



Working Paper Series

**Occupational Regulation,
Institutions, and Migrants' Labor
Market Outcomes**

Maria Koumenta

Mario Pagliero

Davud Rostam-Afschar

ECINEQ 2022 606

Occupational Regulation, Institutions, and Migrants' Labor Market Outcomes

Maria Koumenta

Queen Mary, University of London

Mario Pagliero

University of Turin, Collegio Carlo Alberto, CEPR

Davud Rostam-Afschar

University of Mannheim, University of Hohenheim

Abstract

We study how licensing, certification and unionisation affect the wages of natives and migrants and their representation among licensed, certified, and unionized workers. We provide evidence of a dual role of labor market institutions, which both screen workers based on unobservable characteristics and also provide them with wage setting power. Labor market institutions confer significant wage premia to native workers (3.9, 1.6, and 2.7 log points for licensing, certification, and unionization respectively), due to screening and wage setting power. Wage premia are significantly larger for licensed and certified migrants (10.2 and 6.6 log points), reflecting a more intense screening of migrant than native workers. The representation of migrants among licensed (but not certified or unionized) workers is 14% lower than that of natives. This implies a more intense screening of migrants by licensing institutions than by certification and unionization.

Keyword: Occupational regulation, Licensing, Certification, Unionization, Migration, Wages

JEL Classification: J61, J31, J44, J71, J16

Occupational Regulation, Institutions, and Migrants' Labor Market Outcomes*

Maria Koumenta[†]
Mario Pagliero[‡]
Davud Rostam-Afschar[§]

January 27, 2022

Abstract

We study how licensing, certification and unionisation affect the wages of natives and migrants and their representation among licensed, certified, and unionized workers. We provide evidence of a dual role of labor market institutions, which both screen workers based on unobservable characteristics and also provide them with wage setting power. Labor market institutions confer significant wage premia to native workers (3.9, 1.6, and 2.7 log points for licensing, certification, and unionization respectively), due to screening and wage setting power. Wage premia are significantly larger for licensed and certified migrants (10.2 and 6.6 log points), reflecting a more intense screening of migrant than native workers. The representation of migrants among licensed (but not certified or unionized) workers is 14% lower than that of natives. This implies a more intense screening of migrants by licensing institutions than by certification and unionization.

Keywords Occupational regulation · Licensing · Certification · Unionization · Migration · Wages

JEL Classification J61 · J31 · J44 · J71 · J16

1. Introduction

How do labor market institutions impact the labour market outcomes of migrant workers? We consider three major labor market institutions, namely occupational licensing, certification, and unionization. Occupational licensing entails that only those who meet certain prescribed standards of competence (usually in the form of educational credentials, work experience and examinations) can legally practice an occupation. Licensing affects a sizeable proportion of the workforce; about 22 percent of workers in the EU are required to hold a license to do their job (Koumenta and Pagliero 2019), while estimates for the US range between 20% (Gittleman et al. 2018) and 29% (Kleiner and Krueger 2013). In the case of certification, practitioners may voluntarily apply to have their skills certified by a state-appointed regulatory body or a professional

*We gratefully acknowledge comments and suggestions of conference participants at the AEA Annual Meeting 2021 and the EALE 2021 Annual Conference. The usual disclaimer applies. Declarations of interest: none.

[†]Queen Mary, University of London (e-mail: m.koumenta@qmul.ac.uk),

[‡]University of Turin, Collegio Carlo Alberto, CEPR (e-mail: mario.pagliero@unito.it),

[§]University of Mannheim, 68131 Mannheim, Germany, University of Hohenheim (e-mail: rostam-afschar@uni-mannheim.de),

association (Kleiner 2006). Certification may provide access to a protected title, but it is not a legal requirement to practice the occupation. Currently about 22% of workers in the EU hold a professional certification related to their main job.¹ Finally, unionization is the most well-known labor market institution and it has been the subject of a vast literature. Membership is about 23% in the EU (Fulton 2015) and 11% in the US according to the 2020 union membership rate reported by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

We provide a theoretical framework for comparing migrants and natives in terms of wages and representation among licensed, certified, and unionized workers. Our approach is based on two characteristics of institutions: whether they confer wage setting power to their members and whether they screen their members based on their individual characteristics (see Table 1). The systematic comparison of migrants and natives across institutions sheds light on three mechanisms by which institutions may affect the labor market outcomes of natives and migrants. The first is wage setting power. Occupational licensing confers legal monopoly power to an organized profession, which has exclusive rights over specific activities. Through their ability to control entry into the occupation, insiders can affect labor supply and thus wages. Similarly, by organising in collective bargaining, unionization also confers wage setting power to its members. However, certification does not provide exclusive rights to specific activities, nor does it engage in collective bargaining, so it does not give any wage setting power to its members.

The second and less studied mechanism is screening. Occupational licensing regulates entry into a profession by selecting its members based on individual characteristics, often through professional exams, educational and experience requirements. In the absence of licensing, these individual characteristics are typically unobservable (or very costly to verify) to employers and consumers. They are also typically unobservable to researchers. For example, workers are heterogeneous in quality, or productivity, which can be assessed by specific professional exams, but it is otherwise not observable. Moreover, migrants differ from natives in terms of cultural characteristics, educational credentials, local knowledge, and language proficiency. All these variables are relevant – to some extent – for admission into licensed professions. Obtaining a license thus implies having passed a screening process and provides a signal of individual characteristics. Certification also screens workers according to their individual characteristics, although the entry standards may be different. Becoming a union member on the other hand does not involve any screening based on individual characteristics.²

The third mechanism is institutional discrimination. Labour market institutions may favor or discourage the labor market integration of migrants, generating systematic differences between workers who have an

¹For the US, figures range from 6% (Kleiner and Krueger 2013) to 8% (Gittleman et al. 2018). However, definitions differ significantly across studies. The former study only focuses on government certification and the later only on private certification, while estimates for the EU include both government and private certification (Koumenta and Pagliero 2019).

²In this paper, we focus on screening based on characteristics such as education, work experience, and ability. This is different from the entry restrictions that may be associated with the union shop (also known as closed-shop).

institutional affiliation (a license, certification, or union membership) and those who do not.³ We define institutional discrimination as a residual, after accounting for screening and wage setting power.

TABLE 1
Labor market institutions

	No Screening of members	Screening of members
No wage setting power	Unregulated market	Certification
Wage setting power	Unionization	Licensing

Notes: The table compares labor market institutions according to the presence of screening mechanisms and wage setting power.

We propose an additive decomposition of the effects of wage setting power, screening and discrimination. We exploit the fact that benefits from wage setting power are shared by all licensed and unionized workers. However, the benefits from screening are enjoyed only by workers who meet the standards for obtaining a license or certification. Finally, the effects of discrimination by labor market institutions (whether positive or negative) are shared by licensed, certified, and unionized migrant workers, but not by migrant workers without an institutional affiliation.

Overall, our results provide evidence of a dual role of institutions, which screen workers according to unobservable characteristics and provide them with wage setting power. We show that both mechanisms are important in explaining the labor market outcomes of migrants. To our knowledge, this is the first paper that decomposes the effects of institutions into these two channels. Since the academic and policy debate on occupational regulation has mainly focused on the wage setting power of institutions, this paper contributes by highlighting the role of screening, which has not received much attention in the literature.⁴

We use data on a nationally representative sample covering the labour force within the EU-28 member states providing detailed information on occupational regulation and migration. The data discern, in a way comparable across all EU states, whether an individual holds a license to legally practice an occupation, or a certification – which is not legally required– or union membership. The data further include a rich set of individual characteristics such as age, gender, education, and wage. In the EU, workers with the same individual characteristics, in the same industry and type of occupation face different types of regulations

³For example, well-documented in the literature are unions’ exclusionary practices against migrants (Lucio and Perrett 2009), as well as the hurdles that migrants face to enter regulated occupations due to the difficulties in getting recognition of foreign qualifications (Sweetman et al. 2015).

⁴The notion of screening *by* institutions discussed in this paper is different from the notion of self-selection into occupations of the Roy (1951) model, which has been adapted to self-selection into migration in contributions by Borjas (1991, 1987). In this type of models migrants self-select based unobservable characteristics. In contrast, in this paper, we are concerned with institutions selecting workers by setting entry standards, which are formal requirements to obtain a license or certification.

across countries (and sometimes regions). This generates significant variability in regulation that can be used in the empirical analysis.

We find that labor market institutions confer significant wage premia to affiliated native workers. After accounting for observable characteristics, the average licensing wage premium is 3.9 log points, the certification premium 1.6, and the union wage premium 2.7. The first is explained by the screening effect and wage setting power of licensing institutions, the second by the screening effect of certification institutions, and the third by the wage setting power of unions. The difference between the licensing and certification wage premium for natives (2.3 log points or 59% of the licensing wage premium) can be attributed to the legal requirement of holding a license, which is the defining characteristic of licensing.

The licensing and certification wage premia for migrants are much higher, 10.2 and 6.6 log points respectively. This is because they incorporate a large screening effect (66% and 84% of the two wage premia respectively) that is specific to migrant workers. The union wage premium is not higher for migrants, reflecting the absence of screening into union membership. Migrant wage gaps (i.e. wage differences between natives and migrants) reflect differences in wage premia between natives and migrants. The migrant wage gap for workers with no institutional affiliation is 8.1 log points, and for unionized workers is about the same (8.7 log points). However, the gap is significantly lower for certified (3.1%) and licensed (1.8%) workers. This progressive drop in the migrant wage gap can be attributed to the increasing intensity of screening of migrant workers.

We also estimate the differential representation of natives and migrants among licensed, certified, and unionized workers (the migrant representation gap). This is substantial for licensed workers (3.1 percentage points or 14%), which implies that there is a large difference in screening for natives and migrants. We find no significant representation gap among certified workers, which implies the absence of large differences in screening for natives and migrants in certified markets. We find no significant representation gap for unionization, which is consistent with no screening by unions. Finally, our estimates of the migrant wage and representation gaps do not imply systematic discrimination (positive or negative) by labor market institutions.

To provide additional evidence on screening by institutions, we compare the labor market outcomes of immigrants from different countries. If migrants from countries that are culturally distant from the host country are worse in terms of unobservable variables, then the migrant wage gap for unregulated and unionized workers is expected to be larger for these workers. In contrast, since licensed and certified migrants are subject to the same screening process, independently of the country of origin, the migrant wage gap is expected to be the same for these workers, independently of the country of origin. To test this hypothesis, we measure cultural distance across countries based on language differences and differences in legal origin. Our results on wage and representation gaps support the notion that certification and licensing, but

not unionization, screen migrants based on unobservable characteristics that are correlated with cultural differences.

2. Related literature

The impetus for regulating occupations derives from its capacity to address market failures arising from information asymmetries between consumers and practitioners. However, occupational licensing may also result from the efforts of organized interest groups to restrict entry and increase the wages of licensed workers (Stigler 1971; Friedman and Kuznets 1954). Since licensed professions are largely self-regulated, entry standards may be set too high, relative to the social optimum (Akerlof 1970; Shapiro 1986).⁵

In practice, the two motives for regulation are not mutually exclusive and are both consistent with a wage premium for licensed workers, which has been well documented in the literature.⁶ There is a small but growing literature on the possible effects of licensing on migrants' wages and representation in regulated occupations. Using Canadian data, Gomez et al. (2015) show that the licensing wage premium is larger for migrants than for natives and that migrants are less represented in licensed professions than natives. Cassidy and Dacass (2021) document similar patterns in the US. Licensing wage premia are larger for migrants, which are underrepresented in licensed professions. Using data from Germany, Rostam-Afschar (2014) shows that delicensing (and reduced migration costs due to the 2004 enlargement to the European Union) raised entry of EU migrants into crafts occupations, and Brücker et al. (2021) find that recognition of migrant's foreign qualifications increased their employment rates and wages. Tani (2020) studies the skills mismatch of highly educated migrants and finds that licensing raises hourly wages and reduces over-education. The literature on occupational regulation and migration has focused entirely on licensing. Using data from the US, Federman et al. (2006) find that language proficiency requirements for manicurists in the US restrict entry by immigrant workers and affect their dispersion across the country. Johnson and Kleiner (2020), Kleiner et al. (1982), Pashigian (1979), and Holen (1965) show that licensing reduced interstate migration in the US.

Absent within these empirical studies is a comparison of the possible effects of licensing and certification, despite the importance of certification as a less restrictive policy alternative to licensing. Moreover, the implications of the differences in screening and wage setting power of licensing, certification, and unionization have not been explored. In this paper, we address these gaps.⁷

⁵Two surveys of the literature on occupational licensing are Kleiner (2000) and Pagliero (2019). Pagliero (2011) provides an empirical test of the two alternative motives for licensing regulations.

⁶See, for example, Koumenta and Pagliero (2019), Gittleman and Kleiner (2016), Kleiner and Krueger (2013), Pagliero (2010), Kleiner and Kudrle (2000).

⁷The notion of screening *by* institutions discussed in this paper is different from the notion of self-selection into occupations

Turning to the migration literature the earnings differentials between migrants and natives have been dominant themes. Within this body of work there is consensus that wage outcomes for migrants relative to observationally equivalent natives are inferior (e.g. Chiswick and Miller 2009; Friedberg 2000; Borjas 1985). After accounting for individual characteristics such as education and work experience, the residual part of the gap is attributed to unobserved characteristics or labor market discrimination. However, the literature has not investigated the potential role of licensing regulations in explaining the migrant wage gap. Since licensing requires demonstrating specific skills, the licensing status of workers may proxy for characteristics that are typically not observed by researchers (and are difficult for employers to verify) and may contribute to explaining the migrant wage gap. In fact, our results show that the migrant wage gap is significantly reduced when individual characteristics captured by licensing status are taken into account.

The idea that labor market institutions may screen workers and that occupational regulation may provide a signal of unobservable worker characteristics is related to the literature on screening and signaling in labor markets (Stiglitz 1975; Spence 1973). The starting point is that—in the absence of perfect information about worker productivity—characteristics such as formal education and work experience are used as signals. However, to the extent that the signaling power of qualifications is labor market specific, when such qualifications have been obtained abroad by migrants, their ability to address information asymmetries might be compromised, thus impacting their wages (Sanromá et al. 2015; Borjas 2014; Chiswick and Miller 2009). Since occupational licensing and certification involve the formal recognition of educational and work experience credentials by the state or a professional body in the host country, it may act as a better signal or screening mechanism of migrants' human capital in the local labor market. The literature on statistical discrimination offers a complementary explanation why occupational regulation might affect the wages of migrants, whereby ethnicity and migrant status are used as proxies for productivity relevant characteristics that are hard to observe (Blair and Chung 2018; List 2004; Arrow 1973; Phelps 1972).

Finally, labor mobility and the integration of migrants into the labor market have been important policy concerns for many decades. More recently, the role that occupational regulation plays in facilitating or hindering these processes has received attention by policy-makers across the globe. In the EU for example, where labour mobility is one of the key pillars of the Single Market, policy has focused on harmonising entry requirements into regulated occupations across Member states. The labour shortages in health occupations associated with the Covid-19 pandemic forced many US states to establish reciprocity agreements in order to facilitate interstate migration of licensed professionals (Bayne et al. 2020). Australian and Canadian governments have been working on establishing formal channels for recognition of foreign qualifications as a means to deal with chronic labor shortages in licensed occupations (Hawthorne and Wong 2011). Our

of the Roy (1951) model, which has been adapted to self-selection into migration in contributions by Borjas (1991, 1987). In this type of models migrants self-select based unobservable characteristics. In contrast, in this paper, we are concerned with institutions screening workers by setting entry standards, which are formal requirements to obtain a license or certification.

paper contributes in building the evidence base related to these important policy initiatives (von Rueden and Bambalaite 2020; Hermansen 2019).

3. Theoretical framework and identification

The objective of this section is to illustrate the different empirical implications of licensing, certification, and unionization for the migrant wage gap and the migrant representation gap among licensed, certified, and unionized workers. The model captures the main trade-offs implied by occupational regulation and focuses on the different labor supply effects of the three labor market institutions. The key point is that, unlike unions, certification and licensing institutions screen workers based on unobservable characteristics.

There is a unit mass of native workers. Workers are heterogeneous in their observable characteristics x and their productivity, or quality. The quality of worker i is $q_i = Q(x_i) + \tilde{q}_i$, where \tilde{q}_i is a continuous random variable (with distribution F_q and support $[q_{min}, q_{max}]$). This random idiosyncratic component of quality is not observable to employers and consumers (asymmetric information). Markets exogenously vary in type of regulation. A certification or a license is available to a worker with characteristics x with probability $p_c(x)$ and $p_l(x)$ respectively. The possibility to join a union is available with probability $p_u(x)$. Probabilities $p_c(x)$, $p_l(x)$, and $p_u(x)$ are mutually exclusive and independent of \tilde{q} and labor demand.

A certification or license – when available – certify that $q_i \geq \bar{q}_c$ or $q_i \geq \bar{q}_l$ respectively, where \bar{q}_c and \bar{q}_l are the minimum quality standards. The probability of obtaining a certification or license, conditionally on it being available, is then $\pi_c(x)$ and $\pi_l(x)$. This captures the idea that certification and licensing can provide a signal of workers' quality when there is asymmetric information. The difference between licensing and certification is that licensing confers wage setting power to the licensed profession, since holding a license is a legal requirement for entering the market. Hence, licensed occupations have an incentive to restrict entry beyond the efficient level and to set too high standards (Leland 1979, Shapiro 1986).⁸ If entry standards are higher in licensed markets, $\bar{q}_c \leq \bar{q}_l$, then $\pi_c(x) \geq \pi_l(x)$. In a market in which there is no licensing or certification, high quality and low quality workers cannot be distinguished, and each worker earns in equilibrium the same log wage $w(x)$, corresponding to the lowest possible quality. This is the competitive benchmark wage of an unregulated market.

In markets where there is certification, high quality workers, who meet the standards for obtaining a certification, are observed to have higher productivity and consequently earn a wage premium w_c . Hence, their salary is $w(x) + w_c$. Low quality workers earn the competitive wage $w(x)$, which is assumed to be independent of any type of regulation. In markets in which there is licensing, high quality workers, who meet the standards for obtaining a license, earn a wage premium w_l . This is because of the higher quality of

⁸However, certification markets do not necessarily lead to efficient outcomes either (Shapiro 1986), making the comparison of standards in certified and licensed markets theoretically ambiguous.

licensed workers and also because of the legal requirement to hold a license, which restricts labour supply for specific activities and generates rents (wage setting power of licensing institutions). If entry standards are higher in licensed than certified markets, we expect $w_c \leq w_l$. Finally, when joining a union is possible, workers join the union with probability $\pi_u(x)$ and obtain a wage $w(x) + w_u$, where w_u is the union wage premium (wage setting power of the unions).

The first row of Table 2 reports the expected wage of unregulated, unionized, certified, and licensed workers (conditional on observable characteristics). The difference between the average wage of native licensed workers and workers with no institutional affiliation identifies the licensing wage premium w_l . The corresponding differences for certified and unionized workers identify w_c and w_u . The difference $w_l - w_c$ for natives can be interpreted as the wage effect of the legal requirement to hold a license, or the wage effect of the higher entry standards of licensing relative to certification.

There is also a unit mass of migrant workers. Migrant workers are heterogeneous in terms of x and q , as natives, but also in terms of other variables, such as knowledge of local culture and professional standards, quality of foreign credentials, language proficiency, and integration into the host country. These variables affect migrants productivity and are unobservable, or costly for employers and consumers to verify. This adds a second source of asymmetric information, which is relevant only for migrants. Let's summarize these variables by $z_i = \tilde{z}_i$, where \tilde{z}_i is an unobservable continuous random variable (with distribution F_z and support $[z_{min}, z_{max}]$) independent of x and \tilde{q} . A certification or license—when available—certifies that a migrant worker meets the standards in terms of q and z , that is $q_i \geq \bar{q}_c$ and $z_i \geq \bar{z}_c$ for certification, and $q_i \geq \bar{q}_l$ and $z_i \geq \bar{z}_l$ for licensing. If licensed professions set higher standards than certified professions, then $\bar{z}_c \leq \bar{z}_l$. Since migrants face one more constraint than natives, the probability of obtaining a certification or license is lower for migrants than for natives with the same observable characteristics, $\pi_c(x)\mu_c$ and $\pi_l(x)\mu_l$, where $\mu_c \leq 1$ and $\mu_l \leq 1$ measure the lower certification and licensing probabilities of migrants relative to natives.⁹

TABLE 2
The migrant wage gap

	No certification, license, or union		Unionized		Certified		Licensed
Natives	w	\leq	$w + w_u$		$w + w_c$	\leq	$w + w_l$
Migrants	$w - m$	\leq	$w + w_u - m - d$		$w + w_c - m_c - d$	\leq	$w + w_l - m_l - d$
Migrant wage gap	m		$m + d$	\geq	$m_c + d$	\geq	$m_l + d$

Notes: The table reports the expected log wage for native and migrant workers conditional on observable characteristics.

Natives and migrants do not have the same productivity because of z , but since z is not observable,

⁹ $\mu_c \equiv P(q_i \geq \bar{q}_c, z_i \geq \bar{z}_c) / \pi_c(x)$ and $\mu_l \equiv P(q_i \geq \bar{q}_l, z_i \geq \bar{z}_l) / \pi_l(x)$.

employers need to rely on the signals provided by regulation. In a market without certification or licensing, the expected salary of a migrant worker with characteristics x is $w(x) - m$, where m is the wage effect of unobservables. This is the competitive benchmark wage of a migrant worker, corresponding to the lowest possible q and z . This is also assumed to be the salary of a migrant worker without a certification or license in markets in which they are available. In markets with certification or licensing, high quality migrant workers benefit from the wage premium w_c and w_l as much as natives. The expected salary of a certified or licensed worker is then $w(x) + w_c - m_c$ or $w(x) + w_l - m_l$, where m_c and m_l are the wage effects of unobservables for certified and licensed workers. If licensing sets higher standards than certification, we expect $m \geq m_c \geq m_l \geq 0$.

Finally, labor market institutions may also affect the salary of migrants for other reasons. For example, if labor market institutions discriminate against migrants, we expect migrants to suffer a wage penalty relative to natives with equal characteristics, after accounting for the effects of institutions described above.¹⁰ We call this residual effect d , which we assume to be constant across institutions.¹¹

The second row in Table 2 reports the average wage for migrant workers, conditional on characteristics x . The third row reports the migrant wage gaps. The migrant wage gap for workers without a license, certification, or union membership identifies m . The migrant wage gaps for licensed and certified workers identify $m_l + d$ and $m_c + d$. Since unions do not screen members based on their characteristics, the migrant wage gap for unionized workers is $m + d$. Hence, the difference in migrant wage gap between unionized and workers with no institutional affiliation identifies d .

If the legal requirement to hold a license leads to higher standards for licensing than certification then the migrant wage gaps in Table 2 are expected to decrease from left to right, reflecting the increasing intensity of screening – in terms of unobservables z – of the three labor market institutions. Differences between migrant gaps $m - m_c$ and $m - m_l$ identify the screening effect of certification and licensing – in terms of z – on migrants’ wages. The difference $m_c - m_l$ measures the wage effect of the additional selectivity of licensing, relative to certification. This can also be interpreted as the effect of the legal requirement to hold a license on the screening of migrant workers.

Table 3 reports the migrant representation gaps. A native worker obtains a certification if she is of high quality and a certification is available, that is with probability $\pi_c(x)p_c(x)$. For a migrant, the probability of obtaining a certification is $p_c(x)\pi_c(x)\mu_c$. A native obtains a license with probability $\pi_l(x)p_l(x)$ and a migrant with probability $\pi_l(x)p_l(x)\mu_l$.

¹⁰Conversely, if institutions systematically favor migrants, migrants will enjoy higher wages relative to natives with equal characteristics, after accounting for the effects of institutions described above.

¹¹Our setting does not allow to identify institution-specific discrimination. If discrimination varies across institutions, then the parameter d will capture the average effect across institutions.

TABLE 3
The migrant representation gap

	Licensed	Certified	Unionized
Natives	$\pi_l p_l$	$\pi_c p_c$	$\pi_u p_u$
Migrants	$\pi_l p_l \mu_l \delta$	$\pi_c p_c \mu_c \delta$	$\pi_u p_u \delta$
Migrant representation gap (ratio)	$\mu_l \delta$	\leq	$\mu_c \delta \leq \delta$

Notes: The table reports the expected probability of being licensed, certified, or union member conditional on observable characteristics.

However, labor market institutions may also affect the representation of migrants for other reasons. For example, if labor market institutions discriminate against migrants, we can expect migrants to have a lower representation in regulated occupations than natives with equal characteristics, and the opposite if institutions systematically favor migrants. We call this residual effect, constant across institutions, δ . Hence, the migrant representation gap among certified workers in relative terms— that is as a ratio— identifies $\mu_c \delta$. The migrant representation gap among licensed workers— again as a ratio— identifies $\mu_l \delta$. Since unions do not select members based on their characteristics, we expect equal representation of migrants and natives if there is no discrimination. Otherwise, the migrant representation gap – as a ratio – identifies δ .

If licensed occupations have an incentive to apply higher standards than certification, then $\mu_l(x) \leq \mu_c(x)$. Hence, we expect increasing ratios from left to right in Table 3. The difference $\mu_c(x) - \mu_l(x)$ identifies the effect of the legal requirement to hold a license on the representation of migrants. If positive, the difference $\mu_c(x) - \mu_l(x)$ measures the additional difficulty for migrants to enter a licensed profession, relative to a certified profession.

4. Institutional setting, data and summary statistics

Occupational regulations vary widely across countries, even for the same profession. In the European Union, occupations are generally regulated at the country level, but sometimes at the regional or city level. These significant differences derive from differences in legal traditions (e.g. crafts persons in Germany), differences in the organisation of labor markets (e.g. more self-regulation of professional associations versus more direct government intervention), and type of regulation.

In the case of licensed occupations, migrants generally need to obtain a license in the destination country. Depending on the specific occupation, country of origin and destination, there may be several ways of doing so. Migrant workers need to satisfy the requirements in the destination country, usually a long and costly endeavour, that involves country-specific professional exams and educational requirements.¹² If specific

¹²For example, hairdressers without a secondary vocational degree, perhaps because it is not required in the country of origin, as in Denmark, cannot hope for recognition in a country that requires a secondary degree for obtaining a license, like in Germany.

professional qualifications have already been obtained in the country of origin, a less costly procedure may be available, but it is usually not automatic.¹³

The European Union Survey of Occupational Regulation (EU-SOR) is specifically designed to capture occupational regulation. It covers the individuals residing in the 28 EU member states, aged 15 and above. The survey was carried out by TNS (a market research company) in March and April 2015 by means of telephone interviews (Computer Assisted Telephone Interviews). A total of 26,640 individuals were interviewed providing data on their licensing, certification and trade union membership status. A worker is defined as licensed if she obtained a license or passed an exam that is required, in addition to education, to *legally* practice a profession. A worker is defined as certified if she obtained a license or passed an exam, in addition to education, which is not required to legally practice a profession. A worker is unionized if she is a member of a trade union.¹⁴ Table A.1 and Appendix A define the main variables used in the paper and describe some key questions used in the survey. This approach to measure occupational licensing was pioneered by Kleiner and Krueger (2013) and it is currently used, for example, in the Survey of Income and Program Participation and the Current Population Survey (Gittleman et al. 2018; Cassidy and Dacass 2021).¹⁵ Detailed information on a variety of individual characteristics, similar to those commonly included in labor force surveys, was also collected.¹⁶ These include net wages, hours worked, age, educational attainment, occupation, type of work arrangement (employee versus self-employed), country of residence, industry in which the firm or organization operates, and its size. We focus on workers between 25 and 65, with non-missing information on wages, and exclude those in military occupations.

Table 4 provides descriptive statistics of the differences between natives and migrants across the 28 European countries in our sample. Migrant hourly wages are on average slightly higher than those of their native counterparts. This difference is entirely due to the large difference in wages between receiving and sending countries. Unionization is 2.4% higher among natives. There are no significant differences in the

Therefore, they would need to obtain one (involving training of more than 400 hours and fees of around 4,000 Euro in Germany) or apply for an exemption to operate a barber shop.

¹³Automatic recognition of professional qualifications is limited to a few professions based on EU law (Directive 2005/36/EC). It involves doctors, nurses, dental practitioners, veterinary surgeons, midwives, pharmacists, and architects. Given the limited scope of the automatic recognition, a European Professional Card was introduced in 2013 with the aim of facilitating the recognition for nurses, pharmacists, physiotherapists, mountain guides, and real estate agents.

¹⁴We do not address here the many issues related to differences in union coverage across occupations and countries, discussed in the literature on unionization.

¹⁵The survey approach provides an individual measure of licensing attainment. The alternative is to measure licensing coverage, obtained by matching labor force survey data with information on which professions are licensed in each country. The advantages of the direct measurement of licensing attainment, relative to coverage, are discussed in Koumenta and Pagliero (2019).

¹⁶More details on the survey and the data are described in Koumenta and Pagliero (2019)

TABLE 4
Summary statistics

	I Hourly wage (Euro)	II Unionized	III Certified	IV Licensed	Observations
Natives	9.267 (0.069)	0.324 (0.004)	0.187 (0.003)	0.214 (0.003)	13,792
Migrants	11.072 (0.229)	0.300 (0.013)	0.188 (0.011)	0.169 (0.012)	1,222
Migrant gap	-1.805*** (0.239)	0.024* (0.014)	-0.001 (0.012)	0.046*** (0.012)	

Notes: Definitions of licensed, certified, and unionized are described in Table A.1. Figures are weighted by survey weights provided by the EU-SOR. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significance levels are * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$
Source: Own calculations based on the EU-SOR 2015.

probability to be certified. Licensing is more prevalent among natives. The 4.6% migrant gap in licensing is highly significant.

5. The migrant wage and representation gaps

In order to measure the migrant wage gap across labor market institutions (licensing, certification, and unionization), we estimate a classic Mincer (1958) wage regression model,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \log(w_{ionc}) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{ionc} + \beta_2 \text{Migrant}_{ionc} \\
 &+ \sum_{j=1}^3 \gamma_j \text{Institution}(j)_{ionc} + \sum_{j=1}^3 \delta_j \text{Migrant}_{ionc} \times \text{Institution}(j)_{ionc} \\
 &+ \theta_o + \theta_n + \theta_c + \varepsilon_{ionc}
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where the dependent variable $\log(w_{ionc})$ denotes net hourly log-wage of individual i , in occupational group o , industry n , and country c .¹⁷ The matrix X_{ionc} includes individual characteristics (age, age², indicators for self-employment, public sector employment, 6 levels of education achieved, and the size of the firm or organization in which the individual is working).

¹⁷We consider broad occupational groups defined by one-digit ISCO codes. Each group includes a large number of specific occupations. For example, the occupational group “professionals” includes 94 occupations (four-digit level), such as secondary education teachers, nursing professionals, accountants, early childhood educators, social work and counselling professionals, lawyers, economists, and pharmacists.

TABLE 5
Wage regression results

Dependent variable	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
	Log wage	Log wage	Log wage	Log wage	Log wage	Log wage	Log wage
Migrant	0.235 (0.146)	-0.107*** (0.022)	-0.088*** (0.019)	-0.068*** (0.019)	-0.064*** (0.020)	-0.063*** (0.019)	-0.081*** (0.023)
Licensed						0.044*** (0.013)	0.039*** (0.013)
Certified						0.020 (0.013)	0.016 (0.014)
Unionised						0.027** (0.011)	0.027** (0.011)
Migrant \times Licensed							0.063* (0.035)
Migrant \times Certified							0.050* (0.025)
Migrant \times Unionised							-0.006 (0.029)
Country FE		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Individual controls			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Occupation FE				✓	✓	✓	✓
Industry FE					✓	✓	✓
Observations	15,014	15,014	15,014	15,014	15,014	15,014	15,014
Adj. R-squared	0.006	0.704	0.759	0.772	0.775	0.776	0.776

Notes: OLS regressions using the full sample (weighted using sample weights provided by EU-SOR 2015). The dependent variable is log hourly wage. Individual controls include age, age², indicators for lower secondary, upper secondary, post-secondary, university, and PhD education, gender, firm size dummies, public sector dummy, self-employment dummy. Indicators for occupations are defined for 1-digit ISCO codes. Indicators for industry are defined for 1-digit NACE codes. Standard errors clustered by country are reported in parentheses, significance levels are * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

Source: Own calculations based on the EU-SOR 2015.

The indicator variable $Migrant_{ionc}$ is equal to one if the respondent is a migrant. Three indicator variables, $Institution(j)_{ionc}$, $j = 1, 2, 3$, describe whether the worker is licensed, certified, or unionized. The model includes direct effects and interactions between $Migrant_{ionc}$ and $Institution(j)_{ionc}$. Finally, θ_o , θ_n , and θ_c are occupational group-, industry-, and country-specific fixed effects, and ε_{ionc} captures unobserved determinants of wages. The coefficients β_2 and δ_j capture the average migrant wage gap across labor market institutions (conditional on observed individual characteristics). Even accounting for these fixed effects, there is still significant variability in labor market regulation across specific occupations (within an occupational group and country) and also across countries for a specific occupation.¹⁸

¹⁸The variation in regulation across countries for specific occupations is substantial. For example, accountants are unregulated in Finland, Poland, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden, but regulated elsewhere. Architects are regulated in Belgium but civil engineers are not, neither is regulated in Finland or Sweden, while both are regulated in most other EU countries. Similarly, hairdressers are regulated in Germany but cosmetologists are not, and neither is regulated in Spain, Sweden, or the UK, whereas both are

Table 5 reports the estimated coefficients. The negative migrant gap (higher wages for migrant workers) observed in Table 4 and in Table 5, column I disappears as soon as we control for country fixed effects. In column II, the gap is 10.7 log points. Individual controls in column III explain about 1.9 log points of the migrant gap estimated in column II. Occupational group and industry fixed effects explain additional 2.5 log points of the gap, leaving an unexplained gap of about 6.3 log points (column VI).

In column VII, we interact the migrant and institutions indicator variables. The estimated conditional expectations of wages for the different groups of workers can then be compared with their theoretical counterparts in Table 2. The coefficient β_2 , which corresponds to $-m$ in Table 2, is -0.081. This implies that the migrant wage gap for workers without a license, certification or union membership (m) is 8.1 log points. For natives, the licensing wage premium (w_l) is 3.9 log points, the certification premium (w_c) 1.6, and the union wage premium (w_u) 2.7. The coefficients of the interactions of the licensed and certified indicators with the migrant indicator are large, 6.3 and 5.0 log points respectively. Hence, the wage increase associated with licensing and certification is substantially larger for migrants than natives.

Table 6, Panel A reports all the estimated moments corresponding to the model predictions in Table 2. To ease the interpretation, the estimated mean salaries are reported as differences from the mean salary of unregulated natives (w). Hence, for example, the results in the first row correspond to the union, certification, and licensing wage premia w_u , w_c , w_l . The estimates of the other parameters (m , m_c , m_l , d) are obtained as linear combinations of the coefficients in Table 5 and are reported in Panel B.

The estimates for the wage premia w_u , w_c , w_l are in line with the hypothesis that $w_u \geq 0$ and $w_l \geq w_c \geq 0$. The p-values of the tests $w_u = 0$ and $w_l \geq w_c$ are both equal to 0.01. The union wage premium w_u results from the wage setting power of the institution. The certification wage premium w_c results from the screening of workers operated by certification institutions based on q . The licensing wage premium w_l results from the combined effect of screening and the wage setting power of licensing institutions.¹⁹ Since the defining difference between licensing and certification is the legal requirement to hold a license, the results imply that $3.9 - 1.6 = 2.3$ log points (or 59%) of the licensing wage premium can be attributed to the legal requirement to hold a license.

In the second row of Table 6, the average wage of migrants grows from left to right, going from -0.081 for migrant workers with no institutional affiliation to 0.021 for licensed migrants (an increase of 10.2 log

regulated in Belgium and Italy. We can systematically assess this variability by comparing Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) in regressions with institution indicators as dependent variables and fixed effects θ_o as independent variables. A RMSE close to zero would indicate that the fixed effects absorbed all variation. When including a constant only, the RMSE is 0.408, 0.390, 0.467 for licensing, certification, and unionization, respectively. Including the fixed effects, the RMSE decreases to 0.389, 0.385, 0.390, but remains far from zero.

¹⁹These two cannot be disentangled because certification and licensing institutions may apply different entry standards \bar{q}_c and \bar{q}_l , which are not identified from the data.

points). Although the differences between contiguous cells in the table are not statistically significant, the difference between columns I and IV is highly significant (p-value 0.006). The difference between column I and III is also highly significant (p-value 0.005).

TABLE 6
The migrant wage gap

Panel A				
	I	II	III	IV
	No certification, license, or union	Unionized	Certified	Licensed
Natives	0	0.027 (0.011)	0.016 (0.014)	0.039 (0.013)
Migrants	-0.081 (0.023)	-0.060 (0.036)	-0.015 (0.032)	0.021 (0.035)
Migrant wage gap	0.081 (0.023)	0.087 (0.034)	0.031 (0.033)	0.018 (0.033)
Panel B				
	m_c	m_l	d	
	0.025 (0.050)	0.013 (0.058)	0.006 (0.029)	

Notes: Panel A reports estimated average wages for different groups of workers, corresponding to those described in Table 2. The results are computed using the estimated coefficients of equation (1), reported in Table 5. All the values are expressed as differences from the average wage of natives with no institutional affiliation (w), in the top-left corner. Panel B reports the estimated values of the parameters used in Table 2 that are not reported in Panel A. Standard errors (in parentheses) are obtained with the Delta-method.

Using the same notation as Table 2, the second row of Table 6 implies that the 10.2 log points licensing wage premium observed for migrants has three components. The first ($m - m_l$) is screening based on unobservables z , and is specific to migrants. The second is the licensing wage premium (w_l), which is common to licensed migrants and natives, and the third is discrimination ($-d$). Using the estimated parameters (reported in Panel B), we find that the first component contributes 6.8 log points to the licensing wage premium for migrants, the second 3.9, and the third only -0.6. Hence, the specific screening of migrants explains 66% of the large wage premium for licensed migrants, the rest being explained mainly by the common licensing wage premium. A similar decomposition can be performed for the 6.6 log points certification wage premium for migrants ($-0.015 + 0.081 = 0.066$), where the three components $m - m_c$, w_c , and $-d$ contribute 5.6, 1.6, and -0.6 log points respectively. Hence, screening explains 84% of the wage premium, the rest being explained mainly by the certification wage premium.

The third row of Table 6 reports the estimated migrant wage gaps, corresponding to m , $m + d$, $m_c + d$, and $m_l + d$ in Table 2. The migrant wage gap is about the same for workers with no institutional affiliation

(0.081) and unionized workers (0.087), which implies that d is small (0.006). The migrant wage gap then progressively decreases for certified (3.1) and licensed workers (1.8). This drop is very large, as the migrant wage gap for licensed workers is less than 1/4 of that for workers with no institutional affiliation. The difference between licensed workers and workers with no institutional affiliation is statistically significant (p-value 0.074), and so is the difference between certified workers and workers with no institutional affiliation (p-value 0.049).²⁰ Using the notation from Table 2 once again, the progressive drop in the migrant wage gap reflects the increasing screening of migrants in terms of unobservables ($m \geq m_c \geq m_l \geq 0$). The difference $m_c - m_l$ measures the wage effect of the legal requirement to hold a license on migrants' screening based on z . This effect accounts for 2/3 of the migrant wage gap for licensed workers ($(m_c - m_l)/(m_l + d)$).

Although this is the first paper focusing on screening and wage setting power across institutions, some of our results can be compared with previous estimates. Our results on the licensing wage premium in the EU are broadly consistent with the literature on the US (Kleiner 2000; Kleiner and Krueger 2013; Gittleman and Kleiner 2016), which also finds a positive and significant premium. Our estimates of the licensing wage premium for migrants in the EU are in line with those obtained in the literature for Canada and the US (Gomez et al. 2015; Cassidy and Dacass 2021). Our results on the importance of screening on unobservables are also consistent with the smaller licensing wage premia obtained by Cassidy and Dacass (2021) when including language proficiency among the independent variables in wage regressions. Using the notation of this paper, language proficiency is one of the many variables correlated with unobservable cultural differences z between migrants and natives. Finally, the union wage premium is consistent with the literature on unionization (Blanchflower and Bryson 2004).

In order to measure the representation of migrant workers in licensed occupations, we estimate the linear probability model

$$\text{Licensed}_{ionc} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{ionc} + \beta_2 \text{Migrant}_{ionc} + \theta_o + \theta_n + \theta_c + \varepsilon_{ionc}. \quad (2)$$

We also estimate the corresponding models in which the dependent variable is an indicator for certified and unionized workers. Table 7 reports the estimated coefficients. Table 8, Panel A summarizes the results by reporting the predicted values for the probabilities to be licensed, certified, and unionized (for mean values of the covariates) corresponding to the model predictions in Table 3.

²⁰However, the differences in migrant wage gap between contiguous cells are not statistically significant (p-values 0.85, 0.19, and 0.77 respectively).

TABLE 7
Probability to be licensed, certified, or unionized

Dependent variable	I Licensed	II Licensed	III Licensed	IV Licensed	V Licensed	VI Certified	VII Unionized
Migrant	-0.046*** (0.015)	-0.047** (0.017)	-0.033** (0.014)	-0.035** (0.015)	-0.031** (0.014)	0.009 (0.013)	-0.015 (0.018)
Country FE		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Individual controls			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Occupation FE				✓	✓	✓	✓
Industry FE					✓	✓	✓
Observations	15,014	15,014	15,014	15,014	15,014	15,014	15,014
Adj. R-squared	0.001	0.014	0.043	0.070	0.092	0.026	0.303

Notes: OLS estimates of the linear probability model (2) using the full sample (weighted using sample weights provided by EU-SOR 2015). The dependent variables are binary indicators for being licensed, certified, and unionized. Individual controls include age, age², indicators for lower secondary, upper secondary, post-secondary, university, and PhD education, gender, firm size dummies, public sector dummy, self-employment dummy. Indicators for occupations are defined for 1-digit ISCO codes. Indicators for industry are defined for 1-digit NACE codes. Standard errors clustered by country are reported in parentheses, significance levels are * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

Source: Own calculations based on the EU-SOR 2015.

Migrants are about 3.1 percentage points less likely to be licensed than natives, after controlling for differences in individual characteristics, country, occupational group, and industry. This corresponds to a 14% difference. Migrants are 0.9 percentage points more likely to be certified than natives, but this difference is not significantly different from zero. Finally, migrants are 1.5 percentage points less likely to be unionized, but again this difference is not significantly different from zero.

Using the same notation as Table 3, our results imply that $\mu_l \delta = 0.853$ and $\mu_c \delta = 1.046$.²¹ Hence, $\mu_l \delta - \mu_c \delta = -0.193$, with a standard error of 0.086 (p-value 0.025), which is consistent with our hypothesis that licensing screens migrants more intensely than certification (Table 2). The representation of migrants among unionized workers is only slightly smaller than that of natives, implying that $\delta = 0.955$, which is not significantly different from 1. Hence, there is no evidence of large and systematic discrimination in access to labor market institutions. The difference between δ and $\mu_c \delta$ is negative (-0.09), but not significantly different from zero, with a 95% confidence interval $[-0.237, 0.055]$. Hence, we cannot exclude small positive values, which are expected if certification selects migrants based on unobservable variables and unions do not (Table 2).

Knowing δ , we can compute μ_l , μ_c and $\mu_l - \mu_c$. These are reported in in Table 8, Panel B. The effect of the legal requirement to hold a license on the representation of migrants ($\mu_l - \mu_c = -0.202$) is unchanged

²¹The estimated value of $\mu_c \delta$ can be larger than 1 because we do not impose constraints on the parameters in the linear probability model.

TABLE 8
The migrant representation gap

Panel A			
	I	II	III
	Licensed	Certified	Unionized
Natives	0.213 (0.003)	0.186 (0.003)	0.323 (0.003)
Migrants	0.182 (0.012)	0.195 (0.012)	0.309 (0.012)
Migrant representation gap (ratio)	0.853 (0.057)	1.046 (0.065)	0.955 (0.038)
Panel B			
	μ_l	μ_c	$\mu_c - \mu_l$
	0.893 (0.067)	1.095 (0.080)	0.202 (0.102)

Notes: Panel A reports the expected probabilities to be licensed, certified, and unionized, corresponding to those described in Table 3. The results are computed using the estimated parameters of equation (2) reported in Table 7. Panel B reports the estimates of the parameters used in Table 3. Standard errors (in parentheses) are obtained with the Delta-method.

after accounting for δ . This implies that licensing poses a significantly higher barrier to entry for migrants than natives (about 20%), while obtaining a certification or joining a union are not more difficult for migrants than natives.

Our results resonate with previous results in the literature, highlighting the difficulties faced by migrants in meeting the entry standards or having their educational credentials and professional experience recognized in a foreign country (Johnson and Kleiner (2020), Federman et al. (2006)). They are also consistent with Rostam-Afschar (2014), who shows that the share of immigrants is decreasing with the strictness of licensing regulations.

5.1 The migrant gaps and differences between country of origin and destination

In Section 3, we interpreted z as characteristics of migrants that cannot be observed by the econometrician and are costly for market participants to measure precisely. These include, for example, language proficiency, quality of foreign credentials, knowledge of local professional standards and culture. The model also shows how these variables impact the migrant wage gap and how institutions, by screening migrant workers, influence the migrant wage gap. The results in Section 5 are consistent with the model, but can we provide more direct evidence of these mechanisms? We can make some progress on this question by comparing labor market outcomes of immigrants coming from different countries. If migrants coming from countries that are culturally distant from the host country are worse in terms of unobservable variables z ,

then the wage penalty m is expected to be larger for these workers. Hence, the migrant wage gap for workers with no institutional affiliation and unionized workers is expected to be larger. In contrast, since licensed and certified migrants are subject to the same screening, independently of the country of origin, m_l and m_c are expected to be the same. Hence, also the migrant wage gap is expected to be the same for licensed and certified workers, independently of the country of origin.

To test these hypotheses, we classify migrant workers based on whether their country of origin is outside (external migrants) or inside the EU (internal migrants). For internal migrants, we also have information about the country of origin, hence we can investigate how the similarity of the country of origin and destination affects the migrant gaps. We evaluate the similarity between countries based on two characteristics: type of legal system and language.²² Each captures some determinants of the cost of integrating into the host country, although they are likely to be far from capturing the full unobserved heterogeneity in z .

We classify internal migrants based on whether the country of origin and destination share the same legal origin (English common law, French civil law, German civil code, Socialist law, Scandinavian legal tradition).²³ We further classify internal migrants based on whether the country of origin and destination share the same primary language.²⁴ We then expand the specification of model (1) by including indicator variables for each group of migrants and interactions with the indicators for unionization, certification, and licensing.²⁵

Table 9, Panel A reports the estimated migrant wage gaps for migrants coming from countries with common and different legal origins. Starting with workers with no institutional affiliation, we find that the migrant wage gaps (corresponding to m) for migrants from countries with different legal origins is large (0.097) and significantly different from zero. However, the gap for migrants from countries with common legal origins is small (0.017) and not statistically significant.

The migrant wage gaps for unionized workers (corresponding to $m + d$) is also large and significantly different from zero for the first group (0.158), but not for the second (-0.03). As expected, migrant wage gaps ($m_c + d$ and $m_l + d$) drop for certified and licensed workers (because of screening) and differences

²²This type of data has been used in the literature before, for instance, by Ortega and Peri (2013).

²³Data on the legal origin comes from Botero et al. (2004) and captures similarities in institutional configuration and type of regulation.

²⁴For example, Austria and Germany, or Ireland and the UK, share the same primary language. German is the official language at the national level in Austria, Belgium, Germany, and Luxembourg; French in Belgium, France, and Luxembourg; English in Ireland, Malta, and the UK; Dutch in Belgium and the Netherlands, Greek in Cyprus and Greece, Swedish in Finland and Sweden. The language classifications are taken from the CEPII gravity database described in Head et al. (2010).

²⁵Table B.1 in the appendix reports the regression results, which are rearranged and presented in table B.2 and B.3 using the same format used for our main results in Table 6.

TABLE 9
The migrant wage gap and cultural similarity

Panel A. Migrant wage gap and similarity in legal origins				
	I	II	III	IV
	No certification, license, or union	Unionized	Certified	Licensed
Migrants from countries with common legal origin	0.017 (0.048)	−0.030 (0.053)	−0.047 (0.054)	0.068 (0.086)
Migrants from countries with different legal origin	0.097 (0.044)	0.158 (0.048)	0.069 (0.080)	−0.046 (0.051)
Panel B. Migrant wage gap and similarity in languages				
Migrants from countries with common primary language	0.058 (0.048)	−0.009 (0.074)	0.000 (0.072)	0.056 (0.099)
Migrants from countries with different primary language	0.061 (0.037)	0.132 (0.044)	0.028 (0.064)	−0.031 (0.053)

Notes: The table reports estimated migrant wage gaps for internal migrants (relative to natives). In Panel A, migrants are grouped based on the similarity of the legal origins of the country of origin and destination. In Panel B, migrants are grouped based on the primary language spoken in the country of origin and destination. The results are computed using the estimated regression coefficients reported in Table B.1 columns II and III respectively (results in Panel A and B come from two separate regressions). Standard errors (in parentheses) are obtained with the Delta-method.

across groups become small and not significantly different from zero.²⁶

These results provide more direct evidence that migrants from more culturally distant countries are worse in terms of unobservables z . They also support the notion that certification and licensing, but not unionization, screen migrants based on z , hence reducing the migrant wage gap. We find similar results by classifying countries based on the primary language spoken. Table 9, Panel B reports the results. Starting with workers with no institutional affiliation or unionized, we find that wage gaps are larger for migrants from countries with different languages, relative to migrants from countries with the same language. For unionized workers the difference is statistically significant (p-value 0.054). Migrant wage gaps drop for certified and licensed workers in column III and IV and are not significantly different from zero. The differences between groups also become small and not significantly different from zero.²⁷ These results support the view that both similarity in legal origin and language are correlated with unobserved heterogeneity in z .

We also explore the role of differences in legal origin and language on the migrant representation among licensed, certified, and unionized workers. If migrants coming from countries that are culturally distant from

²⁶The same results are obtained by comparing the estimated parameters m , m_c , and m_l for each group, which are reported in Table B.2, panel B. The estimates for the parameter d are never statistically significant.

²⁷These results are robust using alternative classifications. For example, we also classify countries as similar if they share the same primary language or if the primary language of the country of origin is spoken by at least 9% of the population in the destination country. This is a classification used in the literature by Beine et al. (2013) and Docquier et al. (2012).

the host country are worse in terms of unobservable variables z , then their representation among licensed and certified workers is expected to be lower. In contrast, their representation among unionized workers, which are not selected according to their individual characteristics, is expected to be the same.

We include in model (2) indicator variables for each group of migrant.²⁸ Table 10, Panel A reports the estimated migrant representation gaps (ratios). The representation gap among licensed workers ($\mu_l \delta$) is larger for migrants from countries with different legal origins. In column I, the probability to be licensed for migrants from countries with the same legal origin is 90.8% of that of natives. This estimate (0.908) is not significantly different from 1 (p-value 0.429). The same probability for migrants from countries with different legal origins is only 74% of that of natives. This value (0.74) is significantly different from 1 (p-value 0.012). The difference between the estimates for the two groups is large (16.8%). In columns II and III, the estimates for the representation gaps for certified and unionized workers ($\mu_c \delta$ and δ) are closer to 1, which indicates that there are no large differences in representation relative to natives.

TABLE 10
The migrant representation gap and cultural similarity

Panel A. The migrant representation gap (ratio) and similarity in legal origins			
	I Licensed	II Certified	III Unionized
Migrants from countries with common legal origin	0.908 (0.116)	0.952 (0.132)	0.927 (0.077)
Migrants from countries with different legal origin	0.740 (0.104)	1.202 (0.120)	0.872 (0.069)
Panel B. Migrant representation gap (ratio) and similarity in languages			
Migrants from countries with common primary language	0.931 (0.139)	1.013 (0.158)	0.714 (0.092)
Migrants from countries with different primary language	0.770 (0.090)	1.120 (0.103)	0.967 (0.060)

Notes: The table reports estimated migrant representation gaps (ratios) for internal migrants (relative to natives). In Panel A, migrants are grouped based on the similarity of the legal origins of the country of origin and destination. In Panel B, migrants are grouped based on the primary languages spoken in the country of origin and destination. The results are computed using the estimated regression coefficients reported in Table B.4 columns II and III, V and VI, VIII and IX, respectively (results in Panel A and B come from two separate regressions). Standard errors (in parentheses) are obtained with the Delta-method.

We find similar results in Table 10, Panel B. The probability of being licensed for migrants from countries with the same primary language is 93.1% of that of natives (not significantly different from 1). The corresponding probability for migrants from countries with a different primary language is 77% of that of

²⁸Table B.4 in the appendix reports the estimated regression coefficients, which are rearranged and presented in Tables B.5 and B.6 using the same format used for our main results on the representation gap in Table 8.

natives. This estimate is again significantly different from 1.²⁹

These results are consistent with licensing creating a significant barrier to entry for migrants from more distant cultural backgrounds. For certification, we know from Table 7 that there is no significant difference in the representation between migrants and natives. Hence, when we compare migrants from countries with different legal tradition or language, it is not surprising to find again no significant representation gap. For unionization, our results are consistent with the absence of screening of members.

5.2 Heterogeneity and robustness

In order to assess the heterogeneity of our results across workers, we extend model (1) including the interaction $Migrant \times Subgroup$, where $Subgroup$ denotes either self-employed, female, or low education workers. We also include the triple interaction $Migrant \times Licensing \times Subgroup$ and the corresponding interactions for certification and unionization. Table 11 reports the results. The estimates for our main specification in Table 5, column VII are reported in column I as a reference.

The coefficients of the $Migrant$ indicator, corresponding to $-m$ (–the migrant wage gap), is -0.081 for the average migrant, -0.075 for employees, -0.088 for males, and -0.122 for migrants with more than secondary schooling. The coefficient of $Migrant \times Subgroup$ captures differences from these values for self-employed, female, and low education migrants. It is significantly different from zero only for low education migrants, for whom the migrant wage gap m is substantially smaller ($0.122 - 0.083 = 0.039$).

The coefficients of the $Licensed$, $Certified$, and $Unionized$ indicators capture the wage premia w_l , w_c , and w_u . There are no significant differences across subgroups for w_l and w_c . The union wage premium w_u is significantly larger for female and low education workers. Our finding is consistent with the literature on union wage premiums that shows females and the low educated benefit more from unionisation than their male and high education counterparts.³⁰

The coefficients of the interaction $Migrant \times Licensing \times Subgroup$ is never significantly different from zero, implying no significant differences across groups in the licensing wage premium of migrants. The coefficients for the other triple interactions are also never significantly different from zero, with the exception of the coefficient of $Migrant \times Certification \times Subgroup$ for low education workers, which implies no certification wage premium for low education migrant workers.³¹

²⁹The estimated value 0.714 for unionized workers suggests a weak representation of migrants from countries with common primary language among unionized workers. This value is somewhat difficult to interpret since there is no similar effect in Panel A.

³⁰See Card (1996), Bryson et al. (2020), Gittleman and Pierce (2007).

³¹The -0.133 coefficient compensates for the 0.120 coefficient of the $Migrant \times Certified$ interaction.

TABLE 11
Wage regression results (interactions with type of employment, gender, and education)

Dependent variable Subgroup	I Log wage None	II Log wage Self-Employed	III Log wage Female	IV Log wage Up To Secondary Schooling
Migrant	-0.081*** (0.023)	-0.075*** (0.022)	-0.088*** (0.027)	-0.122*** (0.029)
Migrant × Subgroup		-0.027 (0.086)	0.016 (0.026)	0.083** (0.038)
Licensed	0.039*** (0.013)	0.032** (0.012)	0.030* (0.015)	0.048*** (0.015)
Certified	0.016 (0.014)	0.015 (0.014)	0.027 (0.017)	0.011 (0.016)
Unionised	0.027** (0.011)	0.033*** (0.010)	0.004 (0.013)	0.002 (0.016)
Licensed × Subgroup		0.062 (0.050)	0.023 (0.023)	-0.018 (0.022)
Certified × Subgroup		0.004 (0.039)	-0.025 (0.020)	0.010 (0.024)
Unionised × Subgroup		-0.075 (0.064)	0.049*** (0.017)	0.055** (0.025)
Migrant × Licensed	0.063* (0.035)	0.094*** (0.027)	0.100** (0.045)	0.102** (0.049)
Migrant × Certified	0.050* (0.025)	0.060** (0.028)	0.001 (0.052)	0.120*** (0.041)
Migrant × Unionised	-0.006 (0.029)	-0.012 (0.027)	-0.014 (0.036)	0.003 (0.046)
Migrant × Licensed × Subgroup		-0.293 (0.175)	-0.090 (0.059)	-0.081 (0.076)
Migrant × Certified × Subgroup		-0.116 (0.171)	0.112 (0.086)	-0.133** (0.055)
Migrant × Unionised × Subgroup		-0.044 (0.218)	0.033 (0.047)	-0.031 (0.050)
Subgroup		0.123** (0.050)	-0.168*** (0.015)	-0.514*** (0.059)
Country FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Individual controls	✓	✓	✓	✓
Occupation FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Industry FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	15,014	15,014	15,014	14,994
Adj. R-squared	0.776	0.776	0.776	0.776

Notes: OLS regressions using the full sample (weighted using sample weights provided by EU-SOR 2015). The dependent variable is log hourly wage. Individual controls include age, age², indicators for lower secondary, upper secondary, post-secondary, university, and PhD education, gender, firm size dummies, public sector dummy, self-employment dummy. Indicators for occupations are defined for 1-digit ISCO codes. Indicators for industry are defined for 1-digit NACE codes. Standard errors clustered by country are reported in parentheses, significance levels are * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

Source: Own calculations based on the EU-SOR 2015.

TABLE 12
Probability of being licensed, certified, or unionized (interactions with type of employment, gender, and education)

Subgroup	I None	II Self-Employed	III Female	IV Up To Secondary Schooling
Panel A. Dependent variable	Licensed	Licensed	Licensed	Licensed
Migrant	-0.031** (0.012)	-0.026** (0.013)	-0.057*** (0.016)	-0.011 (0.017)
Migrant × Subgroup		-0.045 (0.037)	0.057** (0.023)	-0.041* (0.023)
Subgroup		0.120*** (0.029)	-0.064*** (0.007)	-0.058* (0.034)
Panel B. Dependent variable	Certified	Certified	Certified	Certified
Migrant	0.009 (0.012)	0.012 (0.013)	0.006 (0.016)	0.009 (0.017)
Migrant × Subgroup		-0.033 (0.037)	0.006 (0.023)	-0.005 (0.023)
Subgroup		-0.034 (0.029)	-0.017** (0.007)	0.045 (0.034)
Panel C. Dependent variable	Unionized	Unionized	Unionized	Unionized
Migrant	-0.015 (0.012)	-0.018 (0.013)	0.016 (0.016)	-0.038** (0.017)
Migrant × Subgroup		0.034 (0.037)	-0.069*** (0.023)	0.047** (0.023)
Subgroup		-0.068** (0.029)	-0.011 (0.007)	0.057* (0.034)
Country FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Individual controls	✓	✓	✓	✓
Occupation FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Industry FE	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	15,014	15,014	15,014	14,994
Adj. R-squared	0.095	0.096	0.096	0.096

Notes: OLS estimates of the linear probability model (2) using the full sample (weighted using sample weights provided by EU-SOR 2015). Individual controls include age, age², indicators for lower secondary, upper secondary, post-secondary, university, and PhD education, gender, firm size dummies, public sector dummy, self-employment dummy. Indicators for occupations are defined for 1-digit ISCO codes. Indicators for industry are defined for 1-digit NACE codes. Standard errors are reported in parentheses, significance levels are * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

Source: Own calculations based on the EU-SOR 2015.

Finally, the coefficients of the *Subgroup* variable capture the significant differences in average wages across groups of workers. Wages of self-employed, male, and high education workers are 12, 16, and 51 log points higher than those of employee, female and low education workers. These results are in line with the literature on wage differentials.³²

³²See, for example, Pereira and Galego (2018) and Behr and Pötter (2010).

We also extend model (2) to include the indicator *Subgroup* and its interaction $Migrant \times Subgroup$, where *Subgroup* again denotes either self-employed, female, or low education workers. In Table 12 we report estimates of linear probability models for being licensed, certified, and unionized. The first column reports the results of Table 7, columns V-VII for comparison. On average, migrants are 3.1 percentage points less likely to be licensed. In columns II-IV, the coefficients of *Migrant* show that employee, male and highly educated migrants are 2.6, 5.7, and 1.1 percentage points less represented in licensed occupations than natives. The coefficients on the interaction term $Migrant \times Subgroup$ indicate that self-employed, male, and low education migrants are less likely to be licensed than employee, female, and more educated migrants.

The coefficients on the *Subgroup* variable show significant differences in the representation across the three groups. Self-employed, male, and high education workers are 12, 6.4, and 5.8 percentage points more likely to be licensed than employees, females and low education workers. The high representation of self-employed individuals among licensed workers can be explained by the fact that in many occupations a license is required to start a business, but not to work as an employee.³³

The middle (bottom) panel shows the same coefficients for linear probability models in which the dependent variable is certification (unionization). The *Migrant* indicator is never significant, except for more educated migrants, which are 3.8 percentage points less likely to be unionized than natives. The interaction terms $Migrant \times Subgroup$ indicate no significant differences across subgroups, with the exception of female and more educated migrants, who are less likely to be unionized.

In summary, the results of this section provide additional details and qualify our three main results. First, labor market institutions confer significant wage premia to native workers, which are fairly similar across groups, although union wage premia are larger for female and low educated workers.³⁴ Second, licensed and certified migrants enjoy larger wage premia, which are generally observed across groups. Third, the representation of migrants among licensed (but not certified or unionized) workers is lower than that of natives. We find that this result is larger for self-employed, male and less educated workers.

6. Conclusion

This paper systematically compares migrant wage and representation gaps for three important labor market institutions: occupational licensing, certification, and unionization. Institutions provide significant wage premia, which can be explained mainly by the wage setting power of licensing and unionization (but not

³³For example, real-estate agents, cosmeticians, bakers, butchers, electricians, hairdressers, painter-decorators, and plumbers, in Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, and Hungary are subject to this type of regulation.

³⁴The larger union wage premia for female and low education workers are consistent with the literature on unionization (Card et al. 2020; Jones et al. 2014; Blanchflower and Bryson 2004).

certification), and the screening of workers by licensing and certification (but not by unionization). We also find that licensing (but not certification and unionization) constitute a significant barrier to entry for migrants, who are different from natives in terms of unobservable variables.

The paper focuses on differences across the EU 28 countries and between migrant and native workers in each country. The empirical approach is based on a decomposition of the screening and wage setting effects of labor market institutions. The paper contributes to the literature by providing the first evidence of the importance of both mechanisms for migrants' labor market outcomes. In spite of its empirical relevance, the screening mechanism has received less attention in the literature than the wage setting mechanism.

We contribute to the policy debate by providing new evidence on the importance of occupational regulation for the integration of migrant workers. Our results suggest that policy interventions may try to promote the signaling effect of licensing and certification (for instance by fostering accessibility of information), while limiting the entry restrictions of licensing (for example easing the recognition of foreign credentials). Programs aimed at bridging the gap between natives and migrants in terms of variables such as quality of educational credentials, local knowledge, and language proficiency, which are typically unobservable, have the potential to greatly improve access to licensed occupations and reduce the migrant wage gap. A review of licensing exams may reveal which of these variables are critical for guaranteeing the safety of the public. Reducing unnecessary requirements related to cultural differences may equally benefit migrant workers, with no risk of harming consumers. Our results on certification show that it preserves some of the signaling value of licensing, while being less detrimental to the integration of foreign workers.

References

- AKERLOF, G. A. (1970): “The Market for ”Lemons”: Quality Uncertainty and the Market Mechanism,” *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 84(3), 488–500. Cited on page 5.
- ARROW, K. J. (1973): *The Theory of Discrimination* 3–33. Princeton University Press. Cited on page 6.
- BAYNE, E., C. NORRIS, AND E. TIMMONS (2020): “A Primer on Emergency Occupational Licensing Reforms for Combating COVID-19,” Mercatus Special Edition Policy Brief. Cited on page 6.
- BEHR, A., AND U. PÖTTER (2010): “What Determines Wage Differentials Across the EU?,” *The Journal of Economic Inequality*, 8(1), 101–120. Cited on page 24.
- BEINE, M., F. DOCQUIER, AND M. SCHIFF (2013): “International Migration, Transfer of Norms and Home Country Fertility,” *Canadian Journal of Economics*, 46(4), 1406–1430. Cited on page 20.
- BLAIR, P. Q., AND B. W. CHUNG (2018): “Job Market Signaling through Occupational Licensing,” Working Paper 24791, National Bureau of Economic Research. Cited on page 6.
- BLANCHFLOWER, D., AND A. BRYSON (2004): “What Effect do Unions Have on Wages Now and Would Freeman and Medoff be Surprised?,” *Journal of Labor Research*, 25(3), 383–414. Cited on pages 16 and 25.
- BORJAS, G. J. (1985): “Assimilation, Changes in Cohort Quality, and the Earnings of Immigrants,” *Journal of Labor Economics*, 3(4), 463–489. Cited on page 6.
- (1987): “Self-Selection and the Earnings of Immigrants,” *American Economic Review*, 77(4), 531–553. Cited on pages 3 and 6.
- (1991): “Immigration and Self-Selection,” in *Immigration, Trade, and the Labor Market*, ed. by J. M. Abowd, and R. B. Freeman, 29–76. University of Chicago Press. Cited on pages 3 and 6.
- (2014): *Immigration Economics*. Harvard University Press. Cited on page 6.
- BOTERO, J., S. DJANKOV, R. LAPORTA, F. L. DE SILANES, AND A. SHLEIFER (2004): “The Regulation of Labor,” *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 119(4), 1339–1382. Cited on pages 19 and 33.
- BRÜCKER, H., A. GLITZ, A. LERCHE, AND A. ROMITI (2021): “Occupational Recognition and Immigrant Labor Market Outcomes,” *Journal of Labor Economics*, 39(2), 497–525. Cited on page 5.
- BRYSON, A., H. DALE-OLSEN, AND K. NERGAARD (2020): “Gender Differences in the Union Wage Premium? A Comparative Case Study,” *European Journal of Industrial Relations*, 26(2), 173–190. Cited on page 22.

- CARD, D. (1996): “The Effect of Unions on the Structure of Wages: A Longitudinal Analysis,” *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society*, 957–979. Cited on page 22.
- CARD, D., T. LEMIEUX, AND W. C. RIDDELL (2020): “Unions and Wage Inequality: The Roles of Gender, Skill and Public Sector Employment,” *Canadian Journal of Economics*, 53(1), 140–173. Cited on page 25.
- CASSIDY, H., AND T. DACASS (2021): “Occupational Licensing and Immigrants,” *Journal of Law and Economics*, 64(1), 1–28. Cited on pages 5, 11, and 16.
- CHISWICK, B. R., AND P. W. MILLER (2009): “The International Transferability of Immigrants’ Human Capital,” *Economics of Education Review*, 28(2), 162 – 169. Cited on page 6.
- DOCQUIER, F., H. RAPOPORT, AND S. SALOMONE (2012): “Remittances, Migrants’ Education and Immigration Policy: Theory and Evidence from Bilateral Data,” *Regional Science and Urban Economics*, 42(5), 817–828. Cited on page 20.
- FEDERMAN, M. N., D. E. HARRINGTON, AND K. J. KRYNSKI (2006): “The Impact of State Licensing Regulations on Low-Skilled Immigrants: The Case of Vietnamese Manicurists,” *American Economic Review*, 96(2), 237–241. Cited on pages 5 and 18.
- FRIEDBERG, R. M. (2000): “You Can’t Take It with You? Immigrant Assimilation and the Portability of Human Capital,” *Journal of Labor Economics*, 18(2), 221–251. Cited on page 6.
- FRIEDMAN, M., AND S. KUZNETS (1954): *Income from Independent Professional Practice*. National Bureau of Economic Research, New York. Cited on page 5.
- FULTON, L. (2015): “Worker Representation in Europe, Workplace Representation,” *European Trade Union Institute (ETUI)*. Cited on page 2.
- GITTLEMAN, M., M. A. KLEE, AND M. M. KLEINER (2018): “Analyzing the Labor Market Outcomes of Occupational Licensing,” *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 57(1), 57–100. Cited on pages 1, 2, and 11.
- GITTLEMAN, M., AND M. M. KLEINER (2016): “Wage Effects of Unionization and Occupational Licensing Coverage in the United States,” *ILR Review*, 69(1), 142–172. Cited on pages 5 and 16.
- GITTLEMAN, M., AND B. PIERCE (2007): “New Estimates of Union Wage Effects in the US,” *Economics Letters*, 95(2), 198–202. Cited on page 22.
- GOMEZ, R., M. GUNDERSON, X. HUANG, AND T. ZHANG (2015): “Do Immigrants Gain or Lose by Occupational Licensing?,” *Canadian Public Policy*, 41, S80–S97. Cited on pages 5 and 16.

- HEAD, K., T. MAYER, AND J. RIES (2010): “The Erosion of Colonial Trade Linkages after Independence,” *Journal of International Economics*, 81(1), 1 – 14. Cited on pages 19 and 33.
- HERMANSEN, M. (2019): “Occupational Licensing and Job Mobility in the United States,” Discussion Paper 1585, OECD, Paris. Cited on page 7.
- HOLEN, A. S. (1965): “Effects of Professional Licensing Arrangements on Interstate Labor Mobility and Resource Allocation,” *Journal of Political Economy*, 73(5), 492–498. Cited on page 5.
- JOHNSON, J. E., AND M. M. KLEINER (2020): “Is Occupational Licensing a Barrier to Interstate Migration?,” *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy*, 12(3), 347–73. Cited on pages 5 and 18.
- JONES, J., J. SCHMITT, AND N. WOO (2014): “Women, Working Families, and Unions,” CEPR Reports and Issue Briefs 2014-11, Center for Economic and Policy Research (CEPR). Cited on page 25.
- KLEINER, M. M. (2000): “Occupational Licensing,” *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 14(4), 189–202. Cited on pages 5 and 16.
- KLEINER, M. M. (2006): *Licensing Occupations: Ensuring Quality or Restricting Competition?* WE Upjohn Institute. Cited on page 2.
- KLEINER, M. M., R. S. GAY, AND K. GREENE (1982): “Barriers to Labor Migration: The Case of Occupational Licensing,” *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 21(3), 383–391. Cited on page 5.
- KLEINER, M. M., AND A. B. KRUEGER (2013): “Analyzing the Extent and Influence of Occupational Licensing on the Labor Market,” *Journal of Labor Economics*, 31(S1), S173–S202. Cited on pages 1, 2, 5, 11, and 16.
- KLEINER, M. M., AND R. T. KUDRLE (2000): “Does Regulation Affect Economic Outcomes? The Case of Dentistry,” *Journal of Law and Economics*, 43(2), 547–582. Cited on page 5.
- KOUMENTA, M., AND M. PAGLIERO (2017): “Measuring Prevalence and Labour Market Impacts of Occupational Regulation in the EU,” *European Commission*. Cited on page 32.
- (2019): “Occupational Regulation in the European Union: Coverage and Wage Effects,” *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 57(4), 818–849. Cited on pages 1, 2, 5, and 11.
- LELAND, H. E. (1979): “Quacks, Lemons, and Licensing: A Theory of Minimum Quality Standards,” *Journal of Political Economy*, 87(6), 1328–1346. Cited on page 7.

- LIST, J. A. (2004): “The Nature and Extent of Discrimination in the Marketplace: Evidence from the Field,” *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 119(1), 49–89. Cited on page 6.
- LUCIO, M. M., AND R. PERRETT (2009): “The Diversity and Politics of Trade Unions’ Responses to Minority Ethnic and Migrant Workers: The Context of the UK,” *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 30(3), 324–347. Cited on page 3.
- MINCER, J. (1958): “Investment in Human Capital and Personal Income Distribution,” *Journal of Political Economy*, 66(4), 281–302. Cited on page 12.
- ORTEGA, F., AND G. PERI (2013): “The Effect of Income and Immigration Policies on International Migration,” *Migration Studies*, 1(1), 47–74. Cited on page 19.
- PAGLIERO, M. (2010): “Licensing Exam Difficulty and Entry Salaries in the US Market for Lawyers,” *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 48(4), 726–739. Cited on page 5.
- (2011): “What is the Objective of Professional Licensing? Evidence from the US Market for Lawyers,” *International Journal of Industrial Organization*, 29(4), 473 – 483. Cited on page 5.
- (2019): “Occupational Licensing in the EU: Protecting Consumers or Limiting Competition?,” *Review of Industrial Organization*, 55(1), 137–153. Cited on page 5.
- PASHIGIAN, B. P. (1979): “Occupational Licensing and the Interstate Mobility of Professionals,” *Journal of Law & Economics*, 22(1), 1–25. Cited on page 5.
- PEREIRA, J. A., AND A. GALEGO (2018): “Inter-Country Wage Differences in the European Union,” *International Labour Review*, 157(1), 101–128. Cited on page 24.
- PHELPS, E. S. (1972): “The Statistical Theory of Racism and Sexism,” *American Economic Review*, 62(4), 659–661. Cited on page 6.
- ROSTAM-AFSCHAR, D. (2014): “Entry Regulation and Entrepreneurship: A Natural Experiment in German Craftsmanship,” *Empirical Economics*, 47(3), 1067–1101. Cited on pages 5 and 18.
- ROY, A. D. (1951): “Some Thoughts on the Distribution of Earnings,” *Oxford Economic Papers*, 3(2), 135–146. Cited on pages 3 and 6.
- SANROMÁ, E., R. RAMOS, AND H. SIMÓN (2015): “How Relevant is the Origin of Human Capital for Migrant Wages? Evidence From Spain,” *Journal of Applied Economics*, 18(1), 149 – 172. Cited on page 6.

- SHAPIRO, C. (1986): “Investment, Moral Hazard, and Occupational Licensing,” *Review of Economic Studies*, 53(5), 843–862. Cited on pages 5 and 7.
- SPENCE, M. (1973): “Job Market Signaling,” *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 87(3), 355–374. Cited on page 6.
- STIGLER, G. J. (1971): “The Theory of Economic Regulation,” *Bell Journal of Economics and Management Science*, 2(1), 3–21. Cited on page 5.
- STIGLITZ, J. E. (1975): “The Theory of ”Screening,” Education, and the Distribution of Income,” *The American economic review*, 65(3), 283–300. Cited on page 6.
- SWEETMAN, A., J. T. MCDONALD, AND L. HAWTHORNE (2015): “Occupational Regulation and Foreign Qualification Recognition: An Overview,” *Canadian Public Policy*, 41, S1–S13. Cited on page 3.
- TANI, M. (2020): “Occupational Licensing and the Skills Mismatch of Highly Educated Migrants,” *British Journal of Industrial Relations*. Cited on page 5.
- VON RUEDEN, C., AND I. BAMBALAITE (2020): “Measuring Occupational Entry Regulations: A New OECD Approach,” Discussion Paper 1606, OECD, Paris. Cited on page 7.

Appendix

A Details on Key Variables in the EU-SOR

TABLE A.1
Definition of key variables

Variable	Definition
<i>Migrant</i>	Indicator variable equal to one if the respondent reported being born in a country different from the country of residence in 2015.
<i>Licensed</i>	Indicator variable based on the question (asked after a question on highest educational attainment): 'In addition to this education, do you have a professional certification, license or did you have to take an exam which is required to practice your occupation?' and 'Without this professional certification, license or exam would you be legally allowed to practice your occupation?'. An individual is classified as 'licensed' if she answers 'Yes' to the first question and 'No' to the second. We exclude a small number of licensed workers who are in the process of obtaining their qualification.
<i>Certified</i>	A worker is classified as 'certified' if she answers 'Yes' to the first question and 'Yes' or 'Don't know/No answer' to the second question. We exclude a small number of certified workers who are in the process of obtaining their qualification.
<i>Unionised</i>	Indicator variable equal to one if respondent reports to be member of a trade union.

Notes: The full questionnaire is available in Koumenta and Pagliero (2017).