Indicators on School-to-Work Transitions in Europe

Evaluation and Analyses of the LFS 2000 Ad Hoc Module Data on School-to-Work Transitions:
Indicator report

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Introduction

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The transition from education into working life is among the key topics of current social research and policy interests as it touches upon the core issue of youth labour market integration in different European countries, exhibiting a wide range of institutional structures and macroeconomic context conditions. It has also been one of the most challenging areas of study because of the data constraints and particularly the effective lack of adequate, accessible and comparative longitudinal data.

This situation has improved with the introduction of the European Union Labour Force Survey (EULFS) 2000 ad hoc module on transitions from school-to-work, which combines the virtues of large-scale Labour Force Surveys with special topical information on school-to-work transitions. That is, by providing an add-on to the regular LFS surveys, the ad hoc module allows to generate a certain amount of more particular and in part even longitudinal information on transition processes in about 20 European countries, otherwise unavailable at the European level.

The LFS 2000 ad hoc module on transitions from education into working life is likely to prove a significant improvement of European social statistics in the area of education and labour markets. First of all, the module provides information on a core set of substantively important variables, like additional detail on educational qualifications and careers, duration measures of initial job search periods, or information on the first job held. Next to providing this information, a particularly attractive feature of the ad hoc module is its linkage to the established structure of the LFS. This combination offers benefits of substantively relevant information, large-scale sample sizes, and a comparable and standardized survey design, all of which are crucial to international statistics and cross-nationally comparative studies of social processes. In fact, we believe that the LFS 2000 ad hoc module holds considerable potential for statistical indicator research in terms of providing additional, yet important information on the transition between education and work, which should allow for a marked improvement in social reporting on transition processes. At the same time, the ad hoc module is very likely to further increase the value of the EULFS to applied and academic research - which currently appears significantly underrated: notably, combining the EULFS core and ad hoc module questionnaire yields a quite extraordinary and currently hardly paralleled database on

transition outcomes in Europe, which has rich potentials for comparative analyses of educational careers and patterns of labour market entry.

A particular value of the ad hoc module is that it adds significant detail with respect to *educational attainment and careers* by providing measures of level and type of education at leaving the educational system for the first time. Second, the module adds a *longitudinal perspective on individual employment careers* by providing measures of the incidence of job search periods, job search duration, duration of first job, and occupation of first job, which allow assessing some features of labour market dynamics at the early career stages. Finally, the module has some information on *social background*, so that for the first time, the effects of this variable can also be analysed from the LFS data. The value of the longitudinal perspective to understanding of labour market integration processes in European societies is exemplified in the first chapter of the current report by Kogan and Schubert by applying the LFS 2000 ad hoc module in the construction of new informative indicators of the general process of school to work transitions in Europe from the dynamic perceptive. Further the current report contains new informative indicators in five substantive topical areas, which form core areas of scientific and public policy interest in transition processes, and to which new data is contributed by the module.

In Chapter 2 of the report Iannelli examines *effects of social background factors* on transition outcomes, which are found to shape educational decisions and initial labour market outcomes. The availability of information on *field of education* contributes to two major issues in both research on transitions and current policy concerns, namely *gender inequality* and *job mismatches*. Smyth in Chapter 3 presents evidence that field of education is an important factor in gender inequalities in the transition process: young men and women rather differ in terms of vocational specialization than in levels of education, and this difference is often reflected in subsequent employment outcomes. Information on field of education obviously allows for the construction of indicators of the quality of match between individual qualifications and jobs held by young people so that the level of mismatches and the consequences of these can be compared across European countries. Such analysis is conducted in Chapter 5 by Wolbers. In the preceding chapter (Chapter 4) Gangl and Klügel compare the extent and direction of *labour market mobility among young people*, as well as its underlying sources across European countries using available *duration measures* and especially *occupational information on first jobs*. Finally, Kalter and Kogan in Chapter 6 use the richness of the EULFS 2000 data for an in-depth analysis of *ethnic inequalities in transition processes.* This is a quite neglected, although obviously important topic in

transition research, notably as all European Union countries have been experiencing considerable immigration inflow.

Even though data constraints in some countries, particularly in Lithuania, Latvia, Luxembourg, the UK, and Ireland[1], do not allow to present indicators for the full range of countries-participants in the ad hoc module in each particular topic, by constructing new informative statistical indicators on transitions into working life in substantial number of European countries this report does demonstrate the potential of the EULFS 2000 ad hoc module in terms of social reporting and indeed contributes to further understanding of school-to-work transition processes in Europe.

[1] Data problems are summarised in the report on data quality and cross-country comparability by Iannelli.

1

Youth Transitions from Education to Working Life in Europe: A General Overview

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This chapter aims at providing a comprehensive set of core indicators describing European transition patterns in general applying a dynamic perspective to labour market outcomes among young people, i.e. relating the majority of labour market indicators *to the time individuals have already spent on the labour market*. This approach allows for a broad European comparison of both the *process* and the *nature* of labour market integration in different countries. In particular, the speed and immediacy of labour market integration can be revealed by comparing the extent of labour market differences between recent entrants and more experienced workers, as can the pattern of alignment that occurs over the initial years in the labour market. Two types of labour market outcomes, reflecting two major aspects of the transition process in the initial career stages, are further examined: the labour market status of young people and the employment characteristics of job entrants at the time of the interview (spring-summer 2000).

Labour Market Status Indicators

Activity patterns of recent school leavers

After leaving continuous education young people generally enter the labour market and start working life. This is evident from the upper part of Figure 1.1[1], which plots the activity

[1] To ensure a better reliability of the graphs we applied a method known as a "moving average". Mathematically speaking, given a sequence $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^{N}$, an *n*-moving average is a new sequence $\{s_i\}_{i=1}^{N-n+1}$ defined from the a_i by taking the average of sub-sequences of *n* terms: $s_i = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{j=i}^{i-n-1} a_j$ (For more on the matter see Kenney, J.F. and Keeping, E.S. "Moving Averages." §14.2 in *Mathematics of Statistics*, *Pt. 1, 3rd ed*. Princenton, NJ: Van Nostrand, pp. 221-223, 1962; Whittaker, E.T. and Robinson, G. "Graduation, or the Smoothing of Data." Ch.11 in *The Calculus of Observations: A Trearise on Numerical Mathematics, 4th ed.* New York: Dover, pp. 285-316, 1967). For the graphs in this report an average has been calculated for an interval of 30 months, proven to yield relatively reliable results in the majority of countries.

Here and further on, the following abbreviations stand for the following countries: "ES" for Spain, "FI" for Finland, "IE" for Ireland, "FR" for France, "IT" for Italy, "SE" for Sweden, "GR" for Greece, "UK" for the United Kingdom, "BE" for Belgium, "DK" for Denmark, "PT" for Portugal, "NL" for the Netherlands, "AT" for Austria, "LU" for Luxembourg, "HU" for Hungary, "SI" for Slovenia, "SK" for Slovakia, "LT" for Lithuania, "RO" for Romania, and finally "EU" for the European Union without Germany.

rates[2] of those who have left school for the first time by the time since leaving the education/training system (ETS) in all countries which participated in the EULFS 2000 ad hoc module except Latvia[3]. The average labour force participation rate for 15-35 year old education leavers in the EU[4] countries is about 90 per cent with the proportion remaining stable irrespective of the time since leaving education. Differences in the countries' patterns and levels of labour force participation are however apparent. In a number of countries, namely, the Netherlands, France, Belgium, Luxembourg, Ireland, and Spain, young people exhibit higher labour force participation than the EU average. In Denmark and Romania activity rates are relatively low shortly after leaving the ETS but grow with the passage of time and reach or even exceed (as is in the case of Denmark) the EU average afterwards. While in the majority of countries a prevailing pattern is that of growing labour force participation shortly after leaving education and a subsequent stabilization, the reverse patterns are observed in Finland, Ireland, the UK[5], and Slovakia, where labour force participation tends to decrease slightly over time.

In the lower part of Figure 1.1, the level of participation in training in each country is plotted alongside the percentage of those enrolled in classroom instruction out of the total number of all those in schooling and/or training[6]. The general picture of training participation for the EU can be described as following: immediately after leaving education for the first time training participation grows slightly and then decreases linearly to its lowest level of about 5-6 per cent. On average about half (46.7 per cent) of all those enrolled in training in the European Union do so in a classroom environment as opposed to all other forms of training participation, namely, instruction in a work setting, combining work experience and classroom instruction, distance and self-directed learning, and conferences, workshops and seminars.

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[2] The ILO definition of activity, as well of employment and unemployment rates, is used.

[3] The target population for the EULFS ad hoc module was defined only as those who had interrupted their studies in the last five years in Latvia, which makes the Latvian dataset absolutely incomparable with the rest of the countries. Furthermore, the EULFS ad hoc module suffers from a number of deficiencies, which are summarised in the report on data quality and comparability.

[4] As Germany did not participate in the module, figures for the EU exclude Germany.

[5] Note that the sample of the target group in the UK may not be wholly representative, in particular because of the over-representation of older and highly educated young people (for more details see report on data quality and comparability).

[6] Information about the type of training participation was not collected in Ireland, Latvia, France and Romania. For the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Slovenia and Slovakia, figures are not plotted because of their unreliability.

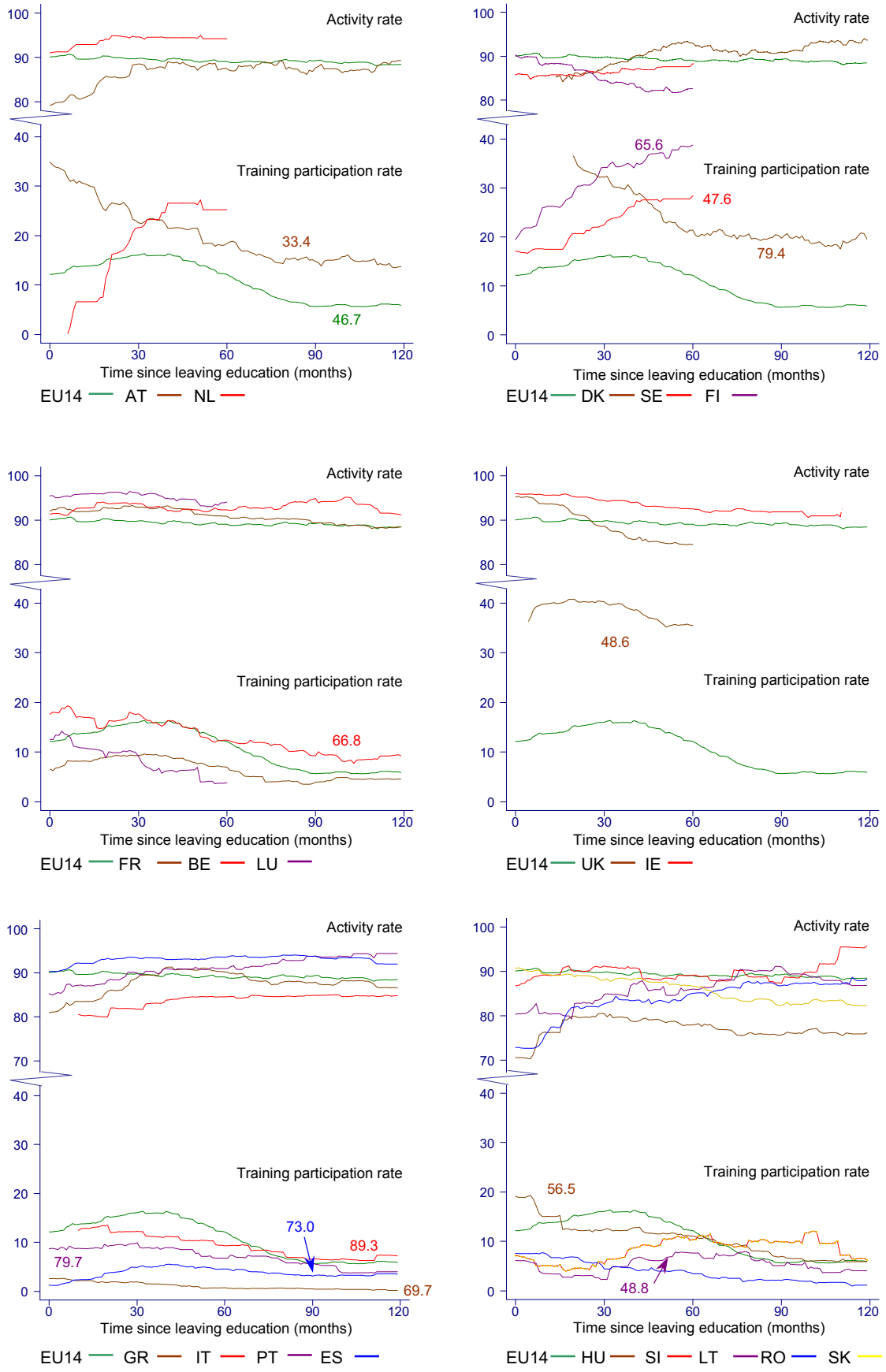

Figure 1.1: Activity (upper part) and training participation (lower part) rates by country and time since leaving continuous education for the first time (in months)

The most prominent pattern of training participation is its decrease with the passage of time after leaving initial education. This pattern is observed in Austria, Denmark, Belgium, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, Italy, Portugal, Hungary, and Romania. In the majority of the above-mentioned countries, a declining rate of participation in training corresponds to an increasing activity rate among young people (especially marked in Austria, Denmark, Italy, Portugal, and Romania). In a few countries, namely the Netherlands, Sweden, and Finland, a reverse pattern is however noticeable: young people seem to return to schooling after a certain period of time. In Finland the increasing participation in training, which largely (65.6 per cent) takes place in the classroom, can probably explain a decrease in activity rates among young people. A decline in labour force participation accompanying a growing participation in training is not however observed in the Netherlands or Sweden.

Countries differ not only in the pattern but also in the level of participation in training, with Austria, Denmark and the UK exhibiting higher training participation rates among young people immediately after they leave the ETS for the first time. In Sweden and Finland, countries with generally high levels of training participation, about 20 per cent of young people are enrolled in training or schooling immediately after leaving education for the first time, with the proportion reaching its maximum at 40 per cent for Finland and about 30 per cent for Sweden five years after leaving continuous education for the first time[7]. The increase is also pronounced in the Netherlands, where virtually no young people are enrolled in training shortly after leaving education for the first time, while the proportion of those engaged in schooling grows and reaches about 25 per cent in the five years after leaving education for the first time. Unfortunately there are no reliable data on the proportion of Dutch youngsters who combine education/training and work. In the rest of Europe training participation rates are similar to, or below, the EU average.

Participation in education/training can be considered as one possible explanation for the change in the patterns of labour force participation over time. Another explanation can be found in the different activity patterns among men and women, and especially women with children. The left graph in Figure 1.2 plots the average activity rate and the labour force participation rates of men, women without children and women with children for the pooled sample of countries which participated in the EULFS 2000

[7] Unfortunately both Sweden and Finland did not collect information for those who left education more than 5 years earlier (see report on data quality and comparability).

ad hoc module[8]. It is evident that the activity rates of both men and women without children increase with the passage of time and are quite similar, especially shortly after leaving education. Unlike the activity rates of men and women without children, the labour force participation rate of women with children is much lower than the average and tends to decrease even further with the passage of time after leaving education. Hence, withdrawal from the labour force for women with children might possibly explain the general decline in activity rates in some countries.

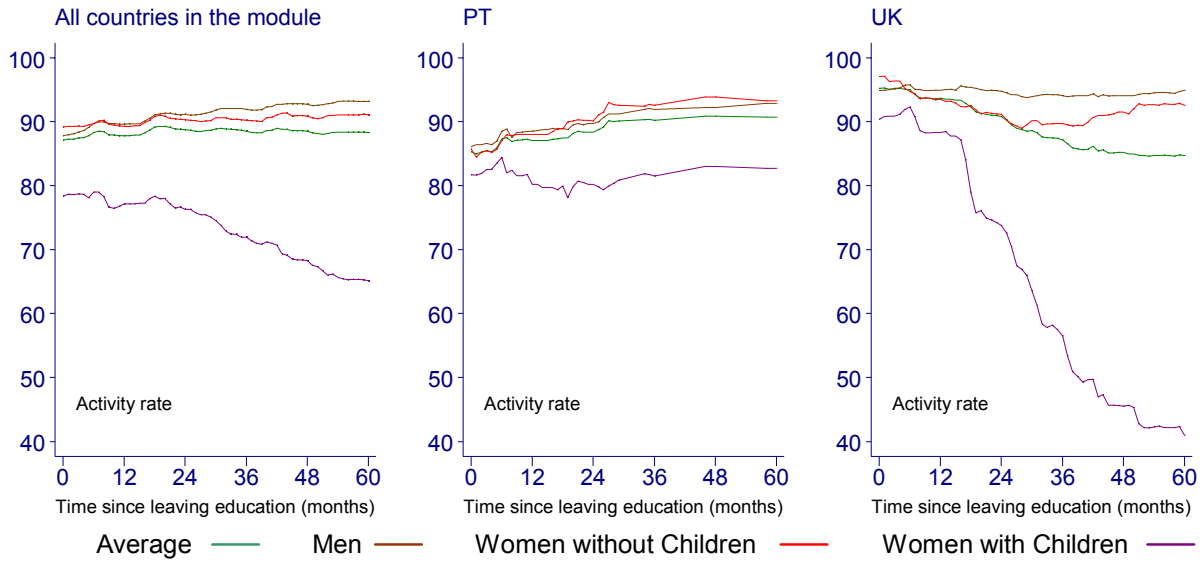

Figure 1.2: Activity rates by gender, child status and time since leaving continuous education for the first time (in months)

The question however still remains, why in some countries the decrease in activity rate is a typical trend (e.g. the UK, Ireland, and Slovakia), while in others (e.g. Portugal, Romania) the opposite pattern is observed. To answer this question we focus on labour force participation by gender and child status in the two countries with opposite activity patterns, Portugal (plotted in the centre of Figure 1.2) and the UK (on the right). It can be seen that in Portugal the activity patterns of men and women without children are practically identical, with a constant increase in labour force participation. The activity level of women with children is somewhat lower than for the rest of the population, but it is constant irrespective of time since leaving education, and even increases slightly for those who left education more than two years previously.

[8] For reasons of cross-national comparability we decided to concentrate only on the first five years after leaving education. Data for the Scandinavian countries and Lithuania were not included in the pooled sample because of the absence of information on presence of children.

The picture is quite different for the UK: male labour force participation levels in the UK are extremely high (95 per cent) and independent of time since leaving education. Women without children also have high participation rates, especially immediately after leaving education. The dramatically decreasing labour force participation rates found among women with children (from 90 per cent for those who recently left education to 40 per cent among earlier school leavers) is the driving factor behind the generally decreasing labour force participation rate in the UK. The results emerging from this comparison indicate the existence of cross-national differences in the labour force participation of men and women (especially those with children), apparently related to variation between countries in family-related policies and the role of child-care institutions.

The employment patterns of recent school leavers

Finding employment, which matches and provides favourable returns to the qualifications obtained while studying, is probably the ultimate goal of every school leaver. While not solely a youth problem, unemployment can however reach particularly high levels among young people in countries where school-to-work links are loose. Young people certainly lack work experience and are often short of skills and knowledge as well as the qualifications required for certain jobs, which makes them exposed to extended periods of job search and even to long-term unemployment. From the lower part of Figure 1.3 it is evident that in all the countries under study recent school leavers experience the most serious difficulties finding employment shortly after entering the labour market, but their employment situation improves with the passage of time. In spite of similarities in this pattern, European countries differ in the level of youth unemployment. In Austria, the Netherlands, Denmark (countries with a dual system of education and training), but also Sweden, Ireland, the UK, and Portugal, the unemployment rate remains low and more or less constant irrespective of the time since leaving education. The youth unemployment rate in Luxembourg, Belgium, Slovenia and Hungary is also below the EU average, but more serious difficulties are noticeable for young people at the beginning of their working career. In the remainder of the countries, France, Greece, Spain, Italy, Romania, Latvia and especially in Slovakia, where unemployment among the most recent school leavers peaks at 50 per cent, more recent school leavers seem to experience particular difficulties in finding employment.

While the unemployment rate indicates the intensity of difficulties on the labour market, the employment rate, the proportion of those employed out of the total population aged 15-35, plotted in the upper part of Figure 1.3, measures the global impact of

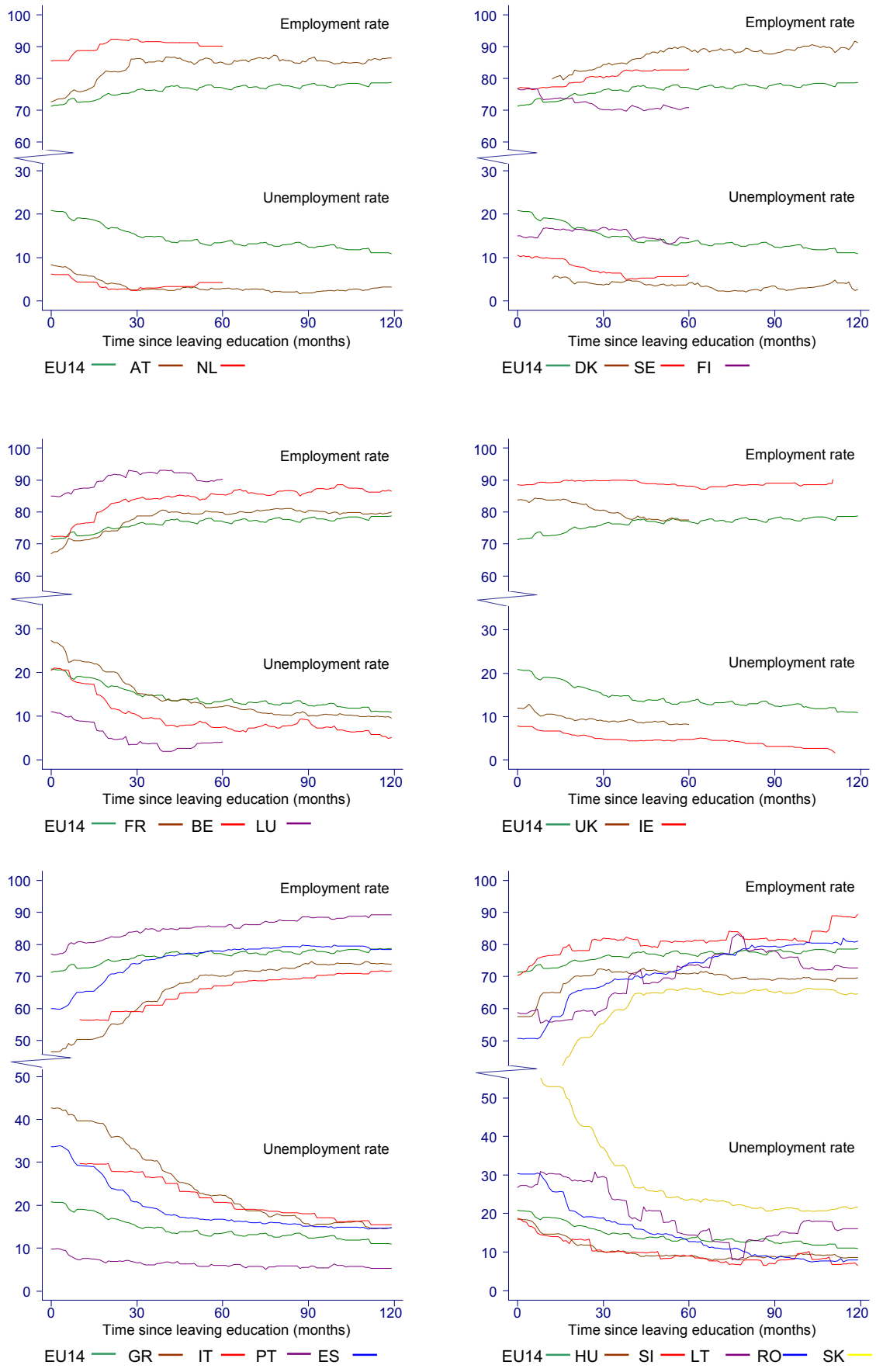

Figure 1.3: Employment (upper part) and unemployment (lower part) rates by country and time since leaving continuous education for the first time (in months)

unemployment among school leavers. In general the trend is of growing employment with the passage of time after leaving continuous education for the first time. In the countries in which activity rates are stable, the employment patterns mirror the patterns of unemployment shown in the lower part of the graph. This is true for the EU as a whole, the Netherlands, Sweden, France, Belgium, Luxembourg, Ireland, the Southern European countries, Slovakia and Slovenia. On the other hand, in countries with stable unemployment rates, employment rates mimic the activity rates plotted in Figure 1.1. This is particularly true for Finland and the UK, where employment trends follow activity patterns albeit at a lower level.

Is higher education a safety net for employment difficulties during the early career?

In this section the focus is on the role of education as one of the most important individual-level predictors of the speed and immediacy of entering the labour market and finding employment. Figure 1.4 plots the activity and unemployment rates of school leavers in the upper and lower parts of the graph respectively by level of education[9] when leaving continuous education for the first time and time since this event in a selected number of countries (Austria, Belgium, Spain, Italy, Finland and Romania)[10].

The general pattern is that unemployment rates for graduates from tertiary education are lower than those for persons with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary qualifications, which are in turn lower than the unemployment rates for persons with only primary or lower secondary education[11]. A reverse trend is evident for activity rates: more educated persons exhibit on average higher labour force participation rates than less educated ones.

A closer look at the peculiarities of activity patterns and unemployment trends in the individual countries reveals that in Austria[12], a country with a dual system, unemployment levels among school leavers with tertiary and upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary certificates are quite similar, while less educated youth have more difficulties in finding employment. It is worth noting that school-to-work transitions are comparatively smooth for all young Austrians, that is, no extreme difficulties for recent school leavers are apparent.

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[9] Education pertains to the highest level of education or training successfully completed when leaving education for the first time and is coded into three broad categories based on the ISCED (1997) classification. Low educational level corresponds to ISCED 1 and 2 and includes persons with primary or lower secondary education. Medium level of education, i.e. ISCED 3 and 4, pertains to those with (upper) secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education. Finally, high level of education (ISCED 5 and 6) combines graduates with a first or second stage tertiary qualification.

[10] The main basis for selection was an attempt to provide a sample of countries belonging to different school-to-work transition types based on the availability of information for the plotted indicators.

[11] The only exception is Romania, a transitional economy country, which does not follow the pattern described.

[12] A dashed line for highly educated young people signifies caution in relation to data reliability.

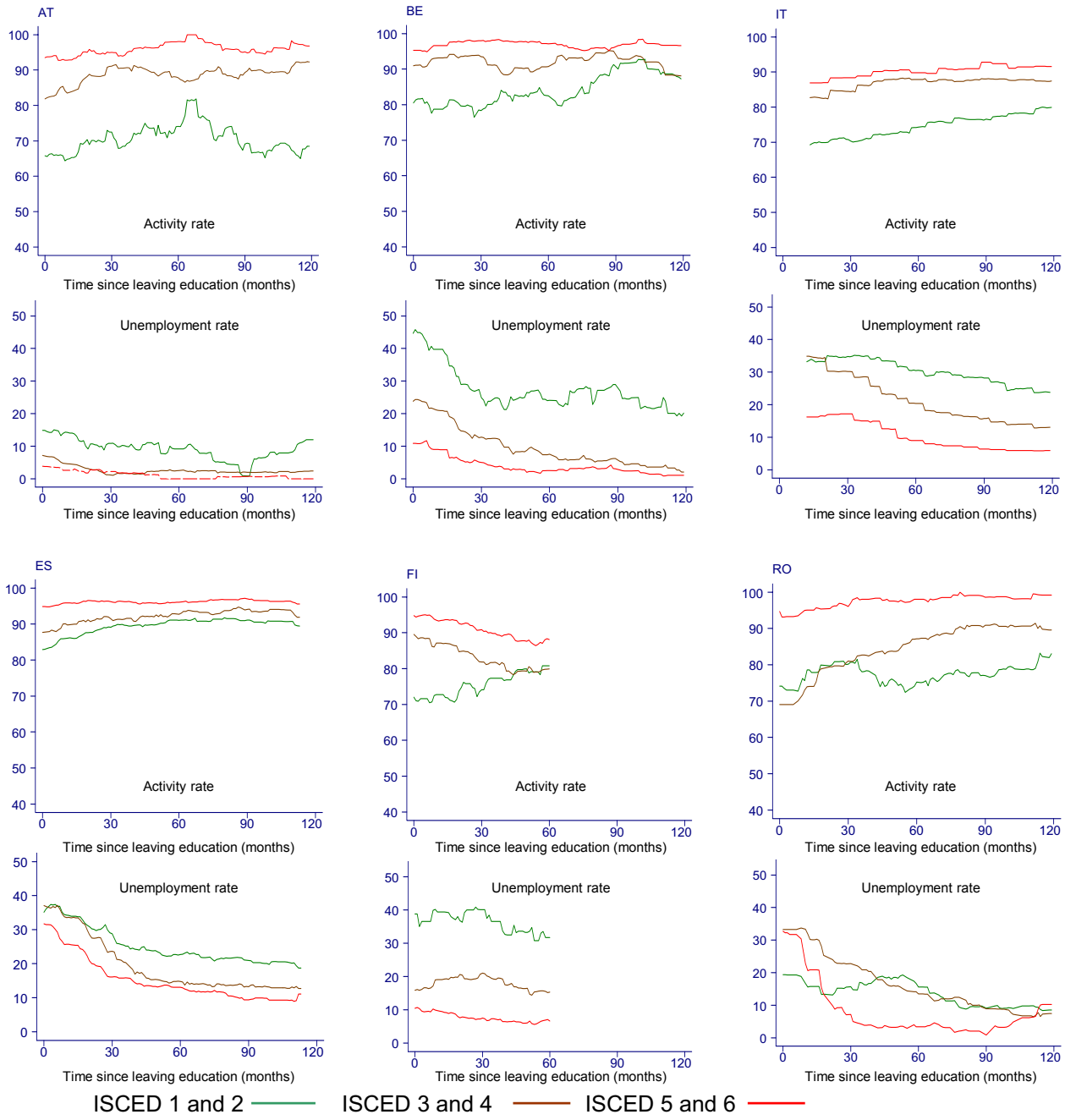

Figure 1.4: Activity (upper part) and unemployment (lower part) rates by initial level of education and time since leaving continuous education for the first time (in months)

This is not the case in Belgium, where unemployment, especially among young people with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, reaches 25 per cent and among the less educated group peaks at 45 per cent immediately after leaving education and entering the labour market. A stabilisation of employment trends is observed much later in the working careers of school leavers, but the unemployment rate of less educated individuals nevertheless never drops lower than 20 per cent within 10 years of leaving initial education.

In Italy the unemployment pattern is quite similar to that in Belgium with the only difference being that there is no sharp gap between less educated persons and those with secondary education immediately after leaving education. Activity rates in Italy are generally lower than in other EU countries with less educated persons being less attached to the labour market. The unemployment trend in Spain is relatively similar to the Italian pattern albeit with greater employment disadvantage among highly educated youth immediately after leaving the ETS.

In the Finnish case, activity rates are worthy of special attention. It is evident that the activity rates of better-educated Finns decrease with the passage of time after leaving education for the first time. Earlier we discovered that declining activity rates in this country are connected with growing participation in training. From Figure 1.4 it becomes clear that it is the better educated Finns (those with secondary or higher qualifications) who tend to re-enter education after some time in the labour market[13]. The opposite trend of labour force participation is manifest among the least educated school leavers in this country.

Figure 1.4 reveals that in Romania immediately after leaving education highly educated people experience more difficulties finding employment than less educated Romanians, which makes this country's unemployment pattern distinctly different from the rest of the countries discussed in this section. The employment situation of young people with university degrees does however seem to improve at a quicker pace than for other education groups.

Indicators of Employment Characteristics

Job instability among new entrants: Self-employment and precarious forms of employment

In this section, forms of employment other than a standard type of full-time, permanent, salaried employment, namely self-employment and precarious forms of employment, will be discussed.

Self-employment[14] is rather a marginal phenomenon in school-to-work transitions in the majority of Western European countries, as is evident from Figure 1.5, which plots the percentage of self-employed, including family workers, out of the total of all persons in employment. The line for the EU average illustrates that immediately after leaving education about 5 per cent of school leavers enter self-employment, while with the passage of time the

[13] They probably determine the general decrease in the activity rates in Finland observed in the upper part of Figure 1.1.

[14] Self-employed include self-employed with or without employees and family workers.

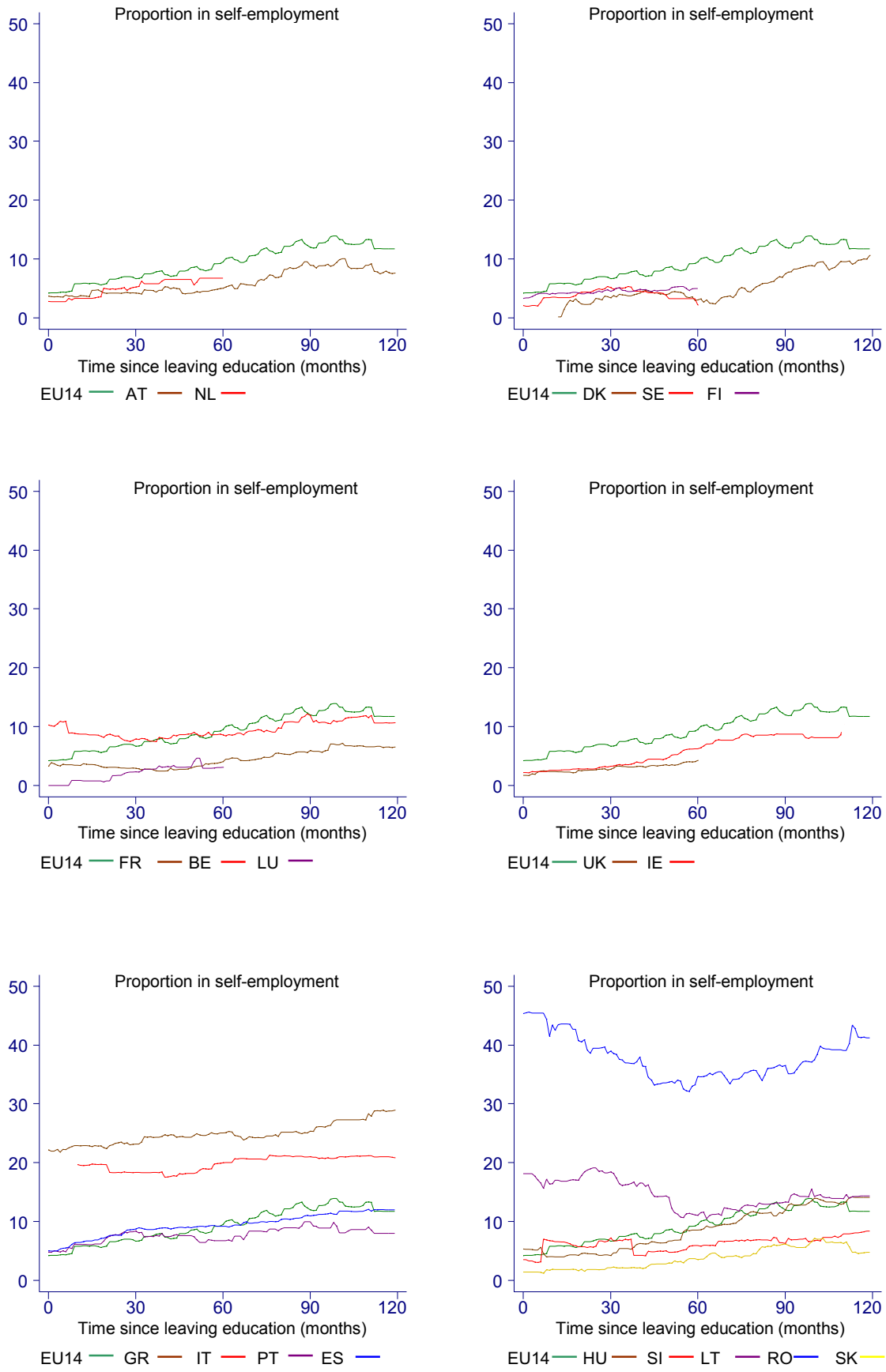

Figure 1.5: Proportion of self-employed by country and time since leaving continuous education for the first time (in months)

proportion of self-employed rises and reaches 12 per cent for those with about 8 years work experience. Belgium is the only Western European country where the proportion of school leavers who resort to self-employment immediately after leaving education is higher than the EU average. Higher propensity for self-employment is characteristic of the Southern European countries, and this is particularly the case for school leavers in Greece and Italy, and to some degree in Spain. Patterns of self-employment among young people in former socialist Eastern and Central European countries prove to be extremely interesting. In Slovakia, Slovenia and Hungary self-employment among leavers is similar to the trends observed in the rest of the Western countries, while in Lithuania and especially in Romania the proportion of self-employed young people, who are mainly family workers, is extremely high. It seems that school-to-work transitions in Romania reflect the country's general difficulties in the transition period to a market economy.

As labour legislation on full-time permanent employment differs in the countries discussed, we decided to describe the precariousness of youth employment rather than the representation of young school leavers in full- *vs*. part-time or permanent *vs.* fixed jobs. Precarious forms of work are defined in this report as either involuntary fixed contracts or involuntary part time jobs[15]. Figure 1.6 depicts the proportion in precarious employment by level of education and time since leaving continuous training for the first time in a selected number of countries[16]. The general trend is that with the passage of time in the labour market the proportion of young people in precarious employment decreases in all countries under discussion except Austria. In addition, countries differ substantially in the proportion of young job entrants employed in atypical jobs with the highest percentages observed in Spain (literally irrespective of the level of education immediately after entering the labour market) and France (especially for those possessing secondary certificates). Relatively low levels of involuntary part-time and temporary employment among youth are observed in Italy, Austria, the UK[17], and Hungary.

A closer look at the differences between school leavers by education suggests that higher education does not really protect young job entrants from precarious employment in the early career. This is true for Austria, Belgium, the UK, Finland, and Italy. In Hungary and Romania tertiary education qualifications provide better opportunities to find secure salaried employment than in the rest of the countries depicted here.

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[15] In addition the answers "other reason" and "no reason" were assigned to the category of precarious employment.

[16] A dashed line signifies caution regarding data reliability.

[17] In case of the United Kingdom the relatively low percentage in involuntary part-time and fixed-term employment does not however fully reflect job precariousness because of the generally low level of employment protection.

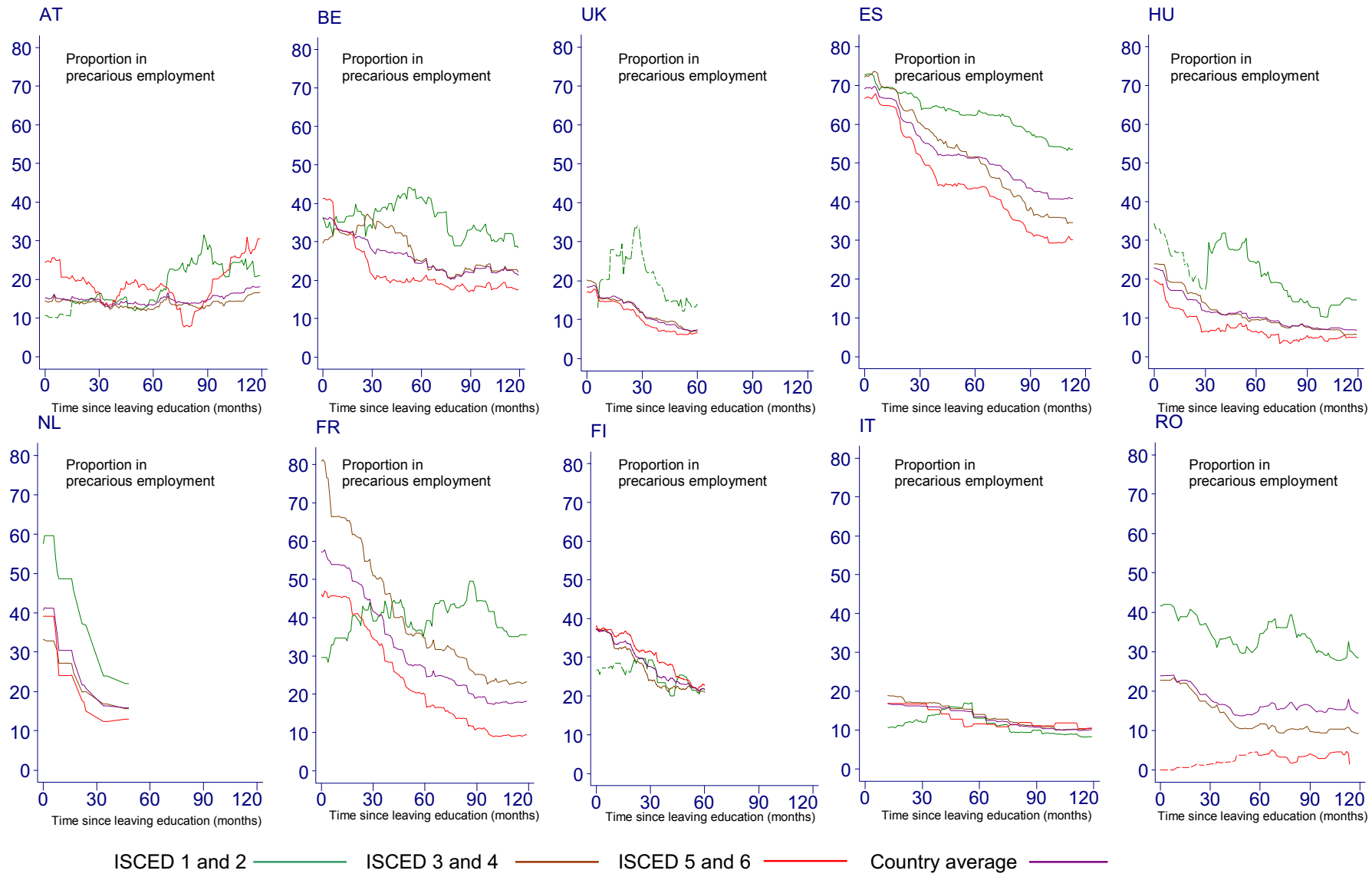

Figure 1.6: Precarious employment (in per cent) by level of education and time since leaving continuous education for the first time (in months)

Occupational status of recent school leavers

This section discusses the industrial location and occupational position of recent school leavers at the time of the interview. To ensure a better comparability of results cross-nationally and to minimize the bias connected with a possible cohort effect, we have chosen to concentrate only on young people who left initial continuous education in the previous five years. From Figure 1.7[18], which depicts the proportion of young people employed in the service sector (NACE H-Q *vs.* NACE A-F) at the time of the interview, it is evident that recent school leavers are mostly concentrated in the tertiary sector of the economy. The average figures for the European Union indicate that about 80 per cent of young people with tertiary education, about 70 per cent of

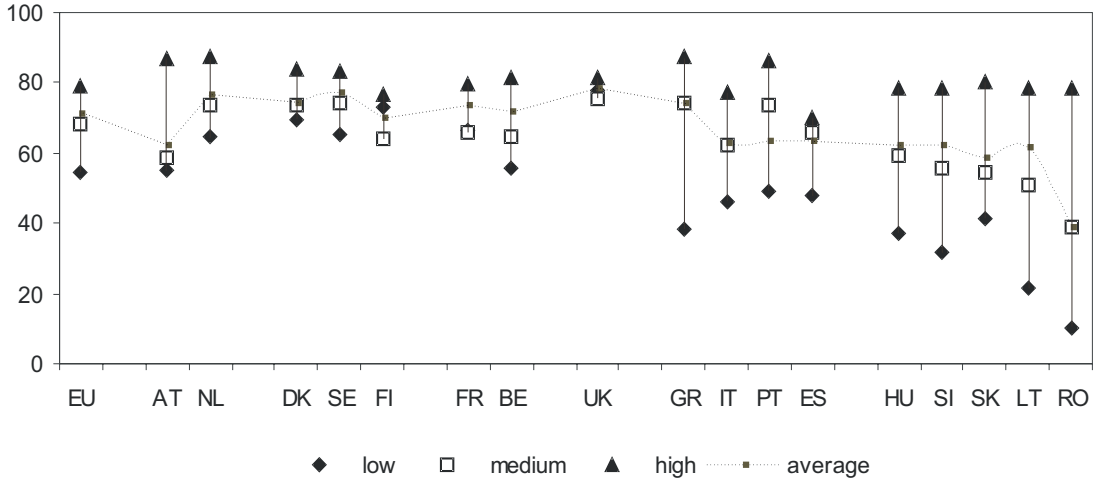

Figure 1.7: Proportion of school leavers employed in the service sector by level of education when leaving education for the first time and country

those with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education and only 55 per cent of less educated school leavers are concentrated in the tertiary sector. Employment in the service, i.e. tertiary, sector is less dependent on level of education for young people in the Scandinavian countries, the United Kingdom and France. The explanation can be found in the general restructuring and downsizing of the primary and secondary sectors of these countries' economies. This is less the case in the former socialist countries, the Southern European countries and Austria, where the tertiarisation of the economy is less pronounced. In these countries education indeed plays a more important role in sorting people into certain economic sectors, with more substantial differences in industrial location by educational level found in Greece, Portugal, Hungary, Slovenia, Slovakia, Lithuania and Romania. Young people with

[18] Because of serious deficiencies in the data corresponding indicators were not plotted for Luxembourg, Ireland and Latvia.

Table 1.1: Structure of economic activities (NACE) of recent school leavers by country and initial level of education when leaving education for the first time

Economic Sector (NACE)	Level of education	Country																	
		AT	NL	DK	SE	FI	FR	BE	LU	UK	GR	IT	PT	ES	HU	SI	SK	LT	RO
Agriculture	Low	4.6	.	.		.	4.8	4.0	.	.	.	5.5	(3.1)	8.6	11.1	.	.	30.3	75.4
	Medium	3.2	(3.6)	5.4	.	4.3	4.5	2.5	.	.	6.1	2.3	1.0	2.6	3.3	4.0	3.5	14.8	24.9
Industry	Low	27.7	18.3	23.4	.	18.9	19.6	27.3	.	.	19.4	37.0	29.4	25.9	40.6	(44.1)	.	24.4	10.0
	Medium	23.0	12.7	17.8	18.9	23.9	23.3	25.5	.	16.8	15.3	28.2	19.7	21.3	30.0	30.9	34.9	30.8	25.4
	High	12.4	9.3	14.6	13.2	18.4	15.5	14.4	.	15.2	9.1	14.6	10.6	19.9	15.6	19.6	11.3	16.4	16.3
Construction	Low	9.6	9.9	7.9	.	.	8.6	11.8	.	.	15.8	13.8	20.7	17.7	9.4	.	.	.	2.7
	Medium	10.5	9.0	10.4	4.3	6.3	7.0	9.0	.	5.4	5.2	5.2	(5.1)	10.4	7.4	6.7	9.1	5.7	5.5
	High	.	.	.	.	(2.3)	2.6	2.6	.	.	(2.1)	2.1	.	6.1	.	.	.	.	2.4
Wholesale and retail trade	Low	16.6	38.0	19.0	.	20.2	15.9	19.2	.	26.3	19.2	17.7	18.7	22.9	9.9	.	.	.	6.0
	Medium	18.3	21.3	19.2	16.7	15.9	18.3	18.5	(31.3)	22.4	27.7	19.1	20.7	25.1	21.4	22.0	15.8	22.0	17.1
	High	7.6	(7.8)	.	6.4	11.7	12.8	6.8	.	8.0	12.9	7.6	.	15.1	8.9	9.9	10.7	19.5	14.8
Hotels and restaurants	Low	12.1	.	(3.6)	.	.	9.6	5.7	.	.	11.8	7.5	7.1	9.7	(4.6)	.	.	.	0.8
	Medium	6.0	(6.0)	2.1	6.4	8.6	5.6	5.0	.	9.0	10.6	5.5	(5.4)	7.8	6.2	7.7	4.8	.	2.3
Transport and communication	Low	7.0	.	8.2	.	(12.0)	6.2	5.1	.	.	(2.9)	3.5	(2.8)	3.0	7.8	.		.	1.5
	Medium	5.4	(6.6)	8.7	8.2	7.5	6.0	8.9	.	6.1	6.5	5.2	(5.5)	5.8	6.9	5.9	6.7	.	5.6
	High	4.6	.	6.1	.	4.6	5.5	4.0	.	4.1	4.1	4.1	.	5.6	5.3	.	4.9	.	4.0
Financial intermediation	Medium	4.8	.	2.2	.	.	1.4	1.9	.	7.9	3.9	3.5	(5.0)	1.4	2.7	(2.6)	2.1	.	0.7
	High	6.4	(5.6)	6.0	.	.	4.7	7.2	.	9.0	6.5	6.1	(9.4)	5.4	5.4	(7.6)	6.1	.	4.7
Business activities	Low	6.4	.	8.1	.	(11.0)	12.3	7.7	.	.	.	3.3	3.7	3.0	.	.			
	Medium	8.1	11.1	7.4	14.3	9.9	8.6	7.0	.	9.7	7.5	10.9	11.4	7.2	5.5	4.1	4.3	.	0.9
	High	17.0	33.0	21.1	23.0	13.9	18.5	18.4	.	23.7	17.2	26.3	14.5	15.8	11.7	11.2	8.7	.	5.2
Public administration	Low	3.1	.	(3.4)			4.3	(3.6)	.	.	.	2.5	4.0	1.6	.		.	.	.
	Medium	5.0	(4.7)	5.1	.	2.3	7.0	7.4	.	3.9	5.7	6.0	8.6	5.1	5.3	5.1	5.6	5.4	6.2
	High	6.1	.	5.0	5.2	6.2	7.3	7.2	.	4.9	10.0	9.0	(9.2)	4.7	11.2	16.5	15.2	11.3	13.8
Education	Medium	3.5	.	3.0	4.0	4.0	3.3	1.6	.	3.4	2.3	2.7	(4.5)	1.7	1.6	(3.3)	2.6	4.9	2.7
	High	23.8	13.0	12.2	15.7	14.2	13.8	15.9	.	12.9	17.8	11.2	24.6	9.4	23.4	17.1	22.5	21.1	16.5
Health	Low	4.2	.	16.2	.	.	8.6	8.4	.	.	.	1.3	(2.9)	0.9	.	.	.	.	0.9
	Medium	8.5	16.0	15.3	16.1	9.4	8.5	8.1	.	7.8	3.4	5.7	(6.5)	3.7	5.7	(3.4)	5.7	4.8	5.6
	High	12.4	16.7	29.4	20.9	18.4	10.0	18.9	.	12	11.9	10.8	15.8	8.1	7.4	9.7	12.3	8.3	10.7
Other service activities	Low	6.0	.	5.4	.	9.0	7.0	6.1	.	.	(4.9)	6.7	5.6	6.0	(4.5)	.	.	.	2.3
	Medium	3.6	(5.0)	3.4	4.5	7.1	6.5	4.5	.	6.5	5.9	5.7	(6.7)	8.0	4.2	(4.3)	4.9	3.9	3.0
	High	7.3	(4.8)	(2.9)	.	4.3	6.0	2.9		6.4	4.3	6.5	.	5.5	6.0	.	3.5	.	5.8

tertiary education credentials are significantly over-represented in service sector jobs in Austria, while there is less differentiation at the lower educational levels in this country. In Spain, on the other hand, no significant differences are observed among young people with education above the secondary level in their employment location.

Table 1.1 gives more precise information on the sector of employment among young people with different educational qualifications at the time of the interview[19]. The percentages sum up to 100 within each educational level, that is, for example in Austria, 27.7 per cent of less educated school leavers are concentrated in industry, 9.6 per cent are employed in construction, 16.6 per cent in trade and so on. For the agriculture, hotel and restaurant sectors, we do not present the percentage of young people with tertiary education because of their negligible representation in these sectors. The same is the case in the sectors of financial services and education for school leavers with lower education.

It is evident that less educated school leavers tend to be concentrated in industry and trade in the majority of countries. Young people with tertiary education are, on the other hand, over-represented in business activities, education and health. Together with the general trends described here certain country differences are noticeable.

Figure 1.8 presents the average occupational status measured using the International Socio-Economic Index of Occupational Status (ISEI[20]) of young people who left continuous

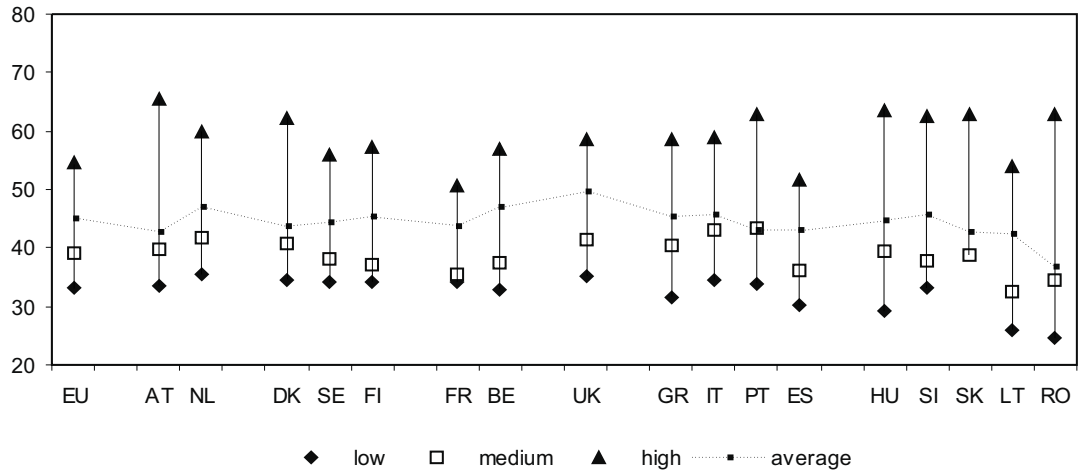

Figure 1.8: Occupational Status of Recent School Leavers by Country and Level of Education

[19] Figures for Ireland are not presented since the data for educational level were found to be incorrect.

[20] Occupational status measured in the ISEI refers to the hierarchical position of one's occupation. It considers occupation as the intervening activity linking education and income. Using the ISCO-88 occupational codes each person was assigned a score on the International Socio-Economic Index of Occupational Status (ISEI), an interval scale, developed by Ganzeboom and Treiman (1996) (See Ganzeboom, Harry B.G. and Donald J. Treiman, 1996, "Internationally Comparable Measures of Occupational Status for the 1988 International Standard Classification of Occupations" in *Social Science Research* 25, pp. 201-239).

Table 1.2: Occupational location of recent school leavers by country and initial level of education when leaving education for the first time

Occupations (Based on ISCO-88)	Level of education	Country																	
		AT	NL	DK	SE	FI	FR	BE	LU	UK	GR	IT	PT	ES	HU	SI	SK	LT	RO
Professional, technical, managerial	Low	11.7	(8.7)	19.8	.	16.0	6.5	5.7	.	.	.	6.2	6.8	3.5	(4.8)	.	.	.	0.8
	Medium	28.3	36.3	34.9	20.6	22.6	14.6	19.2	.	21.1	17.8	31.1	23.6	12.0	20.9	19.8	23.0	7.0	14.1
	High	91.7	89.0	96.2	83.6	77.8	66.5	75.2	(42.9)	74.8	72.2	76.8	86.4	54.5	91.0	92.1	92.5	62.6	85.0
Clerical and services	Low	32.3	40.2	30.7	.	28.3	33.6	23.9	(25.7)	47.4	26.1	26.2	30.1	25.3	16.4	(29.6)	.	20.0	6.3
	Medium	36.7	39.0	33.7	46.4	30.4	36.4	36.0	48.9	52.8	50.6	41.7	56.0	43.6	33.8	34.2	27.8	30.4	20.8
	High	7.2	(8.2)	.	10.3	15.4	23.7	20.9	(47.1)	21.2	21.4	18.1	11.9	27.8	7.3	(5.4)	6.2	20.2	5.7
Skilled agricultural and crafts	Low	26.3	22.0	16.1	.	20.9	31.5	32.0	(33.3)	17.6	55.8	38.6	34.7	27.3	30.3	(18.7)	.	49.5	77.4
	Medium	26.8	14.1	18.7	12.4	22.4	21.2	21.0	(24.8)	11.9	20.9	14.2	(7.1)	18.8	30.0	20.2	27.2	40.4	44.5
	High	.	.		.	(2.9)	4.3	2.3	.	1.6	4.1	2.9	.	8.4	.	.	.	11.9	3.6
Semi- and unskilled	Low	29.7	29.1	33.4	.	34.8	28.4	38.5	(28.4)	25.2	16.0	29.0	28.3	43.9	48.5	(45.7)	60.5	29.5	15.5
	Medium	8.2	10.7	12.7	20.6	24.6	27.8	23.8	(15.2)	14.3	10.7	13.0	13.4	25.6	15.3	25.8	22.0	22.3	20.6
	High	.	.	.	.	3.9	5.5	1.6	.	2.4	(2.3)	2.3	.	9.3	.	.	.	5.3	5.7

education by country and level of education[21]. The average occupational prestige in all countries, except Romania, tends to range between 40 and 50 points.[22] In all countries which participated in the ad hoc module, tertiary education leads to occupations of significantly higher prestige for recent graduates, while for those with non-tertiary education occupational prestige proved to be below the country's average. Some cross-national differences are evident in the impact of non-tertiary education on the chances of obtaining more prestigious jobs. Figure 1.8 indicates that in Sweden, Finland, France and Belgium the occupational returns to non-tertiary credentials are similar irrespective of their type.

Table 1.2 describes in more detail the types of jobs[23] young school leavers occupy at the time of the survey by level of education. The table should be read in the same way as the one pertaining to industrial location of young people, i.e. the percentages sum up to 100 within each level of education. It is obvious enough that highly educated school graduates are employed mostly in professional, technical and managerial jobs in all countries. There are almost no cases of deskilling among highly educated youth – a negligible per cent of young people with tertiary education are found in the skilled agricultural and craft or semi-skilled and unskilled occupations. No evident occupational niches are however apparent for the least educated school leavers as they are almost equally represented in services, skilled, semi- and unskilled jobs. Young people with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education are probably more often found in clerical and service positions, however as with the least educated school leavers no definite pattern is noticeable.

Summary

This chapter presents general indicators of the labour market status of young people and the employment nature of job entrants at the time of the interview in the wide range of countries that participated in the EULFS 2000 ad hoc module on transition from school to working life. For the majority of the labour market outcomes we applied a dynamic perspective, relating them *to the time individuals have already spent on the labour market*.

[21] Here as well as in the case of industrial location among school leavers, time since leaving education plays a negligible role as the percentage of young people employed in certain industries and occupations remains stable irrespective of the time since leaving continuous education.

[22] The range of the ISEI scale is 16 - 90.

[23] The one-digit ISCO-88 classification of occupations has been grouped into broader categories to ensure better reliability of the figures. It should be acknowledged, however, that the definition of the groups is quite broad and includes rather heterogeneous occupations.

The report shows that after leaving continuous education young people generally enter the labour market and start working life. In the majority of countries a prevailing pattern is an increase in labour force participation shortly after leaving education and a subsequent stabilization. It is evident that in all the countries school leavers experience the most serious problems finding employment shortly after entering the labour market, but their employment situation tends to improve with the passage of time. Activity and unemployment rates clearly depend on the level of education of young school leavers. However, no evidence was found that higher education protects young job entrants from atypical forms of employment in their early career.

A trend of employment in the tertiary sector of economy is another finding in this report with less educated school leavers finding jobs in industry and trade, while young people with tertiary degrees are over-represented in business activities, education and health in the majority of countries. Finally it is shown that tertiary education proves to be a determinant of higher occupational prestige for recent school leavers in all countries which participated in the ad hoc module.

2

Young People's Social Origin, Educational Attainment and Labour Market Outcomes in Europe

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This part of the indicators report provides key information on two main issues: (1) young people's average age of leaving continuous education and their educational attainment at the time of leaving and (2) the relationship between parents' education and children's educational and occupational attainment. The first indicators presented include data for a large number of countries in which a sufficient degree of comparability has been established (see report on data quality and comparability). These countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden. In the indicators that explore the relationship between social origin and young people's educational and occupational outcomes a more restricted number of countries has been analysed. This is because two countries (i.e. the Netherlands and Portugal) have not collected the information on social background and the Danish data on parents' education are likely to have been affected by some coding errors.

Average age of leaving continuous education

The age at which young people leave continuous education[1] is an important indicator of the point in life in which their transition from school-to-work begins. In the Nordic countries for which data are available, that is Sweden, Denmark, Finland, and in the Netherlands young people tend on average to leave education particularly late (between 21 and 24 years old, figure 2.1). On the contrary in Portugal, Italy, Hungary, Slovakia and Romania young people make the transition from education to working life at a younger age (on average at around 18). The other countries are in an intermediate position with young people leaving education between 19 and 21 years old.

[1] The definition of leaving continuous education has not been uniformly applied by all countries (for full details see report on data quality and comparability). The major source of difference is that Denmark, Hungary, Italy, Romania and Slovakia considered only education within the formal education system. Denmark has also explicitly considered only full-time education.

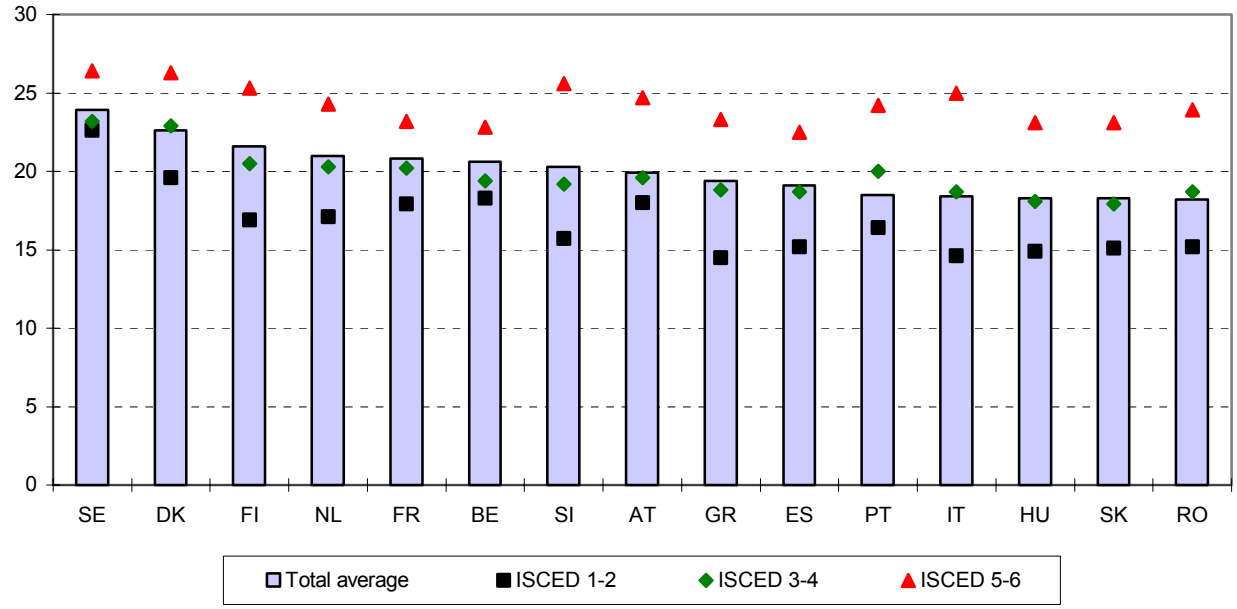

Figure 2.1: Average age of leaving continuous education

Given the great diversity in the structure of the European education systems, the average age of leaving different educational stages inevitably varies across countries. Country differences in the average age of leaving education are particularly marked at the lower levels of education (ISCED 1-2). The average age of young people leaving with only primary or lower-secondary education ranges between 14.5 (Greece) to 19.6 (in Denmark).[2] The countries which show an average age well above the overall country average are Sweden, Denmark, Belgium and Austria (around 18-19 years old and 22 in Sweden). In contrast, in Greece, Italy, Hungary, Slovakia, Romania and Spain young people tend to leave primary and lower-secondary education earlier than in the other countries (at around 15 years old). Less country variation emerges at ISCED levels 3 and 4: the oldest school leavers are found in Sweden, Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands, France and Portugal (on average they leave at around 20 years old) while the youngest ones are found in Slovakia and Hungary (around 18 years old). The other countries are in an intermediate position. At tertiary level, young people leave education at an older age in Sweden, Denmark, Slovenia, Finland, Italy and Austria than in the other countries.

[2] In Sweden the average age of leaving education from lower-secondary education (as well as the other levels of education) is particularly high (around 22 years old). This may be explained by the fact that in this country there have been some difficulties in defining the time in which young people left continuous education: young people who have attended various short-term training courses after leaving the school system are likely to have been considered as continuing education (see report on data quality and comparability).

Educational attainment and educational upgrading

Country variations in the average age of leaving continuous education depend upon another factor, differences across countries in the proportions of young people leaving at various stages of their educational careers.[3]

Table 2.1: Young people's highest educational attainment when left continuous education (in per cent)

	ISCED 1-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6
Austria	15	74	11
Belgium	17	42	41
Denmark	30	51	19
Finland	12	56	32
France*	21	42	37
Greece	15	58	27
Hungary	15	70	15
Italy	29	57	14
Netherlands	20	46	34
Portugal	60	23	17
Romania	27	63	10
Sweden	14	62	24
Slovenia	8	70	22
Slovakia	4	86	10
Spain	35	22	43

* In France the highest level of education refers to both successful and unsuccessful completion at the time of leaving continuous education. However, the data have been corrected in the cases in which young people have declared that they have a lower educational attainment at present than at the time of leaving continuous education.

There are large country variations in the educational attainment achieved by young people when leaving continuous education (table 2.1).[4] Thus, the countries in which young people leave education particularly young (i.e. Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Slovakia, with the addition of Austria), are those characterised by low rates of tertiary graduates, between 10 and 16 per cent. Furthermore, compared with the other countries, Italy, Romania and Portugal (but also Spain and Denmark)[5] show the highest percentages of

[3] The difference across countries in the age of leaving within educational levels may also reflect the extent to which grade repetition is allowed within different national systems.

[4] In France the highest level of education refers to both successful and unsuccessful completion when young people left continuous education. However, the data have been corrected in the cases in which young people have declared that they have a lower educational attainment at present than at the time of leaving continuous education.

[5] In Denmark the high rates of early leavers may be due to two factors: (1) reasons for interruption of studies were not known (because the information of the ad hoc module was collected from register data), thus interruptions for special reasons (e.g. maternity leave or illness) could not be excluded; (2) the rate of people who subsequently upgraded their education is particularly high (25 per cent, see figure 2.2). Thus in Denmark many people who left continuous education early, after a certain period, went back to study and achieved higher educational qualifications.

young people leaving continuous education with only compulsory schooling or less (ISCED 1-2). Portugal, especially, shows an exceptionally high percentage of young people with only compulsory education (60 per cent). On the contrary, in Austria, Belgium, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Slovenia, Slovakia and Sweden the rates of young people leaving with only compulsory schooling or less are low (below 20 per cent). In most countries more than half of the young population has left continuous education with a diploma from upper-secondary or post upper-secondary (non tertiary) education (ISCED 3-4). At tertiary level, the highest percentages of graduates are found in Belgium, Finland, France, the Netherlands and Spain. With the exception of the Netherlands, these countries have also the highest percentages (between 14 and 23 per cent) of young people having attended tertiary degree courses which are usually shorter and more technically oriented, correspondent to ISCED 5b (data not shown).

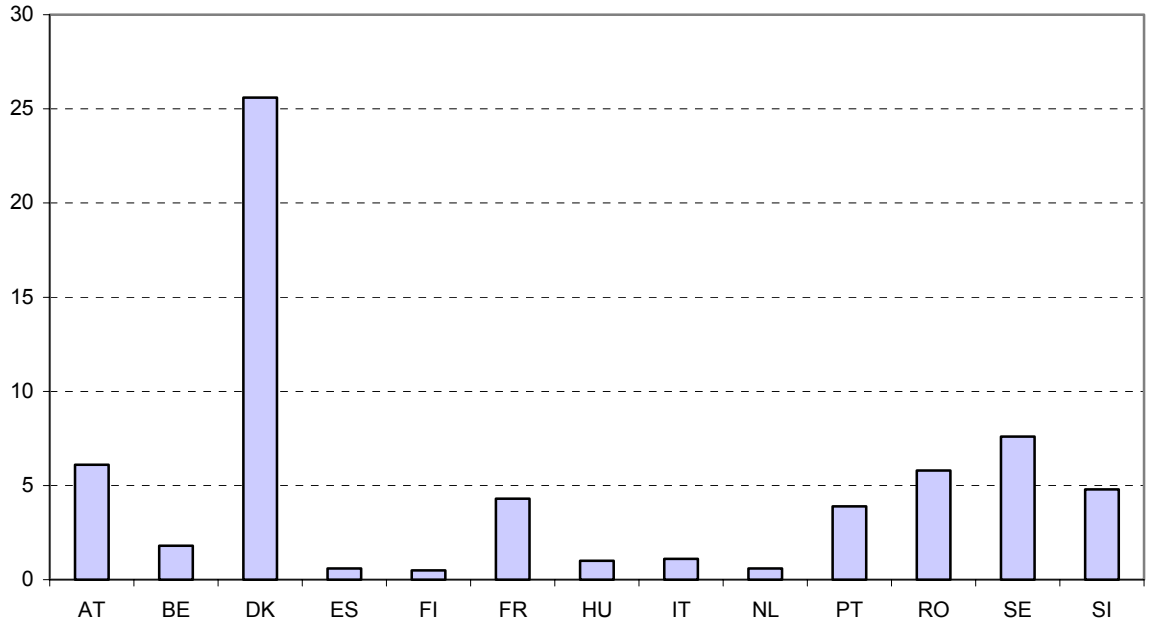

Figure 2.2: Rates of young people who upgraded their educational attainment (in per cent)

A comparison between young people's current (at the moment of the survey) highest educational attainment and their educational attainment achieved at the time of leaving continuous education may be used to calculate the proportion of people who upgraded their educational attainment. However, it has to be borne in mind that these data are likely to be comparable to a slight degree due to differences in the definitions of "leaving continuous education" used by each national survey (see report on data quality and comparability). In Sweden, Austria and Romania more than 5 per cent of young people who left continuous

education in the last 5-10 years have subsequently achieved higher educational qualifications (figure 2.2). In Denmark this percentage is exceptionally high at around 25 per cent. All the other countries show much lower percentages of young people who upgraded their education (below 5 per cent).

Social origin and young people's educational outcomes

There is much empirical evidence which shows that social origin is an important factor in affecting young people's chances of continuing education or dropping out early and of achieving different labour market outcomes. This and the following section present some indicators which investigate cross-country differences and similarities in the relationship between parents' education and children's educational and occupational outcomes.

Table 2.2: Parents' highest educational attainment (in per cent)

	Parents' highest educational attainment		
	ISCED 1-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6
Austria	27	54	19
Belgium	45	29	26
Finland	21	42	36
France	51	34	15
Greece	66	25	9
Hungary	26	61	13
Italy	68	26	6
Romania	44	50	6
Sweden	26	38	36
Slovania	33	51	16
Slovakia	16	76	8
Spain	80	10	10

Note: some rows do not exactly sum to 100% because the percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole figure.

The distribution of parents' highest educational attainment shows very large country differences (table 2.2). The most striking country difference is in the percentages of parents with low levels of education (ISCED1-2). These percentages are particularly high in the countries of Southern Europe (80 per cent in Spain, 68 per cent in Italy and 66 per cent in Greece; information for Portugal is not available) and comparatively low in Slovakia, Finland, Hungary, Sweden and Austria (below 30 per cent). If compared with the data on children's educational attainment (see table 2.1) these data point out the remarkable improvement that younger generations in Southern European countries have made in their educational attainment. Overall in all examined countries the percentages of young people with at least

upper-secondary education is higher than the percentages of parents with the same level of education. [6]

The absolute rates of mobility or stability between parents' and children's educational attainment presented in table 2.3 show that in 5 countries (Belgium, France, Greece, Italy and Spain) upward mobility, that is children having increased their educational level compared with their parents, is more prevalent (or equally possible in the case of Italy) than stability (i.e. children having reached the same level of education of their parents). In all the other countries young people have mainly achieved the same levels of education as their parents. Everywhere downward mobility is restricted to a limited proportion of young people.[7] Gender differences in the rates of mobility between parents' and children's educational attainment are quite remarkable: in most countries the chances of upward inter-generational educational mobility are significantly higher for women than for men (with the exception of Austria, Romania and Slovakia).

Table 2.3: Absolute rates of stability, upward and downward mobility between young people's educational attainment and their parents' educational attainment (in per cent)

	Stability			Upward mobility			Downward mobility		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Austria	52	52	52	25	26	26	22	22	22
Belgium	46	40	43	41	51	46	13	9	11
Finland	40	40	40	27	34	31	33	26	29
France	43	38	40	45	53	49	13	9	10
Greece	36	30	33	57	63	60	7	6	6
Hungary	62	63	63	24	26	25	14	11	12
Italy	47	43	46	42	49	46	10	8	8
Romania	63	62	62	28	30	29	9	8	9
Sweden	42	42	43	24	32	29	34	26	28
Slovania	51	43	48	32	46	39	17	10	13
Slovakia	74	75	75	19	19	19	7	6	6
Spain	47	37	42	46	59	53	7	4	5

Note: some rows do not exactly sum to 100% because the percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole figure.

Is there a relationship between parents' education and children's leaving education early? To explore a possible social reproduction effect in young people's chances of leaving

[6] There is only one surprising outcome: in three countries, Austria, Finland and Sweden, the percentages of tertiary graduates are higher among parents than among children. This may be due to the fact that we are referring to the highest educational achieved at the time of first leaving for children and to the highest educational attainment at the time of the interview (or at respondents' age of 15 in the case of Austria) for parents. According to the ad hoc module data (see figure 2.2) Austria and Sweden are among the countries in which people tend more frequently to re-enter the education system and upgrade their educational attainment. This may partly explain the higher percentages of tertiary graduates among parents. However, since the percentage of parents with tertiary education is particularly high, data problems cannot be excluded.

[7] The only exceptions are Austria, Finland and Sweden due to the high percentages of parents who have achieved a tertiary qualification compared to their children.

education with only compulsory education or less, table 2.4 shows the percentages of early leavers among parents with different educational attainments (outflow percentages). In all countries, with the exception of Finland, the percentages of young people with low educated parents leaving education at an earlier stage are much higher than the percentages of young people who have more educated parents. Moreover, within each country the chances of dropping out early among young people with low and high educated parents

Table 2.4: Early school leavers (ISCED 1-2) by parents' highest educational attainment (in per cent)

	Parents' highest educational attainment								
	ISCED 1-2			ISCED 3-4			ISCED 5-6		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Austria	22	26	24	12	14	13	12	8	10
Belgium	32	20	26	14	10	12	3	3	3
Finland	16	10	13	17	13	15	8	7	8
France	29	24	26	19	15	17	7	5	6
Greece	24	16	20	10	5	8	(9)	.	6
Hungary	32	35	33	10	9	9	(4)	.	3
Italy	42	34	38	22	15	19	12	10	11
Romania	47	47	47	14	14	14	.	.	.
Sweden	19	18	18	13	11	12	13	.	10
Slovania	14	(7)	10	9	(6)	8	.	.	.
Slovakia	15	14	14	2	2	2	.	.	.
Spain	47	33	40	27	14	21	14	8	11

are significantly different. In 7 of the 12 countries under examination (Belgium, Spain, Finland, France, Greece, Italy and Slovenia) among young people with low educated parents (ISCED 1-2) women are significantly less likely than men to leave education at lower secondary level. In the remaining countries women's chances of leaving education early do not significantly differ from those of men.

In all countries there are also differences among young people from various social backgrounds in the likelihood of leaving from tertiary education. Indeed, the odds ratios[8] of graduating from tertiary education show that young people with highly educated parents always have higher chances of graduation than children with less educated parents (figure 2.3). Interestingly, the countries which show comparably low levels of tertiary leavers (i.e.

[8] Odds ratios with values between 0 and 1 indicate that young people with parents with high (or medium) education are less likely to graduate from tertiary education than young people with low educated parents. On the contrary, values higher than 1 mean that young people with parents with high (or medium) education are more likely to graduate at tertiary level than the others. When the odds equal 1 it means that young people from whatever social background have equal chances of graduation.

Hungary, Italy, Romania and Slovakia) are also those where the gap between young people with different social backgrounds is higher. In all countries (except in Austria) no significant gender differences have been found in the odds ratios of graduating from tertiary education among young people with different social backgrounds.

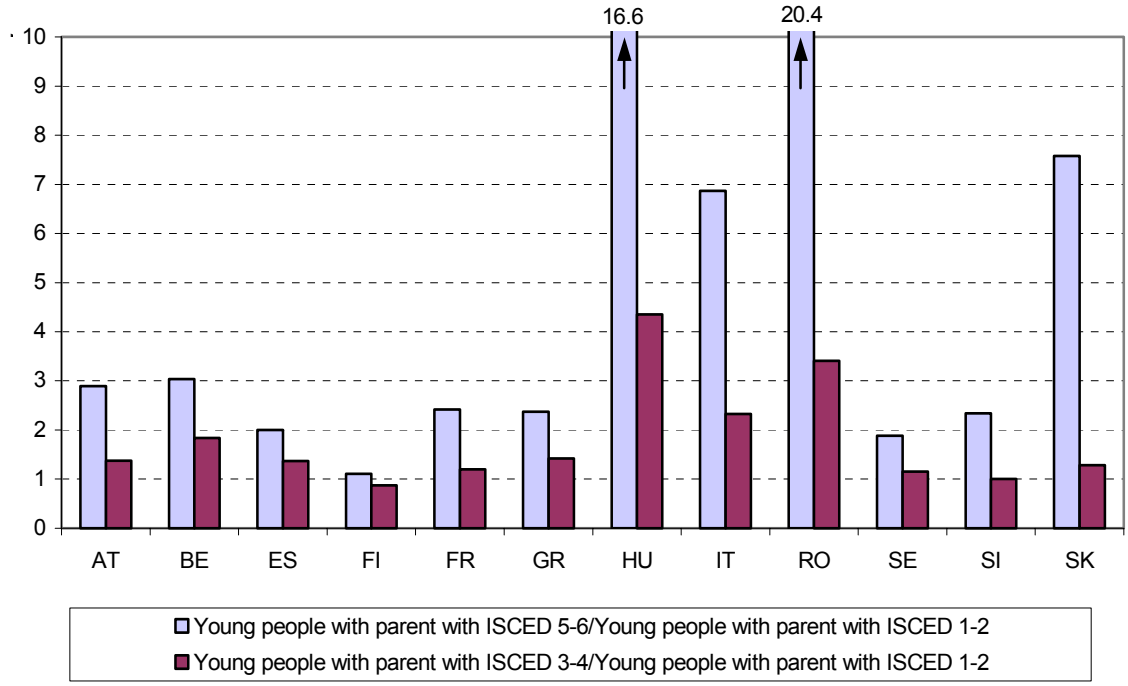

Figure 2.3: Odds ratios of graduating from tertiary education

Many studies have outlined a strong relationship between social background and children's choice of different types or fields of study. The data presented here focus on the programmes which attract, in all countries, the majority of the student population at upper-secondary and tertiary level, that is social sciences/law/business, engineering/manufacturing/ construction, services and general programmes. There is still considerable variation across countries in the way in which educational programmes are classified according to the international classification of fields of education.[9] Thus, country comparisons have to be made with caution.

The odds ratios presented in table 2.5 show that in all countries (except Finland and France) young people with highly educated parents (ISCED 5-6) are more likely to enter social science/law/business programmes. On the contrary, in the majority of countries young people with parents with low levels of education (ISCED 1-2) are more often found in the

[9] The information on the field of education refers to the field of education attended before leaving continuous education both in case of successful and unsuccessful completion. There are, however, two exceptions: in Denmark and Italy the field of education refers to the last educational level successfully completed.

fields of services and engineering/manufacturing/construction. A less clear pattern emerges in the case of general programmes: countries are evenly split between those countries in which young people with highly educated parents are much more likely to enter this field of education (Austria, Finland, France, Hungary and Slovakia); and the other countries in which general programmes are mainly attended by young people from families where parents have low educational attainment.

Table 2.5: Odds ratios of entering different fields of study of young people at upper-secondary or tertiary level. Young people with parents with high levels of education (ISCED 5-6) are compared with young people with parents with low levels of education (ISCED 1-2).

	General Programmes	Social Science, Law and Business	Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction	Services
Austria	3.9	1.1	0.6	0.4
Belgium	0.3	2.1	0.8	0.3
Finland	4.8	1.0	0.6	0.5
France	2.0	1.0	0.5	0.8
Greece	0.4	1.6	1.1	1.0
Hungary	2.3	1.2	0.2	0.8
Italy	.	1.2	0.5	0.2
Romania	.	4.7	0.9	0.6
Sweden	0.6	2.4	0.9	0.5
Slovenia	.	1.9	0.5	(0.5)
Slovakia	3.6	2.4	0.3	0.4
Spain	0.5	1.2	0.9	0.8

Social background and young people's occupational outcomes

Two main indicators are here presented to analyse the relationship between social origin and young people's occupational outcomes: the length of time before starting the first significant job (as a proxy for the degree of difficulty that young people may encounter in entering the labour market) and the occupational status of first significant job, measured by the International Social and Economic Index of Occupational Status (ISEI).

The length of time before starting the first significant job is measured as the average number of months between leaving education and starting the first significant job. In all countries, with the exception of Slovenia, Slovakia and Austria, the speed with which young people enter the labour market differs significantly among young people with different social

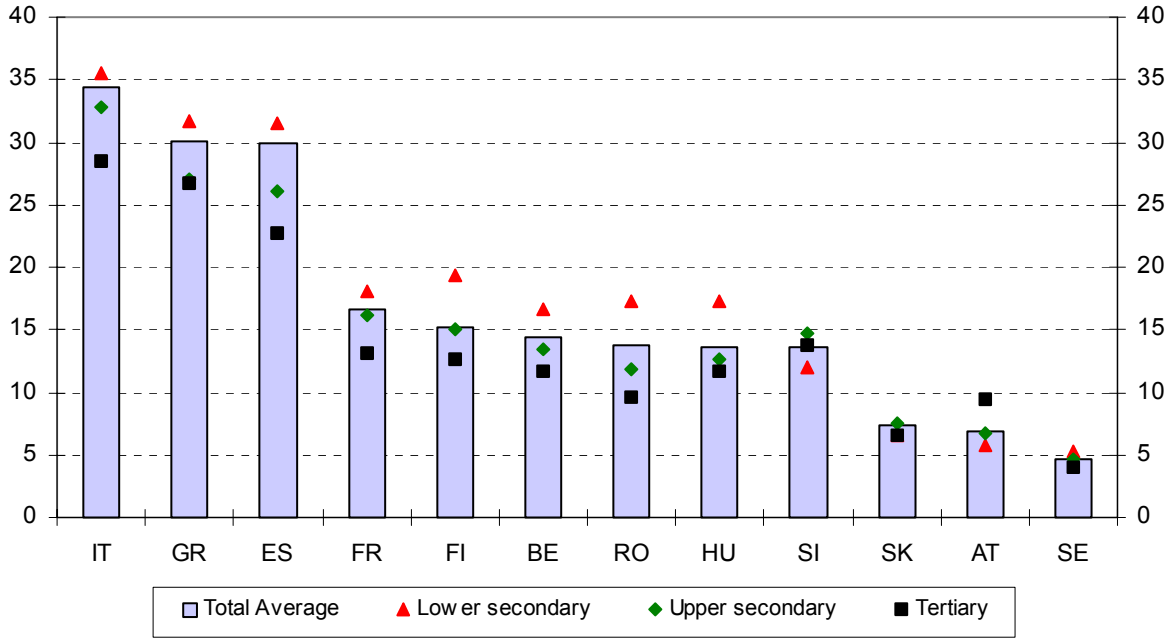

Figure 2.4: Average number of months between leaving education and starting the first significant job by parents' education

backgrounds (figure 2.4). Young people with low educated parents tend to wait longer before acquiring the first significant job. On the contrary young people with parents who graduated from tertiary education experience significantly shorter waiting times. In an intermediate position are those with parents with upper-secondary education. These results hold even after having taken into account differences related to gender and young people's educational attainment (with the exception of Italy and Belgium).

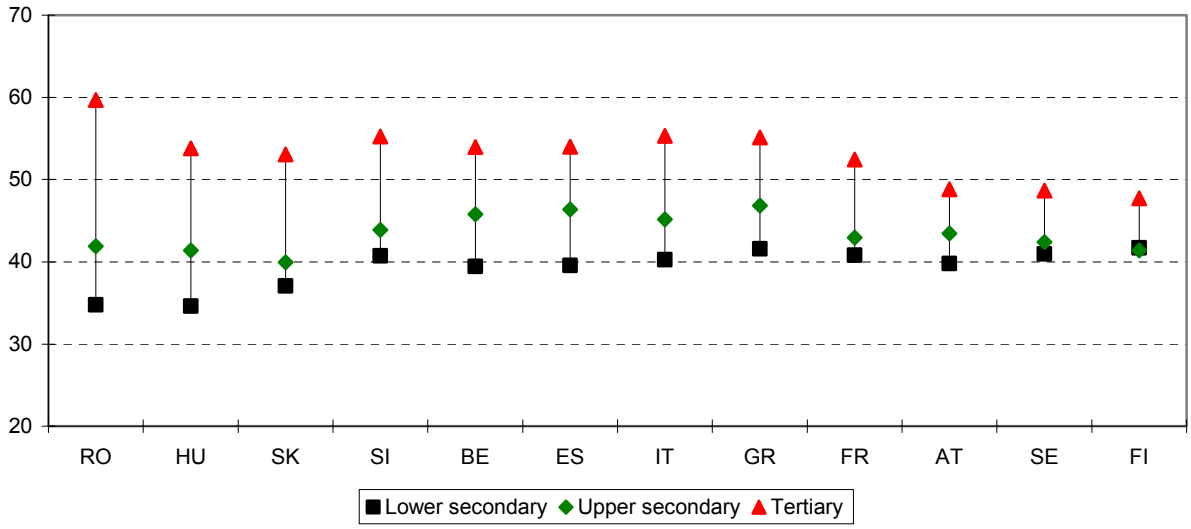

Figure 2.5: Average occupational status of young people by parents' educational attainment

The following indicators present data on young people's first significant job. The International Socio-Economic Index of Occupational Status (ISEI) is used as a measure of the occupational status acquired by young people in their first significant job. The ISEI is a scale which ranges from 16 to 90, with the highest value attributed to the highest occupational status. Figure 2.5 shows that, in all countries under examination, young people with different social backgrounds tend to achieve different occupational statuses: the higher the parents' educational attainment, the higher the children's occupational status. Moreover, the gap between young people with different social backgrounds appears to be larger in the Eastern European countries (Hungary, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia) and smaller in Austria, Sweden and Finland. Social differences in young people's occupational outcomes remain significant (though they reduce) even taking into account differences between the two sexes and among young people with various educational attainments.

Table 2.6 synthesises this finding for the pooled sample of countries. Young people with the same level of education but higher educated parents tend to occupy higher occupational positions than young people with lower educated parents.

Table 2.6: Average occupational attainment (ISEI classification) of young people with different levels of educational attainment by their parents' highest educational attainment

Young people's educational attainment when left continuous education	Parents' highest educational attainment		
	ISCED 1-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6
ISCED 1-2	31.8	33.9	35.8
ISCED 3-4	38.2	39.5	42.3
ISCED 5-6	52.1	55.5	59.7

The data on the average occupational status of young people leaving from different fields of education by parents' education (table 2.7) replicate the above described general pattern: given entry to of the same field of education, young people with parents with higher educational attainment enter better occupational positions.

Table 2.7: Average occupational status (ISEI classification) of upper-secondary and tertiary leavers by field of education and parents' highest educational attainment

	Parents' highest educational attainment		
	ISCED 1-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6
General Programmes	33.0	37.7	40.3
Social Sciences, Business and Law	46.4	48.3	55.8
Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction	38.3	39.0	50.5
Services	36.6	37.7	43.7

Summary

The time in which the transition from school-to-work starts varies widely across countries. This is very much dependent on country differences in the proportions of young people leaving at different levels of education and in the duration of the different stages of the national educational system. In all countries there is a strong association between young people's social background and their educational attainment. Early education leavers come mainly from families where parents have low levels of educational attainment while young people with highly educated parents have always higher chances of graduation from tertiary education than children with less educated parents. Moreover, some interesting gender differences emerge in the chances for young people to achieve educational levels higher than those of their parents (i.e. inter-generational upward mobility). Across countries there are similar patterns of association between parents' education and children's likelihood to attend various fields of study (with the exception of General Programmes). Parents' education is also highly related to young people's occupational outcomes. With the exception of a few countries, young people with parents who achieved only lower-secondary education or less tend to wait longer before acquiring the first significant job and they also tend to acquire a lower occupational status. However, there are country differences in the extent to which young people with different social backgrounds are more or less advantaged in the labour market.

3

Indicators of Gender Differentiation: Field of Education and Labour Market Integration

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This part of the indicator report examines gender differentiation in educational outcomes and labour market entry patterns among young people who first left education five to ten years previously in the study countries. For reasons of comparability, data on Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania and Luxembourg are not presented in the report (see report on data quality and comparability).

Educational attainment among young people

Figure 3.1 indicates female representation by lower secondary and tertiary levels in the countries concerned. This is derived from the ratio between the proportion of females at a particular educational level and the proportion of males at that level. A ratio greater than one indicates the over-representation of women in a particular educational category while a ratio below one indicates under-representation.

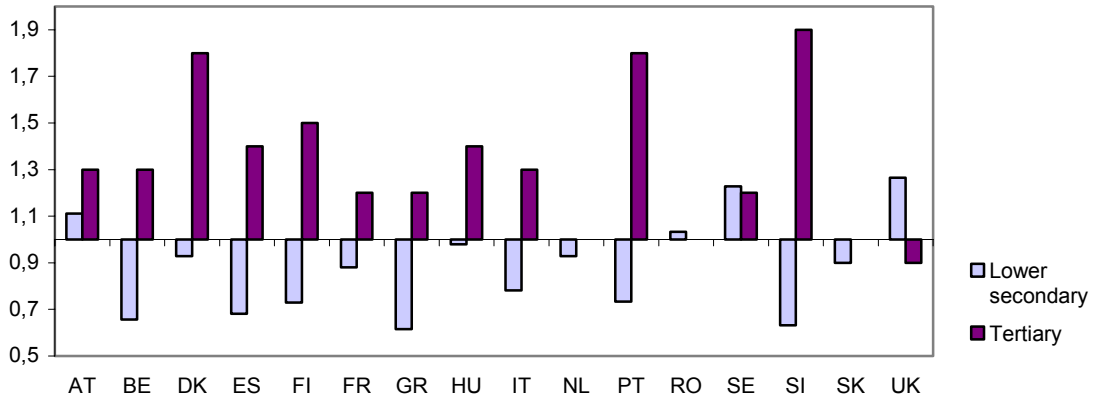

Figure 3.1: Female representation by level of education

Three groups of countries emerge from the data. In the first group, female leavers are relatively advantaged in terms of their educational attainment; that is, they are significantly underrepresented among lower secondary leavers and over-represented among tertiary leavers. Countries in this group include Belgium, Spain, Finland, Greece, Italy and Portugal. In the second group, a higher proportion of females than males leave at the tertiary level but there is no significant difference in their distribution between the lower and upper secondary

levels. This group includes Denmark, France, Hungary, and Slovenia. Only in the United Kingdom are young women found to be under-represented among tertiary leavers. In the remaining countries (Austria, the Netherlands, Romania, Slovakia and Sweden), no significant gender differences are found in the educational attainment levels of system leavers.

Field of education

An innovative feature of the ad hoc module on transitions was the collection of information on the field of education studied by young people before leaving education. However, some problems relating to comparability arose in the implementation of the module (see report on data quality and comparability). In Denmark, Italy, Portugal and the United Kingdom the information on field of education related to the highest level of education completed rather than the level when leaving education for the first time. For this reason, analyses in the remainder of this report exclude these countries.

In all of the countries considered, significant gender differences were evident in the field of education studied at both upper secondary and tertiary levels.[1] The extent of gender differentiation in type of education can be analysed using an index of dissimilarity measure which indicates the proportion of males (or females) who would need to 'change' fields in order to achieve an equal distribution across categories by gender[2]. Indices of dissimilarity tend to be sensitive to the number of categories considered with more aggregated classifications often concealing gender segregation. Indices are also likely to be sensitive to sample size, in particular to the greater clustering in certain categories potentially found using small samples.

Field of education was classified into twenty-five detailed categories which could be aggregated into nine broad categories. Indices of dissimilarity at upper secondary and tertiary levels were calculated for both classifications: firstly, to allow for the existence of gender segregation within broader categories (for example, the physical sciences may differ in their gender profile from the life sciences); secondly, to increase comparability across countries as in Romania and Sweden only the broader classification was employed; and thirdly, to allow for the fact that apparent segregation at the more detailed level may reflect sampling variation (especially where sample sizes are relatively small) rather than gender segregation per se.

[1] Lower secondary education was usually more general in nature so field of education is not considered for those who left from this level.

[2] This is calculated by summing the absolute differences in the proportion of males and females in each educational field and dividing the total by two.

Table 3.1: Gender segregation by field of education (index of dissimilarity)

Level of education	Upper secondary			Tertiary	
Field categories	Broad	Detailed	Per cent in general courses	Broad	Detailed
Austria	58.9	60.2	9.4	44.5	52.2
Belgium	32.4	33.0	43.5	28.4	35.7
Spain	32.1	32.9	51.5	38.2	40.3
Finland	35.6	38.1	34.2	44.2	50.1
France	57.6	59.0	2.3	33.1	34.5
Greece	16.7	17.4	62.9	31.4	32.6
Hungary	47.7	57.7	11.5	41.8	42.4
Netherlands	38.8	42.2	20.4	26.9	32.1
Romania	22.7	n.a.	14.3	38.6	n.a.
Sweden	37.8	n.a.	13.9	41.0	n.a.
Slovenia	47.1	54.2	0.4	37.3	46.0
Slovakia	43.3	47.2	8.2	38.9	40.5

The indices of dissimilarity for both the more detailed and broader classifications are presented in Table 3.1. At upper secondary level, gender segregation was found to be greatest in Austria, France and Hungary, with the lowest levels found in Greece and Romania. In the case of Greece, the low degree of gender segregation reflects the fact that the majority (62%) of students had taken general courses. In overall terms, gender segregation is somewhat lower in countries where a greater proportion of young people leave the upper secondary level having taken general courses. At tertiary level, gender segregation was greatest in Austria, Finland and Hungary, and lowest in the Netherlands and Belgium. In general, segregation was found to be greater using the more detailed classification, indicating that broad categories of educational field may encompass subject areas with very different gender profiles.

Fields of education were classified in terms of their 'female-intensity' into 'female-intensive' (>60% female), 'neutral' (40-60% female) and 'male-intensive' (<40% female) subject areas. Tables 3.2 and 3.3 present the profiles of subjects at upper secondary and tertiary levels. The more aggregated classification is used due to the small numbers in some of the detailed subject areas.

There are certain commonalities across countries in the gender-typing of subject areas. In all countries considered, engineering courses at upper secondary level are male-intensive while health/welfare and education courses are female-intensive.[3] Arts/humanities and social

[3] In the latter case, the exception is France where education courses are mixed in profile. However, this pattern should be interpreted with caution since fewer than one per cent of the upper secondary leavers in the sample had taken education courses.

Table 3.2: Female-intensity of different fields of education at upper secondary level

	General	Education	Arts	Social/ business	Science	Engineering	Agriculture	Health/ welfare	Services
Austria	N	F	N	F	M	M	M	F	F
Belgium	N	F	N	F	M	M	M	F	F
Spain	N	(F)	N	F	M	M	M	F	F
Finland	N	.	N	N	.	M	N	F	F
France	M	N	F	F	N	M	M	F	F
Greece	N	F	F	F	N	M	.	F	N
Hungary	F	F	(F)	F	M	M	N	F	N
Netherlands	N	.	.	F	.	M	(M)	F	F
Romania	M	F	N	F	N	M	N	F	M
Sweden	F	F	F	N	M	M	N	F	N
Slovenia	.	(F)	(F)	F	(F)	M	N	F	N
Slovakia	F	F	F	F	N	M	N	F	F

M: >60% male, F: >60% female, N: 40-60% female

Table 3.3: Female-intensity of different fields of education at tertiary education level

	General	Education	Arts	Social/ business	Science	Engineering	Agriculture	Health/ welfare	Services
Austria	.	F	F	N	M	M	M	F	M
Belgium	F	F	N	N	M	M	N	F	N
Spain	.	F	N	F	N	M	N	F	F
Finland	.	F	F	F	N	M	(N)	F	F
France	M	F	F	F	M	M	M	F	N
Greece	.	F	F	F	N	M	N	F	M
Hungary	.	F	F	F	M	M	M	F	M
Netherlands	.	N	(F)	N	(M)	M	.	F	.
Romania	.	F	F	N	F	M	M	F	M
Sweden	.	F	F	N	N	M	.	F	.
Slovenia	.	(F)	(F)	F	F	M	(N)	(N)	(N)
Slovakia	.	F	F	F	F	M	M	N	M

M: >60% male, F: >60% female, N: 40-60% female

science/business courses tend to be female-intensive or mixed in profile while science and agriculture courses tend to be male or mixed in profile. In the case of agriculture, the profile appears to be somewhat less male-dominated in the Eastern European countries than in the Western European countries. The gender profile of those taking general and services courses varies by country.

At tertiary level, health/welfare and education remain female-intensive while engineering courses remain male-intensive. Arts/humanities courses become more female-intensive than at upper secondary level while science courses become somewhat more divergent in their gender profile.

Therefore, in spite of differences across countries in the type of education taken by leavers, there are certain commonalities in the gender-typing of certain subject areas. In other cases, however, the gender-typing of educational fields is societally specific.

Gender differences in labour force participation rates

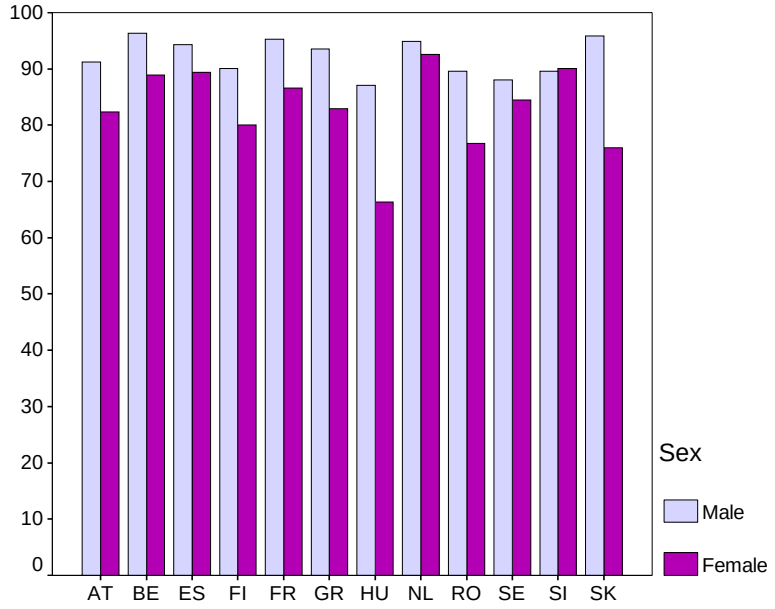

Figure 3.2: Labour force participation rates by gender and country

Figure 3.2 illustrates labour force participation rates at the time of the interview by gender and country.[4] With the exception of the Netherlands and Slovenia, male participation rates were significantly higher than female rates in all of the countries studied. Female labour force participation rates were found to vary by initial level of educational attainment with the lowest activity rates found among those with lower secondary education. The extent to which

[4] Those in military service are excluded for the purposes of this analysis.

this inactivity was accounted for by on-going educational participation (that is, respondents had taken part in education/training in the previous four weeks) varied by country; in Austria, Finland and Sweden, over 40 per cent of women outside the labour force were participating in education/training compared with only a small minority of those in Greece and Slovakia.

Figure 3.3 shows the proportion of young people who had achieved a first significant job by the time of the interview. It should be noted that a few of the countries (Finland, the Netherlands and Sweden) differ from the others in taking a time-span of five years since leaving education for the first time, a pattern which will have implications for the degree of labour market integration observed. Compared with other countries, those in Romania (male and female) are less likely to have obtained a significant job within ten years of leaving education. In Austria, Belgium, Spain, France, Greece and Hungary, young women are significantly less likely to have entered stable employment than young men. Entry to stable employment is significantly associated with educational level, with those with tertiary education much more likely to have obtained a significant job than other educational groups. However, the gender differences identified tend to hold within educational categories; that is, women are less likely to obtain a significant job than similarly qualified men. The exceptions occur at tertiary level in Hungary and Belgium where no significant gender differences are found.

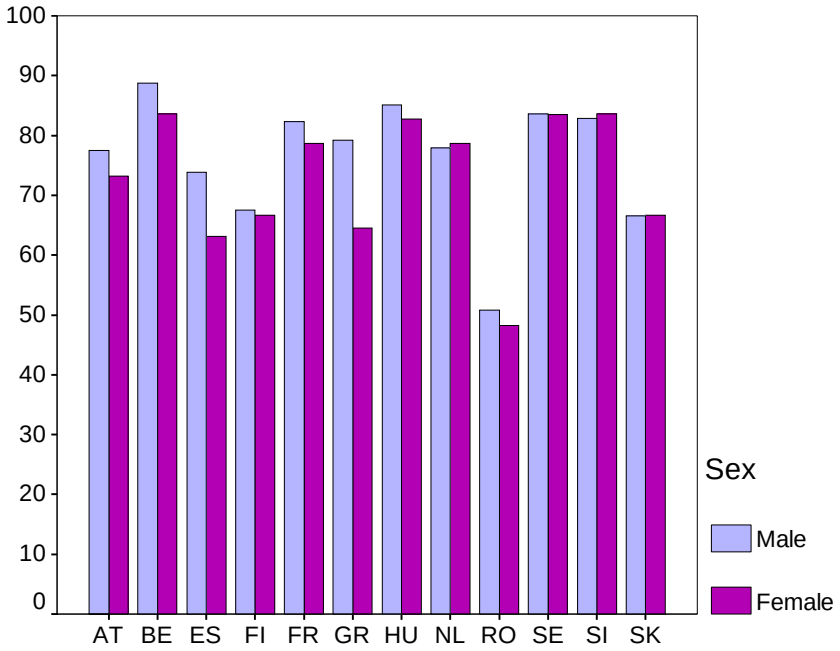

Figure 3.3: Proportion who have obtained a first significant job (in per cent)

Gender differences in unemployment rates

Figure 3.4 indicates the unemployment rate (that is, the proportion of those in the labour force who were unemployed at the time of interview) by gender and country. Again, results for Finland, the Netherlands and Sweden should be treated with caution due to the shorter period of time since respondents have left education. In Spain, France, Greece and the Netherlands, female unemployment rates are significantly higher than those found among their male counterparts. These gender differences persist when educational level is taken into account. In Hungary and Romania, male rates are significantly higher than female rates. These differences are no longer significant when educational level is taken into account; that is, young men in Hungary and Romania have higher unemployment rates mainly because they have lower levels of educational attainment than young women.

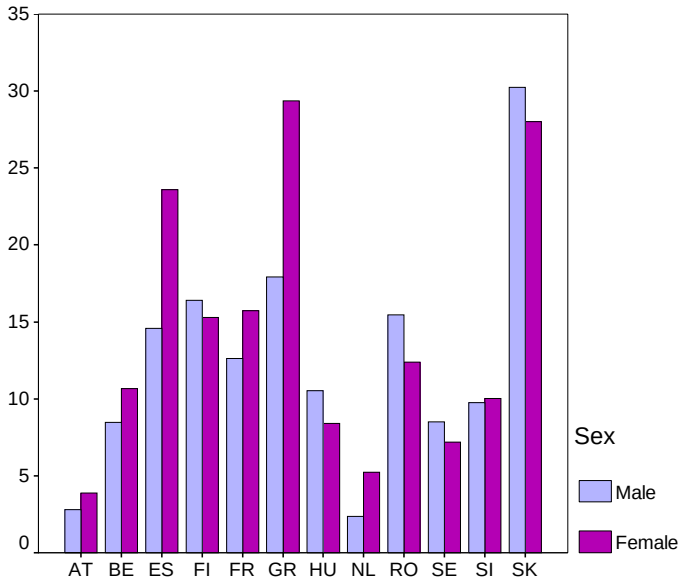

Figure 3.4: Unemployment rate by gender and country (in per cent)

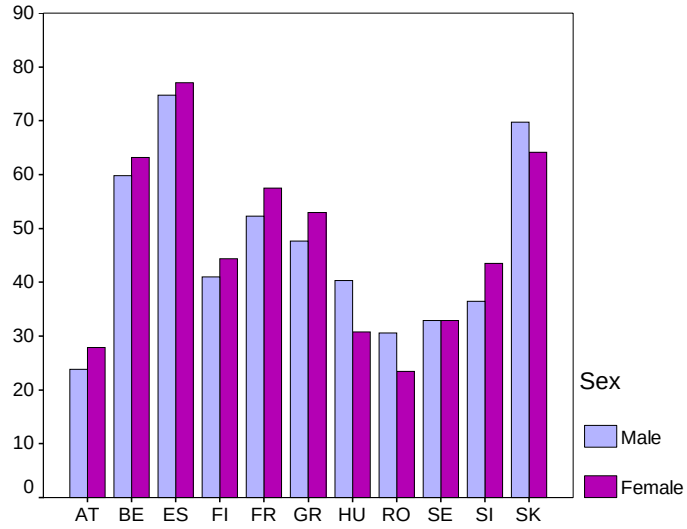

Figure 3.5: Experience of job search by gender (in per cent)

Information on experience of job search gives some insight into previous experience of unemployment. Figure 3.5 shows the proportion of men and women who had had at least one spell of job search lasting more than a month. In Austria, Spain, France, Greece and Slovenia, women were significantly more likely to have experienced a job search spell than men. In Hungary, Romania and Slovakia, men were more likely to have experienced job search than women.

Occupational segregation by gender

In all of the countries, the distribution across occupational groups differs significantly for males and females. Indices of dissimilarity were calculated for ISCO 1-digit, 2-digit and 3-digit occupational groupings[5]. Table 3.4 indicates that the level of segregation is found to be higher when more detailed occupational groups are used; this reflects the fact that broader occupational groups often contain occupations with very different gender profiles.

Gender segregation is found to be highest in Austria[6], Hungary, Slovakia and France, and lowest in Sweden, Belgium and the Netherlands. On first sight, there appears to be some relationship with educational segregation by gender with Austria, Hungary and Slovakia exhibiting relatively high levels of occupational and educational segregation.

Table 3.4: Occupational segregation by gender in first significant job

	1-digit	2-digit	3-digit
Austria	45.5	56.8	64.3
Belgium	31.6	44.3	51.6
Spain	42.1	47.5	53.7
Finland	35.6	51.2	56.1
France	37.3	47.5	51.7
Greece	36.1	41.2	48.8
Hungary	37.7	49.0	58.5
Netherlands	32.3	38.6	52.9
Romania	36.4	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	30.8	40.9	51.4
Slovenia	34.9	42.3	57.9
Slovakia	37.6	55.4	66.1

As with educational field, occupational groups were divided into 'female-intensive' (>60% female), 'neutral' (40-60% female) and 'male-intensive' (<40% female) categories (Table 3.5).

[5] These were calculated by summing the absolute differences in the proportion of males and females in each occupational group and dividing the total by two.

[6] The data for Austria are not fully comparable with the other countries since they relate to current job. However, analysis does reveal Austria as an outlier in segregation terms.

Table 3.5: Female-intensity of different occupational groups

	Senior managers	Professional	Technical	Clerical workers	Service workers	Agricultural workers	Craft workers	Machine operators	Elementary occupations
Austria	M	N	N	F	F	M	M	M	N
Belgium	M	N	N	F	F	M	M	M	M
Spain	M	N	N	F	F	M	M	M	M
Finland	M	F	N	F	F	N	M	M	N
France	M	N	N	F	F	M	M	M	N
Greece	M	N	N	F	N	M	M	M	M
Hungary	M	N	N	F	F	M	M	N	M
Netherlands	M	N	F	F	F	.	M	(M)	N
Romania	M	N	F	F	F	N	M	M	M
Sweden	M	N	N	F	F	.	M	M	N
Slovenia	M	F	N	F	N	(N)	M	M	(M)
Slovakia	M	N	F	F	F	M	M	M	M

Note: due to small numbers, the army category is not included in this table.

In all countries, senior managerial, craft and machine operator jobs are dominated by men while females tend to predominate in clerical and service jobs. It should be noted that these broad categories will include jobs with very different gender profiles.

Occupational status and gender differentiation

ISEI occupational status scores were found to vary significantly by educational level for both females and males. Table 3.6 indicates gender differences in occupational status within educational levels. Four groups of countries were evident:

- In Spain, Romania and, to a lesser extent, Greece, Hungary and Slovakia, women with upper secondary or tertiary education had higher status levels than similarly qualified males.
- In Austria, Belgium, France and Slovenia, women had higher status levels than men at upper secondary level but the position was reversed at tertiary level.
- Men had higher status levels than similarly qualified women in Finland.
- No significant gender differences in occupational status were evident in the Netherlands or Sweden.

Table 3.6: Occupational status by gender and level of education

	Lower secondary			Upper secondary			Tertiary		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Austria	35.0	33.2	34.2	**38.8**	**43.3**	41.0	*66.7*	*62.6*	64.5
Belgium	32.3	32.3	32.3	*35.8*	*37.9*	36.7	*57.9*	*55.2*	56.4
Spain	**29.8**	**32.3**	30.6	**34.8**	**38.7**	36.6	**50.4**	**53.1**	51.8
Finland	34.4	35.0	34.6	*37.4*	*35.5*	36.5	*57.3*	*54.5*	55.6
France	*31.6*	*33.5*	32.5	**34.6**	**37.3**	35.8	**52.4**	**49.3**	50.7
Greece	31.3	31.3	31.3	**37.8**	**42.9**	40.3	57.2	58.6	58.0
Hungary	**27.2**	**31.0**	28.8	**36.6**	**40.7**	38.5	63.2	64.1	63.7
Netherlands	33.3	37.3	35.4	42.0	41.3	41.7	60.9	58.6	59.7
Romania	27.4	29.4	28.3	**34.6**	**41.2**	37.6	**61.4**	**65.4**	63.3
Sweden	.	.	36.6	38.8	36.9	37.9	56.8	53.6	55.0
Slovenia	32.5	(35.3)	33.7	**37.2**	**40.6**	38.6	64.0	62.6	63.1
Slovakia	25.4	.	29.3	**35.1**	**40.7**	37.9	62.3	63.1	62.7

Between-gender differences: bold indicates p<.001, italics p<.01.

Further analysis was conducted to examine whether occupational status varied by field of education. Table 3.7 indicates the results for general, social/business and engineering programmes at upper secondary level. Due to small numbers in specific categories, results are not presented for the other fields of education. In general, those who have taken social/business tracks tend to achieve higher occupational status levels than those who have

Table 3.7: Occupational status by gender and selected field of education at upper secondary level

	General			Social/business			Engineering		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Austria	45.5	47.6	46.8	45.3	45.8	45.6	37.0	39.5	37.2
Belgium	*35.5*	*38.5*	36.8	40.4	42.3	41.5	34.6	34.0	34.6
Spain	**36.0**	**40.4**	38.0	**35.9**	**40.5**	39.2	32.4	(30.7)	32.3
Finland	**41.9**	**35.1**	38.1	39.9	41.9	40.9	35.1	36.0	35.2
France	41.1	38.5	40.4	**37.5**	**41.6**	40.5	**33.8**	**31.0**	33.5
Greece	**36.3**	**41.0**	38.5	**43.0**	**47.3**	46.0	**37.4**	**43.8**	38.8
Hungary	44.5	43.2	43.7	42.8	44.3	44.0	*35.0*	*36.0*	35.2
Netherlands	*(46.9)*	*(37.4)*	42.1	48.6	48.5	48.5	38.2	.	37.6
Romania	32.1	34.3	32.8	*39.9*	*44.4*	43.4	**33.7**	**37.3**	34.9
Sweden	33.5	35.7	34.9	43.1	40.5	41.5	36.7	.	37.0
Slovenia	.	.	.	43.3	46.2	45.4	35.6	33.4	35.3
Slovak Republic	41.3	44.4	43.4	42.8	46.5	46.0	34.5	35.9	34.9

Between-gender differences: bold indicates p<.001, italics p<.01.

taken engineering programmes; the relative 'return' to general tracks appears to vary by country. In Spain and Greece and, to a lesser extent, Romania, women receive higher returns than men from general and social/business tracks. In France, women receive higher returns in social/business tracks but lower returns in engineering programmes. Men receive higher returns than women in general tracks in the Netherlands and Finland.

Table 3.8 indicates occupational status scores by field of education at tertiary level. Some of the difference in status levels between men and women indicated above is found to be due to their differential distribution across fields of education. However, women are found to receive lower status returns than men from the health/welfare track for all countries except

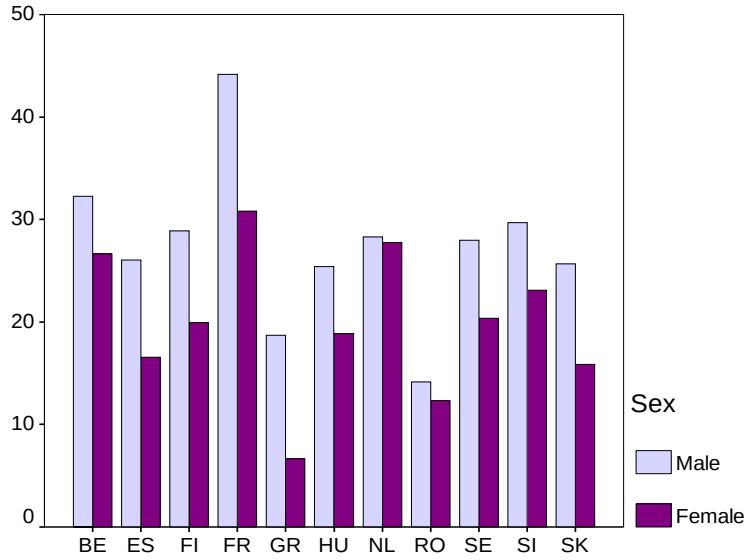

Figure 3.6: Occupational upgrading by gender and country (in per cent)

Table 3.8: Occupational status by gender and selected field of education: Tertiary education

	Arts			Social/business			Science			Engineering			Health/welfare		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Austria	58.4	58.1	58.2	*69.2*	*61.8*	65.8	69.4	69.9	69.6	62.7	.	60.9	.	62.7	65.9
Belgium	60.6	56.9	58.4	58.1	56.0	57.0	61.3	54.6	59.1	56.1	55.8	56.1	*59.8*	*52.7*	54.2
Spain	*48.8*	*53.5*	51.2	53.1	52.9	52.9	56.4	58.1	57.1	**46.0**	**59.6**	47.8	**61.1**	**51.1**	53.3
Finland	.	59.0	58.3	55.0	52.3	53.2	(69.1)	(62.5)	65.2	56.9	(64.3)	57.8	.	52.9	53.7
France	52.7	51.9	52.1	**52.6**	**49.0**	50.3	59.7	57.0	58.6	50.4	60.2	50.4	**58.8**	**43.9**	46.5
Greece	55.8	59.4	58.6	56.4	59.0	58.0	60.4	59.5	60.1	*55.7*	*62.8*	57.5	**72.7**	**56.9**	62.1
Hungary	62.9	63.9	63.6	61.9	61.1	61.4	60.0	(64.5)	61.5	64.2	64.2	64.2	78.4	72.1	74.4
Netherlands	.	.	55.6	60.8	58.7	59.8	(64.7)	.	65.0	58.4	.	60.4	.	53.8	57.6
Romania	67.9	66.5	67.0	64.7	64.0	64.3	62.0	68.5	66.2	62.1	61.3	61.9	63.7	67.2	66.1
Sweden	.	.	.	59.6	58.7	59.2	63.6	.	64.0	53.5	.	55.1	.	44.6	45.4
Slovenia	.	(69.4)	(68.5)	62.1	61.7	61.8	(66.7)	(65.2)	65.7	65.8	(62.8)	65.1	(60.3)	(52.7)	(56.2)
Slovakia	.	.	.	63.6	63.4	63.5	.	.	56.8	59.6	60.8	59.9	82.5	73.8	78.1

Between-gender differences: bold indicates p<.001, italics p<.01.

Romania. The higher returns at tertiary level to Spanish women revealed in Table 3.6 are found to be due to gender differences in status returns to arts/humanities and engineering programmes. Further analysis is need to explore the relationship between educational level, field of education, gender and occupational status across European countries.

Analyses were carried out to determine whether respondents had experienced an upgrading in occupational status levels between their first significant and current jobs. Young people who were in a higher status occupation in their current job than in their first significant job were considered as having experienced an occupational upgrading, regardless of the 'size' of this shift. Figure 3.6 refers only to those who changed jobs. In all of the countries examined except the Netherlands, women are less likely to have experienced occupational upgrading than men; this difference is statistically significant in Spain, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary and Slovakia.

Summary

Gender segregation in field of education and first significant job is apparent across all of the European countries considered, although the degree of segregation varies cross-nationally. There are certain similarities across countries in the gender-typing of educational fields and of occupational groups. Engineering courses tend to be male-dominated while health/welfare and education courses tend to be female-dominated. Across all European countries, senior managerial and craft occupations tend to be male-dominated while clerical jobs tend to be female-dominated. In a significant number of countries, young women have been less likely than similarly qualified young men to achieve stable employment (a significant job). The nature of occupational status differences by gender in the first job obtained is found to differ across countries.

4

Job Search and Job Mobility among Recent Entrants to the Labour Force

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Based on data from the LFS 2000 ad-hoc-module on transitions from school to work, this chapter will report survey results on the job search and job mobility experiences of young people who entered European labour markets during the second half of the 1990s. More specifically, the paper reports empirical results on four aspects of mobility behaviour among young people, namely (a) the length of the initial transition stage until a first significant job was found, (b) the occupational distribution of these first jobs, (c) the extent of subsequent mobility out of the first job, and (d), the extent to which such job mobility involved upward or downward mobility. The following analyses will cover 10 European Union (Belgium, Finland, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, and Sweden) and three Eastern European countries (Hungary, Romania, Slovenia), for which reliable mobility data has been available from the LFS 2000 Ad-hoc module survey by the time of writing. To ensure cross-national comparability of the results, the following analyses will rely on survey data for all respondents who have left the education and training systems during the last five years preceding the survey interview (i.e. since summer 1994), although some countries even supplied data for young people having entered the labour market within the last 10 years preceding the actual interview. The results reported below are based on a total of about 42.500 survey interviews in the 13 European countries covered.

Time to first significant job: a lengthy transition stage?

A key issue in transition research concerns the length of the transition stage, i.e. the time it takes young people to enter their first reasonably stable employment relationship. Within the EULFS ad-hoc module, individuals' first significant job has been defined as the first job that was held for six months or more, and at which young people were working at least on a part-time basis of about 20 hours per week. Since the ad-hoc module data records both individual date of first leaving education and training as well as the date of entering one's first significant job, it is possible to calculate the duration of the transition period until the first significant job was found. The corresponding duration distribution is given in Table 4.1 below.

According to these data, a full 44 per cent of European school leavers have been able to find their first significant job within the first six months from leaving education and training. 18 per cent of all school leavers even report an immediate entry into working life, without any frictions between leaving education and finding a first job which was held for at least six months. 26 per cent of market entrants have been searching for up to six months for their first significant job, and another 12 per cent had found the first significant job by one year after leaving education. 19 per cent of all school leavers had to search for between one and two years, and for as many as 26 per cent of all market entrants it took more than two years to become settled into their first significant job.

Table 4.1: Time to first significant job, by country (in per cent)

	BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
No search	21	12	26	16	14	21	29	10	26	24	55	31	21	18
≤ 6 months	41	19	27	27	16	42	31	16	31	29		37	35	26
7-12 months	12	11	15	13	9	8	10	8	23	15	16	14	13	12
1-2 years	11	18	15	23	22	13	14	23	12	15	14	11	15	19
> 2 years	15	39	17	21	39	16	16	43	8	17	15	7	17	26

There are considerable country differences in the duration of the transition stage, however. The school-to-work transition is relatively short in Sweden, Belgium, Hungary, Ireland, and slightly less so in Romania, Slovenia and the Netherlands. In each of the first four countries, between 25 and 30 per cent of all school leavers experienced an immediate transition from education into their first significant job, and within six months after leaving education and training 60 per cent and more had entered their first significant job. Within one year after leaving education and training, between 70 and 80 per cent (Sweden 83 per cent) of all school leavers had found a first significant job. Compared to these countries, initial transitions take slightly more time in Finland, France, or Portugal, where duration figures are relatively close to the European average. In contrast, school leavers in Italy, Greece, and Spain face considerable difficulties in integrating themselves quickly into the labour market. In each of the latter countries, the proportion of school leavers who have been able to secure a first significant job within six months after leaving education is 30 per cent at best, and the proportion of leavers with very long transitions is well beyond the results for other European countries. This finding emerges particularly clearly from Figure 4.1, which shows a proportion of about 40 per cent of all school leavers in these three countries who took more than two years to locate their first significant job, while the respective figure is about 15 per cent only in most other European countries, and even well below 10 per cent in Sweden and the Netherlands.

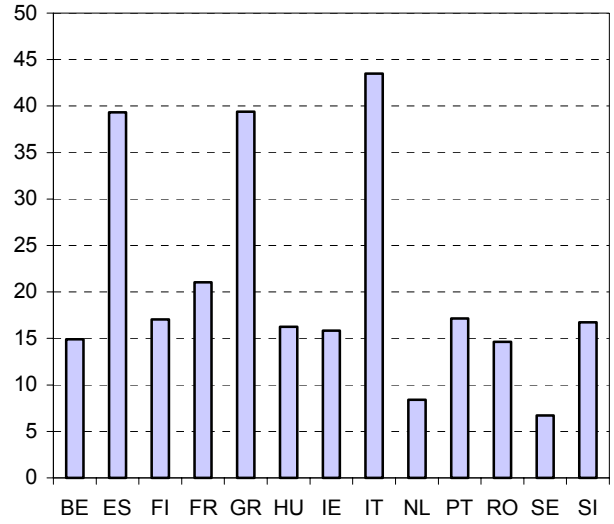

Figure 4.1: Proportion of entrants with job search of more than 2 years, by country (in per cent)

In addition to these country differences, there is some evidence of differences in the duration of transitions between young men and women. As evident from Table 4.2, gender differences are fairly slight on average, although some countries do show more pronounced differentials. Averaging across selected European countries, young women tend to settle somewhat more quickly into their first significant jobs than young men: 45 per cent of young women, but only 41 per cent of young men had found their first significant job within six months after leaving education and training. In contrast, 27 per cent of young men, but only 24 per cent of young women needed more than two years two find their first stable employment. Compared to young men, young women's transitions are particularly quick in Finland, France, Greece, and Slovenia.

Differences in search duration by levels of education are considerably more pronounced, however. In general, more highly educated school leavers tend to experience a smoother entry into working life, while a substantial proportion of the least qualified leavers does experience severe transition problems. In fact, about half of all leavers from tertiary education, and still 40 per cent of those entering from upper secondary levels of education

Table 4.2: Time to first significant job, by country and gender (in per cent)

		BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
≤ 6 months	men	61	32	44	38	27	60	60	25	60	52	53	68	53	41
	women	63	30	61	48	34	66	60	25	55	53	59	69	59	45
> 2 years	men	15	40	21	15	46	18	16	44	9	20	16	6	20	27
	women	15	39	13	20	33	14	15	43	8	15	13	7	13	24

Table 4.3: Time to first significant job, by country and level of education (in per cent)

		BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
≤ 6 months	ISCED 0-2	45	22	25	46	30	32	.	23	50	44	37	59	(26)	33
	ISCED 3-4	58	30	46	38	28	62	.	24	60	57	56	64	49	41
	ISCED 5-6	69	37	68	47	35	78	.	31	57	71	66	78	77	49
> 2 years	ISCED 0-2	30	55	51	36	45	38	.	52	18	23	33	11	(50)	41
	ISCED 3-4	18	41	18	27	42	17	.	45	6	13	14	8	20	28
	ISCED 5-6	9	30	9	15	33	6	.	32	7	6	.	5	(4)	18

have found their first significant job within six months. Also, less than 20 per cent of university graduates, and still less than 30 per cent of all leavers from upper secondary education report an initial transition stage of more than two years. Among the least qualified leavers, however, only a mere third had found their first significant job by six months after leaving education and training, and a full 40 per cent needed more than two years to become initially settled into the labour market.

Interestingly, there are some important country differences in the relationship between education and search duration. While the inverse relation between levels of education and duration of job search discussed before holds for many, if not most European countries, there are at best small if any systematic effects of education in France, Greece, Italy, and the Netherlands. In part, this might be explained by the relatively favourable labour market situation for the least qualified in the Netherlands, where half of school leavers from lower secondary levels of education had already found a first significant job by six months after leaving education and training. The same explanation is hardly applicable to countries like Greece or Italy, however, where labour market integration occurs slowly at all educational levels. Moreover, the data for Sweden aptly show that a quick integration of less qualified leavers alone need not be accompanied by small educational differentials: there, about 60 per cent of lower secondary leavers found a first significant job within six months, yet even almost 80 per cent of university graduates did so.

Occupation in the first job: trends towards service occupations

Having made the transition into the first significant job, which kind of jobs are being done by recent entrants into European labour markets? From the occupational distributions in first jobs given in Table 4.4 below, it is evident that more than one third of all leavers from education and training in Europe started their work history in the high-skilled professional and semi-professional service occupations (ISCO 1-3) by the late 1990s. About another third entered clerical, administrative, sales or personal service occupations (ISCO 4-5), while the final third

found their first job in skilled or unskilled manual occupations (ISCO 6-9). However, there are important country differences also in this respect. Young people in the Netherlands, for example, are particularly likely to enter service sector occupations in general, and highly skilled professional jobs in particular. Only some 20 per cent of all Dutch leavers still enter manual occupations in their first job, while a full 52 per cent of all leavers report work in professional, semi-professional or high-skill technical occupations. Similarly, Belgium and Finland also show high proportions of young people in professional service occupations, whereas French youth are particularly likely to enter technical occupations in their first jobs. In contrast, the proportion of leavers entering manual occupations is still quite high in Romania, Hungary, and, particularly for low-skill manual occupations, also in Spain. Leavers in Greece, Hungary, and Sweden, in turn, are particularly likely to start their work careers in the sales and personal service occupations.

Table 4.4: Occupation of first significant job, by country (in per cent)

	BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
ISCO 1+2	30	19	27	16	21	17	22	14	26	15	17	21	22	18
ISCO 3	13	11	16	25	12	15	9	20	26	11	15	20	16	18
ISCO 4	16	14	6	16	19	9	17	17	10	16	5	12	10	14
ISCO 5	14	18	19	15	23	22	19	18	18	19	16	23	18	18
ISCO 7	12	15	12	11	13	24	15	17	9	18	21	8	15	15
ISCO 6,8,9	14	23	20	16	13	13	19	15	11	20	25	17	19	17

In fact, there is evidence of a clear trend towards service occupations in all European countries. As depicted in Figure 4.2, the proportion of school leavers entering the service sector has continuously been growing among more recent leaver cohorts throughout Europe. Moreover, these changes have been far from marginal: on average, the proportion of school leavers entering the service sector has been growing by more than 5 percentage points within only the last five years. Apparently, and some obvious problems in the data notwithstanding, this trend towards service occupations has been very general across different European countries. If anything, the rise of service sector jobs has been particularly strong in Eastern Europe, notably in Hungary and Slovenia, yet growth rates have also been above the European average in Greece or Spain, for example.

At the same time, however, young people's occupational choices continue to be highly segregated by gender. The data given in Table 4.5 shows young men to still disproportionately enter manual occupations, whereas the lower-level service occupations continue to be heavily female dominated. While this pattern of gender segregation remains

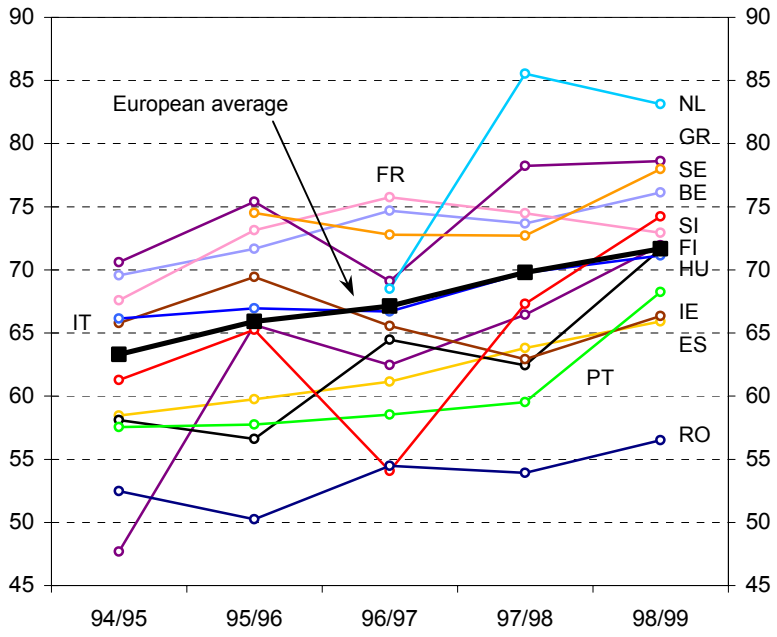

Figure 4.2: Proportion of school leavers entering service occupations, by country and year of leaving education and training (in per cent)

strong in all European countries, the manual sector is particularly male-dominated in Spain and Ireland, yet least so in Sweden and the Netherlands. In turn, female overrepresentation in lower-level services is particularly pronounced in Spain, France, and Ireland, but below average in Belgium, Romania and Slovenia. Interestingly, though, remaining gender differences in terms of access to highly skilled service occupations are only slight, and in many if not most European countries young women even tend to be more likely than men to enter such high-skilled jobs. This is particularly the case for Belgium, Spain, Greece, Hungary, Romania, and Slovenia, while France and the Netherlands are the only country where young women continue to be less likely than young men to enter the professional service sector.

Table 4.5: Occupation of first significant job, by country and gender (in per cent)

		BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
ISCO 1-3	men	39	25	38	44	27	26	29	33	54	22	25	41	28	34
	women	49	37	47	40	38	38	32	34	51	30	39	40	49	39
	(women)-(men)	+10	+12	+8	-4	+11	+12	+4	+1	-3	+8	+14	±0	+21	+4
ISCO 4-5	men	21	18	13	15	30	20	20	23	16	24	13	21	22	19
	women	40	48	36	48	52	41	54	48	38	47	29	47	35	45
	(women)-(men)	+19	+30	+23	+32	+22	+22	+34	+25	+22	+22	+16	+26	+13	+26
ISCO 6-9	men	40	57	49	41	43	54	51	44	30	53	62	38	50	47
	women	12	15	17	13	10	21	14	18	11	23	31	12	16	16
	(women)-(men)	-29	-42	-31	-28	-33	-33	-38	-26	-19	-30	-30	-25	-34	-30

Naturally, these results are very likely to be related to gender differences in educational backgrounds of school leavers. As shown by Table 4.6, education is a key determinant of young peoples' occupations in their first significant job in all European countries. In general, leavers from tertiary education predominantly enter professional service occupations, while leavers from lower secondary education still mostly enter manual occupations. Leavers from upper secondary education are evenly distributed between lower-level services and manual occupations, and a small proportion is also able to make it into the professions, most likely into technical and semi-professional occupations. While these relations hold in all European countries, educational differentials are particularly pronounced in Hungary, the Netherlands, Romania, and Slovenia – a fact which is typically related to high chances of tertiary level leavers to enter the professional services already in their first jobs. In countries like Spain or France educational differentials are considerably smaller, not the least because highly qualified leavers are much less likely to find professional service sector employment in their first jobs. By and large, the same results are being reflected in the fact that less qualified school leavers are particularly confined to the manual sector in countries like Hungary, Romania, or Slovenia, where education plays a large role in determining occupational outcomes.

Table 4.6: Occupation of first significant job, by country and education (in per cent)

		BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
ISCO 1-3	(1) ISCED 0-2	(4)	2	.	9	.	.	.	5	.	6	.	.	.	5
	(2) ISCED 3-4	19	8	20	13	19	19	.	27	38	21	19	19	15	20
	(3) ISCED 5-6	71	54	74	64	71	89	.	73	90	83	92	82	90	69
	(3) - (1)	+68	+52	+65	+55	+69	+87	.	+68	+86	+77	+90	+69	+83	+64
ISCO 4-5	(1) ISCED 0-2	29	27	(25)	28	27	20	.	27	44	33	15	34	.	28
	(2) ISCED 3-4	37	46	31	41	54	37	.	42	38	58	28	48	38	41
	(3) ISCED 5-6	24	29	18	25	23	9	.	22	7	16	3	12	(8)	22
	(3) - (1)	-5	+1	(-7)	-3	-4	-11	.	-5	-37	-17	-12	-22	-12	-7
ISCO 6-9	(1) ISCED 0-2	67	71	66	63	71	79	.	68	52	61	83	53	(73)	67
	(2) ISCED 3-4	44	46	49	46	27	44	.	31	24	21	53	33	47	39
	(3) ISCED 5-6	5	18	8	11	6	.	.	5	.	.	5	6	.	9
	(3) - (1)	-63	-53	-59	-52	-65	-76	.	-63	-49	-60	-78	-46	-71	-58

Job mobility: high mobility rates in Finland and Ireland

Naturally though, young people cannot expect to find lifetime employment in their first jobs. In our sample of leavers in their first five years in the labour market, about 30 per cent of the respondents had already left their first jobs, and most of them worked with a different employer at the time of the survey. The propensity to change employers again differs

considerably across European countries: in particular, Figure 4.3 shows high mobility levels in Finland, Ireland, and to a lesser degree in Sweden, Hungary and France. The highest mobility rate has been observed for young people in Finland, where nearly half of the respondents had changed employers by the time of the survey. In Ireland, mobility rates amounted to still 43 per cent of all leavers from education and training. Mobility rates are relatively low, in turn, in Italy, the Netherlands, Romania, and Greece, where they were below 25 per cent. Among European countries, the lowest mobility rate is found at hardly 10 per cent for young people in Greece.

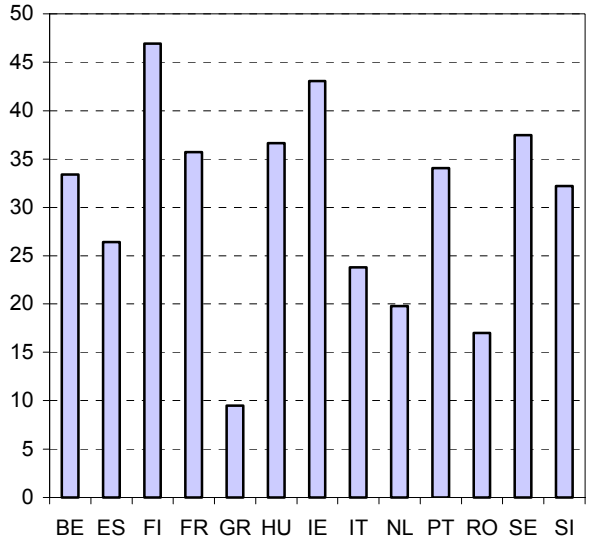

Figure 4.3: Mobility rates out of first significant jobs, by country (in per cent)

Interestingly, there are few gender differences in terms of mobility, so that young men and young women are about equally likely to change employers. Pronounced gender differences occur only in some countries, and most often young women tend to be more mobile than young men. This applies to young women in Finland, the Netherlands, and Ireland in particular: in Finland, mobility rates among young women are 12 percentage points above those of young men, and the respective differential is still 8, respectively 7 percentage points in the Netherlands and Ireland. In contrast, Romania and to a lesser extent also Hungary are the only countries where young men are found to be more mobile in their early career stages than young women.

Table 4.7: Mobility rates out of first significant jobs, by country and gender (in per cent)

	BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
men	32	26	41	36	8	39	40	23	16	34	21	35	34	29
women	35	27	53	36	11	35	47	24	24	34	13	39	31	30
(women) - (men)	+3	+1	+12	±0	+3	-4	+7	+1	+8	±0	-8	+4	-3	+1

On average, there are also only minor differences in mobility rates across educational groups. In this case, however, the European average masks considerable cross-national differences in the relationship between education and job mobility. As evident from Table 4.8 below, there are both countries where mobility rates decline markedly among better qualified leavers as well as other countries where exactly the reverse relationship holds. In most countries, however, mobility rates tend to decline with levels of qualifications, so that leavers from tertiary education tend to find more stable first jobs than leavers from both upper and lower secondary education. The respective differentials are particularly pronounced in Hungary, Portugal, Belgium, Spain and Finland, where mobility rates among university graduates are at least about 10 percentage points below those of leavers from lower secondary education. Slovenia, in contrast, is notable for the pronounced positive relationship between education and mobility rates. In both countries, leavers from tertiary education tend to be considerably more mobile than leavers from lower secondary education. In addition, Slovenia is also one of the few countries where leavers from upper secondary education are actually the most mobile educational group: here, mobility rates of leavers from ISCED 3-4 levels of education are 11 percentage points above those among university graduates, and even 23 percentage points above the mobility rate among the least qualified, thus rendering the relationship between education and mobility rates highly curvilinear.

Table 4.8: Mobility rates out of first significant job, by country and education (in per cent)

	BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
(1) ISCED 0-2	41	32	48	37	9	45	.	26	19	38	15	36	(13)	31
(2) ISCED 3-4	35	27	52	39	10	40	.	24	22	34	19	38	36	31
(3) ISCED 5-6	31	23	41	33	8	23	.	22	17	23	11	37	25	28
(3) - (1)	-10	-9	-7	-4	-1	-22	.	-4	-2	-15	-4	+1	(+12)	-3

Job mobility: risky transitions or career development?

In their first years in the labour market, a substantial proportion of young people had already changed their jobs and employers. Whether this job mobility is to be seen as a positive or rather negative experience crucially depends on the job outcomes of mobility, i.e. whether and to which extent mobility tends to improve young peoples' labour market status. In assessing the implications of job mobility among market entrants in Europe, it is first of all important to recognize that job mobility in many cases also involves occupational mobility. Empirically, two thirds (65 per cent) of all recent entrants to European labour markets who already left

their first significant job have also changed the occupation of their jobs, so that job changes also implies changing job tasks for most young people. Figure 4.4 illustrates important country differences also in this respect. Occupational mobility rates are highest at 85 per cent in France, and followed by the Netherlands, Portugal, and Ireland, where occupational mobility rates amount to about 70 per cent each. In contrast, school leavers in Italy, Sweden, but also Romania and Hungary experience relatively low occupational mobility rates at or slightly below 55 per cent of all job changes.

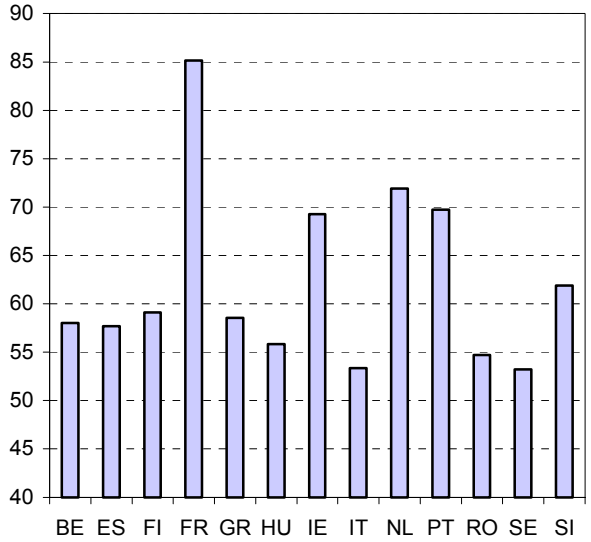

Figure 4.4: Occupational mobility rate (3-digit ISCO) among job changers, by country (in per cent)

Most importantly, however, a substantial fraction of job changes is associated with improved occupational status, and this fraction exceeds the proportion of downward status mobility in almost all European countries. Table 4.9 gives the respective figures, where status mobility has been derived from a comparison of the International Socio-Economic Index (ISEI) scores of individuals' occupation in their first significant and current jobs. The ISEI score represents an internationally comparable measure of occupational status that reflects levels of earnings and educational requirements in detailed occupations (cf. the detailed description in Harry B.G. Ganzeboom and Donald Treiman, Internationally Comparable Measures of Occupational Status for the 1988 International Standard Classification of Occupations. *Social Science Research* 25 (1996), 201-239). According to this measure, 42 per cent of all job changes among European school leavers represent lateral mobility, i.e. do not involve status mobility between leavers' first and current jobs. Obviously, this figure includes those job changes that had not involved occupational mobility at all. Among those job

changes that result in status mobility, however, a majority of job changes is associated with upward rather than downward status mobility: averaging across Europe, 34 per cent of all job changes of school leavers led to upward status mobility, yet only 24 per cent of all job changes were associated with a deterioration of young peoples' occupational status.

Table 4.9: Occupational status mobility among job changers, by country (in per cent)

	BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
upward	33	29	33	48	(25)	29	38	28	38	32	17	30	28	34
lateral	47	47	46	25	45	50	37	53	42	39	46	51	52	42
downward	20	24	21	27	(30)	21	25	20	20	29	37	19	20	24
(upward) - (downward)	+13	+5	+12	+21	(-5)	+8	+13	+8	+18	+3	-20	+11	+8	+10

In fact, upward mobility rates exceed risks of downward status mobility by about 10 percentage points in most European countries. In the early career stages of many Europeans, job mobility thus tends to have rather positive impacts on careers, being mostly associated with occupational stability or even improving occupational status. Exceptionally high rates of upward mobility in the first years in the labour market are evident in France and the Netherlands, where upward mobility rates exceed downward rates by about 20 percentage points. The same differential between upward and downward mobility rates is also above the European average in Belgium, Finland, Sweden and Ireland. As upward and downward mobility rates are about equal in Portugal and Greece, however, job mobility is much less associated with positive career developments there. The empirical findings are most disturbing for Romania, where downward mobility risks actually significantly exceed youths' chances of upward mobility. In Romania, job mobility thus clearly reflects significant risks of deteriorating occupational positions.

Table 4.10: Occupational status mobility among job changers, by country and gender (in per cent)

		BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
Upward	men	36	30	36	46	(33)	28	39	28	(32)	32	18	34	30	34
	women	30	26	31	50	14	29	38	27	43	32	16	26	25	34
	(women)-(men)	-6	-4	-5	+4	(-19)	+1	-1	-1	(+11)	±0	-2	-8	-5	±0
Downward	men	19	26	24	26	(33)	19	24	20	(27)	28	37	19	20	24
	women	20	23	19	29	(27)	24	26	19	(15)	31	37	19	19	24
	(women)-(men)	+1	-3	-5	+3	(-6)	+5	+2	-1	(-12)	+3	±0	±0	-1	±0

With respect to gender differences, Table 4.10 again shows only marginal differences between young men and women for most countries. In general, job changes of young women tend to be associated with somewhat higher rates of occupational stability, as young men

typically experience both slightly higher rates of upward as well as slightly higher rates of downward status mobility. The main exceptions to this pattern are Greece and the Netherlands, yet so for strikingly different reasons. In Greece, young women clearly tend to be less upwardly mobile then young men, with the proportion of upward mobility among young women being a full 19 percentage points below the respective figure among young men. In the Netherlands, in turn, young women tend to have considerably more favourable mobility outcomes: young Dutch women have both substantially higher chances of upward mobility and face significantly lower risks of downward status mobility.

Table 4.11: Occupational status mobility among job changers, by country and education (in per cent)

		BE	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IE	IT	NL	PT	RO	SE	SI	Total
Upward	(1) ISCED 0-2	42	30	61	59	.	(42)	.	31	.	35	11	.	.	36
	(2) ISCED 3-4	35	37	34	42	(25)	27	.	28	(27)	32	20	32	28	33
	(3) ISCED 5-6	30	24	29	52	.	33	.	23	(38)	21	.	26	(28)	35
	(3) - (1)	-12	-6	-32	-7	.	-9	.	-8	-26	-14	-4	-16	-23	-1
Downward	(1) ISCED 0-2	24	26	.	37	.	(21)	.	21	.	29	41	.	.	27
	(2) ISCED 3-4	20	27	25	30	(28)	22	.	19	(21)	36	42	22	19	25
	(3) ISCED 5-6	18	22	17	24	.	19	.	19	(23)	21	.	13	(23)	21
	(3) - (1)	-6	-4	-3	-13	.	-2	.	-2	+6	-8	-24	-12	+23	-6

The effects of educational background on mobility outcomes are much more clear-cut. According to the empirical evidence in Table 4.11, occupational stability significantly rises with individual level of education in most European countries. That is, both chances of upward mobility and risks of downward mobility among leavers from tertiary education are typically significantly lower than for leavers from lower secondary education in particular. Taking into account that more highly educated leavers tend to enter more prestigious occupations from the very beginning (cf. Table 4.6 above), this finding would seem to suggest that more highly qualified leavers are quicker to find employment in occupations adequate to their training background, while less qualified leavers are more likely to enter the labour market in lower status occupations than the ones they hold after some years in the labour force. By this token, leavers from tertiary education in Finland, Greece, the Netherlands, Sweden, Portugal, and Belgium do particularly well in achieving adequate job matches already in the early career stages. At the same time, however, higher risks of downward mobility among lower qualified leavers also point to the generally higher vulnerability of labour market status among young people with lower levels of training. If anything, the relationship between education and downward mobility risks appears strongest in Romania, France, Sweden, and Greece.

5

Job Mismatches and their Labour Market Effects among School Leavers in Europe

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Introduction

The transition from school to work is often regarded as a 'rite of passage' in which young people are introduced to the world of labour. This transition process takes place in stages and it is characterized as a turbulent and uncertain period. First of all, school leavers have to compete for the available jobs with those who have already gained a position on the labour market. Their lack of work experience forces them to face unemployment quite often. Secondly, school leavers often end up in jobs that do not match their educational qualifications very well. These 'job mismatches' are, for instance, the result of incomplete information on the abilities of school leavers and the characteristics of jobs offered by employers.

In this chapter, the incidence of job mismatches among school leavers in Europe is investigated and, subsequently, the relationship between having a non-matching job and several labour market outcomes. The analysis that follows, covers 12 European countries (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Slovenia) for which reliable data are currently available.[1] School leavers are defined as those individuals aged 15-35 years old, who left initial education within the past five (Finland, the Netherlands, and Sweden) or ten (all other countries) years.

A job mismatch is measured as a discrepancy between the current occupation a school-leaver is working in and the field of education received in initial education.[2] Individuals working outside their field of education are treated as school leavers with a non-matching job. Since lower secondary education is considered as general in nature, it does not

[1] Data from Ireland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, and the United Kingdom are excluded, because of small sample sizes and/or serious problems with measurement or comparability for one or more crucial variables of interest.

[2] The analysis of job mismatches with regard to level of education (i.e. overeducation) was considered as well, but it was not performed in the end, since it is very difficult, if not impossible, to adequately define corresponding job levels to given levels of education on the basis of the available data.

make sense to talk about a job mismatch for those who left school with a diploma at the level of ISCED1-2, and, therefore, all school leavers from this level of education are excluded from the analysis. For the same reason, school leavers from upper secondary education and tertiary education with a general programme are not analysed. At the ISCED3-4 level this concerns 16 per cent of the school leavers (in particular those from upper general secondary education which prepares for tertiary education); at the ISCED5-6 level it concerns only 1 per cent of the graduates.

In Table 5.1 an overview is given of the occupations that match to a particular field of education. For example: in the category of education, all teaching professionals are present (codes 230-235); the category of sciences consists of, among other occupations, physicists, chemists, mathematicians, statisticians, and computing professionals (codes 211-213); the category of agriculture comprises all skilled agricultural and fishery workers (codes 600, 610-615), the category of health/welfare includes health professionals (code 222) and nursing and midwifery professionals (code 223), and so forth. Basic criterion used when assigning occupational codes to a field of education is the assumed congruence of skills acquired through the field of education and those needed on the job. All other combinations between field of education and occupation are considered as job mismatches.

Table 5.1. Field of education and their matching jobs

Field of education	Matching jobs (ISCO-88 (COM) 3-digit codes)
Education	200, 230, 231-235, 300, 330, 331-334
Humanities, arts	200, 230, 231, 232, 243, 245, 246, 300, 347, 348, 500, 520, 521, 522
Social sciences, business, law	100, 110, 111, 121-123, 130, 131, 200, 230-232, 241-245, 247, 300, 341-344, 346, 400, 401-422
Sciences	200, 211-213, 221, 230-232, 300, 310-313, 321
Engineering, manufacturing, construction	200, 213, 214, 300, 310-315, 700, 710-714, 721-724, 730-734, 740-744, 800, 810-817, 820-829, 831-834
Agriculture	200, 221, 222, 300, 321, 322, 600, 611-615, 800, 833, 900, 920, 921
Health, welfare	200, 221-223, 244, 300, 321-323, 330, 332, 346, 500, 510, 513, 900, 910, 913
Services	300, 345, 400, 410-419, 421, 422, 500, 510-514, 516, 520, 522, 800, 831-834, 900, 910, 913

Incidence of job mismatches

Figure 5.1 demonstrates that there is considerable cross-country variation in the incidence of job mismatches in Europe. In Italy, the percentage of school leavers working in a job outside their field of education is highest (47 per cent), followed by Greece (40 per cent). Also Denmark and Sweden have a considerable proportion of school leavers with a non-matching job. In the Netherlands, on the other hand, the incidence of job mismatches is lowest (29 per cent). Furthermore, in Finland, Slovenia, Austria, and Belgium the percentage of job mismatches is relatively low.

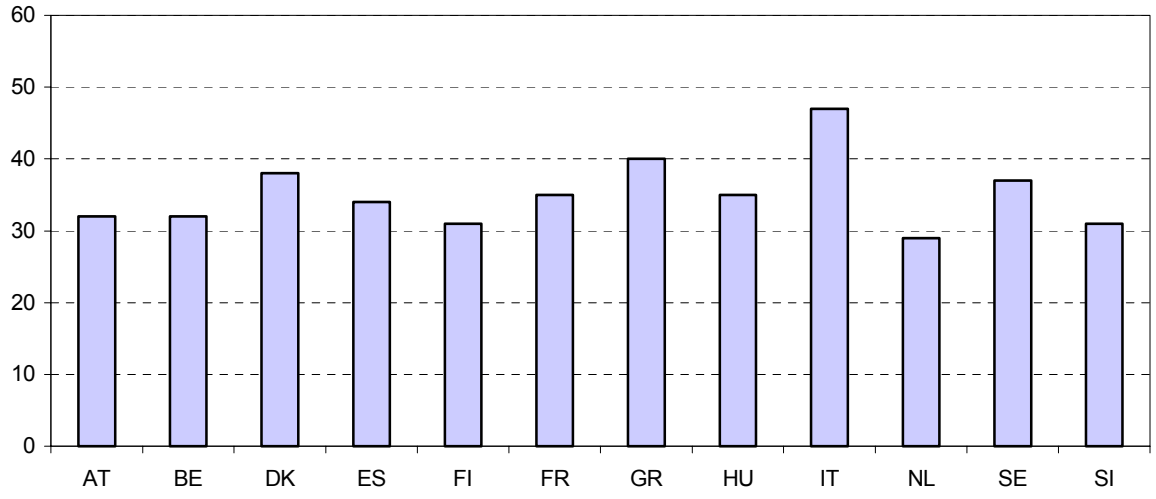

Figure 5.1. Incidence of job mismatches by country (in per cent)

In most European countries, women are more likely to be employed in a non-matching job than men (see Figure 5.2). Exceptions exist for Belgium, Spain, France, and the Netherlands, where male school leavers are more often working in a job that is not directly

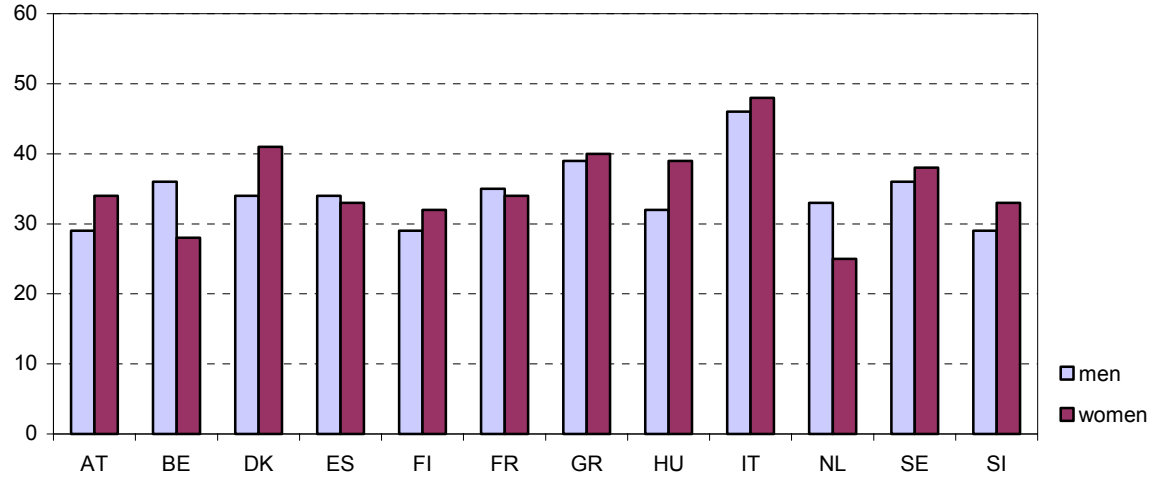

Figure 5.2. Incidence of job mismatches by gender and country (in per cent)

Table 5.2. Incidence of job mismatches by age group and country (in per cent)

	Age group		
	20-24	25-29	30-35
Austria	28	31	46
Belgium	35	31	27
Denmark	44	39	35
Spain	41	32	26
Finland	31	31	31
France	37	34	32
Greece	41	41	36
Hungary	36	35	33
Italy	49	48	43
Netherlands	28	29	31
Sweden	45	31	33
Slovenia	30	33	30

Source: EU LFS 2000 ad hoc module on school-to-work transitions

related to the field of education obtained. In addition, Figure 5.2 shows that the gender differences are quit modest. The difference is largest in Belgium and the Netherlands, where the likelihood of having a job mismatch is 8 per cent higher for men than women.

The relationship between age and job mismatches is somewhat stronger. Table 5.2 shows that, with the exception of Austria and the Netherlands, younger school leavers are more frequently working in a job that is not related to their field of education than older school leavers. This finding suggests that older school leavers are more integrated into the labour market (i.e. a life-cycle effect). However, a cohort interpretation is also possible: for older cohorts of labour market entrants it has been more easy to find a job that corresponds with the field of education obtained than for more recent ones. Given the cross-sectional nature of the data set, both effects cannot be disentangled. With respect to country differences, it is found in Table 5.2 that the relationship between age and job mismatches is strongest in Austria, Spain, and Sweden. The differences between the oldest and youngest age group are 18, 15, and 12 per cent, respectively. In Finland and Slovenia, on the contrary, there is no association between age and the likelihood of having a non-matching job. In these countries, the percentage of job mismatches is for both the youngest and the oldest age group the same.

Also the level of education attained by school leavers is related to the likelihood of being employed in non-matching job (see Figure 5.3). Among school leavers with upper secondary education at most (ISCED3-4) around 40 per cent has a job mismatch, although a lot of variation exists between European countries. In Italy, this percentage is highest (50 per cent), whereas in the Netherlands it is lowest (29 per cent). At the highest educational level (ISCED5-6)

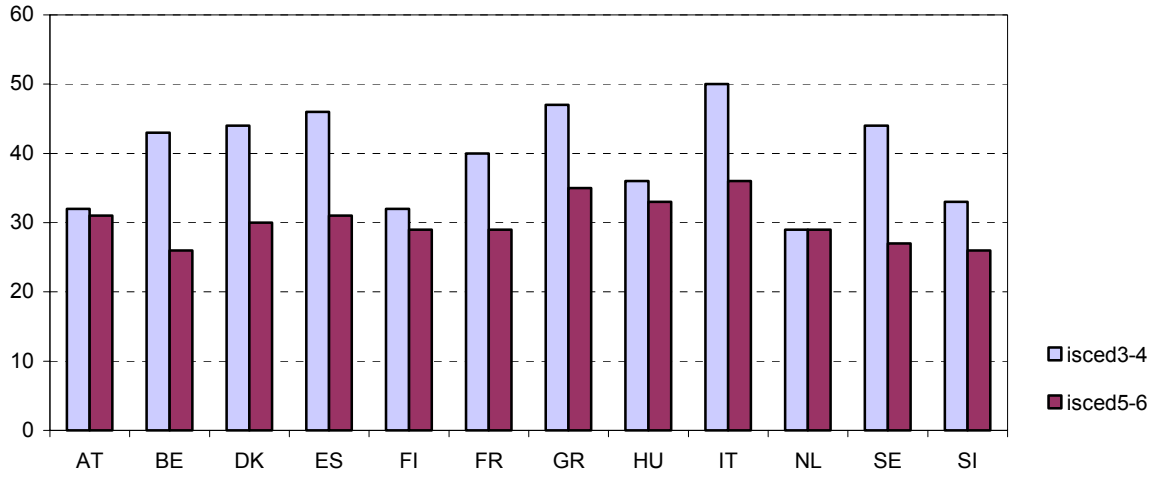

Figure 5.3. Incidence of job mismatches by level of education and country (in per cent)

still 30 per cent of the graduates has a job mismatch. However, the cross-country variation in the percentage of tertiary educated graduates with a non-matching job is rather small.

Table 5.3 displays that vocational programmes provide young people in a varying degree with specific skills and knowledge that are useful for particular occupations. It is found in this table that school leavers who have obtained a diploma in humanities/arts, agriculture or sciences are most likely to be employed outside their own occupational domain. For instance, around two third of those who left education with a diploma in humanities/arts, has a job that does not fit their field of education. For the sectors education and health/welfare, on the other hand, there is a much closer link between the field of education left and the occupation found. Presumably, the relative degree to which the curriculum of the educational programme provides the required knowledge and skills, matters here. Some fields of education specifically prepare students for a few particular jobs (such as teacher or medical doctor for education, respectively health/welfare; professions that are accessible only with the right certificate), whereas others are broader and not so job-specific.

Table 5.3. Incidence of job mismatches by field of education and country (in per cent)

Field of education	AT	BE	DK	ES	FI	FR	GR	HU	IT	NL	SE	SI
Education	31	22		46	17	32	56	28	69	29	43	25
Humanities, arts	64	67	86	65	67	62	73	58	78	82	65	50
Social sciences, business, law	37	18	40	28	38	31	22	45	33	24	40	35
Sciences	56	44	36	48	43	53	63	44	68	50	60	50
Engineering, manufacturing, construction	24	37	26	26	23	28	37	27	43	23	24	23
Agriculture	60	90	55	50	50	61	60	81	81	61	50	75
Health, welfare	29	29	16	35	21	16	35	23	33	23	24	29
Services	23	27	81	32	36	37	17	40	46	30	27	21

Labour market effects of job mismatches

The important issue then is whether jobs mismatch matters for the labour market position of school leavers. To assess the labour market consequences of job mismatches some labour market outcomes of school leavers are analysed here.[3]

Most of the earlier research has been developed regarding the effect of job mismatches on wages. The empirical results suggest that individuals working in non-matching jobs earn less than individuals with adequate employment. Since information on income is not available in the data set for most countries, the occupational status of the current job is used as a proxy for wages to estimate the effect of job mismatches.[4]

Figure 5.4 shows that - with the exception of Austria and Hungary - having a non-matching job coincides with lower occupational returns on the labour market. This is in line with the earlier findings on differences in the returns to wages. The strongest difference is found in Spain: for school leavers with a non-matching job, the average occupational status is 11 (52 - 41) points lower than for those who have a matching job. In Slovenia, in contrast, the difference in status attainment is pretty small: only 1 point on the occupational status scale.

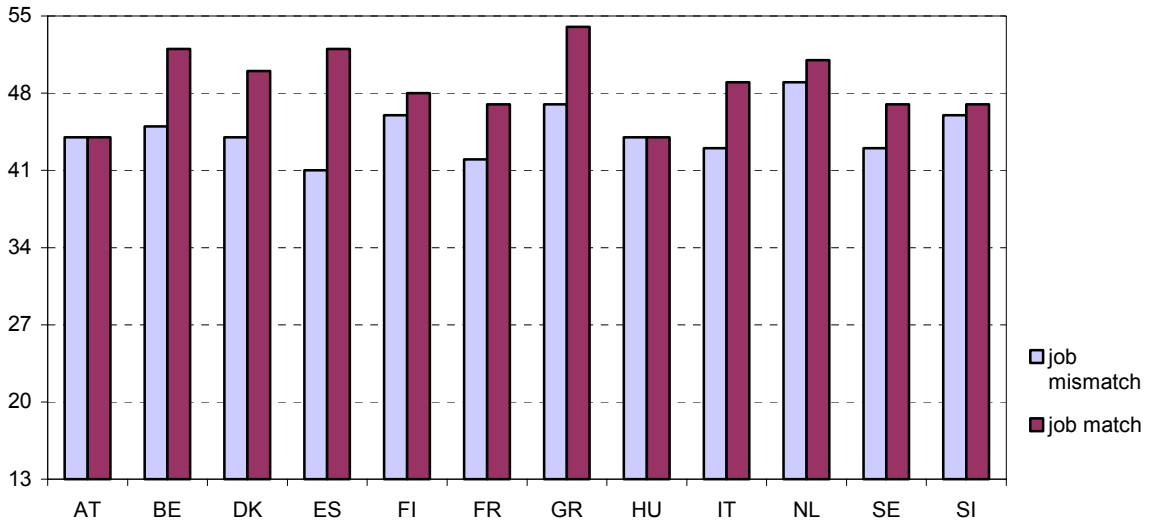

Figure 5.4. Occupational status attainment by job mismatch and country

Figure 5.5 displays that school leavers who have a job that does not fit their field of education, are employed more often on a temporary basis than school leavers with a fitting

[3] The results that are shown in this paragraph also hold when level of education and other covariates is statistically controlled for.

[4] The occupational status of a job is determined on the basis of the International Socio-Economic Index (ISEI) as described in Ganzeboom and Treiman (1992), "Internationally comparable measures of occupational status for the 1998 international standard classification of occupations", *Social Science Research, 25,* 201-239.

job. In Sweden, for instance, 35 per cent of the school leavers with a non-matching job has a temporary contract, whereas this percentage is 26 per cent for those with a matching job. Slovenia and Greece show comparable percentage differences, followed by most other European countries where the differences are somewhat smaller. In Austria, Denmark, and the Netherlands, on the other hand, there is hardly or no (the Netherlands) association between temporary employment and having a job mismatch: the percentage of temporary employment is (almost) the same for both groups of school leavers.

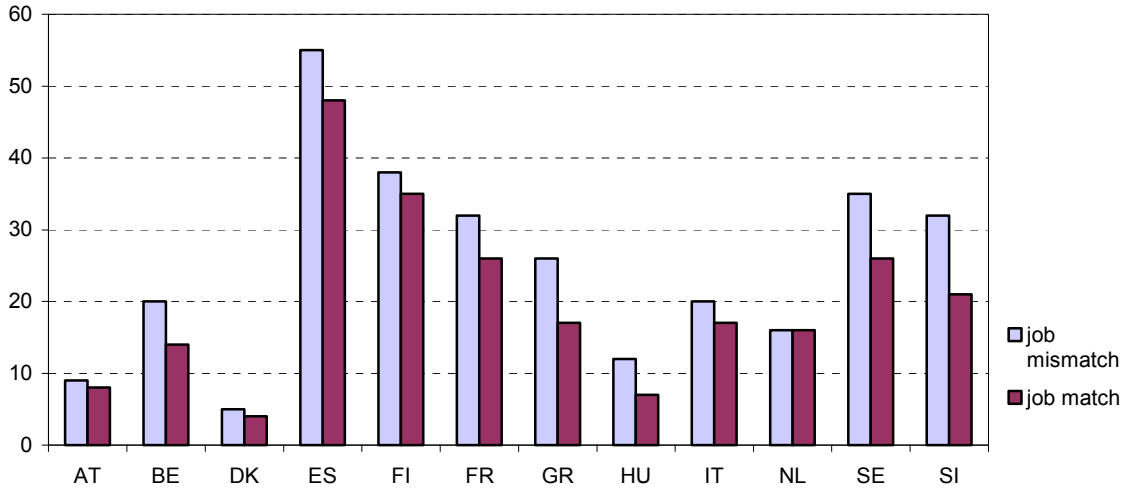

Figure 5.5. Temporary employment by job mismatch and country (in per cent)

With respect to part-time employment a similar pattern is found (see Figure 5.6). In most European countries under investigation, school leavers who hold a non-matching job are more likely to be employed in a part-time job than school leavers with a matching job. However, there is some cross-country variation in the strength of the association between

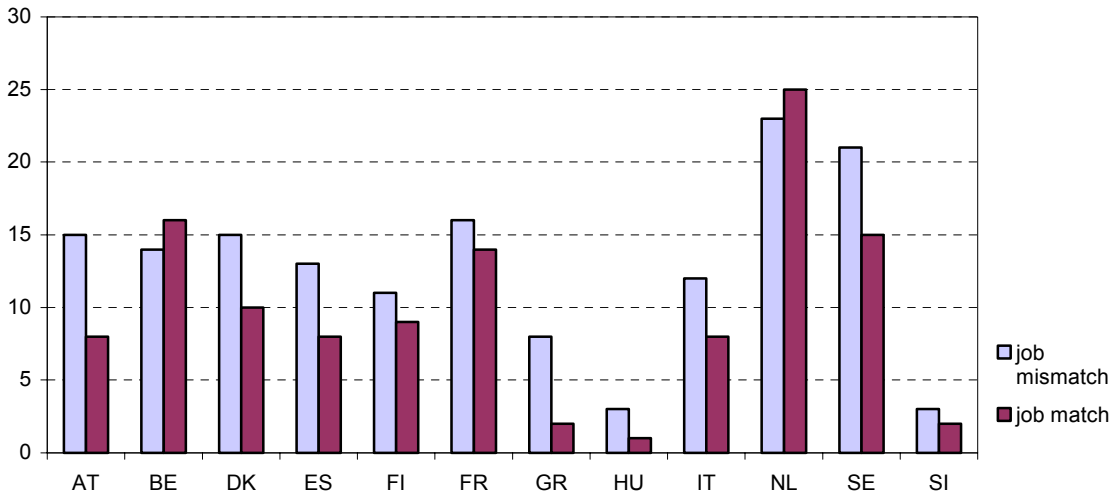

Figure 5.6. Part-time employment by job mismatch and country (in per cent)

part-time employment and having a job mismatch. In Austria, the percentage difference is largest (15 - 8 = 7 per cent), followed by Greece and Sweden (the difference is 6 per cent in both countries). In Finland, Hungary, and Slovenia, on the other hand, there is only a slight discrepancy with respect to part-time employment among school leavers with a non-matching versus matching job. In Belgium and the Netherlands, the difference is even negative, indicating that in these countries school leavers with a job mismatch are less often employed in a part-time job than school leavers with a job that matches their field of education.

Does the disadvantageous labour market position of school leavers with a job mismatch, described above, affect their job search activities? The answer seems positive. Figure 5.7 shows that in all European countries - with the exception of Denmark - school leavers with a non-matching job are more often looking for another job than those with a matching job.[5] Especially in the Southern European countries Greece, Spain, and Italy the percentage difference is relatively large. The reasons for this job search are probably diverse, but it may be expected that job dissatisfaction is one of the main reasons for the job search behaviour of school leavers who work outside their field of education.

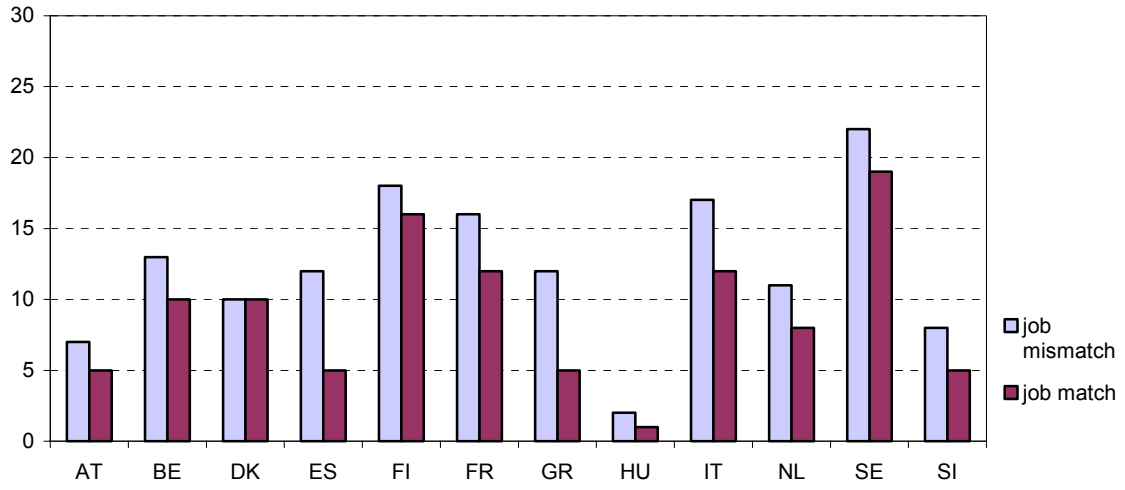

Figure 5.7: Job search activities by job mismatch and country (in per cent)

A second possible way of dealing with job mismatches - instead of trying to 'escape' it by looking for another job - is to invest in additional training in order to compensate for skill deficiencies in initial education. It is assumed that if the field of education obtained by school leavers corresponds to the field that is required on the work floor, the need for further training is less. The results of Figure 5.8, however, do not give much empirical evidence in support of substitutability between initial education and continuous vocational training. Only in

[5] This result also holds when both temporary and part-time employment is statistically controlled for.

Hungary, the Netherlands, and Slovenia, school leavers with a non-matching job participate more in continuous vocational training than those with a matching job. Furthermore, in Spain, France, and Italy, there is no association between continuous vocational training and having a job mismatch. In all other countries, the conclusion is that continuous vocational training rather complements than substitutes the knowledge and skills acquired in initial education (i.e. the participation in continuous vocational education is lower among school leavers with a job mismatch than among those with a job match).

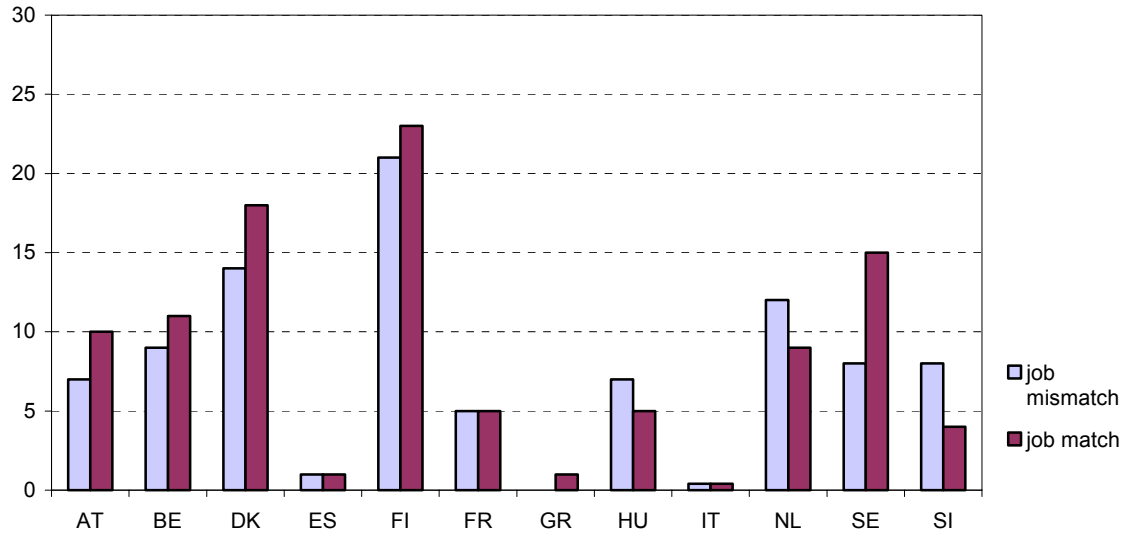

Figure 5.8: Participation in continuous vocational training by job mismatch and country (in per cent)

Summary

When entering the labour market, a considerable group of school leavers ends up in jobs that do not match their educational qualifications very well. These job mismatches are apparent across Europe, although the incidence varies between countries. With respect to the determinants of job mismatches, it is observed that in most European countries, women are more often employed in a job that does not match their field of education than men. Furthermore, having a job mismatch is correlated with age and level of education: younger and lower educated school leavers are more often working in a non-matching job than older and higher educated ones. Moreover, school leavers with a diploma in humanities/arts, agriculture or sciences are relatively often employed in a job outside their field of education. Presumably, these fields of education are broader and not so job-specific as, for instance, education and health/welfare. With respect to the labour market effects of job mismatches, the following results are found. First of all, having a job mismatch coincides with lower

occupational returns on the labour market. Secondly, school leavers who have a job that does not fit their field of education, are employed more often on a temporary and/or part-time basis than school leavers with a fitting job. Thirdly, school leavers with a non-matching job are more often looking for another job than those with a matching one. Fourthly, in most European countries considered, the participation in continuous vocational education is lower among school leavers with a job mismatch than among those with a job match.

6

Nationality, Immigration and Labour Market Entry

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Immigrants and their descendants constitute a substantial proportion of population in nearly all European Union and even in some Eastern European countries. This is reflected in the European Union Labour Force Survey 2000 ad hoc module on school-to-work transitions as well. The data contain two variables related to ethnicity and migration: first, 'nationality' allows to distinguish between nationals and non-nationals (from other EU or non-EU countries), second, 'country of birth' allows to distinguish between (first generation) immigrants and native-born.[1] For each country that participated in the module the distribution of the two variables is presented in Table 6.1.

Concerning the proportion of non-nationals, Luxembourg ranks highest among all countries and turns out to be a very exceptional case. Austria is also prominent for the high proportion of non-nationals coming from outside the European Union. Large shares of non-nationals can also be found in Belgium, the United Kingdom, France, Greece, Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and Slovenia. In all these countries (except for Luxembourg) the picture of ethnic heterogeneity gets even stronger, if one looks at the proportion of those born outside the current country of residence, i.e. first generation immigrants.

A growing number of immigrant population is one of the central issues in many European countries, few of which consider themselves immigration societies. Moreover, some European countries, and especially those of Southern and Eastern Europe, have been viewed purely as a source of emigration, providing labour force for more developed Northern and Western European countries. It is not surprising that structural integration of immigrants at large and immigrant youth in particular is an important issue in all European countries with

[1] Note that both variables are rather limited indicators of ethnicity and immigration status, as distinguishing according to 'nationality' neglects immigrants who are already naturalized, while distinguishing according to country of birth neglects the so-called second generation. Therefore, we present information on both indicators, all the more as in the European countries there are differences in the citizenship laws, naturalization procedures and the consequences of the colonial past. Further, a 'practical' reason to discuss both indicators of ethnicity is the fact that some of the countries participating in the ad-hoc module do not provide information on nationality, while other countries do not provide information on country of birth (see Table 6.1).

educational and occupational attainment of ethnic minorities being a key factor of their inclusion in the host societies.

Table 6.1: Non-nationals and immigrants in the target group of the EUCLFS ad hoc module

	Nationality			Country of birth		
	National	Non-EU	Other EU	Country of residence	Non-EU	Other EU
Austria	89.5	9.1	1.4	79.6	18.9	1.5
Belgium	91.1	3.9	5.0	90.4	6.1	3.5
Denmark	98.9	(0.7)	.	96.4	2.5	1.1
Spain	98.5	1.2	0.3	97.0	2.0	1.0
Finland	99.0	(0.8)	.	99.1	.	.
France	95.1	3.5	1.4	93.2	5.1	1.6
Greece	95.5	4.5	.	92.7	6.6	0.7
Hungary	.	.	.	98.7	1.2	.
Ireland	95.9	(0.9)	3.2	92.6	1.3	6.2
Italy	98.8	1.0	0.2	.	.	.
Lithuania	99.7	.	.	96.2	3.8	.
Luxembourg	52.9	(5.7)	41.3	64.0	(6.4)	29.6
Netherlands	96.4	(2.2)	(1.5)	93.9	5.2	.
Portugal	97.2	2.2	.	91.8	5.3	2.9
Romania	89.7	10.1	0.2	.	.	.
Sweden	95.7	2.5	1.8	91.1	7.2	1.7
Slovenia	.	.	.	92.7	7.3	.
Slovakia	99.9	.	.	.	.	.
United Kingdom	91.2	5.6	3.2	88.0	8.4	3.5

The EUCLFS 2000 ad hoc module provides a good opportunity to examine patterns of structural integration among young immigrants aged 15-35 who left education some 5-10 years ago as compared to their native-born peers in the large number of European countries. Because of the data deficiencies, on the one hand (see report on data quality and comparability), and rather modest sample sizes hindering the possibilities for the analysis of the immigrant integration in the majority of countries-participants in the module, on the other hand, we have to restrict ourselves to a few central indicators of ethnic inequality in a limited number of countries.

Differences in the education attainment of recent school graduates

In the EUCLFS 2000 ad hoc module educational attainment pertains to the highest level of education successfully completed when leaving continuous education for the first time, which is measured here in three wide categories - low, medium and high. Low educational level corresponds to ISCED 1 and 2 and includes persons with primary or lower secondary education. Medium level of education, i.e. ISCED 3 and 4, pertains to those with (upper)

secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education. Finally, high level of education (ISCED 5 and 6) combines school graduates with first or second stage tertiary certificate. The upper diagram of Figure 6.1 shows the percentage of young people who possess primary or lower secondary education for nationals, non-nationals from other EU countries and from non-EU countries, while the lower diagram plots the respective percentages of those who attained tertiary education.

In all the countries with a reliable number of cases, with Spain being the only exception, non-nationals from non-EU countries are more likely than the nationals to leave school with low educational level only. The percentage difference is mostly pronounced in Austria, followed by Greece, Belgium and France. Furthermore, except for the

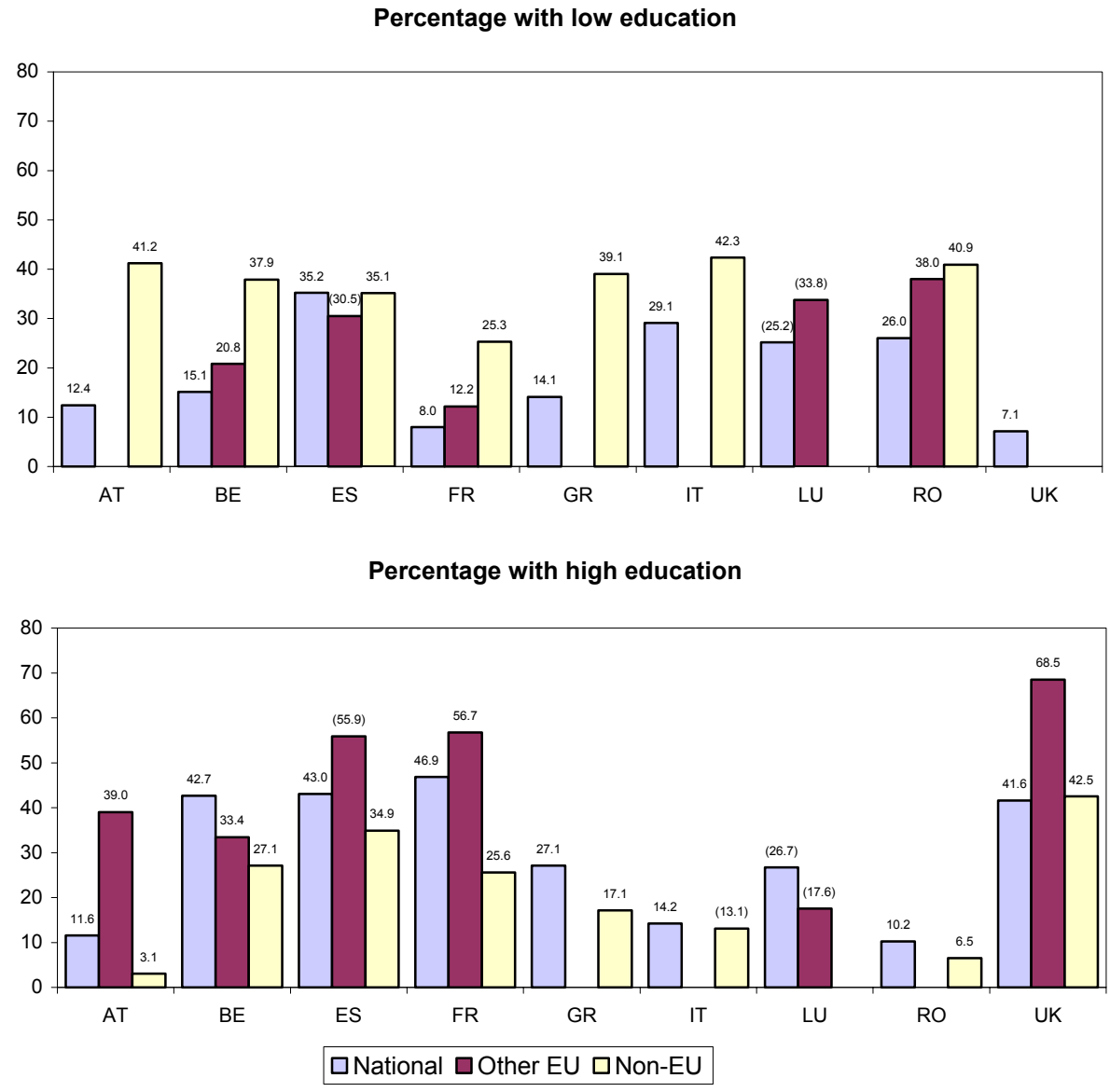

Figure 6.1: Educational attainment of school graduates according to nationality

United Kingdom, non-EU nationals are less likely to leave school with a tertiary education diploma. EU nationals are located somewhere between national youth and non-EU nationals in most of the countries when looking at the likelihood of possessing a lower education certificate. In Austria, Spain, France, and the United Kingdom they are however more likely than the nationals to have left school with an academic degree.[2]

Looking at the classification according to the country of birth instead of nationality, the general picture slightly changes (see Figure 6.2). Immigrants from non-EU countries are more likely than their native-born counterparts to leave school with only low formal education

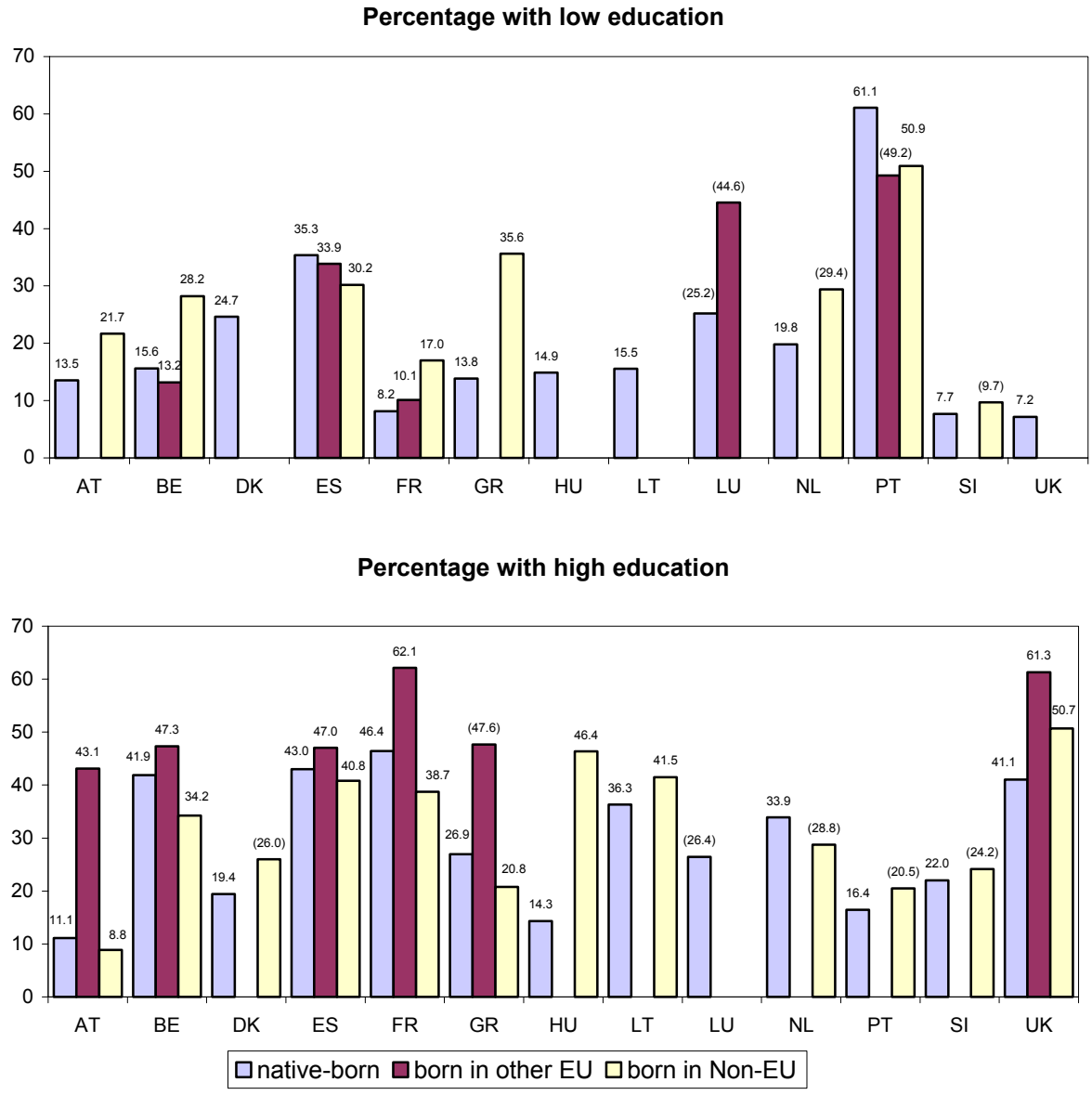

Figure 6.2: Educational attainment of school graduates according to country of birth

[2] Unfortunately ad hoc module data do not provide information on whether education has been finished in the current country of residence or in another country.

in Austria, Belgium, France, and Greece. However on the whole the differences with respect to country of birth are less pronounced than those with respect to nationality. In Spain and Portugal non-EU immigrants do even better than the native-born youth.

The lower part of Figure 6.2, which presents the picture for those who left school with tertiary education, confirms earlier findings for Austria, Belgium, France, and Greece. In these countries the share of those leaving school with high education among non-EU immigrants is lower as compared to the native-born. In Hungary, Lithuania, and the United Kingdom the reverse picture is true. Here, these are non-EU immigrants who tend to leave school with tertiary education. For all other countries at least one of the figures to be compared is not fully reliable. In the countries with reliable data, we find the highest share of school graduates with tertiary education among immigrants from EU countries.

Do ethnic differences in education translate to ethnic differences in occupational attainment?

To answer this question we analyse whether nationals and non-nationals, native-born and immigrants end up in different occupations in their first significant job. An adequate indicator is the degree of occupational segregation measured by the well-known index of dissimilarity (D).[3] In its standard interpretation, index of dissimilarity expresses the proportion of members belonging to one of two groups, which would have to move to another category in order to achieve an equal distribution of both groups over all categories.

Figure 6.3 shows dissimilarity between nationals and non-nationals, again distinguishing between non-nationals from other EU countries and from non-EU countries. Calculation of the index is based on the ISCO-88 Classification (1-digit) of the first significant job[4]. In the diagram the countries are ordered according to the degree of dissimilarity for non-EU nationals. We find that the latter group is most similar to nationals in Romania, while most dissimilar to nationals in Sweden. For those countries where both index values can be computed it shows that occupation segregation is even stronger for EU nationals compared to nationals.

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[3] The Index of Dissimilarity is defined by

$$D = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{I}\left|\frac{A_i}{A} - \frac{B_i}{B}\right| ,$$

where I is the number of categories of the variable at interest, A is the number of persons belonging to group A, B is the number of persons belonging to group B, A_i is the number of persons belonging to group A and category i, and B_i is the number of persons belonging to group B and category i.

[4] For Austria figures refer to current job situation.

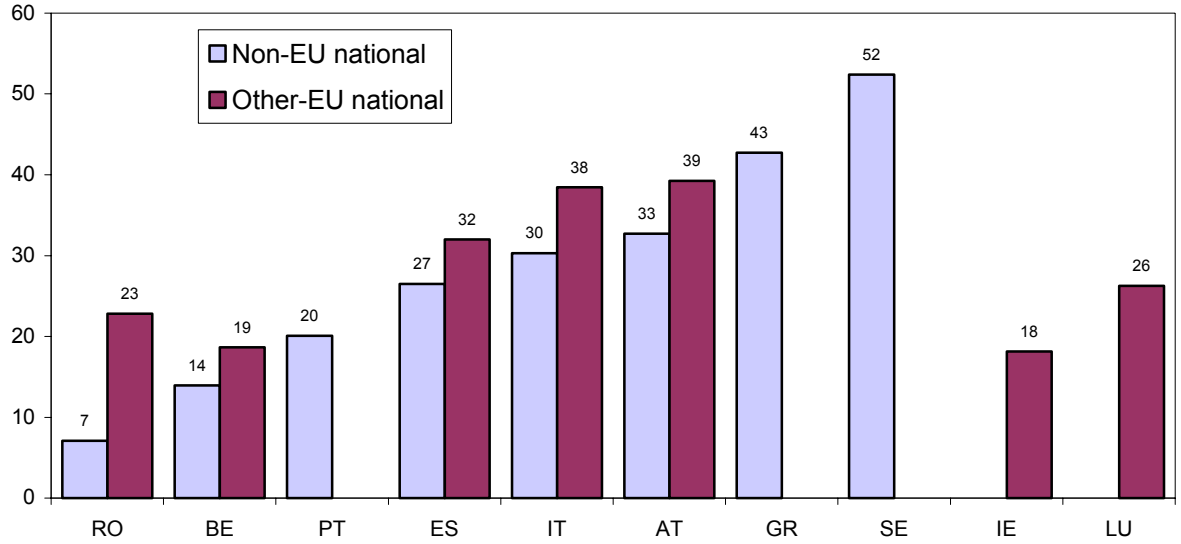

Figure 6.3: Index of dissimilarity of the first significant jobs for non-nationals as compared to national population according to the 1-digit ISCO-88 classification

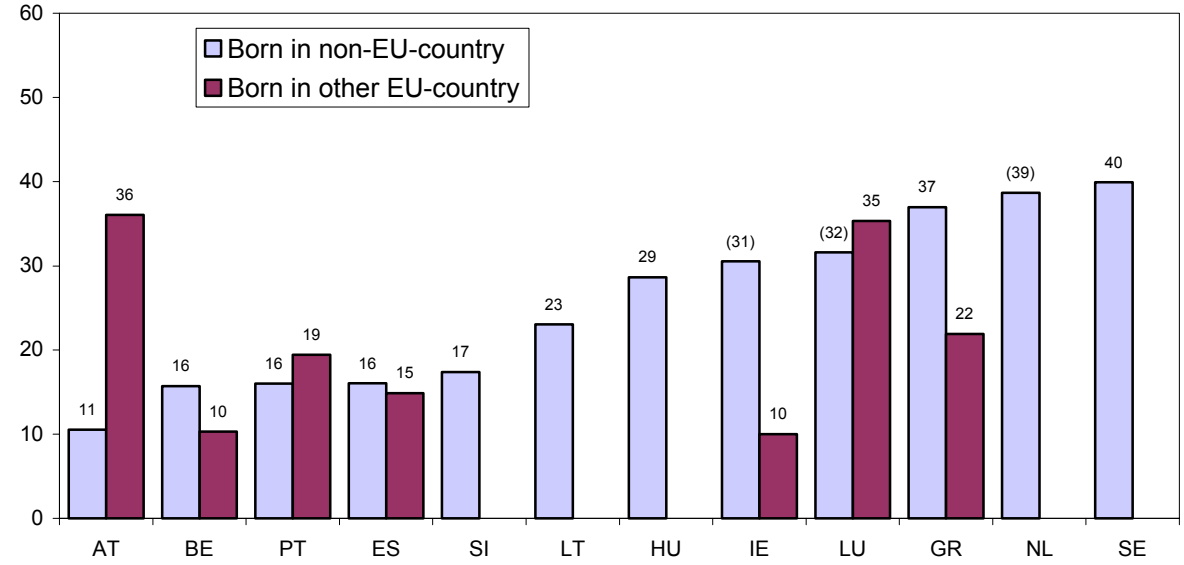

Figure 6.4: Index of dissimilarity of the first significant jobs for immigrants as compared to the native-born population according to the 1-digit ISCO-88 classification

Figure 6.4 contains the dissimilarity values when defining ethnicity groups by country of birth. Again, countries are ordered according to the index values for those born in the non-EU countries. Here, the lowest value can be found in Austria while Sweden again ranks highest among all countries with respect to dissimilarity. The picture for immigrants who were born in one of the other EU countries is very heterogeneous. While the index of dissimilarity for this group resembles that of non-EU immigrants in Portugal, Spain, Luxembourg, and Belgium, young people born in one of the EU member states are

substantially more similar to the native-born peers in Ireland and Greece, but more dissimilar in Austria.

Whereas the index of dissimilarity measures the degree of occupational segregation, its high values however do not necessarily imply that non-nationals or immigrants are in fact disadvantaged. Dissimilarity may only refer to horizontal inequalities or even result from a relative advantage in occupational attainment. Therefore, in addition to the segregation measure an indicator of vertical occupational hierarchy for the first significant job should be compared. This is presented in Figure 6.5 for both nationals and non-national groups by the mean occupational status measured in the ISEI scale. Except for Luxembourg, in all countries the mean ISEI for non-EU nationals is lower than for nationals. Again, the picture for EU nationals is rather heterogeneous. EU nationals' occupations are of the highest status as compared to achievements of the other two groups in Austria, Spain, Ireland, Italy and Portugal, while they do worst in Belgium and Romania.

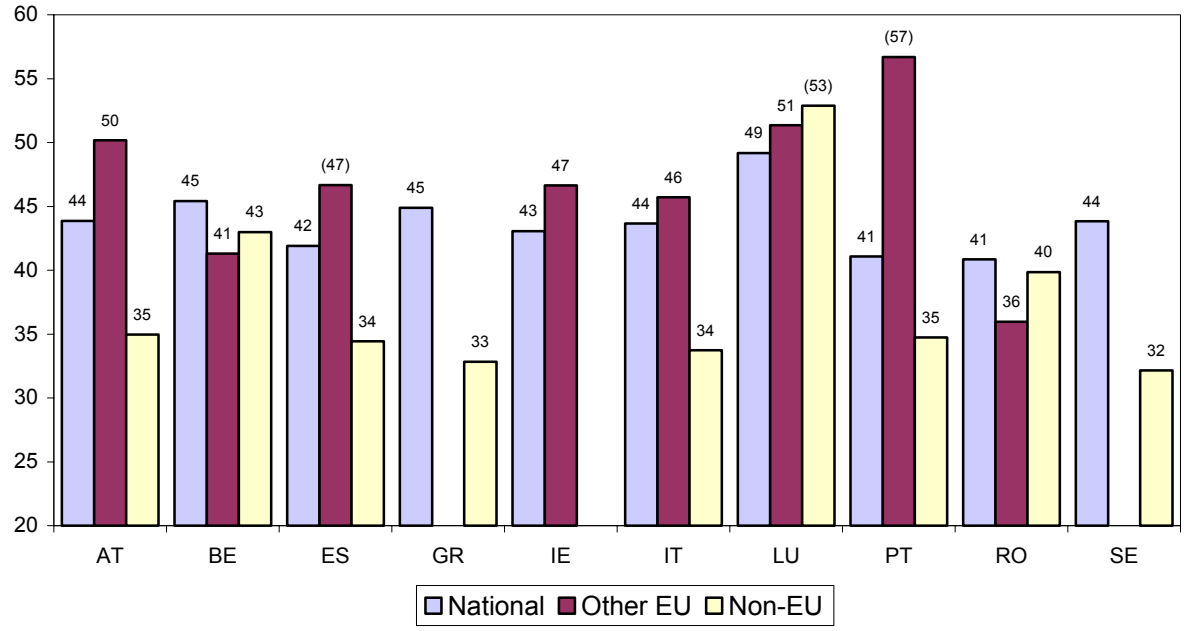

Figure 6.5: Mean occupational status (ISEI) of the first significant job by nationality

Figure 6.6 plots the mean ISEI values of the first significant job by country of birth. It is evident that immigrants from non-EU countries have a lower occupational status than the native-born job entrants in Austria, Spain, Greece, and Sweden, however that they have a higher status of first significant job in Hungary, Ireland, Lithuania, and Slovenia. Those born in the EU Members States perform better occupationally than their native-born counterparts in the majority of countries.

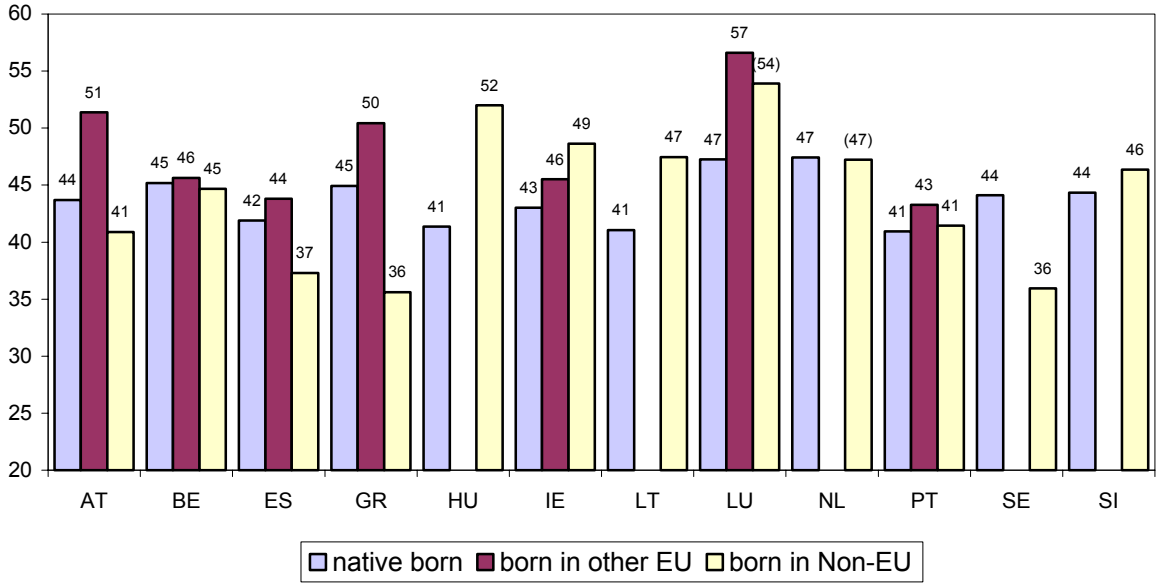

Figure 6.6: Mean occupational status (ISEI) of the first significant job by country of birth

Current employment situation of the immigrant population

Next to characteristics of the first significant job, indicators of ethnic inequalities can be derived from the current labour market situation of the target group. Above all, it is important to know whether non-nationals or immigrants are more strongly exposed to the risk of unemployment.

Figure 6.7 presents the unemployment rate by nationality for those countries where the number of cases allows to estimate a reliable rate at least in one non-national subgroup. Most

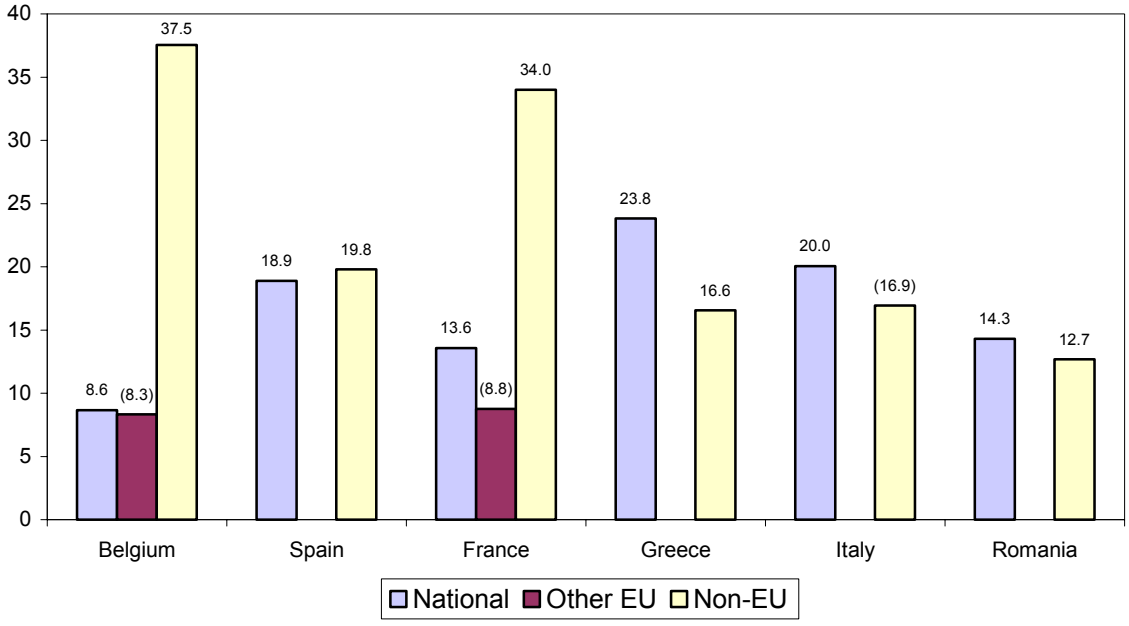

Figure 6.7: Unemployment rate of the target group in 2000 by nationality (in per cent)

obviously, in Belgium and France the likelihood of being unemployed is almost four-fold for non-EU nationals as compared to nationals. In Spain there are only minor differences, while in Greece, Romania, and (with doubts on reliability) in Italy these are young nationals who experience difficulties in finding suitable employment.

Figure 6.8 contains information for the three groups according to country of birth. Again, in France and Belgium much higher unemployment risks are evident for immigrants from non-EU countries. In Austria, Spain, Greece, and the United Kingdom the latter experience similar difficulties at the job entry as native-born youths. Immigrants from other EU countries exhibit higher unemployment rates in Spain and the United Kingdom as compared to the native-born or those from the non-EU countries. In Belgium finding suitable employment for EU immigrants is more difficult than for the native youth, but substantially easier than for immigrants from non-EU countries. Young EU immigrants have most favourable employment chances among all three groups under discussion in France.

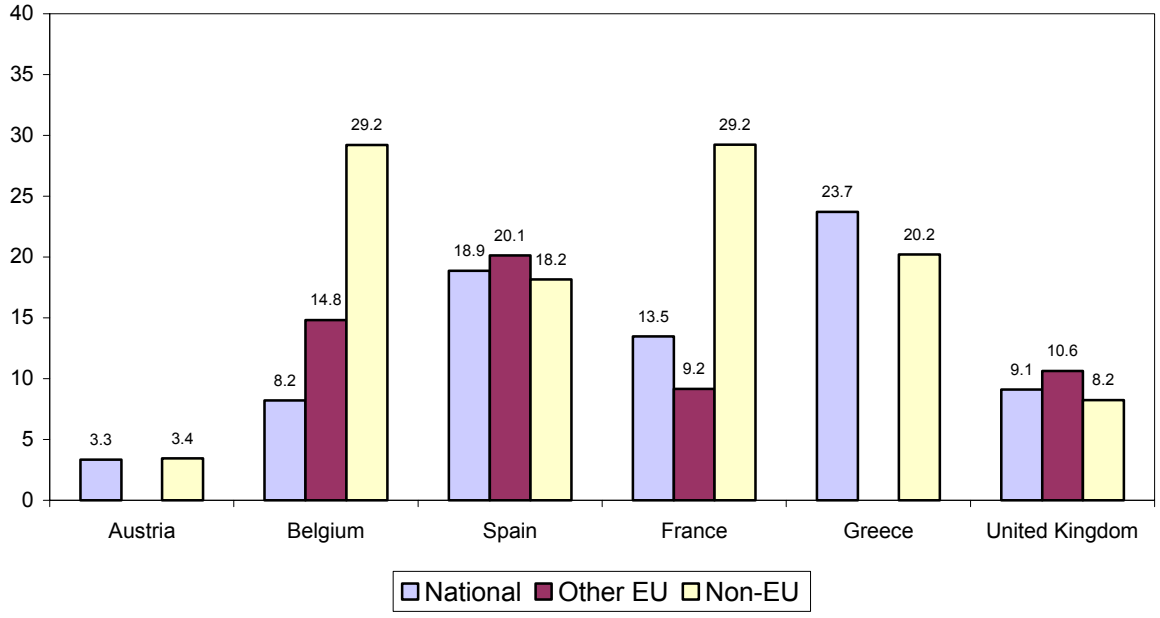

Figure 6.8: Unemployment rate of the target group in 2000 by country of birth

Our final indicator describes the nature of the current employment of young people by presenting a proportion of those employed in precarious jobs. The latter have been defined as involuntary[5] part-time or forced temporary.

[5] Those who did not state the reason for being employed part-time or on the fixed-term contract were also included into this category.

Figure 6.9 depicts the percentage of young people (both nationals and non-nationals) occupying precarious positions in seven countries. Non-EU nationals tend to be over-represented in precarious jobs as compared to nationals in nearly all countries and the differences are rather substantial in Belgium, Spain, and France. Nationals from other EU countries are more often found in precarious positions in Austria and less often in France, while they take intermediate position in Belgium and Spain.

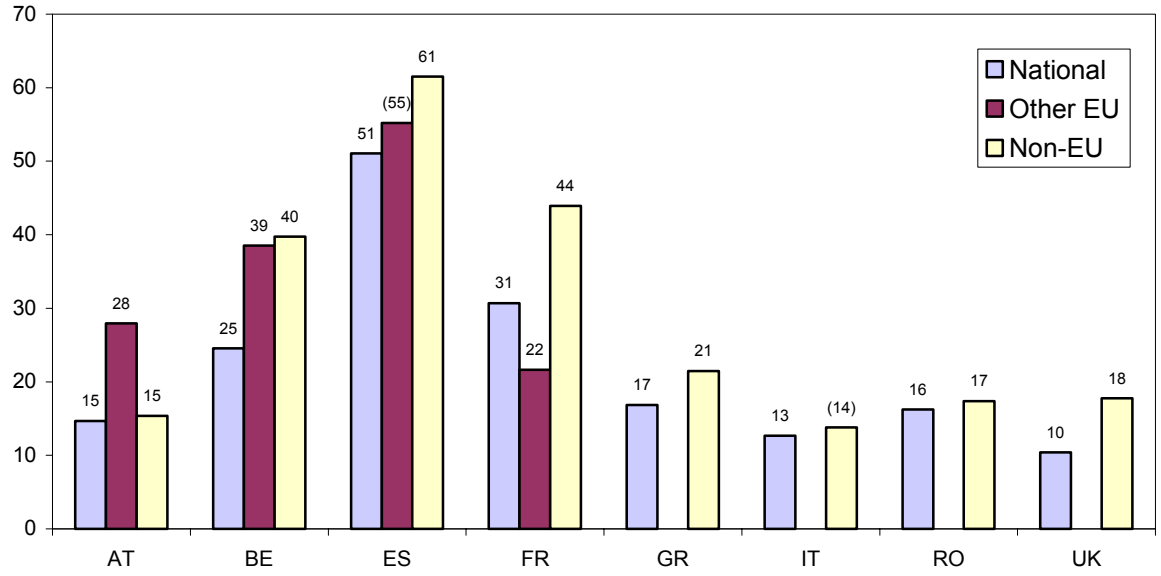

Figure 6.9: Precarious labour market position by nationality (in per cent)

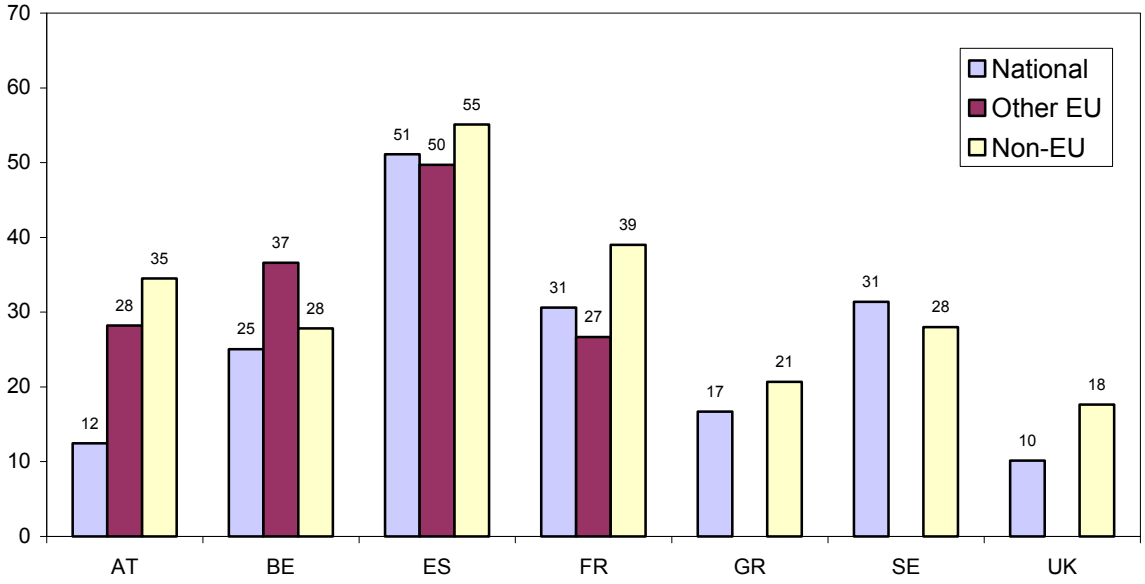

Figure 6.10: Precarious labour market position by country of birth (in per cent)

The rates of precarious employment for groups according to immigration status are shown in Figure 6.10. When defining ethnicity by immigrant status, the situation for young people belonging to non-EU countries changes in Austria and Belgium. While non-EU immigrants are much more likely to be in precarious jobs than the natives in Austria, in Belgium both groups do not differ much in this respect. The picture for all other countries only slightly deviates from that in Figure 6.9.

Summary

In this report we focused on the differences among young graduates of different ethnic origin in educational attainment, occupation of the first significant job as well as the current employment situation. It should be stressed that ethnic inequalities are apparent in all countries under examination. One important pattern, in principle common to all European societies, is that non-EU nationals are already disadvantaged with respect to educational qualifications when they leave school for the first time, although the specific degree of ethnic differences varies cross-nationally. Moreover, in all countries EU nationals do considerably better than non-EU nationals, and in most countries even better than the natives. In general, differences in educational attainment are translated into differences in occupational attainment, however here some variation exists with respect to specific countries and to specific indicators. For example the current employment situation of non-EU nationals in Belgium and France causes concern while in other countries under discussion this group has rather similar unemployment risk as compared to the native-born youth.

Though in most cases indicators constructed according to ‘country of birth’ and ‘nationality’ reveal analogous patterns, commonly reflecting ethnic penalties of non-EU nationals and those born outside the EU, some differences are observed in the effect of these variables in the countries which provide information on both nationality and country of birth.