 people, increasing in recent years. The majority of this group are people residing in Romania and employed in construction and household services.

163. This elaboration is an example of analysis carried out to respond to a task force request, but Istat does not use these data to produce and disseminate estimates about non-resident foreign workers because some limitations must be taken into account. In fact, the question about country of work is particularly delicate because it concerns a small aggregate of respondents and is often obtained through proxy interviews. At the moment, it is not possible to evaluate the reliability of this information both in terms of quality of information and of sampling error. It is also difficult to compare the results with other sources available. Finally, these data do not cover all the EU countries (for example, Germany is excluded from this analysis), which could lead to an underestimation of the phenomenon.

164. In conclusion, this elaboration could be considered a good practice to explore and it would be useful to involve Eurostat in order to develop a shared strategy to enhance the information collected by individual countries for improving labour mobility statistics.

165. In addition, national accounts data allow for estimating the number of non-resident foreign workers working for an Italian employer; however, this is a macro estimate. This source was last updated for September 2015.

### **In-flow of migrants including for-work migrants to the country**

166. The statistics on new residence permits issued in recent years underline a significant change in the inflows of migrants from non-EU countries: not only are they declining since 2014, but they also have different characteristics than in the past. In particular, permits issued for work, which in the past were the principal reason for new arrivals in Italy, now have little relevance. Permits for asylum and other humanitarian reasons are now much more significant (see also Table 4).

167. In Italy, immigration for work purposes is based on a quota-system fixed every year by means of a Decree – the so-called "*decreto-flussi*". Work permits are not always immediately available in Italy – it can be necessary to wait until the Government releases the appropriate quotas in order to apply. An Immigration Quota Decree is normally issued on a yearly basis, since the Government reviews the actual need for immigration permits each year. The decree sets the numerical limits for each category of worker/citizen allowed to apply for a work permit. The immigration Decrees of the last years have set a lower number of work authorizations (“quotas”) than in the past. Nevertheless, it needs to be underlined that other categories of residence permits (e.g. family reasons, or for humanitarian protection) also allow migrants to work.

### 3. Sources

#### Labour Force Survey

168. Estimates of the number of persons employed, unemployed and inactive are provided from a sample survey of households. The sample is composed of more than 250,000 households residing in Italy (approximately 600,000 individuals) distributed in about 1,200 municipalities.
169. For conducting the interviews, the survey uses a combined CAPI-CATI technique. The computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI) technique is adopted for the first interview while the computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) technique is generally used during subsequent interviews. Over time, data quality has improved.
170. Starting from the first quarter of 2005, the survey began to produce estimates for the non-national population.
171. To improve the quality of the data on labour market participation of foreigners, specific precautions have been adopted for calibrating the sample to the entire target population.
172. In 2004, municipalities were requested to indicate the nationality of the addressee of the so-called household head, which was previously not available. Households drawn in 2004 from municipal registers began to be interviewed during the third quarter of that same year.
173. Two interventions in the survey's production process have increased the response rate of foreigners. The first pertains to the interview technique. In the case of households where the household head is a foreigner, all interviews are conducted using the CAPI technique, since a face-to-face interview further increases the already high availability of non-national households to be interviewed again.
174. The second intervention is related to the sampling methodology. Clusters of four households, a number equal to that of the sample households provided by the municipality, are taken from the municipal population registers. The first household from the sample cluster is identified as a "base household". The three other households would be used in case the first household does not want or cannot participate in the survey. The cluster made up of four households is called "*quartina*". From 2006, if a head of the base household is a foreigner, all households of a *quartina* are selected to have a foreigner as the household head as well. Thus, the non-response from the base household does not decrease the number of households with a foreigner as household head in the sample.
175. Target population: members of private households residing in Italy. People living permanently in institutions (religious institutions, barracks, etc.) are excluded.
176. Unit of analysis: Persons aged 15 and over residing in private households. Since the first quarter of 2007, data on persons aged 15 have not contained information on employment and unemployment because the age of compulsory education has been raised by Law No 296/2006. The number of 15-year-olds employed or seeking employment is however traditionally negligible. Therefore, the change in the legislation did not cause any break in time series for the 15-64 age group.
177. Coverage: Employees and self-employed (with or without contract) in all sectors of economic activity.
178. Frequency of data dissemination and geographical breakdown:
- (a) Monthly and quarterly: estimates of indicators at national level;

- (b) Quarterly: estimates of indicators at regional level;
- (c) Yearly: estimates of indicators at local level.

179. Reference period for the measurement of employment: Week the information refers to (usually the one preceding the interview). Information gathered through a uniform distribution of the sample of households in every week of the year.

180. Definition of employment: people aged 15 and over who during the reference week had, at least, one of the following characteristics:

- (a) Did at least one hour of work in any business (with or without a contract) that provides remuneration in cash or in kind;
- (b) Did at least one hour of unpaid work in the family business in which they work regularly;
- (c) Were absent from work (for example, on leave, sickness or short time working allowance);
- (d) If absent from work for less than three months, or if during the absence they continued to receive at least 50 per cent of wages or salaries.

181. Self-employed persons absent from work, excluding family workers, are considered employed if they continue to keep the business during the period of absence. Family workers are considered employed if their absence does not exceed three months.

182. People without a contract (forms of illegal work) are also included.

183. Main indicators: Employed (employees and self-employed), unemployed, inactive persons and related rates with social-demographic and geographical breakdown.

184. Microdata are available.

### Residence permits

185. Istat produces statistics based on data compiled from the Ministry of Interior on residence permits granted to third-country nationals (persons who are not EU citizens).

186. Residence permits data contain statistical information based on Article 6 of Council Regulation (CE) No 862 of 11 July 2007 with reference to:

- (a) First permits granted to third-country nationals during the reference year (flows);
- (b) Permits granted during the reference period when a person changes immigration status or reason to stay;
- (c) Permits valid at the end of the reference period (stock);
- (d) Number of long-term residents at the end of reference period (a long-term resident status refers to permits issued under Council Directive 2003/109/EC. This is based on a total duration of legal residence of 5 years or longer, combined with a series of other conditions that must be met to qualify for this status);

187. Istat also produces statistics on permits expired and not renewed.

188. Statistics are disaggregated by citizenship, country of birth, reason for the permit being issued, gender, age, region/province where it was issued, year of first permit issued in Italy (after 2008) and by the length of validity of the permit;

189. Classification of citizenship is based on the ISO-3166 code list.

190. The residence permits statistics refer to the third country nationals who received a residence permit in Italy regardless of whether they are included in the resident population. Recently Istat has produced estimations (based on record linkage between residence permits data set and the data of the resident population) about the percentage of people holding a residence permit enrolled in the resident population lists.

191. The produced statistics distinguish the category of “externally displaced” as refugees, asylum seekers or people under international protection.

192. Among the residence permits, there are also a number of documents issued for reasons related to remunerated activities. In Italy, other categories of permit also allow the migrant to work, for example “family reasons” or “refugees”. In addition, long-term residence permits (56.3 per cent of the total) allow working in Italy. In order to distinguish the workers among categories other than the permits for remunerated activities, record linkages have been established using data on residence permits and data from the National Social Insurance Agency. It is also possible to develop this kind of linkage using the resident population list in order to include EU citizens. Note however that these linkages do not cover self-employed migrants and irregular work.

#### **Survey on Social Conditions and Integration of Foreign Citizens (SCIF)**

193. In 2011-2012 Istat conducted the first national survey on Social Conditions and Integration of Foreign Citizens (SCIF). The SCIF survey aims at providing information on many features of socio-economic integration of migrants in Italy for a better understanding of social behaviours of the resident foreign population.

194. The SCIF survey was carried out on a sample of 9,553 households, resident in Italy including one foreign citizen or more. Face-to-face interviews were conducted using the CAPI technique. In total, 25,326 individuals were surveyed, of whom 20,379 were foreign citizens, 4,251 were nationals and 696 were in the process of naturalisation.

195. The survey data provides a framework on the characteristics, behaviours, attitudes and opinions of foreign citizens in Italy. Several aspects are recorded: family composition, education, migratory path, employment status, discrimination, health conditions and accessibility of health services, social integration, citizen's security and victimization, housing conditions. The survey is included in the National Statistical Programme, which gathers the statistical investigations needed for the country.

196. SCIF allows for: (i) comparative analysis with the native population; (ii) comparative analysis between foreign communities; (iii) retrospective analysis and history event analysis; (iv) analysis of integration both at individual and family level; (v) identifying specific target groups by key variables such as citizenship (at time of interview, country of birth, citizenship at birth (also for parents living apart); and (vi) studying the inter-relationship among different aspects of the integration process by explanatory models. SCIF does not allow: (i) coverage of irregular migrants; (ii) coverage of all nationals with foreign background, but only those who live with foreign people; (iii) timely results because so much data requires substantial time and effort to be processed.

197. SCIF offers the following employment-related information: employment status and employment history; life and work satisfaction; inter-generational employment mobility; intra-generational occupational mobility.

### Integration of administrative data

198. In recent years the Italian National Institute of Statistics have made many efforts to improve integration between the residence permits database and other population registers. The new approach has considerably enhanced the quality and the richness of the statistics produced. The goal is to establish an integrated archive of the foreign population to enable compilation of statistics on the demographic and social changes of foreigners. Furthermore, the integrated archive constitutes a basis for carrying out periodic sample surveys on specific sub-populations and themes. The integration of different kinds of data sources is a crucial step towards developing an effective system for the monitoring of migration.

199. Many linkages have been carried out using different population registers such as municipality lists and residence permits (Italian National Institute of Statistics, 2014). Two experiments with linking different kinds of data were also conducted.

200. The first such experiment was a record linkage between the residence permits and the archive of domestic workers and workers of the Social Security Register (INPS). About 17 per cent of people considered (64,046) work in a different province than the one in which the residence permit was initially issued. The share is more significant for men (23 per cent) than for women (12 per cent) and among young people, possibly because manual workers are more geographically "mobile" compared to domestic workers and caregivers. It is clear that the use of different archives may highlight forms of presence on the territory and "mobility" which would be impossible to grasp using a single source. More needs to be done to improve the quality of administrative data and to allow more extensive use of these statistical data.

201. The second experiment utilised data on residence permits and the Social Security registers (INPS) referring to domestic workers and caregivers, and to employees, in order to conduct an in-depth study of the work situation of Ukrainian women. The record linkage has shown that 59 per cent of Ukrainian women holding a regular residence permit on 1 January 2013 were registered in the Social Security Register that collected data for domestic workers and caregivers in 2012, while 13 per cent worked instead as employees. Three per cent were registered for both positions, and almost 28 per cent were not registered in either of the two registers.

202. Through the record linkage, it has also been possible to study labour mobility that is not linked to a change in the place of residence. Studies have been carried out to study the changes of some conditions – after different periods of residence in Italy – such as the cohabitation with the employer (Italian National Institute of Statistics, 2014).

203. Significant progress has been made in collecting data on entrepreneurship through a multisource approach. The expansion of the social, economic and statistical information is carried out from the integration of multiple administrative and statistical sources. This allows for defining and analysing the profile of new entrepreneurs more accurately. Much information has also been disseminated about foreign entrepreneurs (Italian National Institute of Statistics, 2016). In 2014, about 316,000 entrepreneurs decided to start a new business. Foreign entrepreneurs were equal to 10 per cent of the own account workers and 11 per cent of the entrepreneurs with employees. Foreign entrepreneurs were, on average, less educated than Italians. Only 17 per cent of own account workers and 11 per cent of foreign entrepreneurs with employees had at least a bachelor's degree.

## Towards a population register

204. In recent years, Istat, like many other national statistical offices, has been experiencing a period of profound transformation and facing relevant challenges. The process will lead to a greater exploitation of both the information currently released to the public administration by citizens, households, enterprises and institutions, and the use of innovative sources (e.g. big data). Considering this framework, it is necessary to base the Institute's production process on the use of statistical registers that best supplement the various existing information sources. One result of this innovation will be improving and increasing the value of the surveys already carried out by Istat, through their integration with one another and with the information collected through administrative archives (Italian National Institute of Statistics, 2016). With regard to the population, the most relevant register is the Base Register on Individuals and Households (BRIH) that identifies the usually resident population and will be the common target for Continuous Census and Demographic statistics and for Social Statistics. Four essential steps (phases) towards the base register have been identified (Castagnaro, 2017):

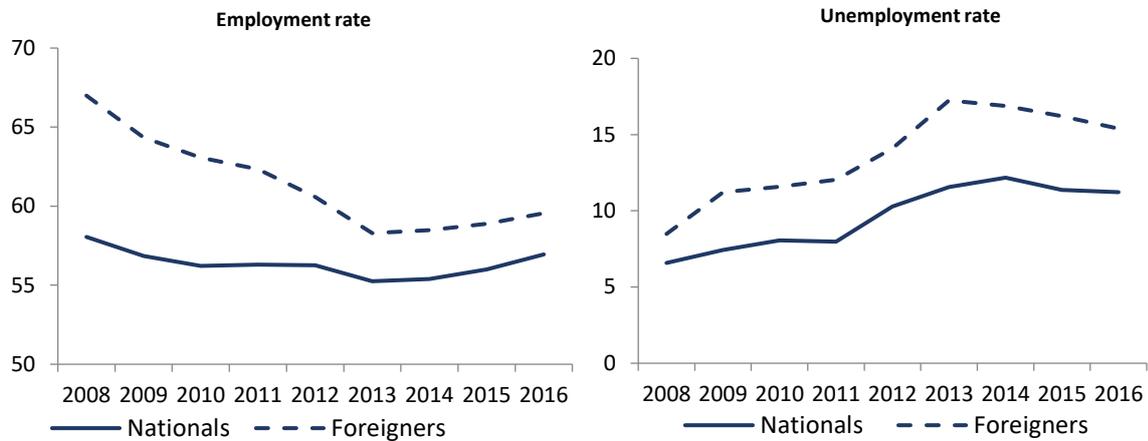
- (a) BRIH-ANVIS (Anagrafe Virtuale Statistica) – the starting point of ANVIS register is the legal population obtained by the 2011 Population Census. By using a Micro Demographic Accounting approach, population register flows are linked to the census legal population to obtain the resident population in each municipality at the end of each reference period;
- (b) BRIH-ANVIS + MASTER SAMPLE – methods for adjusting, interpolating and reconciling data from different sources are used to build subnational integrated estimates based on sampling design for census and social surveys. Surveys are used to meet the user needs that cannot be met with register-based statistics or to correct under/over coverage of the population estimates based on ANVIS data.
- (c) BRIH-ANVIS + MASTER SAMPLE + SIM – in this step, the register is integrated with a wide range of social and economic administrative data for individuals and households. BRIH is used both as the sampling frame and as the instrument to interlink different data sources, through unified identification code systems.

## 4. Analysis

205. Between 2008 and 2016, the employment rate of residents aged 15-64 fell for foreigners much more than for Italians, especially among men (Figure 5 and Figure 6). The employment rate, traditionally higher for foreigners than Italians, fell for foreigners from 67.0 per cent in 2008 to 59.5 per cent in 2016 (82.0 to 70.0 per cent among men), narrowing the gap between them and the locals. While at the beginning of the crisis, foreigners had an employment rate of about 9 points higher than that of Italians (13 percentage points for men), in 2016, the advantage was reduced to 3 percentage points (5 for men).

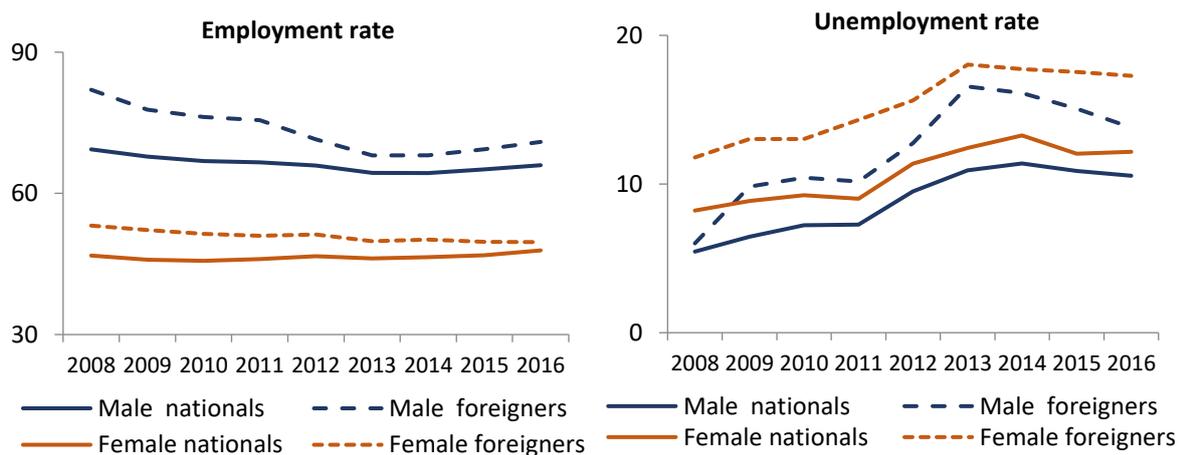
206. The impact of the crisis on the foreign population is even more evident when one examines the evolution of the unemployment rate. The unemployment rate for foreigners reached its peak (17.2 per cent) in 2013, when the gap with Italians extended to 6 points. While the situation for foreign women did not deteriorate more than the situation of Italian women, unemployment for foreign men rose from 6.0 per cent in 2008 to 13.8 per cent in 2016 (compared to a rise from 5.5 to 10.6 per cent for Italians).

**Figure 5**  
**Employment and unemployment rate by citizenship, 2008-2016**



Source: Istat, Labour Force Survey

**Figure 6**  
**Employment and unemployment rate by gender and citizenship, 2008-2016**



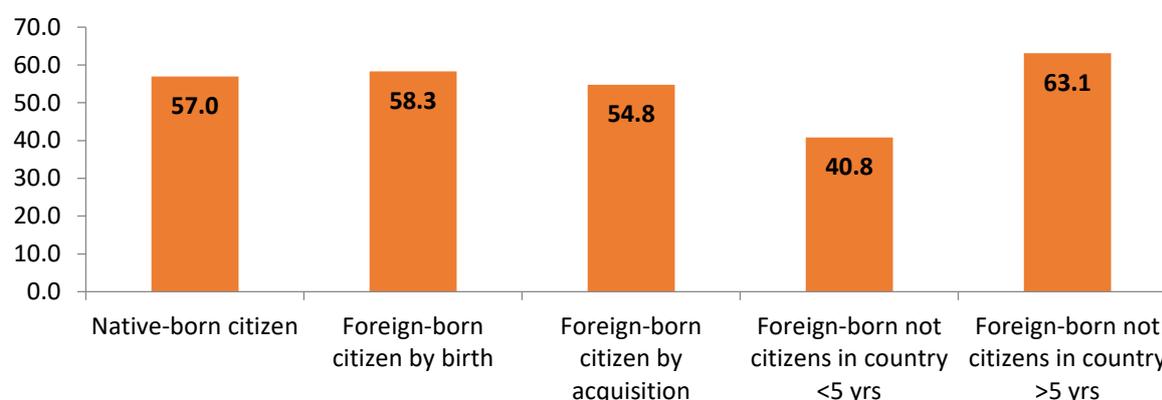
Source: Istat, Labour Force Survey

207. In this period, the occupational segregation and the dual nature of the labour market has been accentuated: immigrants are increasingly concentrated in few occupations and in low-skilled jobs. Foreign women frequently work as household help and foreign men as blue-collar workers.

208. The percentage of foreigners with low pay is three times higher than the percentage of natives, and the share of involuntary part-time work is more than double. Moreover, during the crisis years, the gap between Italians and foreigners widened further in relation to the over-education phenomenon, defined as the share of employees with jobs below their qualification.

209. As presented in Figure 7, the employment rate is higher for foreign-born non-citizens who are in the country for more than five years than for other groups. This is partly because of a different age structure – there is a higher share of persons in the central age groups, which are generally characterized by a higher employment rate.

**Figure 7**  
**Employment rate for population aged 15-64 by country of birth, citizenship and period of stay in Italy, 2016**



Source: Istat, Labour Force Survey

**Table 4**  
**New residence permits issued in the reference years for reasons, absolute values and percentages, 2007-2015**

Years	Work	Family	Study	Asylum and humanitarian reasons	Other reasons	Total
Absolute values						
2007	150 098	86 468	11 523	9 971	9 540	267 600
2008	145 091	101 613	12 426	18 345	8 767	286 242
2009	250 883	111 145	15 628	7 300	8 075	393 031
2010	358 870	178 797	26 343	10 336	24 221	598 567
2011	124 544	140 846	31 295	42 672	22 333	361 690
2012	70 892	116 891	31 005	22 916	22 264	263 968
2013	84 540	105 266	27 321	19 146	19 373	255 646
2014	57 040	101 422	24 477	47 873	17 511	248 323
2015	21 728	107 096	23 030	67 271	19 811	238 936
Percentages						
2007	56.1	32.3	4.3	3.7	3.6	100.0
2008	50.7	35.5	4.3	6.4	3.1	100.0
2009	63.8	28.3	4.0	1.9	2.1	100.0
2010	60.0	29.9	4.4	1.7	4.0	100.0
2011	34.4	38.9	8.7	11.8	6.2	100.0
2012	26.9	44.3	11.7	8.7	8.4	100.0
2013	33.1	41.2	10.7	7.5	7.6	100.0
2014	23.0	40.8	9.9	19.3	7.1	100.0
2015	9.1	44.8	9.6	28.2	8.3	100.0

Source: Istat on data collected by Ministry of Interior.

## Residence permits

210. The time series of the number of new residence permits issued during the last five years shows a general decrease in new non-EU migrants arriving in Italy. In accordance with decreasing inflows programmed by the Government, the most important reduction has affected new permits for work reasons (Table 4). While in 2011, the number of incoming for-work migrants into Italy was of 124,544, in 2015 only 21,728 migrants (or 9 per cent) arrived in Italy on a work permit. Work is now only the fourth most common reason for in-flows of non-EU citizens to Italy. During the same period, the number of asylum seekers, refugees and people under protection coming to Italy has increased. In 2015, they represented the second largest main group of immigrants, behind family migrants. Although it is important to note that migrants who arrive for family reasons or as refugees can legally work in Italy.

## D. Mexico

### 1. Introduction

211. Mexico has a population of around 120 million of inhabitants distributed over 32 states. Emigrants from Mexico have historically moved to the north, in particular to the United States of America (USA)<sup>19</sup> pursuing better quality of life. In doing so, they followed different strategies ranging from enrolling in educational programs, to migrating for work purposes with or without legal permission. Statistics from the U. S. Census Bureau Current Population Survey and the American Community Survey estimated the stock of United States residents born in Mexico as approximately 12 million people in 2015 (70 per cent economically active)<sup>20</sup>.

212. The majority of Mexican workers in the USA are employed full time in the tertiary sector of the economy, in establishments with less than 100 employees. In 2014, they obtained an average salary of 19,229 dollars per year, which at current exchange rate was the equivalent of the income of a household from the top 10 per cent richest in Mexico.

213. On the other hand, the Mexican Intercensal Survey held in 2015 estimates the volume of foreign- born population in Mexico as around 1 million people, the majority of them born in the USA<sup>21</sup> (73 per cent), many in Central and South America (15 per cent), and some in Europe (6 per cent). During the 20th century, Mexico received refugees from Spain, Guatemala, Argentina, Chile, Uruguay, Peru, Colombia, Brazil and El Salvador in times of political trouble in those countries (Somohano & Yankelevich, 2011). Also important is the flow of people coming from Central America with the purpose of transiting to the USA: the Unit for Migratory Policy of the Secretary of Government (UPM, SEGOB) estimated the volume of 342,384 Central Americans transiting through Mexico irregularly<sup>22</sup> in 2014.

214. Most of the foreign-born population have lived in Mexico for a minimum of five years. The majority of those born outside of Central America, aged 16 or more, had completed at least high school.

215. Less than one per cent of the working native population was employed abroad in the reference week, compared to 14 per cent of foreign-born people. This percentage was even higher for the foreign population (without Mexican nationality), reaching 16 per cent.

216. In 2016 alone, the National Institute of Migration issued 15,130 additional Frontier Worker Cards, and almost 90,000 people entered the country as temporal or permanent residents or visitors for humanitarian reasons, 37 per cent of them with a work permit.

### 2. Data

217. The data for estimating the stock of international migrant workers in Mexico is derived from the 2015 Intercensal Survey, which is the most recent extensive source, and the 2014

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<sup>19</sup> Between 2009 and 2014, 87 per cent of Mexican emigrants moved to the USA (CONAPO and UPM, SEGOB estimations based on ENADID 2014).

<sup>20</sup> CONAPO estimations based on data from the Integrated Public Use Microdata Series (IPUMS), a project of the University of Minnesota (USA).

<sup>21</sup> Although 80 per cent of them with Mexican ancestry (estimations from the UPM, SEGOB, based on the Intercensal Survey).

<sup>22</sup> Without fulfilling migratory regulations.

National Survey of Demographic Dynamics (ENADID by its Spanish acronym), which is a complementary source for analysing length of stay and causes of immigration.

218. The Intercensal Survey is also useful for identifying residents of Mexico working abroad in the reference week, while separate estimates for externally displaced persons can be obtained from ENADID, as well as an approximation of the in-flow of migrants including for-work migrants to the country.

219. Data on flows is available from administrative records of the National Institute of Migration (INM for its acronym in Spanish). The Monthly Bulletin of Migration Statistics provides information about the issuance of Visitors and Permanent Resident Cards for Humanitarian Reasons and, more generally, about the type of permit issued to foreign-born people without Mexican nationality.

220. Two complementary sources of data on foreign-born cross-border workers not residing in Mexico are available: again, the administrative records of the INM that reports the emitted number of Frontier Worker Cards in a period, and the Survey on Migration in the South Border (EMIF Sur) that offers information to estimate the number of non-resident foreign workers (and their families), with the possibility of displaying statistics by industry and occupation categories.

#### Stock of international migrant workers

221. In the Intercensal Survey, international migrants are identified based on the question “In which state of the Mexican Republic or country was (NAME) born?”<sup>23</sup> Individuals born in a foreign country are classified into two categories: born in the USA and born in some other country. This question is also asked in the 2014 ENADID. From the Intercensal Survey it is also possible to estimate the proportion of international migrants naturalized or born from a Mexican parent after the question “Does (NAME) have Mexican nationality?”

222. Migrant workers can be detected among persons aged 12 years old or more, being those international migrants who report to have worked<sup>24</sup> the previous week (from questions in the Intercensal Survey and the ENADID). Migrant workers could have worked within the country or abroad (again, in the USA or another country); this can be known only after the Intercensal Survey.

223. Both surveys ask about residence five years before and ENADID additionally asks about residence one year before. As Pérez-Amador (National Institute of Statistics and Geography of Mexico, 2016) has noted, there is no certainty about the displacements that occurred between the fixed dates so, with only this information available, there is a limitation for analysing the length of stay. Taking this in consideration, we can still break down the stocks of international migrants and migrant workers by length of stay, using a 5-year threshold with the Intercensal Survey data, and 5-year and 12-month thresholds with the ENADID data.

#### Externally displaced persons

224. ENADID includes questions enlisting causes of migration for individuals who lived out of the country one and five years before. The options are: pursuing a job, family reunification, changing job, studying, deportation, natural disasters, marriage or union, public

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<sup>23</sup> Translation of survey questions was done by the author of this document.

<sup>24</sup> Or have been engaged in market activities, with or without remuneration, or have had a job but being on vacations, license or leave.

insecurity or violence, another cause, unknown. Thus, the volume of externally displaced persons can be estimated as a separate group among international migrants. The figure estimated for 2014 was 1,588 and they were mostly children aged less than 12 years old. Data obtained from INM show an increase in the number of Visitors and Permanent Resident Cards for Humanitarian Reasons to 2,096 in 2015 and 5,392 in 2016.

225. The Mexican Commission for Refugee Assistance (COMAR by its Spanish acronym) informs that 939 persons were recognized as refugees in 2015, and 152 more received complementary protection. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees estimates a number of 2,226 for the same year.

### Non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad

#### Residents of Mexico working abroad

226. Workers who have their usual residence in Mexico and work abroad can be identified by a question of the Intercensal Survey, “In which state or country [is the business, enterprise or place where (NAME) worked last week]?” This estimate corresponds to a volume or proportion given in a certain week of the year, so it can be influenced by seasonal effects. It is also important to note that residents of Mexico working abroad can be classified as native-born Mexicans, foreign-born with Mexican nationality and foreign residents. However, a breakdown according to the residence of the employer is not available.

227. A complementary source for identifying usual residents who work abroad is the National Survey of Incomes and Expenditures of the Households (ENIGH) 2014. In the questionnaire for people aged 12 years old or more, people (not) working within the country can be targeted and characterised with information about being a subordinated or an independent worker, having a contract and what kind of it, receiving social benefits, number of hours worked, type and size of the organization they work for. In ENIGH, questions on labour force refer to the previous month, so estimations about residents working abroad can be expected to be more robust than estimations from the Intercensal Survey vis-à-vis seasonal bias. Yet, the focus of this survey is neither migration nor labour mobility, so the estimates could actually be less precise than estimates from the Intercensal Survey or ENADID.

228. In addition, the National Survey of Occupation and Employment (ENOE) offers some relevant information about the demographic and occupational characteristics of residents of Mexico working abroad, who can be identified by the question “What is the name of the firm, business or institution you work for?” The answer options are: (1) writing a name, (2) reporting that the business has no name, (3) declaring to be an employee of a domestic unity or another worker, and (4) being a worker in a foreign country. From this question and others, it is possible to identify workers as an employee or self-employed, determine if they have a contract and what kind of it, and if they receive social benefits so a deeper study of residents working abroad could be done. The robustness of ENOE’s estimations about residents working abroad relies on the fact that the seasonal bias is minimized because this is a quarterly survey based on a rotatory panel. This means that a particular dwelling is interviewed during five consecutive quarters and 80 per cent of the sample is the same from one quarter to the next.

#### Non-resident foreign workers in Mexico

229. The main source for estimating the statistics on non-resident foreign workers is the EMIF Sur, since in one of its questionnaires, it asks people returning from Mexico to

Guatemala if they had worked during their stay in Mexico. Data can be classified by duration of stay, basic labour-force characteristics, and categories of industry and occupation.

### **In-flow of migrants including for-work migrants to Mexico**

230. From question 3.10 in ENADID, it is possible to detect the persons who lived in the USA or another country the year before the survey was conducted. These people had not met yet the 12-month threshold to be considered usual residents of the country, so they constitute the in-flow of migrants that can be classified considering the reasons or causes for migration, employment included.

231. However, the best source of these flows should be the records of the INM published in the Monthly Bulletin of Migration Statistics. In 2016, for instance, almost 200,000 foreign-born people entered the country as temporal/permanent residents or visitors of different kinds, including frontier workers. One in four entered with a permit for work.

### **Alternative estimation of migrant workers “by elimination”**

232. Estimates of migrant workers can be calculated by elimination, from the ENADID questions related to causes of migration for individuals who lived out of the country one and five years before. Those migrants whose main reason for displacement was pursuing a job or changing job could be considered the basic stock of migrant workers. Evidently, the estimation via specific questions on labour participation is better since it takes into consideration the actual volume of people engaged in economic activities, independently of their original reasons for migrating. Thus, the estimate via specific questions on labour participation can be expected to be larger than the estimate from the questions on the causes of migration.

## **3. Sources**

### **Intercensal Survey**

233. The units of observation were private inhabited dwellings and their habitual residents (persons who normally inhabit the dwelling where they generally sleep, prepare their food, eat and protect themselves from the environment, including people who at the moment of the interview are in the dwelling because they have no other place to live).

234. Microdata are open, and it is possible to estimate the stock of international migrants and migrant workers in the country by length of stay and whether they have Mexican nationality, as well as the volume of residents working abroad in the reference week. Differences in unemployment rates and economically inactive population can be assessed between natives and foreign-born residents, or among foreign-born people depending on their tenure of Mexican nationality and length of stay. In addition, by considering the birthplace and nationality of people residing in Mexico, comparisons of the distribution of employed persons over categories of industry and occupation can be made.

### **National Survey of Demographic Dynamics (ENADID)**

235. The units of observation were private dwellings located in the national territory. The target population were the persons who habitually reside in the selected dwellings, and particularly women aged 15 to 54 years old, for the reproductive questionnaire. From

available microdata, it is possible to calculate the stock of international migrants and migrant workers in the country and analyse differences in the volume and rates of the economically inactive population and unemployment by length of stay, or comparing them with the native population.

### Survey on Migration in the South Border (EMIF Sur)

236. This survey considers flows of people born in Guatemala, El Salvador and Honduras. Questionnaire for people coming from Mexico or the USA to Guatemala is applied to those who were not born in Mexico nor the USA and moved to any of those countries for working reasons or stayed there for a period longer than a month. People living in some of these countries and returning to visit their country of origin are included.

237. Several public institutions are involved in this annual project coordinated by El Colegio de la Frontera Norte (COLEF). This is the richest data source on non-resident foreign workers crossing the south border, their volume and occupational profiles. Microdata are available upon registration.

### National Survey of Incomes and Expenditures of the Households (ENIGH)

238. This survey is conducted every two years and the target population is the households of national and foreign-born habitual residents of particular dwellings located in the national territory. Microdata on incomes and expenditures are available and comparisons between national and foreign-born households are possible. Residents of Mexico working abroad can be identified but any characterization in terms of occupational attributes must be done with caution since they represent a very small part of the population, and labour mobility is not the focus of this project.

### National Survey of Occupation and Employment (ENOE)

239. Unit of observation is the dwelling and units of analysis are household and habitual residents of the dwelling. Although habitual residents of the selected dwellings are the target population of ENOE, data on economic characteristics is collected only for people aged 12 years old and more. Due to changes in the Mexican legislation, since the fourth quarter of 2014, indicators calculated and officially disseminated are based on the population aged 15 years or more, since this is the legal age for working.

240. ENOE's extended questionnaire, which is applied only in the first quarter of every year, asks people if they *had to change place of residence in order to pursue or maintain this job and in which state or country they lived before the movement*, which can be useful for the study of labour mobility. Nevertheless, since the sample is relatively small (120,260 dwellings) and it is not focused on migration and labour mobility, the number of people identified as persons who had changed place of residence from some other country for labour reasons is very small (n=56). Consequently, the information on occupations and employment conditions gathered may not be reliable.

241. Recent data show that people who had changed their place of residence from some other country for labour reasons came from these countries or regions<sup>25</sup>:

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<sup>25</sup> Calculations done by the author based on microdata from ENOE 2017 (Quarter I).

**Table 5**  
**Number of for-work migrants to Mexico among the respondents to ENOE by country of origin, 2017**

<b>Region/Country</b>	
America, except Guatemala	13
Asia	10
Europe	3
Guatemala	3
USA	27
<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>

Source: Calculation by the author based on data from INEGI, Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo 2017

242. With this volume of surveyed people, it is not possible to produce reliable estimations on economic and socio-demographic attributes of this group, so in order to use it as source of data on international labour mobility; ENOE's design would have to be changed. This survey is the official source of occupation and employment indicators, so if the measurement of international labour mobility is considered a priority, efforts should be made to increase the amount of people in the sample who had changed place of residence from out of the country to work.

### **INM administrative records**

243. In 2009, a census of administrative records of the National Institute of Migration was conducted to systematize data collected and enable the generation of statistics of volumes and socio-demographic profiles of foreign-born people without nationality in the country. The census consisted of counting the migratory forms issued (or renewed) to temporal or permanent residents in the country (Rodríguez-Chávez & Cobo, 2012). Results of this census are available in form of tables but, unfortunately, microdata are not open.

244. Reports quantifying all types of permits issued by the INM to foreign-born visitors or residents are disseminated monthly via a bulletin, and historical series of this information are available. The Law of Migration classifies foreign-born population in Mexico as follows:

**Table 6**  
**Classification of foreign-born population in Mexico according to the Law of Migration.**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Period allowed</b>
Visitors not allowed to work	180 days
Visitors allowed to work	180 days
Regional visitors	7 days
Frontier workers	1 year
Visitors for humanitarian reasons	During the legal process
Visitors pursuing adoption	During the legal process
Temporal residents	4 years
Students temporal residents	Until diploma is obtained
Permanent residents	No limit

Source: Ley de Migración, Article 52.

245. Evidently, these records do not capture information about irregular migrants residing in Mexico or in transit through the country.

#### 4. Analysis

246. In the Mexican case, due to its volume and historical pattern, migration of Mexican people dominates the literature and is the focus of information gathering and policy efforts. Even so, other forms of movements are being noticed and gaining interest because of their economic impact.

247. Labour mobility is a well understood concept in the country in its internal dimension and there is sufficient data collection on people moving from one municipality to another, at times crossing state boundaries. There is also an understanding of the relevance of the movements for work reasons in the frontiers with USA and Guatemala, but less importance is generally given to mobility of people residing in Mexico –not at the frontiers– and going to the USA and the rest of the world for work.

#### Emigrants

248. Since the end of the past century migration to the USA has been gradually falling, both in terms of volume and as a percentage of the Mexican population (SEGOB, 2016). For some analysts this is in part due to the enforcement of several more immigration regulations that have forced people – especially irregular migrants – to stay longer in the USA. This is because people who used to cross the border frequently now face higher barriers, so are choosing to return to Mexico less often than they did in the past.

249. Recent statistics from ENADID show that 78 per cent of emigrants to the USA were men and 22 per cent women, with median age of 30 and 28 years old, respectively. Half of the men entered the USA without documents, but the same can be said for only 25 per cent of women. For women, reuniting with the family and the searching for a job were equally mentioned as reasons for emigration.

#### Frontier workers and students at the northern border

250. Baja California, Sonora, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Nuevo León and Tamaulipas are the border states at the north frontier. The percentage of their population that moves to the USA for work or study is around one per cent (one third residing in Tijuana, Baja California). Most of the north frontier workers are men, but there is also a significant number of women (80,710 and 43,918 with median ages of 33 and 24 years old, respectively)<sup>26</sup>. Three in four men and three in five women move for work reasons (SEGOB, 2016).

#### Residents working abroad

251. Households with at least one person working out of the country obtain income on average 50 per cent higher than the average income of the households where no one works abroad (99.4 per cent of total households). Even if the proportion of households with residents working abroad is small, they attain almost one per cent of the total income of all the Mexican households. Residents of Mexico working abroad are mostly employees and do

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<sup>26</sup> CONAPO and UPM, SEGOB estimations based on the Intercensal Survey.

not have a contract nor social benefits: in 2014, 74 per cent of them worked from 30 to 60 hours a week in small companies (with less than 20 employees)<sup>27</sup>.

### Frontier workers at the southern border

252. The majority of non-resident foreign workers from the south are men (92 per cent) with a median age of 33 years old. They usually have basic or no education and 51 per cent speak a native language. Principal destinations are Frontera Comalá and Tapachula, Chiapas. Their distribution by length of stay is presented in The income earned by frontier workers coming from the south is relatively low compared to median income in Mexico. The best paid 10 per cent of frontier workers get an income equivalent to poorest 20 per cent of Mexican households.

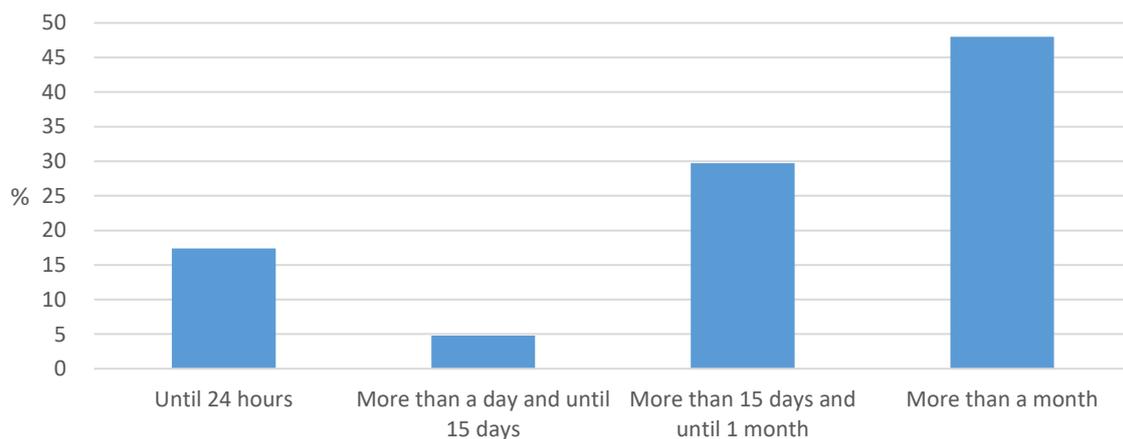
253. Figure 8.

254. One in every four incoming commuters enter Mexico with a Regional Visitor Card (TVR by its Spanish acronym), with which they are allowed to stay a maximum of seven days as noted in 6, but at least 18 per cent of them exceed that time. Besides, almost 15 per cent enter without any document<sup>28</sup>.

255. The vast majority of frontier workers work in agriculture, forestry and fishing, and very few come with their families. Among the non-resident foreign workers that stay a maximum of 24 hours, the majority is employed in elementary occupations (as per ISCO) such as street and related sales and service, mining and construction, and cleaning and helping.

256. The income earned by frontier workers coming from the south is relatively low compared to median income in Mexico. The best paid 10 per cent of frontier workers get an income equivalent to poorest 20 per cent of Mexican households.

**Figure 8**  
**Distribution of the length of stay of frontier workers to Mexico crossing the south border**



<sup>27</sup> Estimates are done by the author based on microdata on current income from the National Survey of Incomes and Expenditures of the Households (ENIGH) 2014. Similar profile for residents working abroad can be outlined from ENOE's microdata.

<sup>28</sup> CONAPO and UPM, SEGOB estimations based on EMIF Sur 2015.

Source: Estimations of National Population Council (CONAPO) and Migration Policy Unit (UPM) of the Mexican Secretariat of the Interior (SEGOB) based on EMIF Sur 2015.

### Foreign-born people residing in Mexico

257. Foreign-born people residing in Mexico represent a very small proportion of the total population of the country and more than 40 per cent of them actually have Mexican nationality, mostly for being descendants of Mexican parents. More than 7 in 10 people classified as international migrant (by the definition, having been born in a different country from the one where they usually reside) were born in the USA but they might be in fact Mexicans, children of Mexican frontier residents or returned migrants, so any effort to describe this stock should take that in consideration. Otherwise, in this case, the strict use of the definition could misinform about the labour-force characteristics of this group.

258. For instance, the proportion of people who are not in the labour force is higher for foreign-born with Mexican nationality compared to the native population (0.61 vs 0.49), which could be related to the differences in the age structure of the two sub-populations<sup>29</sup>.

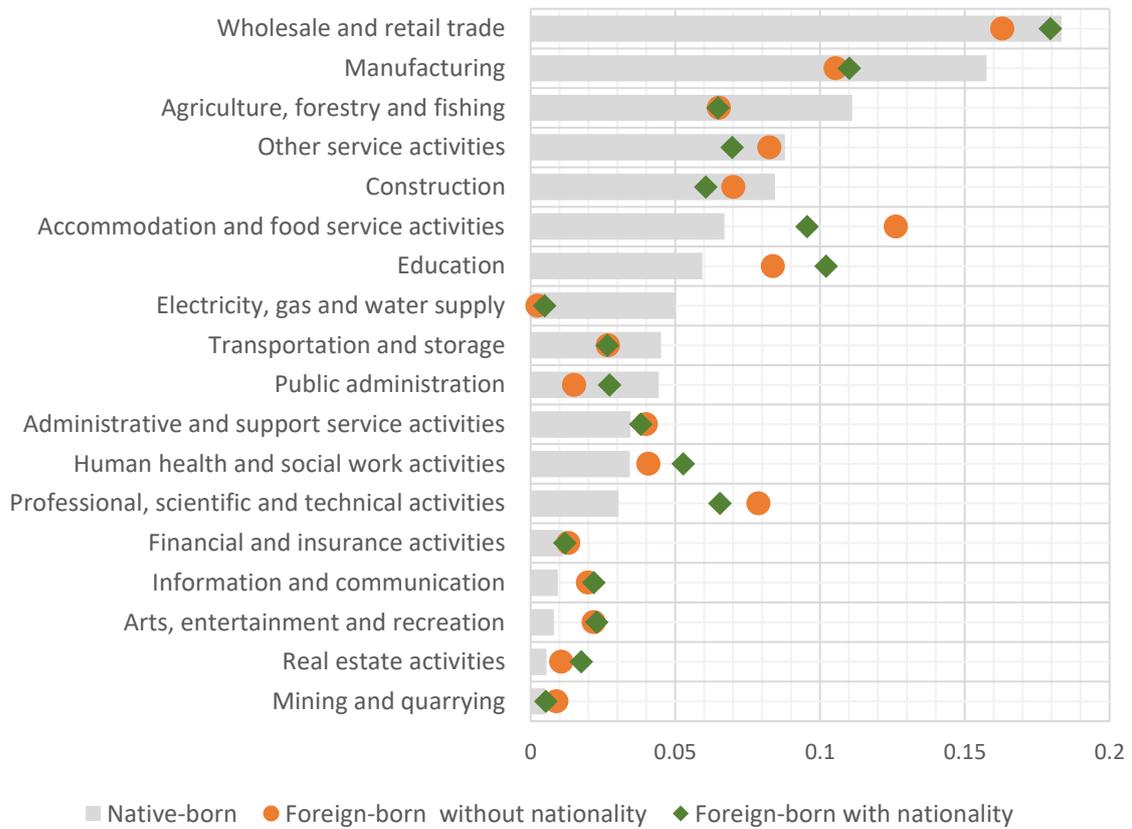
259. Distributions of employed persons by industry differ significantly between the native population, foreign-born with Mexican nationality, and foreign-born without Mexican nationality (as presented on Figure 9), as do the distributions of people employed by occupation (Figure 10).

260. It can be observed in ENADID data that the employment rate increases for those foreign-born individuals who stay for a longer period.

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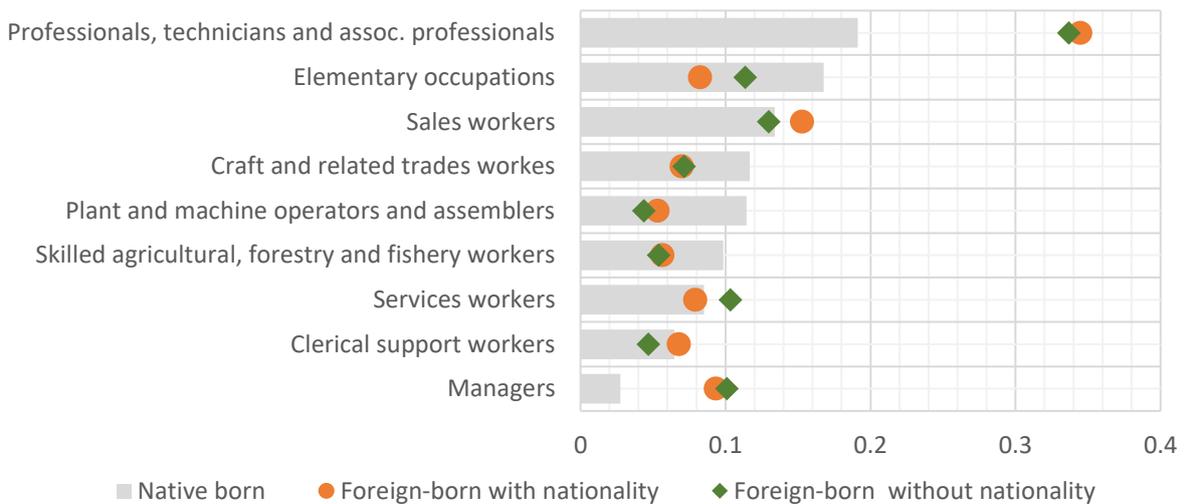
<sup>29</sup> Born in the USA have a median age of 11 years, while people born in the rest of the world are 38 and 36 years old, men and women respectively (CONAPO and UPM, SEGOB estimations based on the Intercensal Survey).

**Figure 9**  
**Distribution of employed persons by industry (ISIC), country of birth and nationality status**



Source: Estimations by the author based on INEGI, Intercensal Survey 2015.

**Figure 10**  
**Distribution of employed persons by occupation (ISCO), country of birth and nationality status**



Source: Estimations by the author based on INEGI, Intercensal Survey 2015.

## Migrants in transit

261. Flow of migrants in transit has increased since 2011. In 2014 it was estimated that there were 342,400 people in irregular transit through Mexico, 88 per cent of which were coming from Central-America.<sup>30</sup> In 2015, data from EMIF Sur showed that a total of 86,700 Central-Americans going to the USA were returned by Mexican authorities, as well as 42,200 that were returned by the USA after having been in that country for a month or less. They were mostly men in the range of 24-26 years old. Irregular migrants from Central-America are more likely to succeed in their transit through Mexico and arrival to the USA if they are helped by an unofficial guide. Half of the returned by Mexican authorities were detained in Chiapas or Veracruz, and 67 per cent of those who arrived in the USA had crossed over Reynosa, Tamaulipas<sup>31</sup>.

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<sup>30</sup> UPM, SEGOB estimations based on statistical bulletins, information of the U. S. Department of Homeland Security, Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, U. S. Border Patrol, and U. S. Census Bureau.

<sup>31</sup> CONAPO and UPM, SEGOB estimations based on EMIF Sur 2015.

## E. Norway

### 1. Introduction

262. Norway has a common labour market with the Nordic countries, which means that since 1954 there has been free movement of labour between these countries. In particular, waves of immigration and cross-border commuting occurred between Sweden and Norway when the business cycles in the two countries were in different phases. Since mid-1990s, the flow of workers has mainly been from Sweden to Norway because of a long period of strong growth in the Norwegian economy connected to the oil industry. A large decrease in oil prices in 2015 and an increased growth in the Swedish economy have however stopped the net immigration of Swedes to Norway.

263. Though Norway is not a member of the EU, it is part of the European Economic Area allowing for the free movement of labour because of a treaty signed in 1993 between EU, Iceland, Lichtenstein and Norway. The inclusion of new EU members from Eastern Europe in 2004 has led to a large inflow of workers from the Baltic countries and in particular from Poland.

264. Persons from the EU countries, except the Nordic countries, have an obligation to register at the immigration authorities when staying for more than 3 months for the first time. There are no sanctions for not registering. Persons from other parts of the world have to apply for a permit to immigrate to Norway. For most countries, if one receives a permit, this also implies that they have a work permit.

265. For all foreign persons, including those under free movement rules, an approval of qualifications by Norwegian authorities is required for some occupations before being employed.

266. All persons immigrating, including persons from the Nordic countries, have to register in the Central Population Register from which they get a Norwegian ID number. The ID number is needed for a wide range of (mostly public) services. Persons that do not settle in Norway but commute from their home country to work in Norway also need a special version of an ID number, which they get from the Central Population Register (CPR). The updating of CPR for this group is of poorer quality however. The register itself has no information if such a person at certain point in time has any connection to Norway or not, besides that the person once had a reason for receiving an ID number. For non-resident foreign workers, one can check if the person is still registered with a job in Norway according to a register on employees.

267. Statistics Norway has general access to most administrative registers. Since all these registers use the ID number from CPR and the ID number of establishment where relevant, register data are used to produce a lot of employment statistics although a Labour Force Survey is also conducted. If possible, due to timeliness and quality, register data are linked to the respondents in LFS.

### 2. Data

268. There are two main sources of data relevant for measurement of labour mobility – the labour force survey (LFS) and register-based employment statistics (RES). These two sources allow for producing most of the statistics, but not all figures are regularly compiled and

published. LFS contains more variables on the jobs than RES but the sample size limits its potential to produce good quality estimates for small groups of persons. The sample frame for LFS prevents using it for statistics on non-resident foreign workers. RES is a full count of employed persons and is therefore well suited for describing even small groups of persons. However, persons from some countries (like the Nordic countries) do not need any resident or work permit, meaning that precise data on reason for immigration may be lacking.

### **Stock of international migrant workers**

269. The stock of foreign-born persons residing in Norway can be obtained both from LFS and from RES, including disaggregation by labour force characteristics, industry and occupation. This allows for calculating the stock of international migrants in the labour force except for persons employed in non-resident enterprises who are not available from LFS and on whom the RES data is of poor quality.

### **Non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad**

270. Statistics on non-resident foreign workers are not available from the LFS, but are available from RES, including disaggregation by industry and occupation. The data can also be disaggregated by labour-force characteristics, but for those employed in non-resident enterprises, it may be of poor quality. At the moment, there is no distinction between those working in establishments that should be included and should not be included according to SNA. Although they are covered in the concepts outlined in the framework of non-resident foreign workers, non-resident posted workers and consultants should not be included as part of the national labour force because their tasks are bought as a service. SNA is however not very precise on the implementation of this guidance.

271. Data on residents of Norway working abroad is collected in the LFS. Employed persons are asked about their place of work and if the place is abroad, their country of work is recorded. The number of these persons is however small in relation to the LFS sample size, so statistics are not published on a regular basis. Technically, it could be disaggregated by industry or occupation, but the quality of the estimates would be low. Employed persons having their normal place of work in Norway but working occasionally abroad cannot be identified as a special group among the employed persons.

272. RES do not cover on a regular basis residents of Norway working abroad for an employer in the destination country, but there is register-based data obtained by exchanging microdata between Statistics Sweden and Statistics Norway. This makes it possible to identify resident persons in Norway that commute to work in Sweden, which is the large majority of the residents of Norway working abroad. In the registers, there is no information on occasional work abroad for those whose normal place of work is in Norway.

### **In-flow of migrants including for-work migrants**

273. In principle, foreign-born persons without Norwegian citizenship who entered the country in the last 12 months are covered in the LFS. The figure is, however, too small to be published, not only due to the overall sample size but also due to the rotation scheme. LFS has no information on the type of permit but this could be added for some persons by linking to a register.

274. RES also provide statistics on foreign-born employed persons without Norwegian citizenship who entered the country in the last 12 months. Some immigrants need a permit for

immigration and for those, we can identify if they have a permit to work as well. For immigrants that can enter Norway without a permit, we do not know the reason for immigration. Nevertheless, if they start to work shortly after immigrating, one could assume that the reason for immigration was work.

### 3. Sources

#### Labour Force Survey (LFS)

275. Collection modes: The basic mode is computer assisted telephone interview (CATI). Registers are used to collect variables where possible.

276. Sample unit: Family.

277. Observation unit: Persons, defined by a unique ID number in the Central Population Register (CPR).

278. Target population: All persons 15-74 years old that are inhabitants in Norway.

279. Definition of population: Those persons in CPR in the specified age group who expect to stay in Norway for more than 6 months.

280. Reference period: a person's link to the labour market is measured for a certain reference week. The sample is spread evenly over all the weeks in a year.

281. Micro data are available at Statistics Norway and transmitted to Eurostat including only the variables required in EU regulations. Eurostat prepares a version of this file that researchers can apply to access.

282. General limits to the LFS data: There are biases in the sample due to high non-response rate among immigrants. A revised weighting procedure is being developed to cope better with this problem of non-response.

283. Regarding the ILO definition of the population: the Norwegian LFS has an upper age limit of 74 years. It covers those planning to stay for 6 months in Norway instead of 12 months as in Population Censuses. This will have just a small impact on the figures since very few people plan to settle in Norway between 6 and 12 months.

284. Regarding the population in employment in SNA: LFS do not include non-resident foreign workers working at a Norwegian production unit.

#### Register-based employment statistics (RES)

285. Collection mode: Data on jobs are collected from an employer-employee register covering all employee jobs (a payroll register on jobs). To this dataset, we link variables on persons and establishments from other micro registers that Statistics Norway have access to.

286. Unit of observation: Jobs defined as an ID number of a person x ID number of establishment where the person works x start date of the job (and stop date if the job is no longer active). This implies that we can move from job as the unit to person or establishment as units.

287. Target population: The basic dataset gives an opportunity to choose between target populations based on persons or establishments:

- (a) Employment among all resident persons in Norway except persons commuting out of Norway. This is used as the target group in RES.
- (b) All employees at a Norwegian registered establishment. This will be the target population for new statistics based on the same registers. At the moment, Statistics Norway is publishing such statistics but only covering employees that are non-residents in Norway.

288. Regarding the ILO definition of the population in employment statistics: RES is in line except that persons resident in Norway who commute to work abroad are not covered.

289. Regarding the population in employment in SNA: the ordinary RES itself does not cover non-resident persons working at an establishment situated in Norway, but it could be achieved by adding data from a special version of RES. The definition of being an establishment registered in Norway may not be, however, fully in line with SNA definition of being a production unit in Norway. Registrations of establishments are required even for a short stay in Norway – 2 weeks or more. SNA is not very precise on how these criteria are to be implemented.

## Box 2

### Linking enterprises and employees to identify labour mobility

Norway has an administrative register of all enterprises (legal unit) and their establishments (production units). Each of them is identified with a national ID-number. This register has the date when these units are started. To identify if a new enterprise is foreign owned there are two ways of doing this. For incorporated businesses one can link to a register of shareholders to find out to what degree it is foreign owned. For foreign enterprises that start up establishments without setting up a separate legal unit in Norway there is anyhow a registration of the foreign company.

To find out about mobility of the staff linked to these enterprises there is an administrative register on all employees covering all establishment with a link to their legal units (companies). Employees are identified with their national ID-number. Using this ID-number one can collect information on if and when they came to Norway. This is collected from the Central Population Register. Altogether this gives data on the inflow of employees connected to the establishing of new companies in Norway. The employees can be split in two groups. One group are those that have settled in Norway (the immigration) and the other group are those that has no immigrated but are cross border commuters. Both enterprises and employees can be distributed by their country of origin.

290. Reference period: Until 2016, RES was published once a year and the reference period was the middle week in November each year. A new version of the register was established in 2015 and there is a plan to start quarterly statistics during 2017, and later some monthly figures.

291. Micro data: Statistics Norway stores the micro data and researchers in Norway can apply for access.

## 4. Analysis

### Inflow of workers since 2003

292. The year 2003 is a natural starting point of the analysis since the inclusion of new EU members in 2004 showed to have a great impact on the Norwegian labour market in the following years. The Norwegian economy was at that time and in the following years in a period of high growth rates. This was partly due to the activities directly and indirectly

connected to the oil industry but also due to a high growth in wages in general and an increase in public spending financed by income from the oil sector. This led to a strong increase in the demand for labour that was met by an inflow of workers from abroad to a large extent. In Figure 11, based on the SNA concept of domestic employment, we can see that the total number of employed persons in Norway increased by more than 450,000 persons between 2003 and 2014, which is an increase of almost 20 per cent. Non-resident foreign workers and immigrants accounted for almost 70 per cent of the growth in employment in that period.

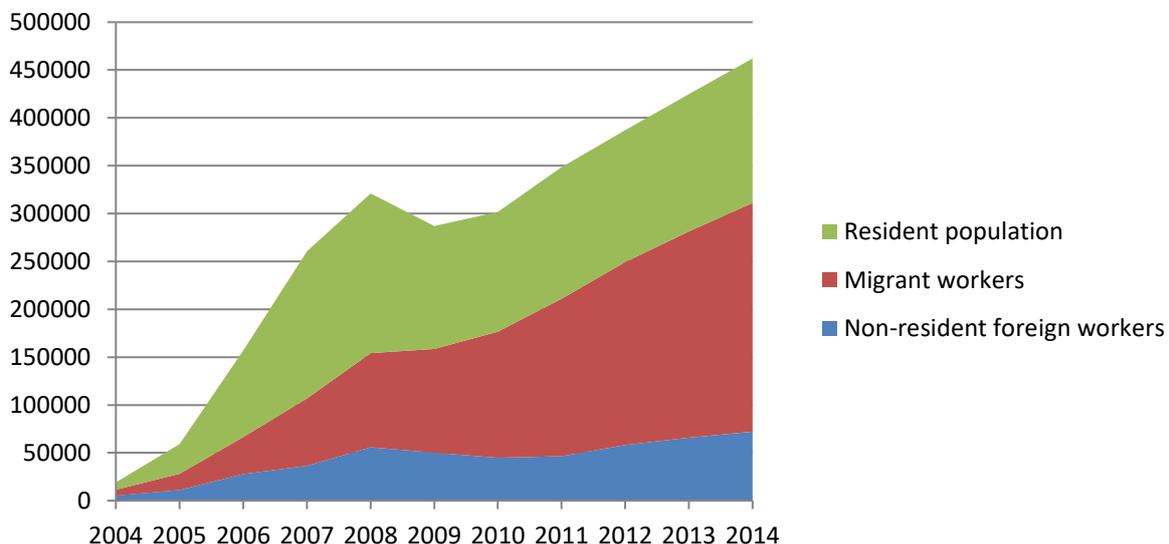
### Labour-force participation among immigrants

293. Immigrants to Norway can be divided into three main groups based on the reason for immigration. The large increase in the number of employed immigrants since 2004 is mainly because of growth in work immigration and family reunions of migrant workers. The second main group are refugees and their family reunions. The third main group is immigration connected to family reunions of native-born Norwegians.

294. Not surprisingly, we find the lowest employment rates among refugees and their families. Problems with the language is one reason. In addition, they do not come to Norway because there are available jobs matching their qualifications. In particular, those with no or very low formal education have problems in finding employment as the number of jobs requiring very low formal qualifications has decreased significantly in Norway over the last 20-30 years.

**Figure 11**

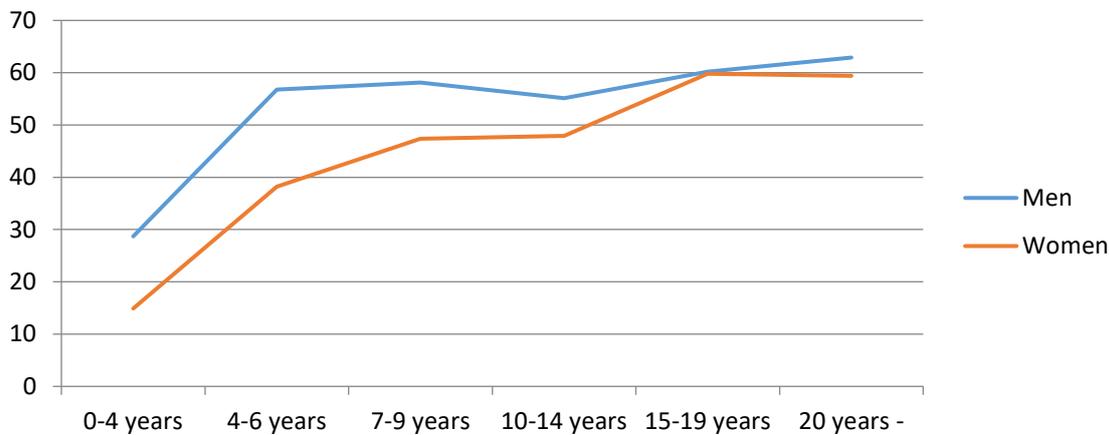
**Employed persons 2004-2014 by immigration status, difference from 2003 level**



Source: Register-based employment statistics

295. The typical pattern for male refugees is that the employment rate increases significantly until they reach 7-8 years of residence. For females, the employment rate is much lower throughout the first years of residence but keeps increasing for more years than for men, even until 15-19 years of residence. In Figure 12, the category of refugees also includes family reunions to refugees.

**Figure 12**  
**Employment rates among refugees by number of years resident (15-74 years), 2014**



Source: Register-based employment statistics

### Wide diversity in jobs

296. For people from abroad, the Norwegian language is a natural obstacle to take up work in many occupations. This has an impact on where in the Norwegian labour market different groups of immigrants can be found.

297. For the neighbouring countries, such as Sweden and Denmark, the language is so close to spoken Norwegian that it is not an obstacle in many jobs. We therefore find many immigrants from those countries in the service sector – employed in hotels, restaurants and shops.

298. The growth of the oil sector in Norway started in the 1970s. In its earliest stage, it was dominated by foreigners and therefore English was a commonly used language in this sector. Although Norwegian is now the main language used, English is well understood and used in many companies, as Norway needed the knowhow from other countries. Although Norway gradually has developed its education system to develop this kind of competence, this is still a sector with a relative high share of foreign workers coming mainly from the nearby EU member countries. Some workers have immigrated but it also a sector where many employees commute. Work on the oilfield in the North Sea is well suited for long distance commuting since work arrangements such as two weeks on and then four weeks off are common.

299. When the Norwegian labour market became available for workers from the new EU countries in 2004, some companies started to give Norwegian language courses in some of these countries. The target group were workers with formal education and work experience in some occupations in the construction industry, manufacturing and transport sector. This opened a pathway to Norway and quickly generated a large inflow of workers, including those without any previous knowledge of Norwegian. Especially the construction industry in Norway has experienced long and high growth in demand for skilled workers. In workplaces where the work is carried out in teams, it is often enough that one of the workers has a relatively good competence in Norwegian.

300. As Figure 11 indicates, the inflow of workers was not only as immigrants but also as non-resident foreign workers. Many of them came as employees of foreign companies that

won subcontracts under Norwegian enterprises. The inflow of persons from these countries has changed over the years from only being men to including whole families.

301. Refugees with various education and work experiences have traditionally been a large part of the immigration to Norway. For this group, the language is typically an obstacle to find relevant work, which is most prominent for those with high-level education in subjects that require the use of Norwegian in writing. In addition, in some occupations a foreign attained education will be of less relevance for working in Norway. Nevertheless, those with high education from their homeland have higher employment rates than those with just a few years of education, but usually because they take up jobs with lower education requirements.

## F. Summary of data sources

302. The four case studies describe widely different contexts of international labour mobility and its data sources. The sources include household surveys, border surveys, population censuses as well as administrative data from entrance permits, residence permits, population registers, social security registers and employment registers.

303. For measuring migrant workers, non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad, Israel, Italy and Mexico rely on surveys (Table 7). In Norway, registers provide the main characteristics of all groups except residents working abroad, whereas LFS provides additional variables of all groups except non-resident foreign workers. To measure the in-flow of migrants including for-work migrants, all four countries mainly rely on administrative sources.

**Table 7**  
**Data sources in Israel, Italy, Mexico and Norway**

Group	Israel	Italy	Mexico	Norway
Migrant workers	LFS	LFS	1: Intercensal survey; 2: Survey on Demographic Dynamics	registers; LFS
Externally displaced persons	1: Population and Immigration Authority; 2: LFS	Residence permits	1: Survey on Demographic Dynamics; 2: Commission for Refugee Assistance	registers; LFS
Non-resident foreign workers	Palestinian LFS	EU-LFS	Survey of Migration on the South Border	registers
Residents working abroad	LFS	LFS; census	1: Intercensal survey; 2: Survey on Income & Expenditure; 3: Survey of Occupation and Employment	LFS; Swedish registers
In-flow of migrants including for-work migrants	Population and Immigration Authority	Residence permits; municipality registers	1: National Institute of Migration 2: Survey on Demographic Dynamics	registers; (LFS)

Notes: Cells representing administrative sources are highlighted. Numbers refer to a source of primary, secondary or tertiary importance, respectively.

304. The studies also reveal the potential of using data from other countries and territories. To measure non-resident foreign workers, Israel uses Palestinian LFS and Italy proposes to examine the possibility of using LFS from other EU countries. Norway uses Swedish register data for statistics on their residents working in Sweden. None of the countries provide for a complete coverage of non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad.

## V. Conclusions and recommendations

### A. Conclusions

305. The diversity of data sources presents many options but also many limitations when comparing statistics between countries. From that perspective, the following points need to be considered:

- (a) Length of stay – periods used in definitions should be taken into account when making comparisons e.g. the number of months of residence to be included in a group and/or the intended length of stay versus the actual length of stay.
- (b) Regular and irregular migrant workers – use of registers and administrative data are a large part of data collection – particularly for coverage of recently arrived migrants. These may not cover irregular migrants who may have bypassed border crossings and/or work permits. Surveys and censuses may better cover this population although population definitions must be considered here too.
- (c) National needs – countries have various needs and are under different regional agreements that affect the population that they are interested in monitoring – at borders and places of work. These differences may affect current and future data collection. Care must be taken to allow fulfilment of national and international reporting needs as well as those arising for information on migration, labour or trade in services.
- (d) Age – countries have different upper and lower age limits regarding participation in the labour force.

306. Change in place of usual residence is key in defining migrants, including for-work migrants. Whether a change in place of usual residence occurs, depends on a change in location and the actual or intended length of stay. As the case studies show, countries collect and use the variables country of birth and/or country of citizenship in addition to time of entry to identify migrants and migrant workers. This is in line with the United Nations Recommendations and very useful for one-time and long-term migrants.

307. Additional data on entries and exits are needed to capture the dynamics of non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad. Separate identification of recurring entries/exits is needed to collect information on frontier or seasonal workers. Information on type of entry permit and length of stay permitted can be useful for dealing with posted workers or non-resident service suppliers if they allow their separate identification.

308. Particular attention must be paid to the place of work and type of work. Migrants often participate in the labour force differently from the native-born population, for example, by having a different rate of participation and working in different industries and occupations. To estimate the effect of migrant workers on a country's labour force and economy, it is important to distinguish between employees and self-employed and between resident and non-resident employers. The former distinction is common in labour-force statistics. Data that would allow distinguishing resident and non-resident employers are rarely collected and even when they are, the information is not published.

309. Administrative data on border crossings and visas and permits is the main source for measuring the flows of migrants and migrant workers. This source may be of limited

usefulness for countries that belong to areas with freedom of movement, such as the EU/EFTA member countries.

## B. Recommendations

### 1. *Main groups for measurement*

310. Data collection should focus on identifying and characterizing three main groups:
- (a) Stock of international migrants and migrant workers in the country – identified by country of birth and country of citizenship;
  - (b) Non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad, clearly identifying separate categories based on the location of the employer;
  - (c) In-flow of migrants including for-work migrants to the country.

### 2. *Variables*

311. All groups may include regular and irregular migrants. The recommended variables are presented in Table 8.

**Table 8**  
**Variables recommended for data collection**

Variable	Comments
<b>Variables that identify migrants and non-resident foreign workers</b>	
Country of birth	Possible answers may be: (a) list of all countries, (b) regionally relevant countries and "other", (c) country collecting data yes/no. "Country" should be the country at time of data collection and not at time of birth, in order to account for changes in borders. Further aggregation is possible if necessary e.g. identifying foreigners as foreign-born with foreign-born parents.
Country of citizenship	
Date of entry	Main aggregation by length of stay: less than 3 months; at least 3 and less than 12 months; 12 months and more. Other aggregations may be needed for analysis in other frameworks. Therefore it is important to collect date rather than length of stay. Intended length of stay may also be used as an indication of migrant status.
Purpose of stay	Legal purpose of stay from administrative sources or an answer to a survey question on the purpose of move. This information would allow identify for-work migrants as well as externally displaced persons.
Country of previous residence	For migrants.
Country of usual residence	For non-resident foreign workers.

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Comments</b>
<b>Variables that relate to the labour force</b>	
Labour-force status	Employed/ unemployed/ outside the labour force
Country of work	For residents working abroad. Possible answers may be: (a) list of all countries, (b) regionally relevant countries and "other".
Frequency or periodicity of commute	For example, daily/ monthly/ seasonally
Status in employment	ICSE-93 <sup>32</sup>
Industry	ISIC Rev.4
Occupation	ISCO-08
Education level	ISCED 2011
<b>Variables that relate to the quality of employment</b>	
Hours usually worked per week	LFS
Hours actually worked per week	LFS. Hours worked in the reference week of the survey
Hourly earnings	Can be used for the calculation of the pay gap e.g. between migrant and non-migrant or resident and non-resident workers (Indicator 1c1, (UNECE, 2015))
Fatal occupational injuries	Can measure proportion of employed persons suffering fatal occupational injuries (Indicator 1a1, (UNECE, 2015))
Nonfatal occupational injuries	Can measure proportion of employed persons suffering nonfatal occupational injuries (Indicator 1a2, (UNECE, 2015))
Exposure to physical health risk factors	Can measure the percentage of employed persons exposed to physical health risk factors (Indicator 1a3, (UNECE, 2015))
Exposure to mental health risk factors	Can measure the percentage of employed persons exposed to physical health risk factors (Indicator 1a4, (UNECE, 2015))
Existence of a formal contract	Can measure the percentage of employed persons without formal contracts (Indicator 4a7, (UNECE, 2015))
<b>Variables that relate to employers</b>	
Resident or non-resident employer	
Type of service supplied	EBOPS 2010
Relation between the employer and the client	Relevant for service suppliers. Intra-firm trade or not

### ***3. Integration of data from different sources***

312. Use of administrative registers can supplement existing information sources and increase the value of the surveys already carried out. Countries should examine their administrative sources to see if they can supplement or replace some questions in LFS. For example, it may be possible to use immigration or social security registrations to identify

<sup>32</sup> The upcoming 2018 International Conference of Labour Statisticians is expected to introduce a major revision to ICSE-93, including some dimensions of social protection

whether an employer is resident or non-resident. The possibility to integrate data from other household surveys and border or passenger surveys should also be examined.

313. The integration of different kinds of data sources is a crucial step towards developing an effective system for the monitoring of migration. Many administrative sources contain information that can be used for statistics on migration and labour mobility. These include registers and databases on population, businesses, visas, passports, border control, residence and work permits, and asylum seekers and refugees. Rather than just being used to complement survey data, in some cases administrative sources may be the best for measuring labour mobility, particularly in measuring actual employment and length of employment. It is recommended to examine the potential of all these administrative sources and use them to the extent they are fit for purpose. This requires cooperation with relevant ministries, agencies and administrations responsible for the data.

#### ***4. Data exchange***

314. Exchange of data between countries is encouraged in order to obtain a complete picture of labour mobility, particularly on non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad. Without partner country data, it may be difficult or impossible to collect details on characteristics of incoming persons or trips. The feasibility of data exchange may depend on the willingness and capacity to provide quality data in the partner country.

315. Compilers need to be cautious in using partner country data as definitions, laws and regulations may differ.

316. For measuring international mobility within areas with freedom of movement that do not require permits, such as the EU/EFTA, data exchange among countries would be a particularly important source. A breakthrough could be achieved if the databases were shared between countries with a potential to link records at the individual level. Any such initiative would need to consider and resolve the potential legal, confidentiality and privacy issues associated with exchange of microdata.

## VI. Future work

317. Future work on the international level could address the ways that statistics on establishments, social security, employment services, tourism and irregular migrants, as well as adjustments to labour-force surveys could contribute to better measurement of international labour mobility.

### A. Establishments

318. Data on the connection between employed persons and the enterprises with which they are connected increases the value of the statistics on labour mobility between countries. The most obvious is data on industry and location. These data are usually collected in most labour statistics based on labour-force surveys, enterprise surveys or register data on employment. The challenge in these statistics is to define those belonging to the group of “labour mobility”. For those in this labour mobility group, enterprise surveys and register data on establishments will have data on variables connected to the enterprise to which they have moved. To understand labour mobility even better it would also be of interest to capture changes in the type of connection to the enterprises during the change of workplace from one country to another. Beneath we describe some types of changes in such connections.

319. Persons could quit their original job in the country they leave (or the country where they still live if they are cross-border commuters) and start working for a new enterprise in the country in which they arrive. A special case would be if the new enterprise has the same owner as the enterprise they quit. This would then be an example of movement in an internal labour market. Some large enterprises have policies that stimulate employees to move between different workplaces they have in different countries. It should be possible to ask about this in an *ad hoc* module to a labour-force survey, which would have to be developed. For some countries, however, the sample size may be too low compared to the size of such labour movements. Enterprise surveys could be a good source for questions on the internal labour market in companies having work places in different countries. A module with such questions would have to be developed for enterprise surveys.

320. While most of labour mobility is based on personal decisions, some is connected to the mobility of enterprises between countries. An enterprise could decide to move or to set up a new company in another country and bring some of their employees with them. In another case, a company could win a contract in another country and therefore for a limited period perform activities in another country. They would normally use their own staff to perform most of the work. These employees would then for that period be a part of labour mobility. Such situations are connected to the installation of machinery, building of new industry plants, construction of roads and some consultancy branches. In many countries, enterprise surveys are based on registers of such units. If the register does not include information on the date of start and on foreign ownership, this could be asked in the survey. It could also be developed as a module of questions that could identify to what extent the staff were already employees of the foreign company.

321. For those countries having a national register of employees with a link to the register of enterprises, it may be possible to produce statistics based on register data alone. A description of such a situation is included in the case study of Norway (section IV.E.3, box 2). Although

Norway has more ability to access and link administrative registers than most countries, it will give ideas of possibilities that can be developed.

## **B. Social security**

322. In many countries, social security systems collect information that can be used for statistics. They cover basically two forms of protection: (a) the protection of those who are unable to work and the poor, and (b) the protection of workers. A better exploitation of these sources could give information not only about the number and the characteristics of foreign workers employed in the different sectors, but also on many other important aspects and events concerning the work and social security of the workers, such as health care, health insurance, insurance services for families, maternity and paternity, invalidity, old-age pensions, survivors, work accidents, professional diseases, unemployment, minimum guaranteed income and long-term assistance.

323. The enforcement of better and standardized registration systems for social security in some countries could also be crucial for monitoring development: expanding social protection coverage of migrants is integral to achieving the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, specifically Goals 1 and 10.

324. As with all data coming from administrative sources, statistics based on social security information present the advantages of collecting information with no additional burden for target populations. Moreover, in many countries the use of an identification code for each worker would enable integration of this data with other administrative sources and surveys. The integration of data could allow: (a) multidimensional analysis for studying the correlation among work and other dimensions of the migratory model; and (b) the use of a longitudinal perspective of analysis, which is useful for studying circular migrations, internal mobility and seasonal workers.

## **C. Employment services**

325. The ILO questionnaire concerning data availability on international labour mobility shows that data from employment services are available in just a few countries. Even if available in general, the reporting from this data source is not very common because in many cases important information for identifying migrant workers is missing. However, it might be worthwhile to further examine the possibility of using employment services as a beneficial data source for additional aspects in measuring labour mobility.

326. In general, data from employment services could be a valuable potential data source to obtain additional information on labour mobility. In comparing both labour demand and labour supply on an individual level, it should be possible to obtain statistical information on shortages, matches or mismatches in the labour market on an aggregate level. Special attention should be paid to breakdowns by qualification, by occupation, by industry or by region. This information as well as the development of the indicators over time could be helpful to better understand flows of the labour market.

327. As most of the information needed to identify migrant workers is missing even if data from employment services are available, the most challenging task is the extension of the data source with the required variables to focus on migrant workers. Information on the country of birth or citizenship, the employment status and optionally on the duration since

arrival in the country or the country of previous residence would be crucial to establishing data from employment services as a valuable data source for measuring several aspects of labour mobility, such as the extent to which migrant workers possess the necessary skills for the labour market.

328. Studying the experience of countries identified from the ILO questionnaire where data from employment services are available could provide a good starting point for developing recommendations for the use of this data source. The data sources should be further analysed with the aim to find examples for good practice. Furthermore, it should be tested whether the labour market information in employment services could be linked to other data sources to provide the missing variables to identify international migrant workers.

## D. Tourism

329. One of the traditional sources for tourism statistics, border surveys, could be used to collect information on non-resident foreign workers or on residents working abroad. Small modifications in existing surveys could capture movements of non-resident foreign workers. However, adding such questions to border surveys will require close cooperation between those in charge of statistics of tourism and trade in services.

330. Within tourism visits or trips, two main purposes are usually identified: (a) personal and (b) business and professional. The first group is broken down into eight items, none of which is of interest in the context of non-resident foreign workers. The business and professional trips are usually presented without any further breakdown. In view of the information needs related to non-resident foreign workers, compilers could subdivide this as follows:

- (a) Non-resident foreign workers who are self-employed persons, staying for less than 12 months; and
- (b) Non-resident foreign workers whose employment relation is with a non-resident enterprise entity or self-employed persons: stay of less than 12 months).

331. Taking the perspective of incoming visitors, a survey could first identify if the person who is entering the country for a business or professional visit is coming to (a) attend a meeting, conference, trade fairs or exhibition, or (b) is coming for other business and professional purposes. Subsequent questions could address the residence of the employer and the type of contractual relationship. From a trade negotiation perspective, it may also be useful to consider adding questions relating to persons entering an economy to negotiate contracts, or the establishment of a commercial presence.

332. Some additional estimates may be derived from tourism statistics with no or little additional cost in the collection system. Unless it is possible to develop some specific modules towards well targeted samples or identifying ways to better exploit the existing data collection, estimates for non-resident foreign workers derived from border/passenger surveys may only be done with a certain degree of approximation.

333. In some countries, using border surveys to collect additional information on non-resident foreign workers may involve cost increases related to the need to increase the sample size to ensure the representativeness of small sets of the population, and the interview duration as the survey form may become more complex or lengthy. Compilers of statistics would have to keep in mind that border survey managers are already pressed by other users, in particular the tourism sector, who are willing to expand the questionnaire for tourism-

related aspects. Therefore, it is important that there is strong co-operation between the (potential) users (i.e. tourism, balance of payments, trade in services, etc.) of such data to identify the synergies and priorities according to the specific information needs of the economy.

## **E. Irregular migrants**

334. Geographical proximity and the possibility of crossing national boundaries through sites without surveillance allow people to move into other countries without fulfilling all the admission criteria. As a result, data on international migrant workers and non-resident foreign-born workers summarized and portrayed by official administrative records, censuses and surveys are partial and often biased due to the lack of information about the magnitude and characteristics of people who cross boundaries without legal authorization.

335. Apprehensions data, for instance, are insufficient since they do not capture information about irregular migrants who elude capture or who are discouraged after trying to cross and stay several times without success.

336. Even though border or passenger surveys are very useful for estimating figures and traits of irregular migrants and non-resident foreign-born workers, they rely on the accuracy of people's statements and often report the number of events, not persons. In addition, migration routes and patterns change over the time, and places relevant today for conducting this type of survey will probably not be as relevant in the future. Thus, close attention should be taken to adjust survey designs to new realities of the phenomenon.

337. Combination and integration of administrative and survey data and cooperation from countries involved could lead to the development of models for estimating the flow of people crossing national boundaries without legal authorization.

## **F. Adjustments to labour-force surveys**

338. A targeted survey or module can be a very useful source in understanding the patterns of international labour mobility. By measuring length and purpose of stay, labour-force status and other characteristics, they provide information on the different categories of migrants and non-migrants, including retrospective information on residents' employment abroad.

339. While it may not be possible to implement targeted surveys and modules frequently, providing data regularly on migrants, non-resident foreign workers and residents working abroad could be achieved by making the following changes to the Labour Force Survey (LFS):

- (a) Broadening the scope of the survey population to non-resident foreign workers regardless of length of stay, and ask whether the employing entity is resident or non-resident. It is acknowledged that some countries may not be able to implement this recommendation because the LFS data collection is not designed to cover rare and difficult-to-access populations. Broadening the scope will also create difficulties in benchmarking and weighting, unless corresponding population estimates are available for these groups.
- (b) Adding questions for those who work abroad on their country of work and on whether the entity that employs them is resident or non-resident. Note that respondents may not be aware of the resident status of the employer, particularly in

cases where a family member serves as a proxy respondent for the person who is working abroad.

- (c) Changes in the survey plan to cover workplaces that serve as irregular residences.
- (d) Adjusting interviewing technique by using face-to-face interviews instead of telephone interviews for households with migrants as household heads.
- (e) Modifying sampling methodology to ensure that a sufficient number of migrants will be observed.

340. It is recognised that many of these changes may face significant challenges in implementation. They may incur additional costs or may face resistance from survey respondents, or may not even be possible in the country context. Care should be taken to test any proposed changes before they are implemented. The impact of any changes made should be measured, communicated with users, and monitored in order to ensure the comparability of the time series data.

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