EXAMINING GENDER AND ETHNIC SEGREGATION IN ITALY'S LABOUR MARKET: ARE WOMEN AND MIGRANTS MORE SEGREGATED THAN MEN AND NATIVES?

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Abstract

In Italy, migration is a new phenomenon, with non-native women and men constituting roughly equal shares of the workforce. However, their employment sectors differ significantly: non-native women often work in the same sectors as native women, while non-native men are employed in distinct sectors compared to their native counterparts. This paper examines gender segregation by analysing individuals' backgrounds—distinguishing between native and non-native workers—and the impact of contract types, specifically fixed-term versus open-ended contracts. The study aims to determine whether the prevalence of these contract types influences the level of gender segregation across sectors. Findings indicate that the type of employment contract significantly affects gender segregation. Increased use of fixed-term contracts is associated with a reduction in sectoral segregation, suggesting that women are increasingly willing to enter male-dominated fields, while men tend to gravitate towards female-dominated sectors. This dynamic underscores the complexities of gender roles within the context of migration and employment.

1. Introduction

Migration and gender dynamics represent two intersecting realms of study that have garnered significant attention in contemporary economic discourse, particularly within the context of Italy. Italy, situated at the crossroads of Europe, has long been a destination for migrants seeking economic opportunities, refuge, or reunification with family members. Simultaneously, gender roles and inequalities have undergone profound transformations in recent decades, shaping and being shaped

by migration patterns and policies. Understanding the nexus of migration and gender in Italy holds critical importance for policymakers, economists, and social scientists alike. This intersectionality not only illuminates the complex socio-economic landscape of the country but also provides insights into broader global migration trends and gender dynamics. Given these intersections, one key question arises: to what extent do gendered migration patterns exacerbate labour market inequalities and segregation in Italy, particularly in the context of fixed term versus open ended sectoral employment conditions?

After examining gender segregation in relation to individuals' backgrounds—differentiating between natives and non-natives—as well as contract types by distinguishing between fixed-term and open-ended contracts, the paper aim is to investigate how migration patterns and gender inequalities intersect to shape Italy's labour market, particularly with respect to fixed-term versus open-ended contracts. Additionally, it will explore how these intersectional dynamics in Italy reflect broader European and global trends in migration and labour markets.

Literature regarding gender and migration highlights that migration is not gender neutral. As highlighted by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), approximately 7% of the people living in the European Union are born outside the EU and half of them are women. In Italy, in 2023, the number of resident foreigners is approximately 5 million, with about half being women.

Italy's migration patterns underwent significant changes after 1970, reflecting broader global trends, economic transformations, and evolving migration policies. Following World War II, Italy shifted from being primarily a country of emigration to a destination for immigrants, particularly from Southern Europe. However, it was after 1970 that immigration from non-European countries surged, leading to notable demographic shifts and socio-economic changes. A key factor driving this influx was the rapid industrialization and economic growth, particularly in Northern Italy, which created a high demand for labour in sectors like manufacturing, construction, and services. While internal migration from the South to the North continued, immigration from countries such as Morocco, Tunisia, Albania and Philippines also increased. The oil crises of the 1970s, coupled with economic instability and rising unemployment in Southern Europe, further contributed to the migration flow towards Italy. Many individuals and families sought better opportunities, which led to both documented migration through family reunification and labour programmes, as well as an increase in undocumented migration. In the 1980s and 1990s, Italy also became a major destination for immigrants from Eastern Europe, particularly Albania and Romania, following the collapse of the Eastern Bloc. Moreover, the country saw growing numbers of asylum seekers and refugees fleeing conflicts in regions such as Somalia, Ethiopia and the former Yugoslavia (Del Boca Venturini, 2003).

Despite significant social changes in recent decades, labour market inequalities based on gender and migration status continue to persist globally (Adsera and Chiswick, 2007; Reyneri and Fullin, 2011; Biletta et al., 2019; Grubanov-Boskovic, Tintori and Biagi, 2020). Temporary employment is a prominent feature of European labour markets, with countries like Poland, Spain, Croatia, Portugal, and the Netherlands seeing more than 15% of workers on temporary contracts. While the gender distribution of temporary workers is relatively balanced, temporary contracts disproportionately affect certain groups, including young people (44%), migrants (with a 5.5 percentage point gap compared to EU-born workers) and those in elementary occupations (23.7%).

Workers on open-ended contracts typically earn more than those on temporary contracts, highlighting the wage disparity linked to job security. The issue of job segregation is particularly relevant here: while segregation itself does not inherently indicate whether it is beneficial or detrimental to a group, it is well-documented that women and immigrants tend to occupy lower-status, lower-paying jobs, often at the bottom of the occupational ladder. This trend is exacerbated in temporary employment, where precarious job conditions are more common, leading to lower wages compared to their male and native counterparts (Kaufman, 2010; Ballarino and Panichella, 2018). For women, job segregation is a key factor in explaining the gender pay gap (Boll, Rossen, and Wolf, 2017; Blau and Kahn, 2017) and the undervaluation of women's work (Bettio and Verashchagina, 2009). Temporary contracts, which are often associated with lower pay and job insecurity, reinforce these gendered and migrant-related inequalities, further entrenching the socio-economic disadvantage of these groups in the labour market.

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 presents the literature review, discussing key research on migration patterns, gender inequalities, and labour market segmentation. Section 3 provides a descriptive analysis, offering an overview of Italy's labour market dynamics, with particular focus on the intersections of migration and gender. Section 4 outlines the estimation strategy and presents the econometric results, testing the hypotheses derived from the literature and analysis in earlier sections. Section 5 concludes the paper by discussing the findings' policy implications, as well as offering recommendations based on the analysis undertaken.

2. Literature Review

The study of migration and gender has evolved significantly over the past century. Neoclassical migration theories, which dominate much of early research, typically emphasize wage differentials between origin and destination as the primary drivers of migration decisions (Todaro, 1969; Harris and Todaro, 1970). These models assume that individuals, when deciding whether to migrate, weigh the economic benefits against the costs, basing their decision purely on the expected returns.

However, such models fail to account for the role of gender, which shapes both the migration process and its outcomes in distinct ways. For instance, female-specific push factors such as gender-based discrimination in the local labour market, as well as pull factors like opportunities in gendered sectors (e.g., care work, hospitality) are often overlooked (Anastasiadou et al., 2023).

The gendered nature of migration was first acknowledged in the late 19th century, most notably by Ravenstein (1889) in his Laws of Migration, which revealed that men were more likely to migrate than women, and that women tended to migrate for family reasons rather than for economic opportunities. However, until the 1970s, migration studies largely ignored gender, focusing on the broader demographic and economic patterns of migration. It was not until the early 1980s that migration scholars began to examine how gender influenced migration patterns more explicitly. One key turning point came in 1984 with the publication of a special issue by the International Migration Review, which shifted the focus from studying women in migration to studying migration through the gender lens. Instead of contrasting men and women, this body of work began exploring gender as a system of social relations that migration itself both shaped and was shaped by. This perspective paved the way for more nuanced understandings of migration as an inherently gendered process (Meyer et al., 2019; Curran and Rivero-Fuentes, 2003).

In the late 1990s, scholars began using the term "feminization of migration" to describe the increasing participation of women in migration flows, particularly in the context of labour migration. Women began migrating independently for work, and the nature of migration flows shifted, with women increasingly moving into sectors like domestic work, care, and the service industry (Casas and Garson, 2005; Mahler and Pessar, 2006). This shift was particularly visible in Southern European countries like Italy, Spain, and Greece, which experienced substantial migration from the Global South. In these countries, women often filled jobs in domestic care work and other low-paid, low-status occupations, which were not as accessible to men (Hondagneu-Sotelo, 1994).

Despite this significant shift, early studies on the feminization of migration still often viewed migration through a binary lens, focusing either on women or men, without fully considering the intersectionality of gender with other social categories such as race, class, and ethnicity (Crenshaw, 1989). The intersection of gender and ethnicity in migration is particularly important, as non-native women often face compounded forms of discrimination in both their countries of origin and in the labour markets of destination countries (Donato and Gabaccia, 2015).

Italy provides a particularly interesting case for exploring the intersection of migration, gender, and labour market inequality. While Italy has long been a source of emigration, it has been a major immigration destination since the 1970s, particularly for migrants from Southern Europe, North Africa, and Eastern Europe (Del Boca and Venturini, 2003). Today, approximately 5 million foreign

residents live in Italy, with women accounting for roughly half of this population (ISTAT, 2023). However, migration in Italy is highly gendered, with female migrants more likely to be employed in low-wage, low-skill sectors such as domestic work, cleaning, and caregiving, sectors which are often undervalued and informal (Caponio and Borkert, 2010).

Moreover, gender segregation in Italy's labour market persists, with migrant women more likely to accept precarious employment conditions compared to both native women and migrant men. These patterns reflect global trends where migrant women are disproportionately represented in temporary, low-paid and informal work (Reyneri and Fullin, 2011). However, the literature on gendered migration in Italy is still relatively limited, especially with regard to how ethnicity intersects with gender in shaping labour market outcomes. Few studies have examined how ethnicity further compounds the disadvantages migrant women face in accessing higher-status or more secure forms of employment. While existing literature has highlighted the increasing feminization of migration and the role of gender in shaping migration decisions and outcomes, there remains a gap in understanding how gender and ethnicity intersect in migrant labour markets, particularly in countries like Italy. Studies often examine gender segregation in isolation or focus only on native versus migrant workers, but rarely do they consider both gender and ethnicity together in shaping labour market outcomes. This paper aims to fill this gap by analyzing the intersection of gender and ethnicity in Italy's labour market, with a particular focus on the segregation of migrants and native workers in fixed-term versus open-ended employment contracts. The aim is to explore how gendered and ethnic inequalities in migration processes affect the employment conditions of migrant women, who are often at the intersection of these multiple layers of disadvantage.

This review highlights that migration is a deeply gendered process that cannot be fully understood without considering the social, economic, and cultural contexts in which migration occurs. Existing theories, such as neoclassical migration theory, largely overlook the gendered experiences of migrants, while the concept of the feminization of migration has only begun to gain traction in recent decades. Studies in Italy have examined aspects of migrant labour market integration but have yet to fully account for the intersection of gender and ethnicity in the analysis of migration and employment. This study seeks to address these gaps by investigating how gendered migration patterns, along with ethnicity, influence labour market segregation, especially in relation to job security and contract types.

3. Data and Preliminary Evidence

Our analysis will be based on the ISTAT (the Italian National Institute of Statistics) dataset, which provides data for the period 2018-2023 regarding employment by macro-area, gender, sector, and

nativity (native vs. non-native status). According to the definition provided by ISTAT, non-natives refer to individuals who were not born in Italy, regardless of their nationality at birth or current citizenship status. These individuals may be foreign-born migrants or second-generation immigrants, and are typically distinguished from 'native' individuals, who were born in Italy. The term non-natives can encompass both foreign nationals and those who have acquired Italian citizenship after immigrating. Italy is divided into four macro-areas: the Northwest, which includes Liguria, Lombardia, Piemonte, and Valle d'Aosta; the Northeast, which includes Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Trentino-Alto Adige, Veneto, and Emilia-Romagna; the Centre, which includes Lazio, Marche, Toscana, and Umbria; and the South, which includes Abruzzo, Basilicata, Calabria, Campania, Molise, Puglia, Sardegna, and Sicilia.

Table 1. Distribution of employees between native/non-native status, gender and macro-areas (Average 2018-2022)

	Non-Native		Native	
geo	W	M	W	M
North West	4.81	6.7	39.09	49.4
North East	5.08	6.56	38.95	49.42
Centre	5.43	6.67	38.86	49.04
South	2.28	3.41	34.62	59.7

Source: own elaboration

Among employees, the number of non-native residents working in Italy is approximately 5 million, with about 50% being women. The share of non-native employees is around 11.5% in the northern and central regions, while it is about 5.6% in the southern regions. The northern regions have an economic structure that provides more job opportunities than the southern regions. Additionally, the gender distribution shows a small difference in favour of men—approximately 1.5%—across all macro-areas.

According to the definition provided by the EIGE, gender segregation refers to the differences in the representation of women and men across various domains, including the labour market, public and political life, unpaid domestic work and caregiving, as well as the educational choices of young women and men. In Italy, employees are not uniformly distributed across sectors, and the share of employment within specific sectors varies by macro-area. Using the NACE Rev.2 classification, industries are grouped into five sectors: Agriculture (A), Industry (B-E), Construction (F), Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles (G), Transportation and storage (H), Accommodation and food service activities (I), and the remaining industries (J-U).

Table 2 highlights that the share of native men employed in agriculture ranges from 1.41% in the Northwest to 4.63% in the South. Moreover, both native and non-native men have a high proportion of open-ended contracts. In the industry sector, the share of male workers is higher than that of female workers, regardless of nativity. Additionally, the industry sector is characterized by a high proportion of open-ended contracts, regardless of whether workers are native or non-native.

In construction, the share of non-native men is higher than the share of both native and non-native women, as well as higher than the share of native men. Furthermore, most employees in this sector have open-ended contracts. In the G-I sector, the share of native men is almost equal to that of native women. Among non-natives, however, the share of men is higher. Additionally, non-natives have a higher share of open-ended contracts compared to natives. This may be because non-natives are less likely to accept fixed-term contracts, as an open-ended contract offers a longer duration of stay. Finally, in sectors J-U, there is a high share of female workers, both native and non-native. However, the proportion of open-ended contracts is higher among non-natives than among natives.

Table 2. Share of native- women and men between sectors, macro-areas, gender and contract (Average 2018-2022)

	Agriculture		Industry		Construction		G-I		J-U		Total		
	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	M+W
Non Native													
Open Ended													
North West	0.37	2.5	3.7	17.04	0.23	7.45	4.95	7.55	28.55	15.49	37.8	50.03	87.83
North East	1.16	3.12	5.41	20.43	0.16	5.73	7.24	7.33	25.99	12.93	39.96	49.54	89.5
Centre	0.91	5.53	3.28	9.09	0.08	7.92	6.81	9.49	29.67	13	40.75	45.03	85.78
South	3.25	15.52	1.24	5.85	0.1	7.16	6.6	10.26	25.11	10.11	36.3	48.9	85.2
Fixed Term													
North West	0.09	0.16	0.22	0.59	0.06	2.7	1.51	2.77	2.09	1.97	3.97	8.19	12.16
North East	0.1	0.09	0.32	0.56	0.14	2.33	1.43	2.29	1.7	1.56	3.69	6.83	10.52
Centre	0.15	0.2	0.52	0.63	0.06	3.21	1.37	3.07	2.03	2.96	4.13	10.07	14.2
South	0.17	0.34	0.06	0.22	0.02	0.94	2.22	8.56	1.33	0.93	3.8	10.99	14.79
Total													
North West	0.46	2.66	3.92	17.63	0.29	10.15	6.46	10.32	30.64	17.46	41.77	58.22	100
North East	1.26	3.21	5.73	20.99	0.3	8.06	8.67	9.62	27.69	14.49	43.65	56.37	100
Centre	1.06	5.73	3.8	9.72	0.14	11.13	8.18	12.56	31.7	15.96	44.88	55.1	100
South	3.42	15.86	1.3	6.07	0.12	8.1	8.82	18.82	26.44	11.04	40.1	59.89	100
Native													
Open Ended													
	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	M+W

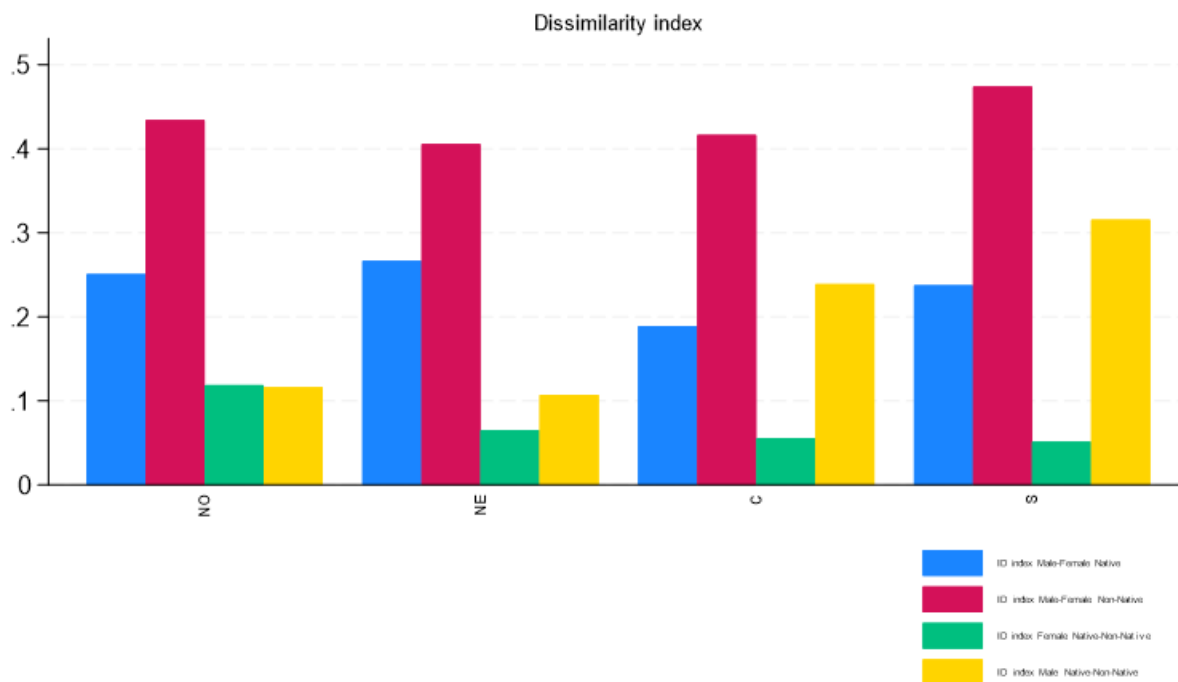|													
North West	0.12	0.34	6.54	16.13	0.4	2.71	6.93	5.85	22.84	15.79	36.83	40.82	77.65
North East	0.35	0.71	6.95	16.86	0.47	2.58	7.44	5.89	21.84	14.27	37.05	40.31	77.36
Centre	0.28	0.57	4.32	10.52	0.39	2.54	6.89	6.26	24.31	20.3	36.19	40.19	76.38
South	1.11	2.71	2.01	9.68	0.22	4.52	5.5	7.95	20.78	20.56	29.62	45.42	75.04
Fixed Term													
North West	0.36	1.07	0.49	1.73	0.12	2.18	2.02	3.69	4.34	6.32	7.33	14.99	22.32
North East	0.56	1.8	0.46	1.99	0.13	2.28	2.24	3.67	3.64	5.86	7.03	15.6	22.63
Centre	0.43	1.02	0.48	1.56	0.07	1.89	2.25	4.2	4.79	6.94	8.02	15.61	23.63
South	0.68	1.92	0.37	1.56	0.07	2.1	2.45	6.01	3.5	6.29	7.07	17.88	24.95
Total													
North West	0.48	1.41	7.03	17.86	0.52	4.89	8.95	9.54	27.18	22.11	44.16	55.81	100
North East	0.91	2.51	7.41	18.85	0.6	4.86	9.68	9.56	25.48	20.13	44.08	55.91	100
Centre	0.71	1.59	4.8	12.08	0.46	4.43	9.14	10.46	29.1	27.24	44.21	55.8	100
South	1.79	4.63	2.38	11.24	0.29	6.62	7.95	13.96	24.28	26.85	36.69	63.3	100

Source: own elaboration

The situation described above highlights segregation based on both gender and nativity. Segregation occurs when population subgroups, into which the economy can be divided, are not evenly distributed across organizational units. Our investigation follows the approach outlined by Albelda (1986). Her study found that segregation between natives and non-natives decreased in the U.S. between 1958 and 1981, while gender segregation remained stable. Our study aims to investigate the relationship between women and men, and between natives and non-natives, with a focus on gender. To do so, we begin by measuring gender segregation using the Duncan and Duncan index (1955):

$$ID = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left| \frac{m_i}{M} - \frac{f_i}{F} \right| \qquad (1)$$

where m_i is the number of males employed in sector i, M is the total number of males employed, f_i is the number of females employed in sector i, and F is the total number of females employed. The index varies from 0 to 1, where 0 represents perfect equality and 1 represents perfect inequality. Dissimilarity index (ID) identifies the percentage of employed women who would have to change occupation for the occupational distribution of men and woman would be equal. In our study ID-native is the segregation between men and woman native while ID-nonnative is the segregation between men and woman non-native. Furthermore, ID index is calculated between men native and non- native (ID-Mn_nn), and between women native and non-native (ID-Fn_nn).

Figure 1. Dissimilarity index by macro-area

Dissimilarity index

(Legend)
- ID index Male-Female Native
- ID index Male-Female Non-Native
- ID index Female Native-Non-Native
- ID index Male Native-Non-Native

Source: own elaboration

Figure 1 highlights segregation both between genders across macro-areas and between natives and non-natives within the same gender, also by macro-area. The highest level of segregation is observed between non-native women and men, as they tend to work in different sectors. Women are primarily employed in the J-U sectors, while men are concentrated in construction. Segregation is particularly high in the South of Italy. Native and non-native men share the same ID index in Northern Italy, but segregation increases in the central and southern regions. This difference may be due to the regional economic structure. In the North of Italy, men predominantly work in the industrial sector, while in the Centre and South, there are more job opportunities in the services sector and construction. As previously mentioned, construction is a male-dominated sector, which contributes to the increased polarization between men and women. The lowest segregation index is found between native and non-native women, especially in the South, suggesting that, regardless of their place of origin, women tend to work in similar sectors.

4. Empirical Framework

The aim of this paper is to investigate the relationship between gender segregation and contract types. So far, our exploratory analysis highlights that women are primarily employed in the J-U sectors, while non-native men are concentrated in construction. Finally, native men are employed in industry. These sectors differ not only in the types of jobs and skills required but also in the contracts offered. Industry provides more stable jobs and more open-ended contracts compared to the J-U sectors. Moreover, natives are more likely to accept fixed-term contracts, while non-natives tend to prefer open-ended contracts or self-employment, as highlighted by Ambrosini and Pinchella (2023). Our aim is to investigate whether and how the type of contract (open-ended vs. fixed-term) influences gender segregation.

Our estimation strategy will use a panel model with random effects in accordance with the results provided by the Hausmann test. The model will be the following:

$$y_{it} = \alpha + x_{it}\beta_i + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad (2)$$

where y_{it} is the dependent variable for unit i in period t, x_{it} are the covariates, β_i are the coefficients of the dependent variable, μ_i represents the individual-specific random effect, and ε_{it} is the error term. Our estimation strategy will consider the dissimilarity index as the dependent variable and the share of open-ended fixed-term contracts as a covariate. We expect that the contract type may either increase or decrease gender segregation. Although the share of open-ended and fixed-term contracts may be correlated, our tests show that the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is below 1.96. Consequently, there is low multicollinearity between the predictor variable and the other variables in the model. The predictor is not highly correlated with the others and does not significantly inflate the variance of the estimated regression coefficients.

The results are presented in Table 2.A (in the Appendix). Table 3 displays only the sign of the significant covariates while the estimation results are presented in the Appendix.

Table 3. Regressions' signs - Open_ended contracts

VARIABLES	IDnative	IDnonnative	IDFn_nn	IDMn_nn
Open_ended_I				
Open_ended_C				Negative
Open_ended_G-I		Positive		Positive
Open_ended_J_U	Negative			

The dissimilarity index decreases (i.e., gender segregation decreases) among natives when the number of open-ended contracts increases in the J-U sector. In the J-U sector, the share of native women is higher than that of native men. Moreover, this sector has a higher proportion of native men

with fixed-term contracts. If the number of open-ended contracts increases, the sector will become more appealing to native men as well. Consequently, the number of native men willing to work in this sector will rise, leading to a decrease in the dissimilarity index. Increasing the number of open-ended contracts in the G-I sector has a positive impact on the dissimilarity index, meaning segregation increases both between native and non-native men and between non-native men and women. In the G-I sector, men and women are equally represented. The results suggest that an increase in open-ended contracts may make the industry more appealing to one gender over another. As a result, the number of employees of that gender increases, leading to greater gender segregation. This trend is evident among both native and non-native men, as well as between non-native men and women.

Our last step is to analyze the impact of fixed-term contracts on dissimilarity. As before, we will use two different measures of dissimilarity. In this case, our VIF is 2.5, indicating that we can avoid collinearity. The results are presented in Table 3.A (in the Appendix), which displays only the signs of the significant covariates.

Table 4. Regressions' signs - Fixed-term contracts

VARIABLES	IDnative	IDnonnative	IDFn_nn	IDMn_nn
Fixed_term_I		Negative		Negative
Fixed_term_C	Positive	Negative		
Fixed_term_GI	Negative	Negative	Negative	
Fixed_term_JU	Negative	Negative		Negative

Fixed-term contracts have a negative impact on dissimilarity, meaning that gender segregation decreases as the number of fixed-term contracts increases—except for native individuals in the construction sector. This result suggests that gender segregation can be influenced by the type of contract. It is reasonable to assume that an increase in fixed-term contracts represents an opportunity to enter the job market or transition from informal work to positions with legal protections. This shift creates opportunities, making both men and women more willing to work across various industries.

5. Conclusions and Policy Implications

Migration is an important topic. In accordance with the data provided by the World Migration Report 2024, the international migrant passed from 2.6% world population in 1970 to 3.6% world population in 2020. The migrants are 278 million in 2023 in accordance with the data provided by the United Nations. The latest available international migrant stock data (2020) show that nearly 87 million international migrants lived in Europe, an increase of nearly 16 per cent since 2015, when around 75 million international migrants resided in the region. A little over half of these (44 million) were born in Europe, but were living elsewhere in the region; this number has increased since 2015, rising from 38 million. In 2020, the population of non-European migrants in Europe reached over 40 million. The

data highlight also that half of them are women. The women decide to emigrate because pursuit of opportunities for work and better wages. However, in country of destination women find a low skill less pay, less resilient jobs.

Our contribution represents a pioneering contribution in Italy, exploring the interplay between migration and gender segregation. As migration patterns evolve, both men and women are affected in distinct ways. Descriptive analyses align with findings from Albeda (1986) in the U.S.: women, regardless of their migrant status, experience segregation, while men segregation is influenced by their immigrant status. Notably, women are primarily concentrated in the service sector, whereas non-native men are often found in construction.

Addressing this segregation presents challenges; however, the study highlights that contract type can play a crucial role in mitigating gender segregation, particularly through fixed-term contracts. Interestingly, the data indicates that when fixed-term contracts are offered, women are increasingly willing to enter male-dominated fields, while men tend to gravitate toward female-dominated sectors.

The results also present some policy implications. Gender segregation is not the issue per se, but it is important because women tend to work in less resilient and lower-paying sectors. Consequently, as the INPS Report (2024) highlighted, they are, for example, more exposed to economic violence. The results underline the complexities of gender roles within the context of migration and employment. Finally, further research should focus on testing the relationship between dissimilarity and economic growth.

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Appendix

Table 1A: summary statistics

	stats	Agricolture	Industry	Construction	G-I	J-U
North West	mean	2.03	24.51	6	18.3	49.16
	sd	0.18	0.2	0.44	0.48	0.22
	min	1.82	24.29	5.47	17.63	48.93
	max	2.26	24.72	6.63	18.87	49.45
North East	mean	3.55	26.32	5.8	19.12	45.21
	sd	0.19	0.26	0.25	0.75	0.32
	min	3.36	26.04	5.58	18.44	44.75
	max	3.86	26.61	6.2	20.15	45.64
Centre	mean	2.84	16.47	5.66	19.73	55.29
	sd	0.16	0.4	0.17	0.65	0.52
	min	2.64	16.04	5.44	18.85	54.44
	max	3.04	16.93	5.89	20.34	55.84
South	mean	7.16	13.27	6.99	22.23	50.35
	sd	0.15	0.28	0.67	0.55	0.27
	min	6.99	12.87	6.25	21.55	49.91

	max	7.34	13.64	7.91	22.8	50.56

Source: Istat

Table 2.A Estimation results

VARIABLES	IDnative	IDnonnative	IDFn_nn	IDMn_nn
Open_ended_I	0.650	4.738	-0.530	-7.313
	(2.648)	(3.951)	(5.120)	(5.812)
Open_ended_C	0.144	2.184	5.536	-9.794*
	(2.688)	(4.010)	(5.196)	(5.899)
Open_ended_G-I	-0.510	2.531***	-0.778	4.670***
	(0.376)	(0.561)	(0.727)	(0.826)
Open_ended_J_U	-3.172***	0.906	0.613	1.805
	(0.538)	(0.803)	(1.041)	(1.182)
Constant	0.562***	0.0348	-0.0501	0.0837
	(0.128)	(0.192)	(0.248)	(0.282)
Observations	20	20	20	20
Number of geo1	4	4	4	4

Standard errors in parentheses
*** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$

Table 3.A Estimation results

VARIABLES	IDnative	IDnonnative	IDFn_nn	IDMn_nn
fixed_term_I	0.0310	-1.406***	0.299	-1.977***
	(0.102)	(0.224)	(0.266)	(0.212)
fixed_term_C	1.313***	-2.675***	0.735	-0.706
	(0.435)	(0.958)	(1.137)	(0.907)
fixed_term_GI	-1.155**	-5.154***	-3.808***	-0.00298
	(0.481)	(1.060)	(1.258)	(1.003)
fixed_term_JU	-0.951***	-1.507***	0.183	-0.679**
	(0.133)	(0.293)	(0.348)	(0.278)

Constant	0.717***	2.085***	0.425	0.854***
	(0.129)	(0.285)	(0.339)	(0.270)
Observations	20	20	20	20
Number of geo1	4	4	4	4

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1