Chapter 3

Migrants' well-being: Moving to a better life?

Better understanding the lives of migrants is key to ensuring both their well-being and their successful integration. This chapter builds on previous OECD work to explore the meaning and measurement of migrants' well-being. On average, migrants experience greater poverty, lower levels of income and wealth, and more exposure to poor environmental and housing conditions relative to non-migrants. They also find it harder to access decent work: they are more likely to be overqualified for their jobs, experience more in-work poverty and work more atypical hours. While migrants tend to be less satisfied with their lives in OECD countries, in many cases they still report higher life satisfaction than the peers they left behind in their country of origin. Data on health, social connections, trust in government and attitudes towards migrants are also featured in the chapter. However, a number of important gaps in the evidence remain, and more accurate, timely and granular data on migrants' well-being are needed.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Introduction: Migrants' well-being and why it matters

We live in a world increasingly defined by population mobility. Over 120 million people currently living in OECD countries were born in a different country, representing 13% of the total OECD population (OECD, 2017a). In the majority of OECD countries, the share of foreign-born people accounts for at least 10% of the total population, reaching 20-30% in Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand and Switzerland, and an estimated 46% in Luxembourg (OECD, 2017a). Since 1 in 8 people in the OECD are migrants, capturing information about their well-being is critical for gaining a fuller picture of how life is going, and whether it is going equally well for all members of society.

Recent years have seen anti-immigration views gain increasing prominence in public discourse in many OECD countries. In Europe especially, the current refugee crisis has contributed to widespread concern about the impact of migration,[1] but Europe is certainly not alone in this regard. Understandably, given the backlash against international mobility seen in many countries, research and policy advice has tended to focus on the impact of migration on the host countries (e.g. OECD 2016a). However, less attention has been given to the well-being of migrants themselves. In fact, these two issues are not mutually exclusive, but go hand in hand. Improving integration will be a key challenge for OECD governments that want to turn the tide of negative public opinion and make the most of the potential economic and social benefits of migration. Better understanding the experiences of migrants and having a more complete picture of their life conditions is a key part of developing effective policies to integrate migrants. The measurement and analysis of migration policy is an established stream of OECD work, including regular and one-off publications that present a range of migrant outcomes.[2]

The aim of this chapter is to build on previous OECD work to explore in more detail the meaning and measurement of migrants' well-being. It sets out some key findings related to migrants' well-being, while at the same time shedding light on the limitations and gaps in available data. The chapter is structured as follows: the first section gives an overview of migrants' well-being, followed by a discussion of the measurement challenges and available data. Evidence on migrants' well-being is then presented through a selection of indicators. The chapter finishes with some conclusions and recommendations for the statistical agenda ahead.

Understanding migrants' well-being

For a person to become a migrant, all it takes is to move from their country of birth to live in another. There is no "typical" migrant profile, despite the stereotypes and prejudices that are often associated with the word. The migrant population includes people from all walks of life, including international students, workers of all skill levels, accompanying family members and retirees, as well as people who have lived through some of the worst possible experiences and deprivations, such as war, torture, slavery or environmental disaster. People migrate for a range of different reasons (see Box 3.1), but some of the most

Box 3.1. **Why do people migrate?**

There is no unifying theory of why people migrate. The decision to migrate is complex and is shaped by people's knowledge of the situation in their country of birth ("push" factors) as well as their perceptions of life in the destination country ("pull" factors) (Lee, 1966). These decisions are shaped by circumstances at the micro- (individual), meso- (community) and macro- (national) level (Faist, 2000). Most analytical approaches tend to focus on people's economic motivations (Sjaastad, 1962, Borjas, 1987). However, research in other social sciences shows that there are many reasons for migration beyond the pursuit of higher lifetime earnings, such as the wish to improve opportunities for children and family members, the desire to join family or community members who have already migrated, or the opportunity to access amenities (including such things as clean air or a pleasant climate) that better match one's own lifestyle preferences (Bodvarsson and Van den Berg, 2013; Statistics Canada, 2007). Life-course factors may also be important, with younger people more likely to favour locations with high-income jobs, and people nearing retirement having a strong preference for good climate and healthcare (Polachek and Horvath, 1977). Also, as migration is often a family decision rather than an individual one, migration may increase the well-being of some family members at the expense of others (Mincer, 1978; see OECD 2017a for a detailed discussion of family migration). In addition, migration is not always a matter of choice, as in the case of refugees forced to leave their country through fear of death or serious harm (see Box 3.2).

important ones are to work, to join family members already living abroad or to escape situations of intense suffering in their country of birth (i.e. humanitarian migration).[3]

People's reasons for migrating are likely to have an impact on their well-being. For example, evidence from the New Zealand Longitudinal Immigration Survey showed that people's life satisfaction differed depending on whether their stated reason for migrating was "opportunities", "lifestyle", "family" or "study", with students having the lowest levels of life satisfaction (Bryant and Merwood, 2008). The circumstances of people's decision (or compulsion) to migrate also matter in terms of both their expectations for their future lives as well as the degree of stress or trauma engendered by the process of migration itself.

Moving from one country to start again in another is a defining event that provides a completely new context for every aspect of migrants' lives. This can open up people's opportunities to achieve better lives, but it can also expose them to challenges and hardships that they would not otherwise have experienced – including living far from friends, family and the things that make a place feel like home. In analysing migrants' well-being, it is also important to consider the resources that migrants bring with them, including their education, skills, health status, social connections and economic resources. Migrants' well-being is also deeply shaped by the circumstances encountered in the host country. A migrant may be well educated, well connected and in excellent health and yet, if the host country does not provide a supportive context for him or her to flourish, migration may have a negative impact on their well-being in one or multiple dimensions. Contextual factors such as access to good jobs, decent housing, a clean, healthy and safe environment, effective governance, and to quality education and healthcare all matter for migrants' well-being. Beyond these objective conditions, the attitudes and perceptions towards migrants that exist in the host country can be a supportive or constraining factor. Where attitudes of intolerance or prejudice prevail, migrants are more likely to experience discrimination, mistreatment and social exclusion.

While migrants are a diverse group of people, the characteristics of the migrant population are also likely to differ in important ways from those of the overall population of stayers (in migrants' countries of birth) and the native-born (in host countries). A number of governments have influenced the make-up of the migrant population by facilitating the entry of certain types of migrants over others, on the basis of their education and skills, age, health status or other factors, depending on the host country's own situation and needs. People who decide to migrate are also likely to have certain characteristics that differentiate them from those who prefer to stay. These can include observable attributes (such as educational attainment), but also attitudes or non-cognitive skills (such as perseverance or optimism).

Finally, the length of time a migrant has spent in their new home can be an important factor in shaping their well-being. The experience of migration can be transformational: it re-sets people's lives, fostering or constraining different dimensions of well-being in ways that deviate from their non-migrating peers. The common assumption is that the longer a migrant resides in the host country, the easier their lives will become, as they integrate into the labour market, master the host country language (if necessary), and become more familiar with the way that things work in their new home. For example, evidence suggests that, relative to more recent arrivals, migrants who have resided for more than 10 years in an OECD country have slightly higher rates of employment, and they are less likely to be overqualified or employed in temporary or low-skilled jobs, to be in the lowest income decile or to live in overcrowded conditions (OECD/EU, 2015). However, while the material conditions of migrants may improve over time, the evolution of other aspects of their lives, such as their health status, sense of belonging, human rights or experience of discrimination, may be more complex (e.g. Neuman, 2014, Stillman et al., 2012).

Measuring migrants' well-being

Measurement challenges

In principle, a set of measures for migrants' well-being should cover all the dimensions of the *How's Life?* framework and be broken down by variables on gender, age, educational level, reason for migrating, country of origin and any other relevant background. Ideally, measures should also show how outcomes evolve over time for the same individuals. However, huge challenges exist in terms of data availability.

First of all, the best current sources of information on well-being outcomes – household surveys[4] – tend not to be designed with the measurement of migrants' well-being in mind. As a result, migrant samples tend to be too small to analyse migrants' well-being outcomes beyond the aggregate in most cases, and they may not include important migrant-specific background variables such as the country of origin, duration of stay or reasons for migrating. Given that well-being outcomes tend to diverge in important ways for different groups of migrants, the results for the population average may not always provide enough detail to inform policy. Further, the composition of migrant samples may not be fully representative of actual migrant populations, in terms of gender, age, country of origin, education level and other important variables. Even for surveys explicitly aiming to measure migrants' outcomes, ensuring a representative sample design and data collection can be a challenge. Sampling frames that provide accurate and informative records of the migrant population may not exist or may not be up-to-date (such as those based on a once-every-ten-years census).

Second, migrants are often harder to reach. Non-response rates can also be more of a problem for migrants, who may move house more often than the general population or be

less willing to take part in surveys due to the sensitivity of their own circumstances (such as their legal status) or to prior experience of discrimination or exclusion (Font and Méndez, 2013). Language issues also pose a challenge, as a proportion of migrants may not speak or be fluent in the source language of survey questionnaires, and translations may not always be possible into every language. One study of English schoolchildren found that 14% had a first language other than English, with 240 different languages reported by these children (Erens, 2013). Most importantly, many of the most vulnerable migrants are unlikely to be captured in official data at all, either because the registration procedures concerning them differ from ordinary ones (refugees, asylum-seekers; see Box 3.2 for a discussion of efforts to

Box 3.2. **Forced migration: A complex measurement issue**

During 2016, almost 68 million people worldwide were forcibly displaced from their homes, 17 million of whom attained official refugee status with a further 3 million classified as asylum seekers (UN HCR, 2017). Migration for humanitarian reasons has been a particularly important driver of migration to OECD countries (and Europe especially) in 2015-16, with asylum applications reaching their highest level since the Second World War in this period (OECD, 2017a). Forced migration is different from other forms of migration: it entails higher costs and risks, and humanitarian migrants are likely to have substantially lower well-being outcomes than other types of migrants when first arriving in the host country (Brücker et al. 2017). However, it is generally not possible to identify this important subgroup of migrants in household surveys, as reasons for migrating are included only rarely as background variables. In recognition of the fact that people having undergone forced migration are likely to have very different well-being outcomes and needs, some countries are implementing specially targeted surveys. Examples include Building a New Life in Australia, a 5-year longitudinal study being conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics between 2013-18, with more than 1 500 individuals and their families interviewed in Wave 1; and the IAB-BAMF-SOEP Refugee Survey, a 3-year longitudinal study of more than 4 500 people, launched in Germany in 2016. These surveys have to contend with a number of specific hurdles, including translation and interpretation issues (for example, in the first wave of the German survey, 90% of respondents reported that they did not know any German before arriving in the country; Brücker et al., 2017) and sampling difficulties (the sampling design and data collection for such surveys can generally cover only those asylum seekers and humanitarian migrants who are officially registered with government authorities).

The findings from such surveys can provide important information on the experiences and outcomes for this vulnerable group of migrants. For example, the first wave of the German survey showed that one-quarter of respondents had survived shipwrecks, two-fifths had been victims of physical assault, one-fifth had been robbed, more than half had fallen victim to fraud, more than one-quarter had been blackmailed, and 15% of female refugees reported having been sexually assaulted. The Australian survey also highlighted the widespread experience of traumatic events, showing that the prevalence of moderate-to-high levels of psychological distress was higher amongst survey participants than amongst the general population (35% of male and 45% of female respondents were at moderate or high risk of psychological distress in the four weeks prior to the survey, compared with 7% of men and 14% of women in the general population; Jenkinson et al., 2016). Nonetheless, respondents in the Australian survey also indicated that they were settling well in their new country, with 84% of them saying that their overall experience had been good or very good; they cited feelings of safety and the fact that their children were happy as the main factors helping them in their new lives (Jenkinson et al., 2016).

measure the well-being of this group) or because their records are less formalised (such as short-term or "circular" repeat migrants), or because their very presence represents a legal violation (such as irregular or trafficked migrants) (UNECE, 2012).[5] In addition, migrants are less likely than the native-born to be covered by household surveys, since they are more likely to live in non-standard dwellings that are not generally included in survey samples (e.g. transit housing, reception centres and dedicated residences).

Third, the majority of available data on migrants' outcomes is not well suited for tracking the evolution of migrants' well-being over time. Most relevant data comes from cross-sectional sources, which provide information about migrants at a fixed point in time after their arrival in the host country. To fully understand the impact of migration on people's well-being, outcomes should be measured for the same individual before, during and at various points after the time of migration. However, large-scale and internationally comparable data of this type simply do not exist. There are a few examples of "both-way" surveys that measure outcomes across two or more countries, both for those who migrate and for those who stayed behind,[6] which can serve to approximate this dynamic, but these studies also entail methodological difficulties (Beauchemin and González-Ferrer, 2011). A number of countries have recently developed longitudinal surveys of migrants' outcomes, including Australia, Canada, France, New Zealand and the United States.[7] These surveys aim to understand the settlement experiences of recently arrived migrants and how they adapt to life in their host country, generally tracking the same individuals for a period of several years or more. These surveys can provide useful insights into changes in people's well-being after migration.

Fourth, looking beyond the individual to gain insight into the aggregate trends for migrants' outcomes is also challenging, due to cohort changes over time in the composition of the migrant sample. Countries do not necessarily receive constant inflows (or experience constant outflows) of migrants from the same set of origin countries and with the same characteristics over time: shifts in migration policy and the impact of broader economic, geopolitical and environmental shocks and trends can shape historical patterns. This means that the initial background characteristics of the migrant population may change over time, implying that the average well-being outcomes of migrants may change due to reasons other than existing migrants having a better or worse life than previously in the host country.

Finally, the use of perception-based data (such as satisfaction with income and housing, or perceptions of personal safety) may produce unexpected results due to differences in the expectations held by migrants relative to the native-born population. Reponses to perception-based questions can be shaped by people's experiences during their life and by their culture – which informs the frame of reference through which people approach topics and make judgements. This may introduce challenges in the interpretation of migrant-vs.-native-born differences in perception-based indicators: for example, migrants may view the same objective circumstances more favourably than the native-born, simply because they are better than what they have experienced in their home country. This does not reduce the usefulness of such data (since whether a person is satisfied is of interest in itself, regardless of whether that feeling is judged to be "correct" by someone else's standards), but it needs to be kept in mind when interpreting results.

Dimensions of migrants' well-being and selection of indicators

This chapter provides an overview of migrants' well-being, based on the dimensions of the *How's Life?* framework. It therefore covers material conditions (income and wealth, jobs

and earnings, housing) and quality of life (work-life balance, education and skills, health status, subjective well-being, civic engagement and governance, personal security, environmental quality and social connections). The selection of indicators listed in Table 3.1 has been informed by the same criteria that have been used for *How's Life?* in the past, i.e. indicators should have face validity; focus on summary outcomes; be amenable to change and sensitive to policy interventions; be commonly used and accepted in the relevant literature; ensure comparability across countries and maximum country coverage; and be collected through a recurrent instrument. However, the indicator selection was also constrained by factors specific to the measurement of migrants' well-being. As noted above, data availability is a particular concern, and internationally comparable data breakdowns for some key well-being indicators are simply not available, limiting the available indicators in some key areas, such as health status.

Table 3.1. **Dimensions and indicators of migrants' well-being**

Dimension	Indicator
Income and wealth	Household income Poverty rate Financial wealth
Jobs and earnings	Employment Unemployment Over-qualification Work-related health risks In-work poverty
Work-life balance	Atypical working hours
Education and skills	Educational attainment Literacy skills Cognitive skills
Health status	Perceived health
Social connections	Social support
Housing	Sub-standard and overcrowded housing
Environmental quality	Exposure to poor environmental conditions
Personal security	Perceived safety
Civic engagement and governance	Trust in the political system Having a say in government
Subjective well-being	Life satisfaction Positive and negative emotions

International comparisons of migrants' well-being also present certain challenges, as the size and characteristics of the migrant population can differ in important ways across countries (Box 3.3). This means that cross-country comparisons of migrants' well-being outcomes need to be interpreted with caution and with an awareness of both the differences in the composition of migrant populations as well as the differences in the historical impact of migration policies across countries.

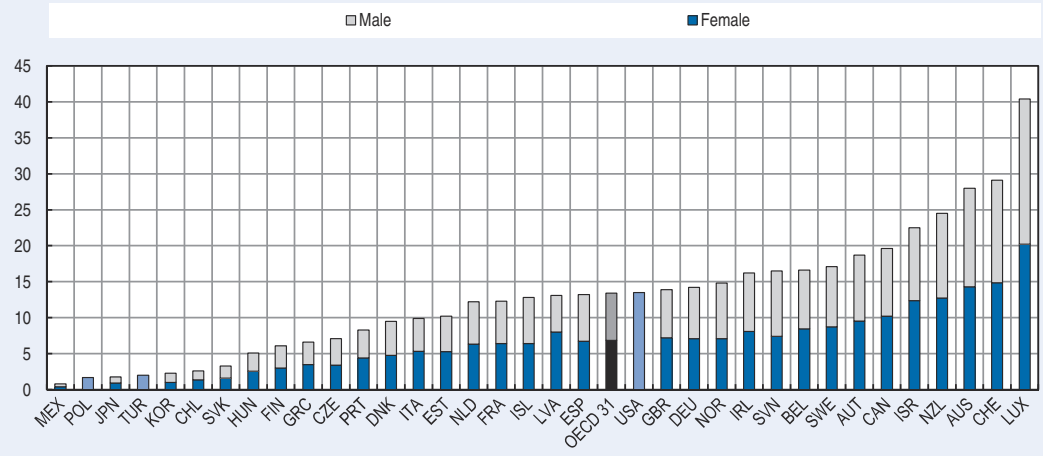
Box 3.3. **Differences in the size and composition of the migrant population across OECD countries**

The size of the migrant population as a share of the total population varies considerably across OECD countries, from under 1% in Mexico to an estimated 46% in Luxembourg in 2015 (OECD, 2017a). In the majority of OECD countries, female migrants slightly outnumber male migrants, with women representing 51% of the total migrant population across OECD countries (Figure 3.1).

Box 3.3. **Differences in the size and composition of the migrant population across OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Figure 3.1. **Share of migrants in the population, by gender**

Percentage of the total population, 2015 or latest year



Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. Data refer to 2014 for Chile and Greece; 2011 for Canada, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Portugal and Switzerland; and 2010 for Luxembourg. For countries in purple, data by gender are not available. Japanese and Korean data for the migrant population refer to non-nationals rather than the foreign-born.

Source: *OECD Database on International Migration* (OECD, 2017c), *www.oecd.org/els/mig/oecdmigrationdatabases.htm.*

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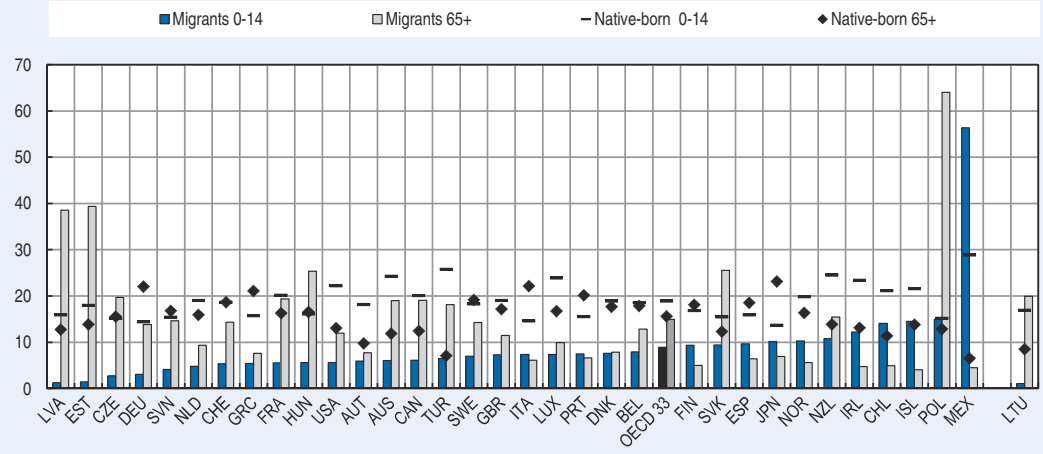
The migrant population of different countries also differs by other characteristics such as age (Figure 3.2), educational attainment, length of time in the country, and the rate of change in the size of the migrant population (see Annex 3.A for additional evidence on the share of low- and high-educated migrants in OECD countries, duration of stay and migrant inflows).

Figure 3.2. **Population aged 0-14 and 65+, by migrant status**

Percentages of foreign- and native-born populations, 2012



Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. Japanese data for the migrant population refer to non-nationals rather than the foreign-born. Countries are ranked by the share of the migrant population aged 0-14.

Source: OECD/EU (2015), *OECD Database on Migrants in OECD Countries* (DIOC) 2010-11, *www.oecd.org/els/mig/oecdmigrationdatabases.htm.* European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2012-13 for Turkey, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/microdata/european-union-labour-force-survey*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596420

Box 3.3. **Differences in the size and composition of the migrant population across OECD countries** *(cont.)*

Previous OECD work has identified a series of country groupings based on current and historical patterns of migration (OECD, 2012; OECD and EU, 2015). For example, Australia, Canada, Israel and New Zealand have a long-standing history of migration as an element of nation-building, where migrants tend to be well educated and well integrated. Others have only recently experienced significant humanitarian migration (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden); others tend to draw highly-educated migrant populations (Luxembourg, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States); some countries serve as long-standing destinations with many settled low-educated migrants (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany and the Netherlands); some tend to have very small and recent migrant populations (Chile, Japan, Korea, Mexico, Turkey); some are relatively new destination countries with many recent, low-educated migrants (Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain); others are new destination countries with many highly-educated migrants (Iceland, Ireland and Malta). Finally, there are countries whose migrant populations have been principally shaped by border changes and/or by movements of national minorities (Croatia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia).

While these groupings help to understand some of the main patterns characterising migration in different countries, summary descriptions can give only part of the picture. The migrant populations in most OECD countries are very heterogeneous in terms of country of origin, demographic structure, settlement patterns and other outcomes. While information on the composition of the migrant population can go some way to improve our understanding of what drives cross-country differences in migrants' well-being outcomes, deeper investigation is needed in each context to understand how the interplay between migrant background and host country circumstances drives observed differences.[1]

1. For example, the country of origin of migrants is an important determinant of educational attainment and returns to schooling of children with a migrant background in their host country (Picot and Hou, 2013; Kanas and Tubergen, 2009). However, evidence also suggests that migrant children from the same country of origin can have very different educational performances in the different host countries (PISA, 2015).

Definition of migrants

Throughout this chapter, migrants are defined as people whose country of birth is different from their country of usual residence. While this is not the only way to define the migrant population,[8] it is a consistent and objective classification, and the one which is typically used in OECD work on international migration. The terms "migrant" and "foreign-born" are used interchangeably here. The term "native-born" is used to refer to people who were born in their country of usual residence (i.e. non-migrants).

There is an argument to be made for assessing outcomes not only for first-generation migrants, but also for their children who are born in the new country (defined as second-generation migrants). This is the approach taken by some OECD work focused on migrant integration such as *Settling In* (OECD, 2012; OECD/EU, 2015) or work analysing outcomes for children and young people, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Second-generation migrants, despite being born in the country of residence, often face disadvantages when compared with children of native-born parents, and this can continue throughout the life course, as evidenced, for example, by lower educational outcomes (OECD, 2016b) and an increased likelihood of being unemployed (Liebig and Widmaier, 2009). However, this chapter focuses only on first-generation migrants, as the subject is not migrants' integration as such, but their well-being (although the two concepts are likely to be closely linked).

Finally, no attempt is made in this chapter to "match" the migrant population with the native-born population (e.g. through controlling for key background variables). For both migrants and the native-born, factors such as age, gender and educational attainment can have a strong influence on well-being outcomes. This implies that, where these characteristics differ between migrant and native-born populations, it may explain why some differences in well-being outcomes exist. However, as the focus of the chapter is on well-being *outcomes* for migrants (which are of interest, regardless of how they may be explained), data for migrants are presented as they are observed, with no adjustments. Where appropriate, reference to specific known differences between the migrant and native-born population is, however, made in the text.

Data sources

Data for this chapter come from a number of sources, and efforts have been made to select the highest-quality data with the broadest international comparability (Box 3.4). For European countries, these include the Euro-System Household Finance and Consumption Survey; the European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS); the Eurofound European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS); the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions Survey (EU-SILC); the European Social Survey (ESS); and the Survey of Health, Ageing and Retirement in Europe (SHARE). For the EU and other countries, sources include the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (part of the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies, PIAAC) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA); the Gallup World Poll; and a selection of non-European country labour force and household surveys. To reflect the fact that the sample sizes are generally small for the migrant population, which could affect the accuracy of the results, wherever possible differences between migrants and the native-born are presented, with an indication of their statistical significance.

Box 3.4. **Selection of data sources for this chapter**

Relatively few data sources are explicitly designed for measuring migrants' well-being outcomes. A few OECD countries have developed special surveys (such as Trajectoires et Origines in France, the National Migrant Survey in Spain, and longitudinal surveys of migrants in New Zealand and Canada), but these are not conducted regularly, and questions on well-being outcomes are generally not internationally comparable. The comprehensive nature of national censuses makes it possible to provide detailed information on a number of migrant outcomes (for both first- and second-generation migrants), and some internationally harmonised census data are available through the Integrated Public-Use Microdata Series (IPUMS) project, co-ordinated by the University of Minnesota. However, while census data provides highly granular information that allows users to analyse outcomes for the migrant population by a number of background characteristics (including reported ethnicity or country of origin), the coverage of well-being outcomes is generally very limited.

The best current sources of internationally comparable data on well-being outcomes for migrants are international social surveys that include a background question on the country of birth, allowing for the identification of the foreign-born population. As these surveys do not generally oversample the migrant population, and do not include a representative sample of migrants, steps have been taken to assess the quality of the sources used. An assessment of the representativeness of the migrant sample was undertaken on four international social surveys: the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions survey (EU-SILC), the European Social Survey (ESS), the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) and the Gallup World Poll. The assessment was limited to 10 countries that are present in all four data sources

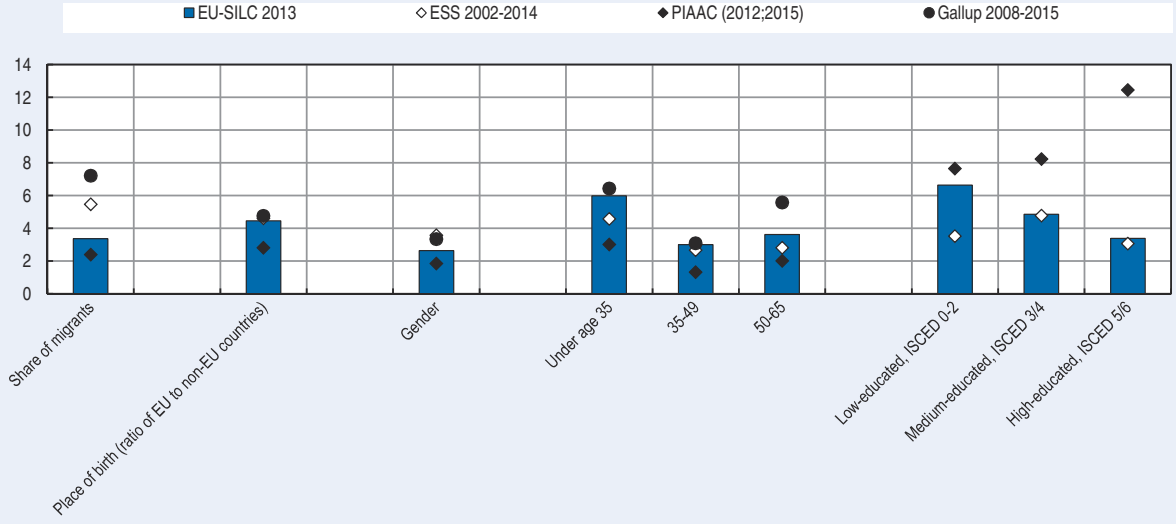
Box 3.4. **Selection of data sources for this chapter** *(cont.)*

(Austria, Denmark, Spain, Estonia, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia and Sweden). For most of the sources, the small sample size of migrants is an important limitation; to partially remedy this limitation, in the case of the ESS, PIAAC and the Gallup World Poll, multiples waves were pooled across years to achieve a sufficient number of observations. After this data pooling, the average number of observations for migrants per country is 900 for the ESS (2002-14 waves combined), 750 for the PIAAC (2012 and 2015 waves combined) and 500 for the Gallup World Poll. The EU-SILC has the largest number of migrants, with an average of 1 200 observations per country in 2013, the latest year for which relevant well-being indicators are available.

The national migrant samples in the selected surveys were compared with the actual migrant populations of the different countries, as described in official sources. These values included the share of migrants in the population/survey sample and the composition of the population/survey sample in terms of place of birth (EU vs non-EU countries), gender, age and educational attainment. Figure 3.3 shows the average percentage-point difference between the survey sample and reference values for 10 European countries (see Figure note): a lower score means a better representativeness of the migrant population.

Figure 3.3. **The representativeness of the migrant population in selected data sources**

Average difference between survey sample and reference population values, percentage points



Note: The figure shows the average difference, measured in percentage points, between the migrant population as reported by Eurostat and the sample population in the four surveys included in this figure based on different criteria: the share of migrants in the population and the distribution of migrants by place of birth (i.e. the ratio of migrants from EU countries, relative to those from non-EU countries), gender, age and educational attainment. The following countries are included in the analysis: Austria, Denmark, Spain, Estonia, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia and Sweden. The reference values come from Eurostat (table [migr_pop3ctb]) for the share of migrants, the distribution of migrants between country of birth, gender and age groups. For the distribution of educational attainment, the reference is OECD/EU (2015). The question about educational attainment in the Gallup World Poll is posed differently than in the other surveys, preventing its assessment for this category.

Source: OECD calculations based on EU-SILC (2013), European Social Survey (2002 to 2014), PIAAC (2012, 2015) and Gallup World Poll (2008-15).

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The results of this quality test are fairly similar across the four surveys and in general suggest that the level of migrant representativeness is acceptable for measuring aggregate outcomes. However, the small sample sizes preclude using more detailed breakdowns (such as by gender or age) based on these sources. Of the various data sources, the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll have the widest range of questions related to well-being, and both surveys collect data for a number of indicators shown in this chapter. Given that

Box 3.4. **Selection of data sources for this chapter** *(cont.)*

for the relevant indicators the EU-SILC has a much higher number of observations for migrants than does the Gallup World Poll (which has international coverage), EU-SILC data are shown for European countries and Gallup data for selected non-European countries. When using Gallup data, country estimates are shown only if the difference between the total share of migrants observed in the Gallup sample and the reference value is less than 50% of the reference value itself (i.e. if the reference value is 8, then the Gallup value must be within +/- 4 of this value), and if the difference for the share of women or of people aged 15 to 64 among migrants is less than 10% (i.e. if the reference value is 50, the Gallup value must be within +/-5 of this value). Although Figure 3.3 shows the results of this analysis for the OECD as a whole, it was performed for each individual country to determine whether data should be included.

Finally, while *How's Life?* aims to provide the greatest international coverage possible, showing data for all OECD and partner countries wherever possible, providing complete data coverage has been a challenge for this chapter. First, for a number of indicators only data for European countries are available (from the EU-SILC or other sources). Second, to help ensure the accuracy of the estimates, only data for countries where the number of migrant observations is 150 or more are presented. This means that even in the case of sources with good international coverage, many countries do not have sufficient data on migrants to be featured in the chapter. In particular, data for countries with small migrant populations (such as Chile, Japan, Korea and Mexico) are often not available.

Evidence on migrants' well-being

This section presents evidence on migrants' well-being, following the dimensions set out in Table 3.1 above. Some dimensions are explored in more detail than others, depending on their relevance for migrants' experience, data availability, and the extent to which outcomes in a given dimension have already been covered by other OECD publications.

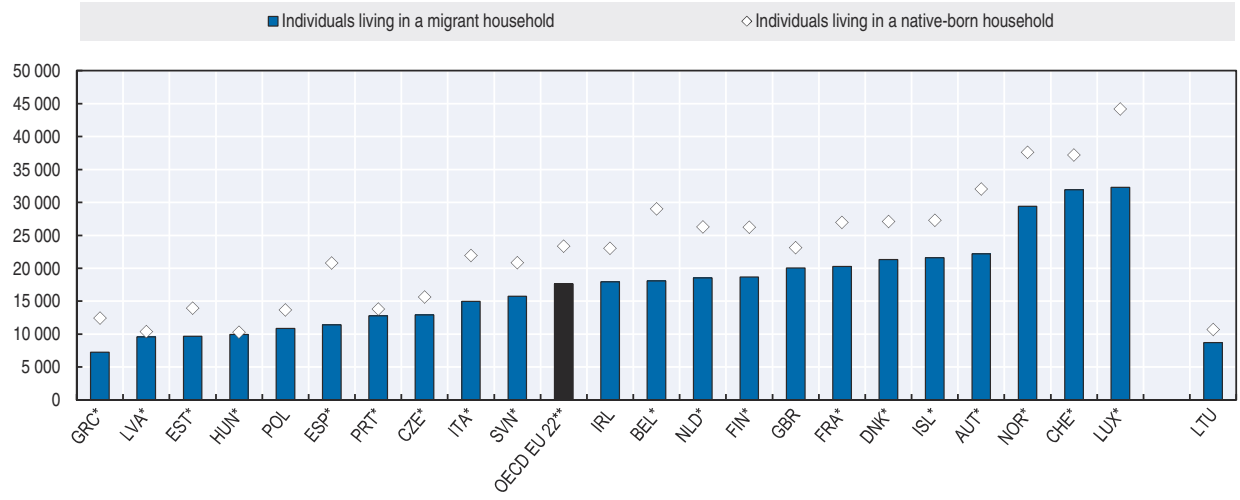
Income and wealth

Economic resources in the form of income and wealth are particularly important for understanding migrants' well-being. On the one hand, the opportunity to improve one's income can be an important motivation for people to migrate. On the other, the migration process itself can be costly in terms of transportation and settlement expenses, as well as the need to bridge any break in income arising from the move. Migrants may also send a share of their income to family members in their country of origin as remittances, rather than spending it on consumption for themselves or their immediate household in the host country. Estimating the share of remittances in household income for migrants is difficult, because such transfers are not always reported in household income surveys. At the aggregate level, however, remittance flows are significant: in 2016, remittances from high-income countries to developing countries totalled USD 429 billion (World Bank, 2017), triple the total amount spent on official development assistance (ODA) by the 30 OECD members of the Development Assistance Committee in the same year (OECD, 2017d).

In most countries, ***household median income*** is lower for migrants than for the native-born, with the median income of migrant households around 25% lower, on average, than that of native-born households across the 22 European countries for which data are available (USD 17 609 compared with USD 23 353 in native-born households in 2014, Figure 3.4). Only in Latvia, Hungary and Portugal are median income levels similar for migrants and the native-born.

Figure 3.4. **Equivalised disposable median income, by household migration status**

USD per capita in current PPPs, 2014



Note: Households' annual equivalised disposable income is calculated as the income of each household adjusted by the square root of household size, and then attributed to each member of the same household. Income is expressed in dollars (USD) at the purchasing power parity (PPP) rate. It includes earnings from labour, capital and current transfers, and deducts payments for income tax and social contributions paid by workers. The median income divides people into two halves: one half receives less than the median and the other more. A household is considered a migrant household if the primary and secondary heads of the household are both migrants. The OECD average is the simple country average. (*) indicates statistically significant differences between migrants and the native-born based on the analysis of the confidence intervals at 90%. (**) indicates that confidence intervals are not available.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) 2014, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596458

Migrants in European countries are also at greater risk of income deprivation: in 2012, across 29 OECD countries, 28% of people living in migrant households experienced ***relative income poverty*** (i.e. with a household income below the EU threshold of 60% of the national median income), compared with only 16% of individuals living in a native-born household (OECD/EU, 2015).[9] This difference in the incidence of poverty was particularly pronounced in Iceland, the Czech Republic, Norway, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, France, Denmark, Finland, Belgium, Spain and Greece, where migrant households were more than twice as likely as the native-born to experience relative poverty.

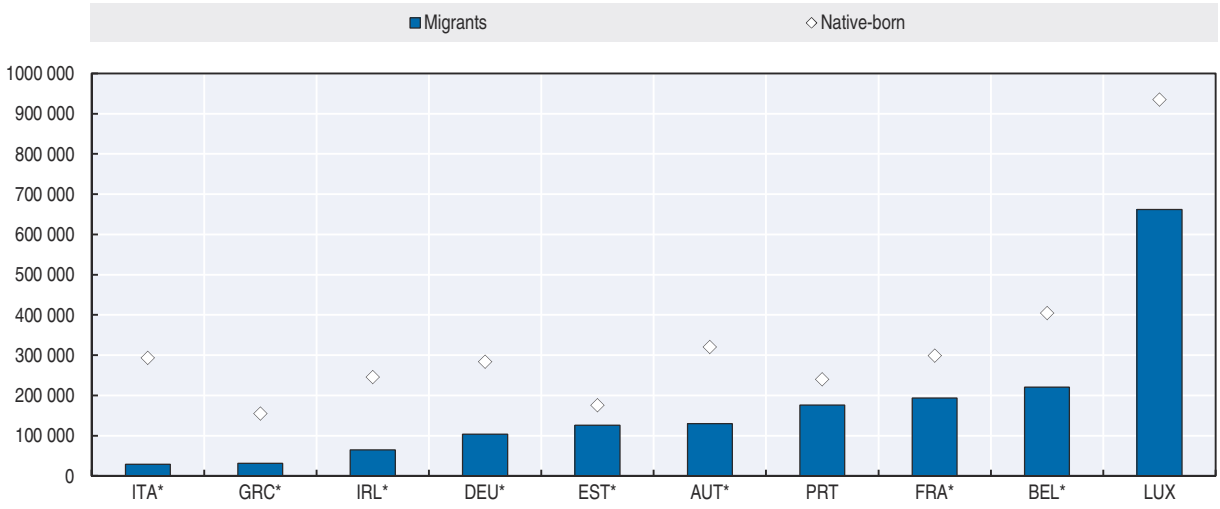
Wealth data are even more limited than income data, but for the selection of European countries for which data are available, the ***mean net wealth*** of native-born households is twice that of migrants (Figure 3.5).

Jobs and earnings

For many migrants, improving employment outcomes is the primary motivation for moving to a new country. While migration can open up a wider range of work opportunities and provide migrants with the chance to gain higher returns from their human capital than would have been the case in their country of birth, it also presents a number of challenges. Migrants may face discrimination in the labour market or in the workplace and may have trouble gaining recognition for any qualifications and experience acquired abroad. While for all people unemployment has a negative effect on well-being (Dolan et al., 2008), the experience of unemployment may be especially damaging for migrants, many of whom have left their homes and upended their lives in the hope of better work opportunities.

Figure 3.5. **Mean net wealth per household, by household migration status**

2014 or latest available year, values in 2014 USD PPPs



Note: Household net wealth refers to the real and financial assets and liabilities held by private households resident in the country, as measured in the Euro-System Household Finance and Consumption Survey. A household is defined as a migrant household if the head of the household and his/her spouse/partner are both migrants. (*) indicates statistically significant differences between immigrants and natives based on the analysis of the confidence intervals at 90%. The data refer to 2013 for Estonia, Ireland and Portugal.
Source: OECD calculations based on Household Finance and Consumption Network surveys *www.ecb.europa.eu/pub/economic-research/research-networks/html/researcher_hfcn.en.html*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596477

Across 31 OECD countries in 2016, the ***employment rate*** for migrants and the native-born was broadly similar, at 67% for both groups (OECD, 2017c). In a majority of OECD countries, however, migrants are less likely to be employed than the native-born, although this gap varies widely from country to country, and in some countries migrants are more likely to be employed than the native-born. For example, in Belgium, France, Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden the employment rate is at least 10 percentage points lower for migrants than for the native-born, but in Israel, Hungary and Luxembourg their employment rate is at least 7 percentage points higher than for the native-born. In most OECD countries for which recent data are available, the ***unemployment rate*** is also higher for migrants than for the native-born (8.3% on average for migrants, compared with 6.5% for the native-born; OECD, 2017a).

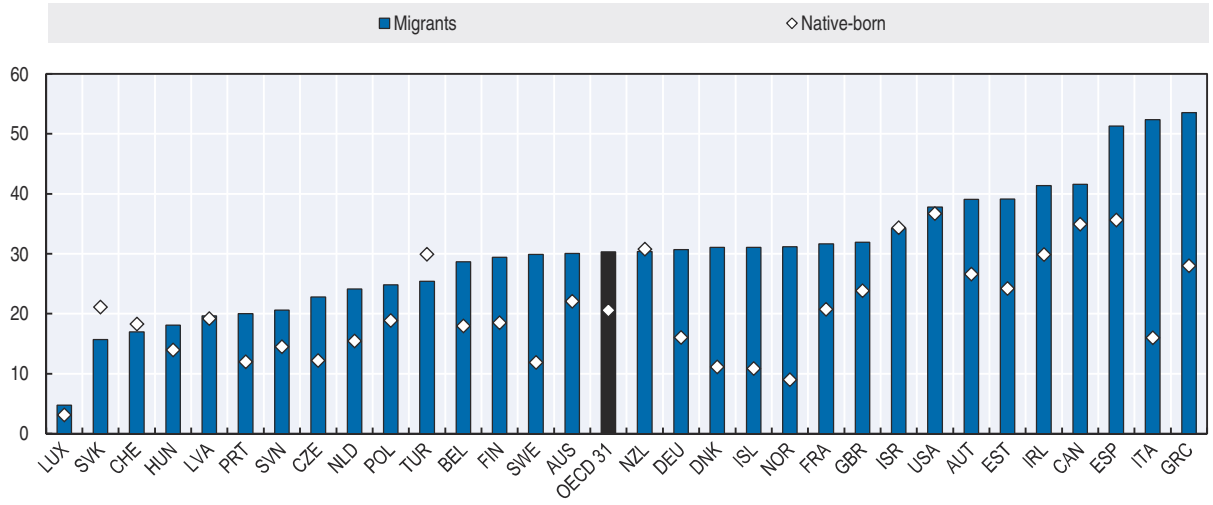
For both migrants and the native-born, men are more likely to be employed than women across all 31 OECD countries for which recent data are available. However, the gender gap in employment is more pronounced for the migrant population: the employment rate is 15 percentage points lower among foreign-born women relative to their male counterparts, compared with a 10 percentage-point difference for native-born women and men, on average (OECD, 2017c). There is also a larger employment gap for more educated migrants. While having a university degree boosts migrants' chances of finding work, it does not guarantee them the same job opportunities as for the native-born: on average across the OECD, the employment rate of highly-educated migrants (e.g. with a tertiary degree or more) was 9 percentage points below that of the highly-educated native-born in 2015 (at 76%, compared with 85% for native-born; OECD, 2017c). However, low-educated migrants (e.g. with primary schooling or below) have a similar employment rate to low-educated native-born (at 56% and 55%, respectively, on average across 30 OECD countries; OECD, 2017c).

Given the barriers that migrants face in gaining recognition for their qualifications – including dealing with unclear application procedures, inadequate language skills and

restrictions on employment eligibility – many migrants are over-qualified for their jobs.[10] ***Over-qualification*** (defined here as the share of highly educated people employed in low- or medium-skilled jobs) can negatively impact people's well-being by reducing their earnings, job satisfaction and emotional attachment to the workplace (Maynard et al., 2006). There is also evidence to show that migrants who are overqualified have poorer mental health status than other migrants (Chen et al., 2010). In 23 of the 31 countries covered by Figure 3.6, migrants are more likely to be over-qualified than the native-born population. Across the OECD, almost one-third of migrants who hold a tertiary degree are overqualified for their jobs, compared with one-fifth of the native-born.

Figure 3.6. **Over-qualification rates among 15-64 year-olds who are not in education, by migrant status**

Share of highly educated employed persons in low or medium-skilled jobs, 2015 or latest year available



Note: The over-qualification rate is calculated as the share of highly educated people employed in low- or medium-skilled jobs among all employees. The classification of low and medium-skilled jobs is taken from the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) drawn up by the International Labour Organization (ILO, *www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/*). It classifies jobs into three main skill levels: highly skilled – senior managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals (ISCO 1-3); low-skilled – elementary occupations (ISCO 9); and medium-skilled, all other (ISCO 4-8). The United States includes people over 25 who are still in education. The data for Canada, Israel, Norway, Germany, New Zealand, Australia and Turkey are for 2012-13. The OECD average is the simple country average.
Source: OECD/EU (2015). European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2012-13 and 2015. United States: Current Population Survey (CPS) 2012-13. Australian Survey of Education and Work (ASEW) 2013. Canada and New Zealand: Labour Force Surveys 2012-13. Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011.

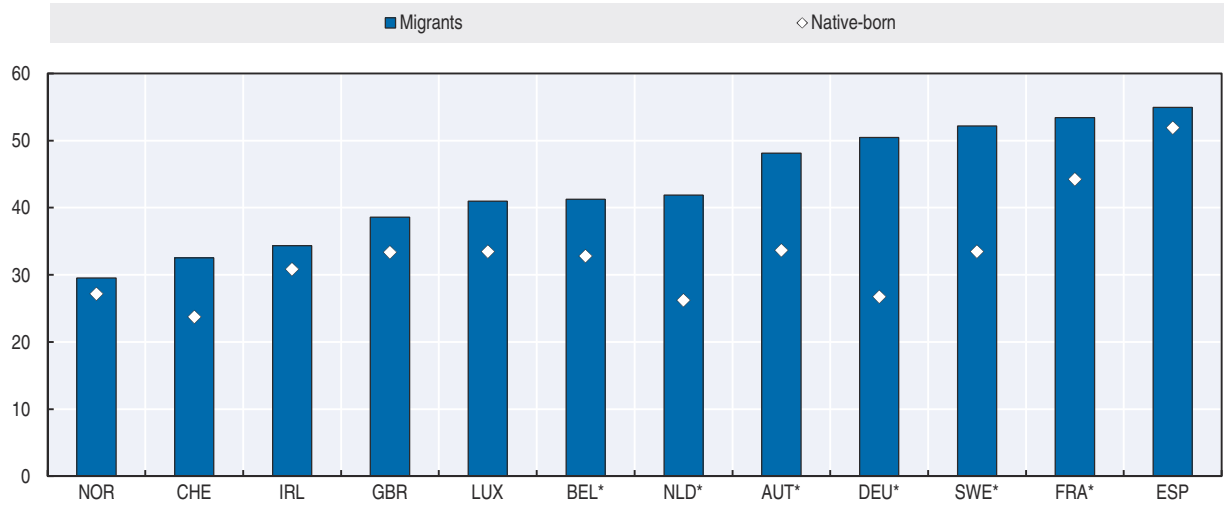
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596496

Migrants are over-represented in low-paid jobs and experience high rates of ***in-work poverty*** (OECD/EU, 2015). In Europe in 2012, the share of foreign-born people in employment and living below the EU poverty threshold was on average double that of native-born people (respectively 17% and 8%; OECD/EU, 2015).

Migrants also face greater exposure to risky or harmful working conditions, which may have implications in terms of lower health outcomes (OECD, 2013). Figure 3.7 shows the results for an index of ***physical health risks*** based on data from the European Survey on Working Conditions (EWCS). A higher score on the index indicates a higher level of physical health risk at work. Across all the European countries covered in Figure 3.7, migrants face riskier employment conditions than do the native-born population. In Sweden, France and Spain, more than half of all migrant employees are employed in jobs that involve one or more risks to their physical health.

Figure 3.7. **Workers' exposure to physical health risks, by migrant status**

Share of employees having a job with exposure to physical health risks, 2015



Note: Physical health risks are assessed using questions on whether the employee has experienced any of the following problems: exposure to loud noise; exposure to high temperature; exposure to low temperature; exposure to vibration; working in tiring and painful position; carrying or moving heavy loads; handling or being in contact with chemical products; breathing in vapours and breathing in smoke, fumes, powder or dust. Each of these questions have been scored (or rescored) on a yes/no scale. A worker is considered as being exposed to physical health risks if he/she responded "yes" to a least one of the items. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average. Only countries with at least 100 foreign-born workers in the sample are shown.

Source: OECD calculations based on Eurofound European Survey on Working condition wave 6, *www.eurofound.europa.eu/surveys*

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Work-life balance

There is no clear pattern of migrants working longer hours, according to the available OECD Labour Force Survey data. However, data on ***atypical working hours*** show that migrants in European countries are more likely than the native-born to do shift work or work on evenings or weekends (Figure 3.8), a pattern that is statistically significant in 16 countries. This may have important implications for migrants' well-being, as shift work, and night work in particular, can interfere with people's ability to maintain family and social relationships, and it can contribute to poorer health by disturbing sleeping and eating habits (Costa, 1996).

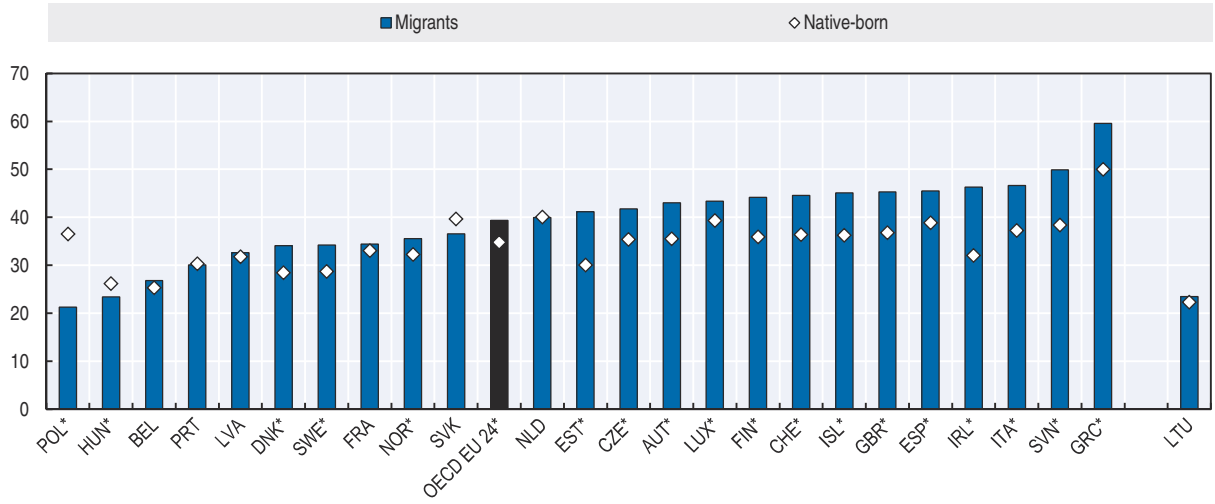
Education and skills

Education and skills are among the most important resources for migrants' well-being. For migrants, as noted in the previous sections, the labour market returns to education tend to be lower compared with the native-born, as qualifications earned in one country are often not directly transferable to, or recognised by, another. The complete change in social context brought about by migration may also mean that migrants lack certain skills and forms of knowledge – such as fluency in the host country language – that are vital for ensuring full integration into the host society, thereby lowering other well-being outcomes.

The ***educational attainment*** of the migrant population varies widely between countries, at least in part due to selection policies used in some OECD countries to grant migrants residency and the right to work. In Canada, Ireland, Luxembourg, Israel, Australia,

Figure 3.8. **Employees working atypical hours, by migrant status**

Share of employees, 2015



Note: An employee is considered to have an atypical working time if he/she does shift work or usually works in the evening or at night or on Saturdays or Sundays. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of the confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on 2015 EU-LFS, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/fr/web/microdata/european-union-labour-force-survey*.

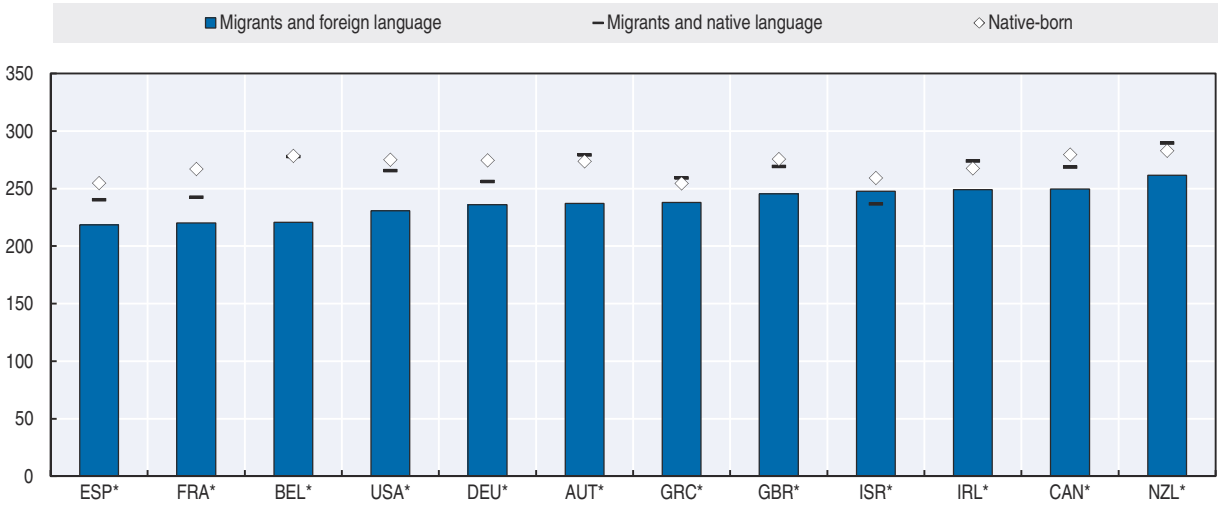
StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596534*

New Zealand and the United Kingdom, around half of all working-age migrants are highly educated, a much higher share than for the native-born populations in these countries, whereas in southern European countries (Italy, Spain, Portugal and Greece) and in France, migrants are more likely than the native-born to have less education. Across the OECD overall, 34% of migrants living in OECD countries are highly educated (i.e. with a tertiary-level degree) compared with 29% for the native-born, while the share of less-educated people (i.e. with no more than a lower-secondary level of education) was similar for migrants and the native-born, at 29% and 28% respectively (OECD/EU, 2015).

Language and ***literacy skills*** are closely interlinked. The results from the OECD Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC), which measures adults' proficiency in different areas (literacy, numeracy and problem-solving in technology-rich environments) show that foreign-born people whose first or second language is not the same as the language of the assessment have lower literacy scores than the native-born in every country (Figure 3.9). By contrast, migrants who speak the native language of the host country (i.e. as a first or second language) sometimes perform as well as (or even better than) native-born, native-tongue speakers, as seen in the Flanders region of Belgium, Austria, Greece, England, Ireland and New Zealand.

For migrants who arrive in the host country as children, their acquisition of education and skills can be interrupted by the process of migration. The younger a migrating child, the less opportunity they will have had to acquire a stock of education and skills before migrating, and the more dependent they will be on circumstances in the host country (especially the quality and inclusiveness of the education system) to develop the skills necessary to flourish. The OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) measures the ***cognitive skills*** of 15-year-old students in core areas (maths, reading and science).

Figure 3.9. **Differences in literacy scores by migrant status and language spoken at home**
Adult population, 2012-15



Note: Foreign language refers to whether the first or second language learned as a child is different from the assessment language. (*) indicates that the difference in scores for migrants with foreign language and the native-born is significantly different at the 90% level. The difference in scores between migrants with foreign language and migrants with native language is also statistically significant at the 90% level in all countries, and the difference in scores between migrants with native language and the native-born is significantly different at the 90% level in Canada, Germany, Spain, France, Ireland, Israel and New Zealand.
Source: Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) (2012, 2015), *www.oecd.org/skills/piaac/*.

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In the 2015 round of PISA, the mean scores of first-generation students were on average 49 points below those of native-born students (Figure 3.10). However, the situation varies across countries. The largest disparities were found in France, Germany, Sweden, Slovenia and Austria, where the gap between migrants and the native-born exceeds 80 points.[11] In Australia, Canada, Ireland and New Zealand, however, children with an immigrant background perform about as well as the native-born. On average, 39% of students with a migrant background are low performers in science against 19% for native-born students (OECD, 2016b).

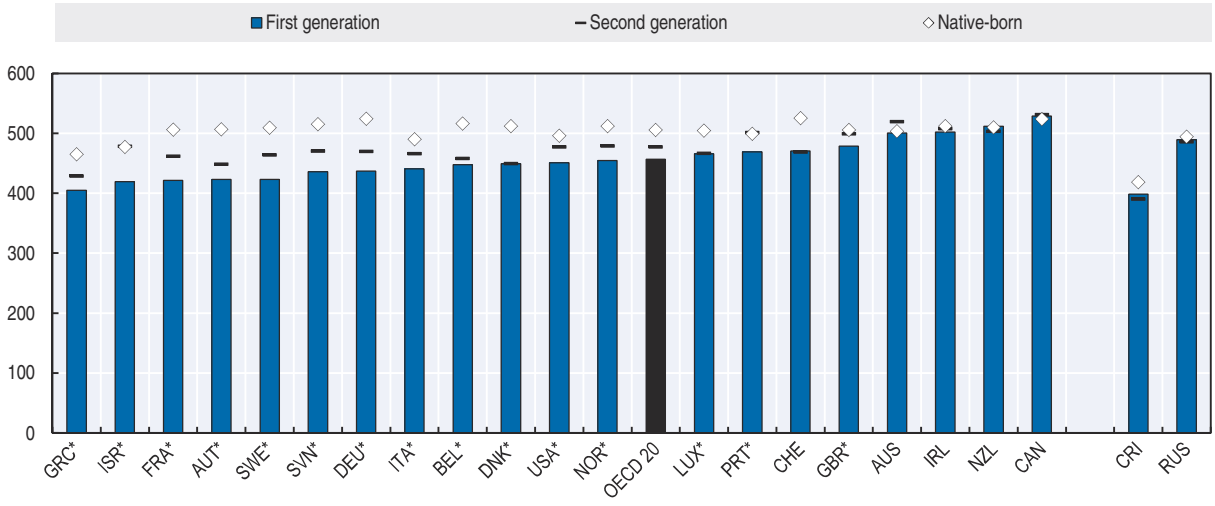
Health status

While migrants are often comparatively healthy when they arrive in host countries – a phenomenon labelled the "healthy migrant effect" by Neuman (2014) – this advantage often tends to deteriorate with time spent in the host country.[12] Migrants may also face particular challenges to their physical and mental health, such as hazardous working conditions, inability to access adequate health-care because of non-coverage by existing insurance schemes, high co-payments, communication difficulties or lack of awareness, and greater vulnerability to mental health problems because of the trauma and stress of the migration process itself (see Box 3.5).

On average, across 24 OECD European countries, migrants are only slightly less likely to ***report having good health*** than the native-born (Figure 3.11). However, large differences can be seen across countries, which seem to be at least partly driven by the age composition of the migrant population, since self-reported health generally declines with age among both migrants and natives. For example, in Latvia, Poland and Estonia – countries where the average age of migrants is comparatively high – native-born people are

Figure 3.10. **Students' performance in science, reading and mathematics, by migrant status**

Mean combined PISA scores, students aged 15, 2015



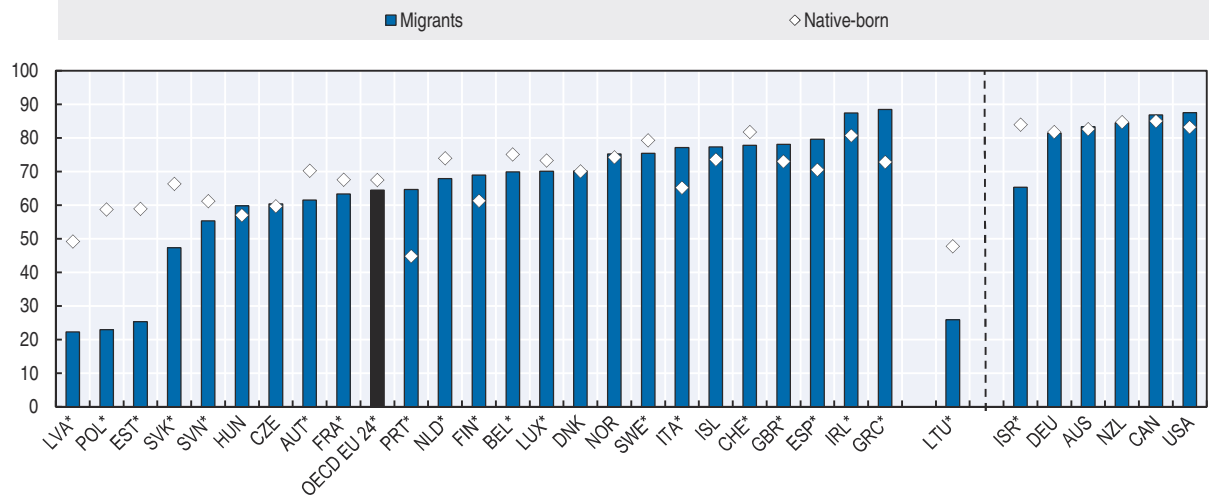
Note: The indicator measures the simple mean score in science, reading and mathematics. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between the combined scores for first-generation and native-born migrant students at the 90% level. For a more detailed breakdown of the statistical significance of the scores for different subjects and between different groups see the notes in the Statlink. Native students are students whose mother or father (or both) was/were born in the country or economy where they sat the PISA test, regardless of whether the student himself or herself was born in that country or economy. First-generation migrant students are foreign-born students whose parents are also both foreign-born. Second-generation migrant students are students born in the country where they sat the PISA test and whose parents are both foreign-born. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on PISA (2015), *www.oecd.org/pisa/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596572

Figure 3.11. **Satisfaction with personal health, by migrant status**

Share of people who report good personal health (left) or being satisfied with their health (right), around 2013



Note: Data for OECD European countries, shown on the left-hand side of the chart, are drawn from the EU-SILC and represent the share of people responding "good" or "very good" to the question: "How is your health in general; would you say it was...". Data for Germany and selected non-European OECD countries, shown on the right-hand side of the chart, are drawn from the Gallup World Poll and refer to the share of people responding "Satisfied" to the question: "Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your personal health?" As the survey questions and methods are different, the data coming from the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll are not directly comparable. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on analysis of the confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on the 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* and Gallup World Poll (2008-2012), *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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more than twice as likely as migrants to report good health. However, in countries with younger migrant populations, such as Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal, migrants are more likely to report good health than the native-born. The right-hand side of the figure shows the share of people saying they are satisfied with their health for selected non-European countries as well as Germany.[13]

High-quality data on health determinants, health status and utilisation of health services by migrants are not available in most countries. However, the evidence that does exist suggests that migrants – and particularly the most vulnerable groups of migrants, such as those seeking asylum – face several challenges (Box 3.5).

Box 3.5. **Summary of key issues and findings on migrants' health outcomes**

Health information systems are generally not designed to identify people by migration status, and where data for migrants' health are available, aggregate results mask important differences in outcomes between different groups in terms of age, sex, country of origin and destination, socio-economic status and type of migration (which can also be said of many other indicators of migrants' well-being). However, according to the available research, some noticeable differences in health status can be observed between migrant and native-born populations across a number of key aspects. Migrants seem to be more vulnerable to diabetes, obesity, certain communicable diseases, maternal and child health problems, occupational health hazards, injuries and mental health problems (Rechel et al., 2011). These differences are explained to some extent by risk factors and disease patterns in migrants' countries of origin, poor living conditions in host countries, precarious and dangerous work, and the psychological stresses that can be associated with various causes and processes of migration.

Barriers to care: Migrants (especially undocumented migrants and asylum seekers) often face legal restrictions on entitlements to health care. Other barriers include user fees; language; lack of familiarity with rights, entitlements and the overall health system; underdeveloped health literacy; administrative obstacles; social exclusion; and direct and indirect discrimination. Unpublished OECD analysis of EU SILC 2013 microdata suggests that on average, across 24 European countries for which data are available, migrants are slightly more likely than the native-born to face unmet needs for medical care, with particularly large differences in Poland, Latvia, Sweden and Estonia. The same data show that 45% of migrants with unmet medical needs give financial affordability as the reason, compared with 35% of the native-born.

Mental health: Stress is a major risk factor for a variety of diseases, including mental illness, and migrants may be exposed to a number of stressors, including pre-migration stressors such as refugee camp internment and catastrophic experiences, as well as post-migration stressors such as separation from family, unemployment, poverty, homesickness, acculturation stress, guilt, isolation, marginality and discrimination (Fenta et al., 2004; Prilleltensky, 2008). Factors reducing the stress of adapting to a new country, and therefore lowering the levels of depression and suicidal ideation, include strong social support networks within family and community, coping skills, knowledge of the new language and culture, how voluntary the choice to migrate was, hope for the future, strong religious beliefs, and a high degree of tolerance towards other cultures (Bhugra et al., 2011; Hovey, 2000; and Hovey and King, 1997).

Source: Rechel et al., 2011 and 2013; Robert and Gilkinson, 2012.

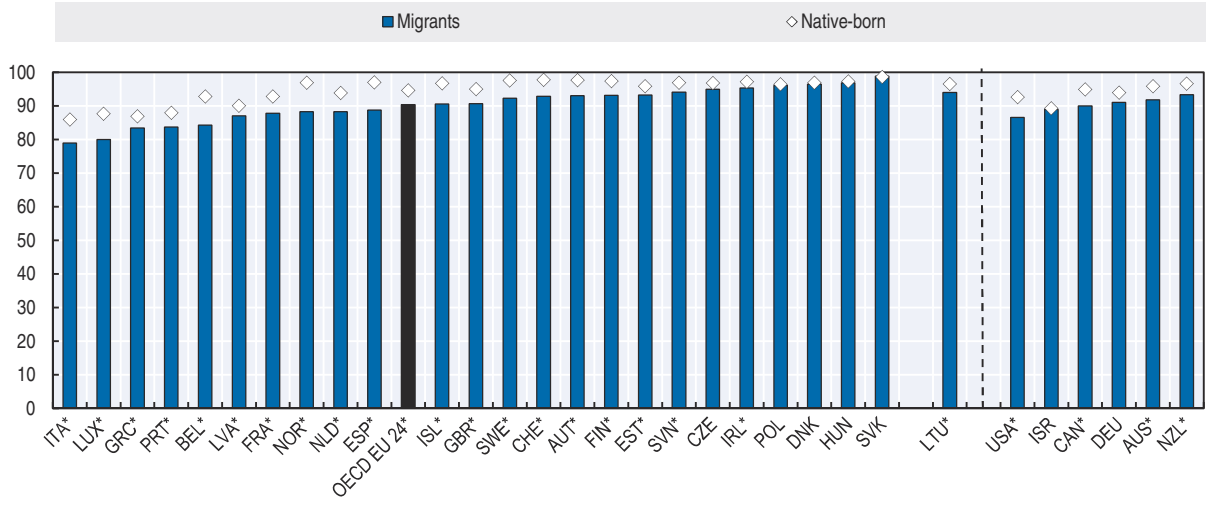
Social connections

For migrants moving away from established relationships in their country of birth, social connections can be transformed, with links between friends, family and acquaintances spanning two or more countries. However, moving to a new country does not necessarily mean starting from scratch: migration can also be undertaken to accompany family or to be reunited with those who migrated at an earlier date. In 2015, family migration was the largest category of entry for new migrants to OECD countries, accounting for almost 40% of all migration (OECD, 2017a). Social networks help to spread news from migrants to people back home about the potential benefits of moving to a given place. They can also facilitate the process of migration itself, allowing someone to travel thousands of kilometres and, within a matter of days, to find accommodation, employment and information about how to navigate life in a country (Fitzgerald, 2014).

Social support is an important aspect of migrants' well-being, acting as a buffer against the potentially isolating and stressful process of migration and helping migrants to establish themselves in a new country. In most OECD countries, migrants are less likely than the native-born to report having someone to count on for help (Figure 3.12). The difference is, however, not large, and in general social support levels are high for both groups: on average, across the 24 European OECD countries for which data are available, 90% of migrants report that they have someone whom they can count on, compared with 95% of the native-born.

Figure 3.12. **Social support, by migrant status**

Share of people aged 16 and over who report having someone whom they can count on for help, around 2013



Note: Data for OECD European countries, shown on the left-hand side of the chart, are drawn from the EU-SILC and represent the share of people reporting "yes" to the question: "Do you have any relatives, friends or neighbours that you can ask for help?" Data for Germany and selected non-European OECD countries, shown on the right-hand side of the figure, are from the Gallup World Poll and refer to the share of people responding "yes" to the question: "If you were in trouble, do you have relatives or friends you can count on to help you whenever you need them, or not?". As the survey questions and methods are different, the data coming from the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll are not directly comparable. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on the 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* and Gallup World Poll (2008-2015), *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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While not direct measures of people's social connections at an individual level, societal characteristics such as tolerance and discriminatory attitudes provide the backdrop for migrants' interactions with others in the host country, shaping their ability to integrate and

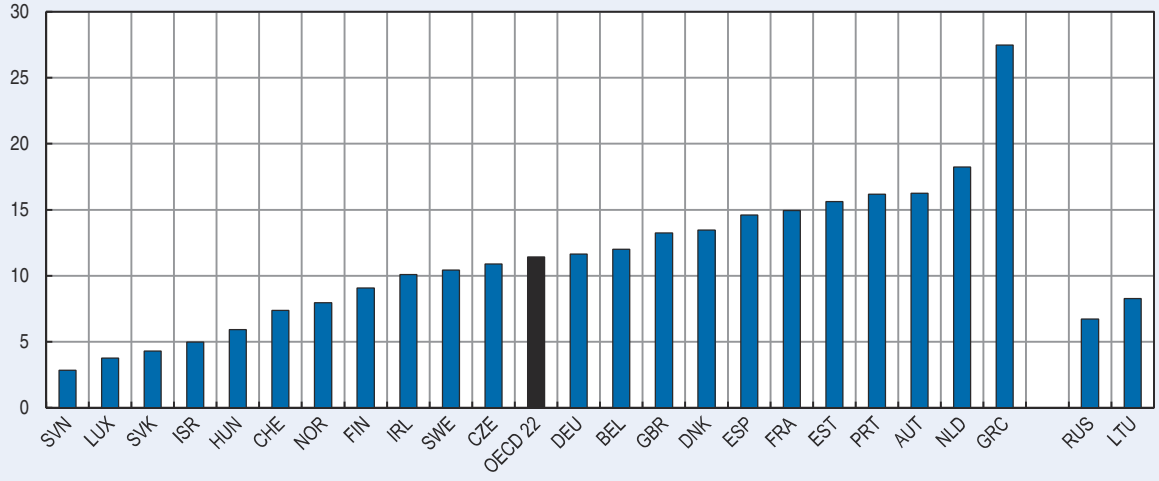
create new relationships outside the migrant group (Box 3.6). In the *How's Life?* framework, tolerance is a co-operative norm that may be considered to be part of a society's social capital, which is an important collective resource for future well-being (see OECD 2015, Chapter 3).

Box 3.6. **Tolerance and discrimination towards migrants in European countries**

The well-being and integration of migrants are shaped by the prevalent attitudes and behaviours towards migrants in the host country. In societies where levels of intolerance and discrimination are high, either towards migrants in general or towards certain ethnic and racial groups to which some migrants may belong, then migrants may experience further barriers to accessing employment, housing or other services. Experience of discrimination and exclusion amongst migrants has been linked to psychological distress, stress and serious mental health effects (Williams et al., 1997; Williams and Harris-Reid, 1999; Liebkind, 1996; Rumbaut, 1995). While measuring discrimination is complex (see OECD, 2012 for a detailed overview), tolerance and inclusion can be measured by subjective reports of perceived discrimination as well as by attitudes towards migrants. On average, across 22 European OECD countries, slightly more than 1 in 10 migrants consider themselves members of a group that experiences discrimination on the basis of race, ethnicity or nationality (Figure 3.13). In Greece, the share reaches over 1 in 4, whereas in Israel, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, Luxembourg, Slovenia and Poland, the share is much lower at around 1 in 20 or less.

Figure 3.13. **Migrants who consider themselves members of a discriminated group in selected European countries**

Share of migrants aged 15 and over, pooled results for surveys conducted between 2004 and 2014



Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. The chart shows the share of the migrant population who 1) respond positively to the question "Would you describe yourself as being a member of a group that is discriminated against in this country?", and 2) also respond positively to the question "On what grounds is your group discriminated against? Race/ethnicity/nationality".
Source: OECD calculations based on European Social Survey, 2004-14, *www.europeansocialsurvey.org/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596629

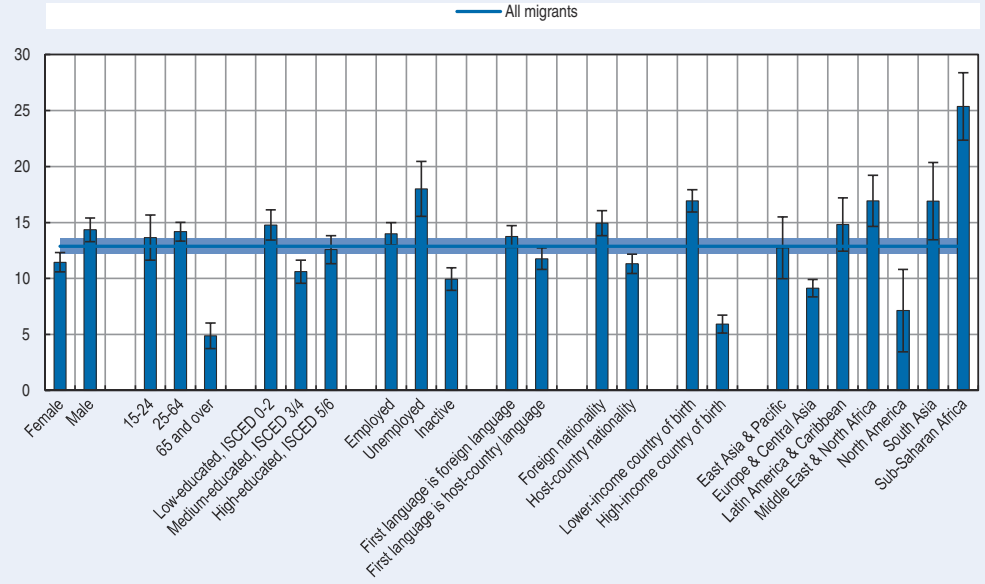
Perceived discrimination varies significantly, depending on different migrant characteristics (Figure 3.14). In European countries, migrants from low-income countries, and from sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, and the Middle East and North Africa, are much more likely to feel that they belong to a group facing discrimination. Other factors that make the experience of discrimination more likely are being male, being unemployed and being unable to speak the host-country language.

Native-born people's prevailing attitudes towards migration can give an indication of how likely communities in host societies are to be welcoming towards migrants and to what extent migrants might find

Box 3.6. **Tolerance and discrimination towards migrants in European countries** *(cont.)*

Figure 3.14. **Migrants who consider themselves members of a discriminated group, by various characteristics in selected European countries**

Share of migrants aged 15 and over, breakdown by gender, age, education, employment status, nationality, income level and region of country of birth, pooled results for surveys conducted between 2004 and 2014

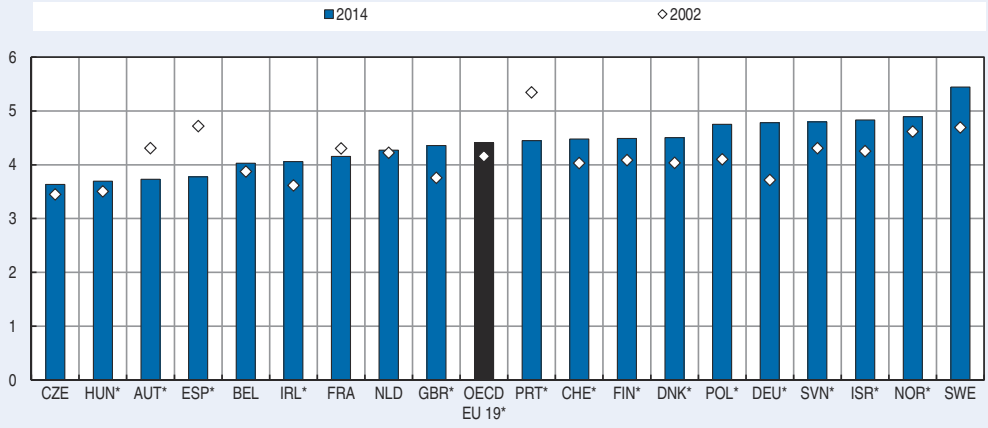


Note: Data aggregated for Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Israel, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Sweden, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. Data refer to the share of the foreign-born population saying they belong to a group that experiences discrimination on the basis of race, ethnicity or nationality. Error bars and the grey band indicate confidence interval at 90%.
Source: OECD calculations based on European Social Survey, 2004-14, *www.europeansocialsurvey.org/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596648

Figure 3.15. **Most native-born people in EU countries believe migrants take out more from society than they put in**

Mean values on a 0 (Generally take out more) to 10 (Generally put in more) scale, 2002 and 2014



Note: The question is worded: "Most people who come to live here work and pay taxes. They also use health and welfare services. On balance, do you think people who come here take out more than they put in or put in more than they take out?". The OECD average is computed as the average across 19 European countries. (*) indicates that the difference in scores between 2014 and 2002 is statistically significant at the 90% level.
Source: OECD calculations based on European Social Survey wave 1 and 7, *www.europeansocialsurvey.org/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596667

Box 3.6. **Tolerance and discrimination towards migrants in European countries** *(cont.)*

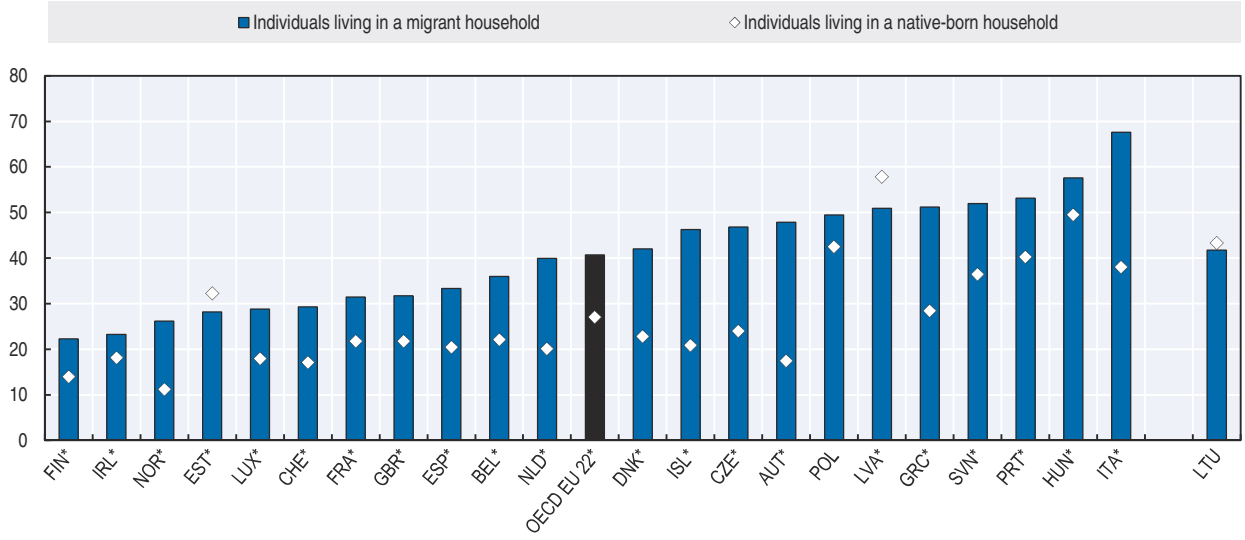
it easy or difficult to establish new social connections with native-born people. Figure 3.15 shows average scores on an 11-point scale for responses to the question "On balance, do you think people who come here take out more than they put in or put in more than they take out?", with reference to taxes, healthcare and other services. A higher score indicates a more favourable attitude towards migration. The Czech Republic, Hungary, Austria and Spain record the most negative attitudes towards migrants, with Sweden reporting the most positive ones. It is worth noting that, while attitudes towards migrants are, on balance, negative in most European countries for which data are available, overall these attitudes became slightly more favourable between 2002 and 2014, although this period predates the European migrant crisis that began in 2015.

Housing

Finding suitable housing is one of the first steps towards making a new country a home. In addition to meeting the basic human need for shelter, decent housing provides a protected refuge from the outside world, enables the development of a sense of identity and attachment – as an individual or as a part of a family – and provides a space to be oneself (Bonnefoy, 2007). On average across OECD countries, 41% of people in migrant households live in ***sub-standard or overcrowded housing*** compared with 27% of people in a native-born household (Figure 3.16).

Figure 3.16. **People living in sub-standard and/or overcrowded housing, by household migration status**

Share of the total population, 2014



Note: Housing is described as sub-standard if the accommodation is too dark, if it does not have an exclusive bathroom (bath- or shower-room and flushing lavatory), or if the roof leaks. A dwelling is considered to be overcrowded if the number of rooms is less than the sum of one living room for the household, one room for the couple responsible for the dwelling (or two rooms if the two people responsible do not form a couple), one room for every two additional adults (people aged 18 and over), and one room for every two children. A household is considered a migrant household if the primary and secondary heads of the household are both migrants. (*) indicates statistically significant differences at 90% between migrants and native-born. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) 2014, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

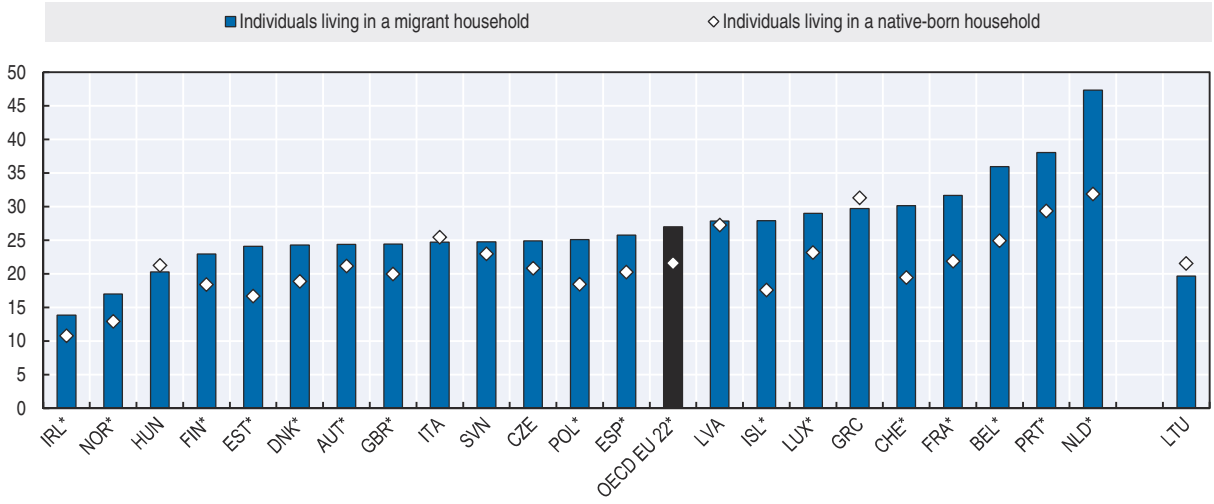
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596686

Environmental quality

Because migrants have, on average, lower incomes than native-born people, they are more likely to settle in neighbourhoods with lower housing costs and poorer environmental quality. On average across 22 European countries, one in four migrants report living in an area with poor ***environmental conditions*** (e.g. with a high exposure to noise or air pollution), compared with one in five natives (Figure 3.17).

Figure 3.17. **People living in poor environmental conditions, by household migrant status**

Share of the population living in homes with self-reported poor environmental conditions, 2014



Note: Environmental conditions are assessed based on the question whether the household has experienced any of the following problems: 1) too much noise in the dwelling from neighbours or from outside (traffic, business, factory, etc.); or 2) pollution, grime or other environmental problems (i.e.: smoke, dust, unpleasant smells or polluted water) in the local area. A household is considered a migrant household if the primary and secondary heads of the household are both migrants. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on 2014 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596705*

Personal security

Across 24 European countries, migrants are only slightly less likely than native-born people to ***declare feeling very or fairly safe*** in their local area (Figure 3.18). The gap is widest in Eastern European countries – Latvia, Estonia, the Slovak Republic and Poland – where migrants are at least 12 percentage points more likely to say that they feel unsafe.

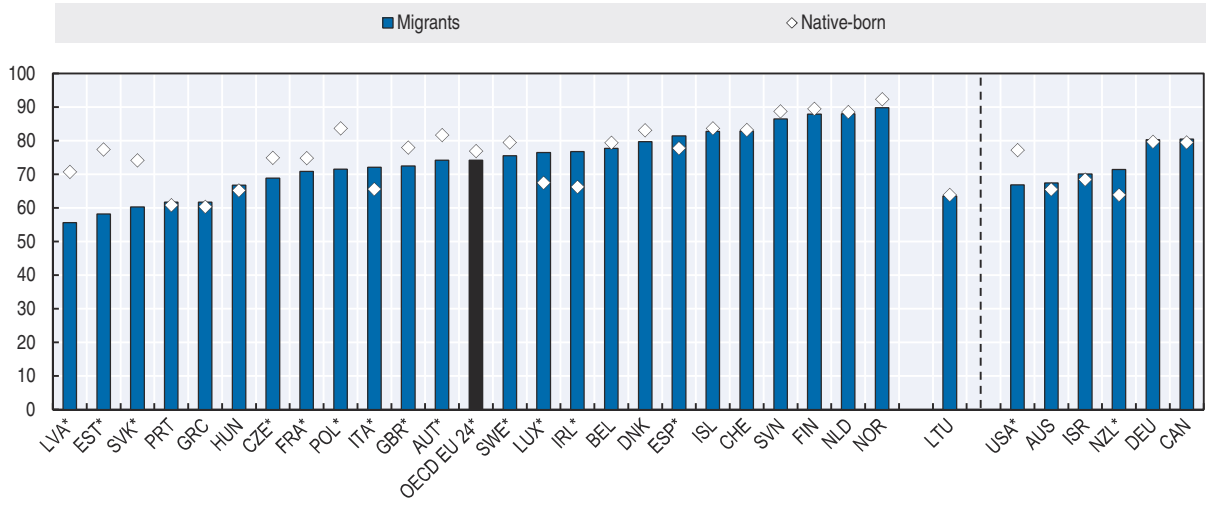
Civic engagement and governance

Understanding migrants' experiences of civic engagement and governance is particularly important as they may often be excluded from certain forms of civic expression (e.g. voting) or from certain public services (e.g. health-care), depending on their legal status (e.g. citizenship, type of residence permit) and their ability to navigate government bureaucracy and procedures. Across the 23 European OECD countries for which sufficient data are available, migrants are generally more likely than native-born people to ***trust the political system*** (Figure 3.19). A variety of factors may drive the slightly higher perceptions of trust among migrants, including a relative comparison with the situation in their country of origin.[14]

Given that migrants can experience a number of legal and social barriers to participating in civic and political life in their country of residence, they may feel less able to have an

Figure 3.18. **Feelings of safety when walking alone at night, by migrant status**

Share of people aged 16 and over saying that they feel safe when walking alone in their neighbourhood at night, around 2013



Note: Data for the EU-SILC (left-hand side of figure) show the share of people answering "very safe" or "fairly safe" to the question: "How safe do you feel walking alone in your area after dark?". Data for Germany and non-European countries (on the right-hand side) refer to the share of people responding "yes" to the question: "Do you feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live?". Because of the difference in the question wording, data from the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll are not directly comparable. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between immigrants and native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* and Gallup World Poll (2008-2015), *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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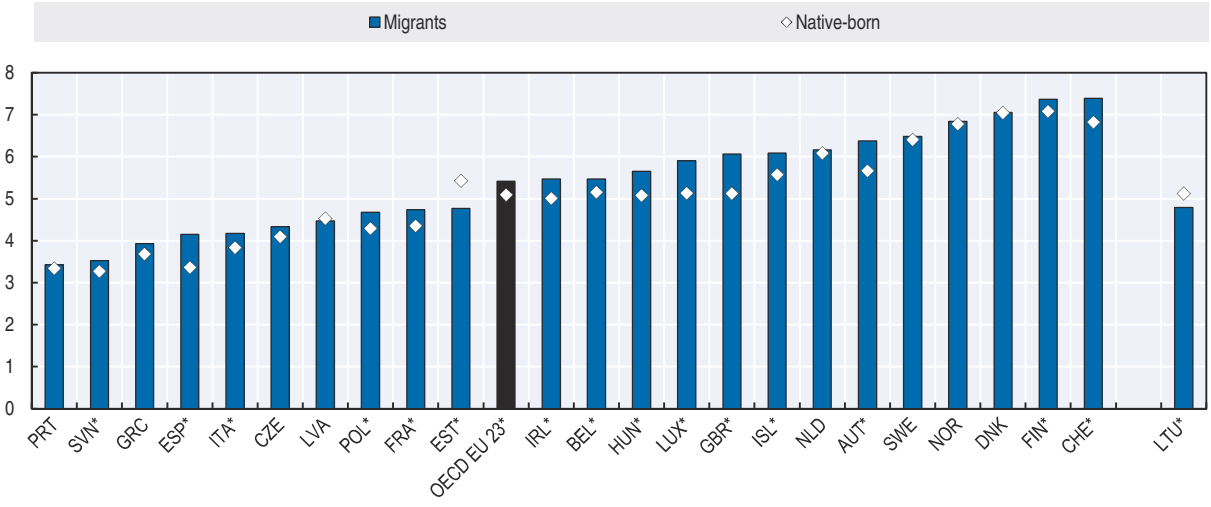
Figure 3.19. **Trust in the political system, by migrant status**

Mean values on a 0-10 scale, 2013



Note: The EU-SILC asks: "How much do you personally trust in the political system? Please answer on a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 means no trust at all and 10 means complete trust." The OECD average is the simple country average. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and the native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%.

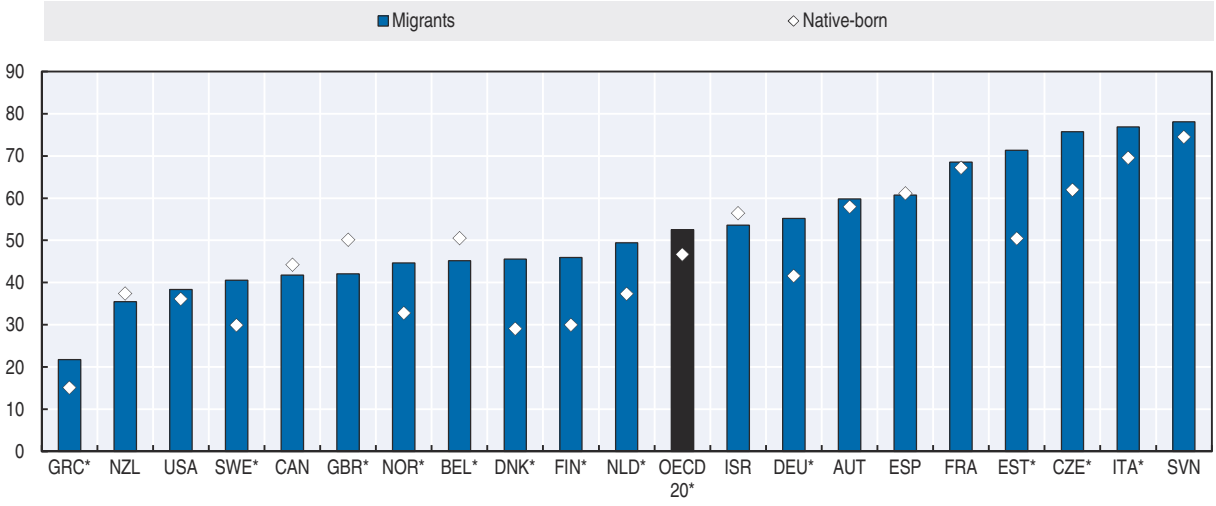
Source: OECD calculations based on 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596743

influence on the policies and actions of the government. Figure 3.20 shows the share of people agreeing with the statement "People like me don't ***have any say in what the government does***". On average across the 21 OECD countries for which data are available, foreign-born people feel less like they have a say in government, relative to native-born people. However, the patterns vary widely among countries. In Italy, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, the Netherlands, Finland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Greece, migrants are generally much less likely to feel they have a say in government decisions.

Figure 3.20. **Having a say in what the government does, by migrant status**

Share of adults believing that they have no say in what the government does, 2012-15



Note: Data refer to the share of people agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement "People like me don't have any say in what the government does". Data for the United Kingdom are limited to England and Northern Ireland; those for Belgium to the Flanders region. The latest available year is 2012-2016 for Greece, Israel, New Zealand and Slovenia; and 2008-2013 for Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States. Adults are defined as people aged 16 to 65. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between immigrants and natives, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) (2012, 2015), *www.oecd.org/fr/competences/piaac/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596762

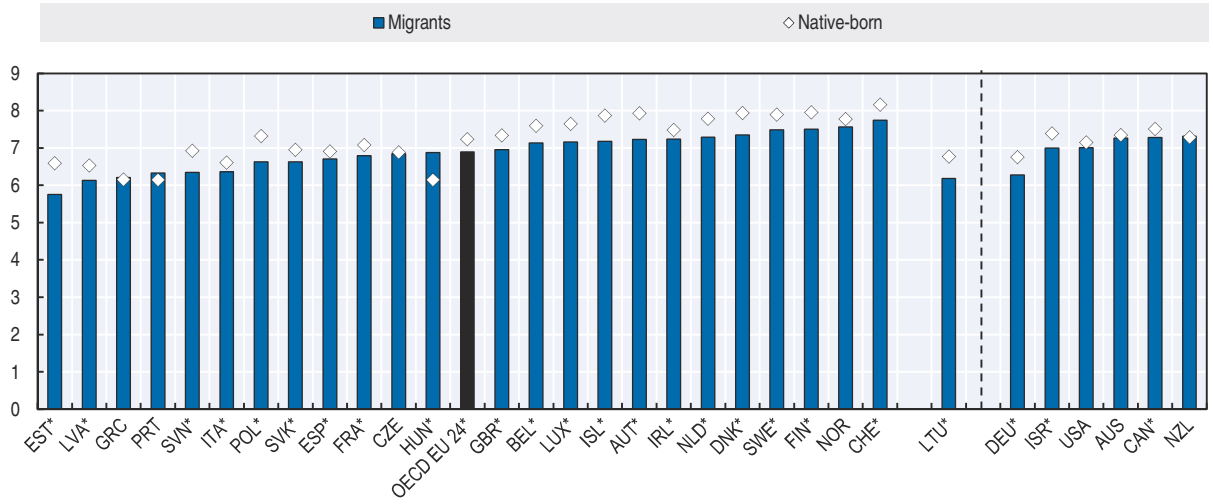
Subjective well-being

Whether and how migration influences how people evaluate and experience their lives depends on a number of factors, including the ease or difficulty of the process of migration itself, the extent to which realities in the host country match pre-migration expectations, and the evolution of migrants' circumstances and aspirations over time.[15] In most European countries, migrants' ***life satisfaction*** is lower than that of the native-born, with the largest differences observed in Estonia, Austria, Poland, Iceland, Lithuania, Denmark and Slovenia. Outside of Europe, in Australia, New Zealand and the United States, however, no significant difference can be seen in life satisfaction scores between the two populations (Figure 3.21).

The determinants of life satisfaction are complex, and differences in the life satisfaction levels of the migrant population across countries are likely to reflect the composition of the migrant population in terms of education level, country of origin, employment status, reasons for migrating, as well as conditions in the country of residence. For example, evidence from the Gallup World Poll indicates that the income level of the country of origin is an important factor in determining whether or not migrants experience increased life satisfaction relative to those who stayed at home (see Box 3.7).

Figure 3.21. **Life satisfaction, by migrant status**

People aged 16 and over, mean values on a 0-10 scale, around 2013



Note: The EU-SILC (on the left-hand of the chart) asks: "Overall, how satisfied are you with your life nowadays? Where 0 is 'not at all satisfied' and 10 is 'completely satisfied'". The Gallup World Poll (on the right-hand side) asks: "Please imagine a ladder with steps numbered from zero at the bottom to ten at the top. Suppose we say that the top of the ladder represents the best possible life for you, and the bottom of the ladder represents the worst possible life for you. On which step of the ladder would you say you personally feel you stand at this time, assuming that the higher the step the better you feel about your life, and the lower the step the worse you feel about it? Which step comes closest to the way you feel?" Due to this difference in the question wording, data from the EU-SILC and Gallup World Poll are not directly comparable. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between immigrants and native-born, based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%. The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD calculations based on 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview* and Gallup World Poll (2008-2015), *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596781

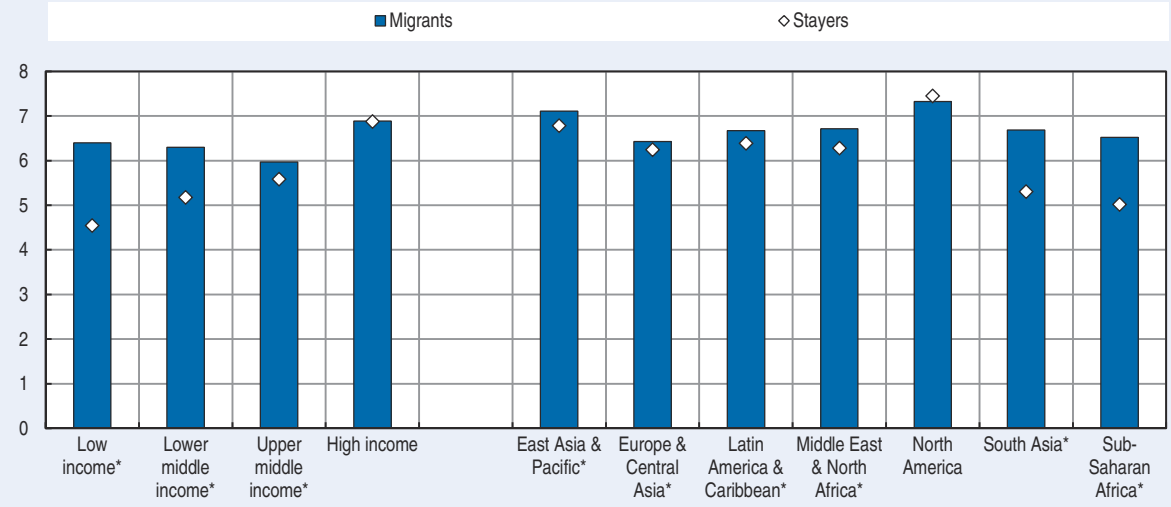
Box 3.7. **Comparing the life satisfaction of migrants with "matched" stayers**

While migrants' life evaluations are generally lower than those of the native-born population, an interesting question is how migrants compare to those who stayed behind in their country of origin. Based on data from the Gallup World Poll, Figure 3.22 shows the life satisfaction scores for a pooled sample of migrants from all OECD countries, broken down by the income level and global region of birth, compared with scores for matched stayers (i.e. people in the origin country with the same sex, age, education, country of origin, religious affiliation and year of interview). Overall, migrants from low-income countries and from sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia experience the biggest gains in life satisfaction compared with matched stayers in these regions, whereas migrants from high-income countries and North America, Europe and Central Asia experience very similar levels of life satisfaction to their peers who stayed at home. These results support findings elsewhere that differences in the income level of migrants' country of birth and country of residence matter a great deal for determining whether migrants' life satisfaction improves after moving country, compared with non-migrants (IOM, 2013; Hendriks, 2015).

Box 3.7. **Comparing the life satisfaction of migrants with "matched" stayers** *(cont.)*

Figure 3.22. **Life satisfaction for migrants and matched stayers, by income level of birth country and region**

Mean values on a 0-10 scale, 2006-15



Note: Matched stayers have been selected by propensity score matching. Matched stayers refer to people in the origin country with the same sex, age, education, country of origin, religious affiliation and year of interview. The results are based on an analysis of data pooled across years (2006-15) and across all migrants residing in OECD countries. (*) indicates a statistically significant difference between migrants and matched stayers at the 90% confidence level.

Source: OECD calculations based on the Gallup World Poll, *www.gallup.com/services/170945/world-poll.aspx*.

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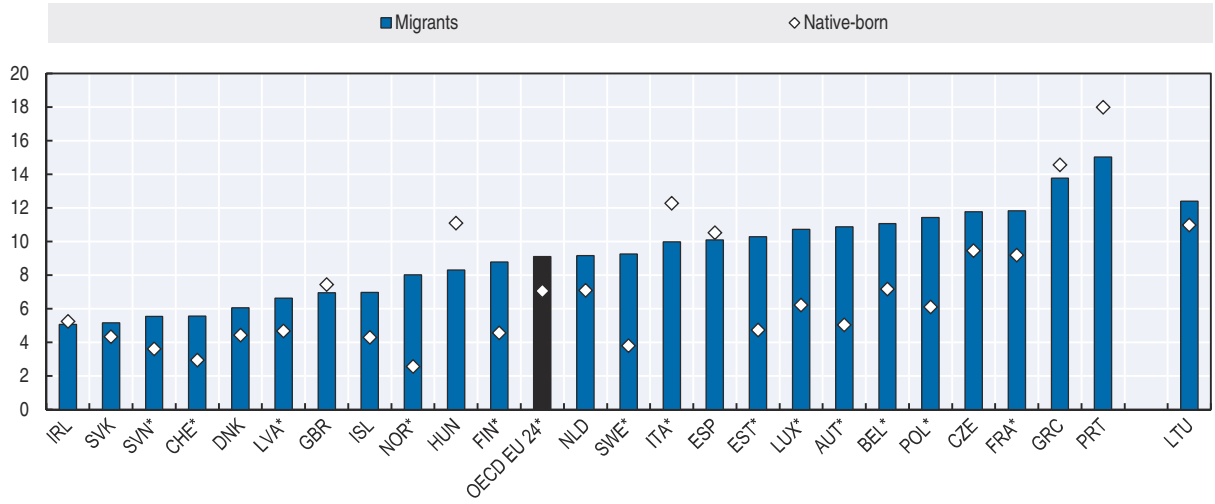
Measures of people's ***positive and negative emotions*** (or affect) give complementary information about how people experience their lives, and they are particularly important for migrants given that they may be exposed to a number of stressors throughout the process of migration and integration (see Box 3.4). In most European countries for which data are available, migrants are generally more likely to report feeling downhearted or depressed all or most of the time in the previous 4 weeks (9% of migrants, compared with 7% of native-born, on average across 24 countries, Figure 3.23). The countries where the largest share of migrants report feeling downhearted and depressed – Portugal, Greece, France and the Czech Republic – also tend to experience relatively high rates of native-born people reporting these emotions. Gaps between migrants and the native-born are very large in Austria, Estonia, Norway, Sweden, Poland and Finland, where around twice as many migrants feel downhearted or depressed, relative to the native-born.

Figure 3.23. **People feeling downhearted or depressed, by migrant status**

Share of people aged 16 and more, 2013



Note: Data refer to the share of people responding "all of the time" or "most of the time" to the question: "How much of the time over the past four weeks have you felt downhearted and depressed?". The OECD average is the simple country average. (*) indicates statistically significant differences between migrants and native-born based on the analysis of confidence intervals at 90%.
Source: OECD calculations based on 2013 EU-SILC, *http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/overview*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596819

The statistical agenda ahead for measuring migrants' well-being

Migration has become a major issue on the international agenda, and better measures of migrants' well-being are needed to support governments' efforts to integrate migrants, address their needs and leverage their capacities. This is an objective that is also central to the UN 2030 Agenda, which commits countries to co-operate internationally to facilitate safe, orderly and regular migration (Target 10.7) and to consider the needs of migrant workers (as well as other groups) with respect to economic growth and decent work (Goal 8). Migration status is also one of several ways in which SDG indicators should be disaggregated, according to Goal 17 (UN, 2015).

The measurement of well-being outcomes by migrant status is very challenging for official statistics. Obtaining accurate and detailed information about inflows and outflows and defining and measuring the stock of migrants within a country is a challenge in itself. Understanding what happens to migrants after they arrive in the host country and how the various outcomes relevant for their well-being evolve over time and differ from those of other groups (or between different groups of migrants) raises an additional series of issues. While administrative data sources are important for understanding migrant flows and stocks, they generally cannot provide the breadth and detail of information necessary for understanding well-being outcomes and drivers. Household surveys are the most appropriate vehicle for measuring well-being outcomes across a range of dimensions, but they are often not well suited to evaluating the migrant population, for reasons discussed below. A number of key priorities for the statistical agenda ahead can be highlighted:

- One of the most serious obstacles to measuring well-being outcomes for migrants and for understanding the role of different factors and characteristics in shaping these outcomes is the small sample size for migrants in most surveys. As migrants tend both to account for a relatively small share of the population in OECD countries and to live in geographically segregated areas of the country, a sample design that is appropriate for

the overall population may not be sufficient to capture information about migrant groups. Adapting the methodology of existing surveys, such as by boosting sample sizes, will improve the representativeness of the migrant sample obtained (Šteinbuka, 2009). Improving survey designs to reduce non-response rates will also need to be considered. The European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and the European Survey of Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) have both included special ad-hoc modules on migrants' outcomes in recent years, and these experiences can inform improvements to the measurement of migrant outcomes in other surveys and countries.

- Meeting the need for more detailed and granular data on migrant outcomes will also require the inclusion of additional survey questions that allow identifying different sub-groups. In addition to the important demographic and socio-economic variables that are usually included in household surveys (e.g. age, gender, educational attainment), some migrant-specific questions should be considered. These include the country of birth, duration of stay and reasons for migrating. The experiences of countries that are already using such variables – for example, from 2017 onwards the German Labour Force Survey will include a question on reasons for migrating – could provide useful lessons for others.
- In cases where it would simply be too difficult to modify the methodology of an existing survey, and where resources allow, developing a special, targeted survey of migrant outcomes could be considered, as was done in Italy through the Social Conditions and Integration of Foreign Citizens (SCIF) survey conducted by the Italian Statistical Office, Istat.
- Special efforts are needed to ensure that data collections include the most vulnerable migrants, and especially those who are unlikely to be reached through standard household surveys. Some countries have made advances in targeting specific migrant groups who may be at greater risk of well-being deprivations; this is the case of Australia's Building a New Life in Australia survey, which focuses on the experiences of recently arrived humanitarian migrants. Even more innovative approaches will be needed to identify migrants who are not generally covered by official sources, such as undocumented and irregular migrants, trafficked persons, refugees and asylum seekers, and short-term and circular migrants. The Suitland Working Group Taskforce of the Conference of European Statisticians has begun to work on identifying such migrants (UNECE, 2012), but designing and implementing surveys to collect information on well-being outcomes for such groups may be beyond the current capacity of national statistical offices.
- More longitudinal data are needed to understand the evolution of different well-being outcomes for individual migrants over time. Where possible, more national longitudinal surveys of migrant outcomes should be carried out, and efforts to harmonise surveys across countries could help to facilitate international comparisons of long-term data efforts. Many countries now have experience with longitudinal migrant surveys, including Australia, Canada, France, New Zealand and the United States. Efforts to identify best practices and to share experiences across countries could help statistical offices to implement and maintain such surveys so as to allow international comparisons.

Harmonised and detailed official data are still lacking in a number of key areas of migrants' well-being. While data on employment and education (and to a lesser extent, income and wealth) allow for the analysis of a fairly wide range of migrant outcomes, internationally comparable data from official sources are not available for assessing migrants' health status, personal security, civic engagement and governance, environmental

quality, social connections or subjective well-being. While in for some dimensions, this is a reflection of a more general lack of measurement (such as social connections and subjective well-being), in others such as health or personal security it is a result of inadequate or non-harmonised variables to identify migrants in the source data. Efforts are needed to improve the availability of harmonised and detailed official data in these areas.

Notes

1. Eurobarometer surveys show that the share of people concerned by immigration has steadily increased since 2013, and rose by 20 percentage points between spring and autumn 2015, making immigration the most commonly-cited concern of Europeans by autumn 2015, ahead of terrorism, the economic situation, unemployment and crime (EC, 2015).
2. For an overview of OECD work on migration see: *www.oecd.org/migration-insights/*. In particular, the publication *Settling In: Indicators of Migrant Integration* (OECD, 2012; OECD/EU, 2015) examines selected outcomes for migrants and their children across a number of the dimensions of the *How's Life?* framework, including the labour market, job quality, education, income, housing, health, civic engagement and social cohesion. These dimensions correspond to the European framework of the "Zaragoza indicators" of migrant integration (EC, 2013).
3. Previous OECD work has defined six categories of permanent migration: 1) workers; 2) accompanying families of workers; 3) family reunification and formation; 4) humanitarian; 5) free movement (e.g. within the free movement area of the European Union); and 6) "other", which includes retirees, persons of independent means, ancestry-based migrant entry and other types of migration not captured by the other categories (Fron et al., 2008). In 2015, the categories with the most entries for new migrants to OECD countries were family reunification, accounting for 32% of all migrants, and free movement, at 32.6%. The remaining third of migration was divided between workers (11.2%), humanitarian migrants (12.8%), accompanying families of workers (6.6%) and "other" (5.2%, OECD, 2017a). In addition, there are many different types of temporary migration, including seasonal workers, intra-company transfers, working holiday makers and international students (OECD, 2016a).
4. The censuses or administrative records that contain the most detailed information on migrants in terms of provenance, reason for migrating and key demographic variables do not tend to include information on well-being outcomes beyond income, labour market status and education. Some OECD countries, such as Australia and Canada, are making use of integrated datasets that link administrative data with censuses or other surveys, such as the 2011 Australian Census and Migrants Integrated Dataset (ACMID), the Australian Personal Income Tax and Migrants Integrated Dataset (PITMID), and the Canadian Longitudinal Immigration Database (which combines landing information from Citizenship and Immigration administrative files with tax records from the Canada Revenue Agency). These approaches have the potential to provide detailed information on migrant outcomes, but are not used in the majority of OECD countries, and currently only cover a narrow range of outcomes.
5. It is very difficult to estimate the size of the undocumented or unauthorised migrant population, and no standard methodology exists. However, estimates range from 3.4% of the total population in the United States (Pew Research Center, 2016) to between 7 and 13% of the foreign-born population in the European Union (CLANDESTINO, 2009).
6. Examples of such surveys include: the 1987 survey done for the Mexican Migration Project, which interviewed migrants and stayers in the United States and Mexico (Massey et al., 1987); the 1993 REMUAO survey that covered 8 sending and receiving countries in Africa; the survey Push and Pull Factors in International Migration, carried out between 1994 and 1999 covering 5 sending countries in Africa and 3 host countries in Europe (EC, 2000); and the MAFE research project launched in 2008 that focuses on migration between sub-Saharan Africa and Europe (*www.mafeproject.com*).
7. Examples include the Longitudinal Survey of Migrants to Australia (LSIA), launched in 1994 and replicated in 2000 and 2004; Building a New Life in Australia (BNLA), launched in 2013 and focussing on humanitarian migrants; the Canadian Longitudinal Survey of Migrants, launched in 2001; the United States New Migrant Survey, launched in 2003; the Longitudinal Immigration Survey: New Zealand (LisNZ), launched in 2004; and France's Longitudinal Survey of the Integration of First-Time Arrivals (ELIPA), launched in 2010.
8. In general, there are three different ways of counting the migrant population of a country. A migrant can be: 1) someone whose country of birth is different to their country of usual residence; 2) someone

whose nationality is different to their country of usual residence; or 3) someone who changes their country of usual residence for a period of at least a year, so that the country of destination becomes the country of usual residence. Each approach has strengths and weaknesses: for example, defining migrants as the foreign-born population is consistent and objective, but it classifies as migrants people who were born abroad but who are still considered nationals of the country in which they live (such as children born to armed forces personnel stationed abroad). Defining migrants as nationals excludes people who have changed their country of residence and acquired the nationality of their home country. People may also give self-reported nationalities on the basis of cultural affiliation rather than legal status. The third definition (the United Nations definition of permanent migration) poses the problem that people's intentions regarding their length of stay in a country may change.

9. *Settling In 2015* used the Eurostat definition of poverty, rather than the OECD definition of household income less than 50% of the national median income.

10. Skills mismatch is a complicated issue as it is very hard to compare degrees and work experience between different countries. The ability to speak the host-country language is also an important factor, as the skills and qualifications of migrants who are not proficient in the host country language are less transferable and less valuable to employers.

11. As a point of comparison, the difference between the lowest-performing and highest-performing OECD countries in the combined maths, reading and science assessments was 125 points in 2015 (see the online data annex that supports Chapters 1 and 5 of this volume *www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2017_how_life-2017-en*).

12. The drivers of this pattern are unclear. Disparities between migrant and native residents may differ across dimensions of health, as well as by gender and country of residence. Also, statistical analyses may be biased downward because they fail to consider sick migrants who return to their country of origin (Neuman, 2014).

13. EU-SILC microdata were not available for Germany, meaning that it is not possible to calculate the breakdown by migrant status based on EU-SILC data.

14. People with low levels of confidence in the national government of their country of birth are more likely to decide to migrate (Nikolova and Graham, 2015). Political refugees in particular may have fled state-sanctioned violence and oppression and arrived in their new country with the hope of a life of greater civic freedom and democratic rights, upheld by responsible government.

15. Few surveys allow exploring the complexity of migrants' subjective well-being in detail, but there are exceptions. For example, the Longitudinal Survey of Immigrants to Canada asked a series of questions on migrants' subjective perceptions of their lives following migration. The vast majority of respondents felt that, despite numerous challenges (e.g. finding an adequate job and learning a new language being the most-cited), their quality of life had improved as a result of migration, and they would make the same decision to move if they had to do it again (Statistics Canada, 2007).

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Specialised Surveys and Databases on Migrant Outcomes

Australian Census and Migrants Integrated Dataset (ACMID): *www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Lookup/3417.0.55.001Main+Features12011*.

Australian Personal Income Tax and Migrants Integrated Dataset (PITMID): *www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/1351.0.55.060*.

Building a New Life in Australia (BNLA): *www.dss.gov.au/our-responsibilities/families-and-children/programmes-services/building-a-new-life-in-australia-bnla-the-longitudinal-study-of-humanitarian-migrants*.

Canadian Longitudinal Immigration Database: *www23.statcan.gc.ca/imdb/p2SV.pl?Function=getSurvey&SDDS=5057*.

IAB-BAMF-SOEP Refugee Survey: *www.diw.de/de/diw_02.c.244287.de/ueber_uns/menschen_am_diw_berlin/mitarbeiter/innen.html?id=diw_01.c.538695.en*.

IPUMS Integrated Public-Use Microdata Series: *www.ipums.org./*

Longitudinal Immigration Survey: New Zealand (LisNZ): *www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/population/Migration/lisnz.aspx*.

Longitudinal Survey of the Integration of First-Time Arrivals (ELIPA), France: *www.immigration.interieur.gouv.fr/Info-ressources/Donnees-statistiques/Etudes-et-publications/Enquete-Longitudinale-sur-l-Integration-des-Primo-Arrivants-ELIPA/Enquete-Longitudinale-sur-l-Integration-des-Primo-Arrivants-ELIPA/ELIPA-Longitudinal-Survey-of-the-Integration-of-First-time-Arrivals*.

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National Immigrant Survey of Spain (Encuesta Nacional de Inmigrantes): *www.ine.es/en/daco/daco42/inmigrantes/inmigra_cues_en.htm*.

Social Condition and Integration of Foreign Citizens Survey, Italy: *www.istat.it/en/archive/191097*.

Trajectoires et Origines, France (National Diversity Survey, French only): *www.ined.fr/en/publications/grandes-enquetes/trajectoires-et-origines/*.

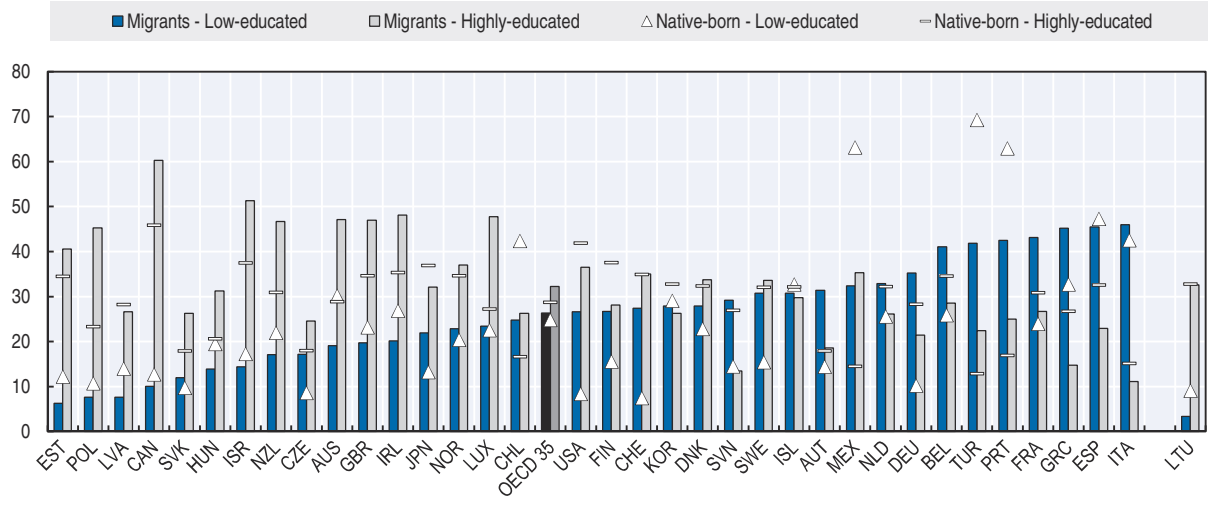
United States New Migrant Survey: *http://nis.princeton.edu/*.

ANNEX 3.A

Additional charts on measuring migrants' well-being

Figure 3.A.1. **Education levels among native- and foreign-born 15-64 year-olds**

Percentages of foreign- and native-born populations with either low or high levels of education, 2012-13



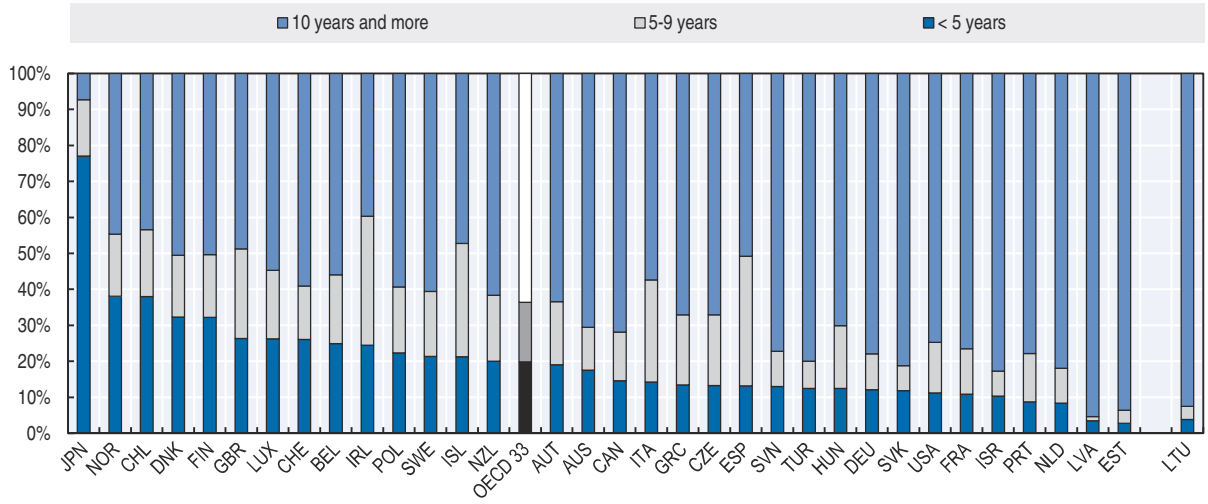
Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. Low-educated refers to people with a level of educational attainment corresponding to the level 0-2 ISCED (corresponding roughly to primary education and below) and high-educated refers to level 5-6 ISCED (corresponding roughly to tertiary education and above). Japanese data for the migrant population refer to non-nationals rather than the foreign-born. Countries are ranked by the share of the migrant population with a low educational attainment.

Source: OECD/EU (2015), European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2012-13. United States: Current Population Survey (CPS) 2013. Australian Survey of Education and Work (ASEW) 2013. Canada and New Zealand: Labour Force Survey 2012-13. Israel: Labour Force Survey 2011. Chile: Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional (CASEN) 2011. Mexico: Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE) 2012. Japanese Population Census 2010. Korea: Foreign Labour Force Survey 2012-13 and Economically Active Population Survey of Korean nationals (EAPS) 2012-13.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596838

Figure 3.A.2. **Distribution of migrants aged 15 to 64, by duration of stay**

Percentage of migrants, 2012-13



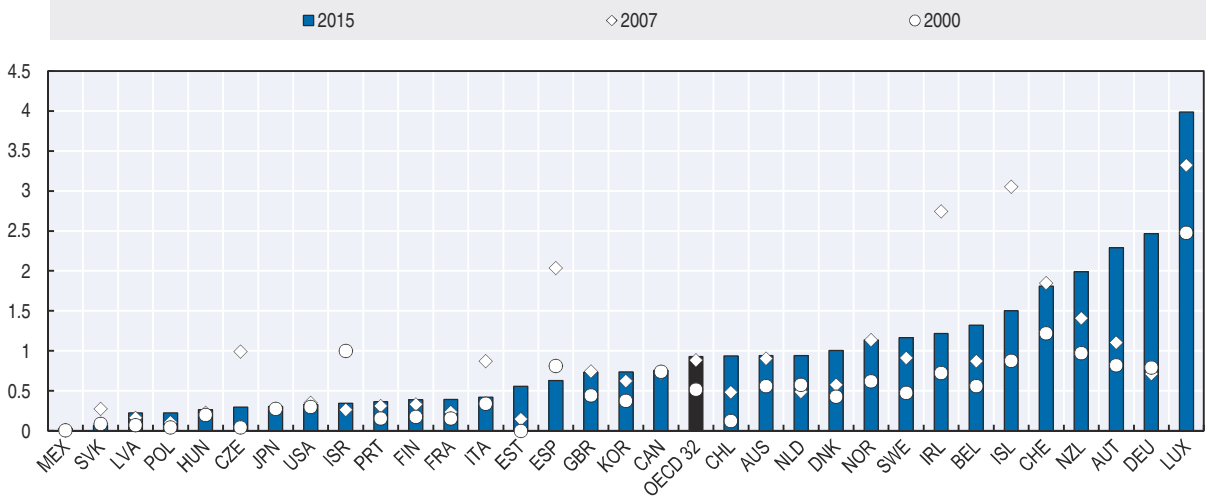
Note: The OECD average is the simple country average. Japanese data for the migrant population refer to non-nationals rather than the foreign-born.

Source: OECD/EU (2015), European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) 2012-13. American Community Survey (ACS) 2012. Israeli Labour Force Survey 2011. OECD Database on Immigrants in OECD Countries (DIOC) 2010-11 for the other non-European countries, *www.oecd.org/els/mig/oecdmigrationdatabases.htm*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596857

Figure 3.A.3. **Annual Inflows of migrants**

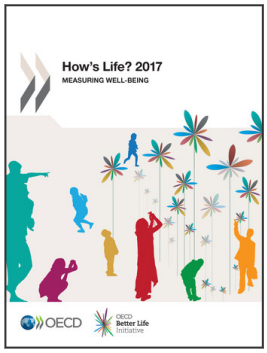
Percentage of the total population



Note: The OECD average is the simple country average.

Source: OECD database on immigrants, *www.oecd.org/els/mig/oecdmigrationdatabases.htm*, and United Nations database, World Population Prospects *https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933596876



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