DELIVERABLE 5.1 - Workshop-related papers
Effects on transitional trajectories of young people

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Work Package 5:
Effects on transitional trajectories of young people

Deliverable 5.1:
Workshop-related papers

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WORKING PAPERS

Labour-market trajectories of young Europeans. Educational and occupational intergenerational social mobility in the light of evidence from the EU-SILC (a European comparative perspective)

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Synopsis

Research will link different educational trajectories to different labor market trajectories of young Europeans. Different educational regimes will be linked to different labor market regimes, and prevalent patterns of labor market trajectories are expected to be shown in different countries, with the intention to link them to national educational structures. Different educational trajectories may lead to similar labor market trajectories, and the same educational trajectories may lead to different labor market trajectories. Typical patterns of movement between education and labor market will be explored, including patterns of moving from education to (full- and/or part-time employment or unemployment, or from employment to unemployment or inactivity in the labor market). The special point of reference will be education, especially at two separate dimensions: access to higher education (HE) from secondary education and exit from higher education and entering the labor market, from a comparative European perspective.

Different processes take place in different countries, or clusters of countries, producing different trajectories over time and groups of individuals; those clusters of countries will be shown, following similar patterns, based on empirical evidence available. The major overall difference, from the point of view of increasing/decreasing access to higher education, and from the point of view of decreasing/increasing returns from higher education expressed e.g. in wage premium on higher education (compared to secondary education) resulting in different labor market trajectories of graduates, will most probably be between Central European (CEE) countries (new EU member states) and EU-15 countries (in the case of CEE: educational expansion occurs together with increasing equality and high, from both European and global perspectives, and increasing wage premium on higher education; variations also among CEE economies will be explored – for instance, marked increase in inequality in the Czech Republic in the last two decades, as opposed to decrease in inequality of access to higher education in Poland in the same period; the role of private HE in massive educational expansion resulting in different educational patterns may also be explored provided that the differences between countries having substantial proportion of students enrolled in the private sector and those having insignificant or no proportions can be shown in the CEE region).

Education, and especially higher education, is the main channel of upward social mobility (enables individuals to cross class boundaries between generations: therefore it is so useful to have in EU-SILC data on fathers' and mothers' levels of education); it is linked to higher incomes, better health, longer life and higher levels of civic participation. Equity in achieving HE is a prerequisite of achieving social equity and social justice – while reinforcing meritocratic principles in society and economy. At the same time, in the overall majority of higher education systems and labor market systems, higher educational credentials lead to better jobs and higher life chances. Nevertheless, from a theoretical perspective of "positional goods" used in parts of current research, the number of good jobs is always limited, and top jobs will always be limited, no matter how well-educated the workforce will be: the division of economy in particular EU member states into major sectors (e.g. manufacturing, services, agriculture in OECD categories, or into major, more detailed, occupations, and "professionals" in UN terminology and others in particular) and its changes over time should be an important point of references in all "new skills for new jobs" (EC 2009) exercises linking growth in jobs requiring high skills with growth in students numbers.

EU-SILC offers the possibility of a study of inequality of educational outcomes (as the achievement of ISCED 4-5, post-secondary and tertiary), and of the relevant coefficients: contrasting those young Europeans whose father had tertiary education credentials with those whose father had compulsory education credentials or less. In more equitable educational regimes, not only educational trajectories of young Europeans with different social backgrounds will be similar – but also their labor market trajectories will be similar. By contrast, in less equitable educational regimes, both educational and labor market trajectories of young Europeans with different social backgrounds will be markedly different. Cross-country differences will be shown, and clusters of countries will be identified.

The theoretical underpinning of present research is grounded in the idea that higher education credentials, in the times of massification, should be increasingly viewed as (Fred Hirsch's) "positional goods": they increase the chances of better labor market trajectories only to a certain point of saturation behind which they become a must, a starting point in competition between individuals holding it, rather than a clear advantage. As "social congestion" increases, their role as signaling mechanisms (about abilities of graduates) is changing: as in Hirsch's memorable metaphor, standing on tiptoe does not help to get a better view if all others around also stand on tiptoes. At the same time, not having higher education credentials, like not standing on tiptoes, is a serious drawback in the labor market. So credentials are sought, even though their economic value may be, in many systems and increasingly so, questioned. What works on an individual basis, and especially before the level for massification of higher education is reached, does not seem to work from a larger social perspective: individual efforts may be largely lost if all young people undertake the same efforts, as they finally may not lead to increasing individual life chances.

The pool of “good jobs” seems to restricted in Europe, as elsewhere, and the idea that HE is always leading to middle-class lifestyles and standards of living may be increasingly misleading. The “positional goods” perspective will be used in cross-country research.

The initial hypothesis is that in those EU countries where higher education has been more expanded, there is more equality in achieving higher education by social background – but there are also accompanying diminishing occupational and wage returns to higher education. OECD data do not suffice to research the interrelations between the two and they will be strengthened by the empirical evidence derived from EU-SILC.

EU-SILC data could be combined with the European Social Survey (ESS) data 2002-2008 to further explore the issue, especially in linking educational outcomes and occupational outcomes with social background. EUROSTUDENT dataset will be extremely useful to be combined with EU-SILC to current research theme: it also shows respondents’ (in this case – students only, currently from 26 countries) father’s and mother’s occupational status, and in 2005 in all European countries studied there was significant underrepresentation of students from lower socio-economic strata (the ratio used is the following: students’ fathers with blue-collar occupation to all men aged 40-60 with blue-collar occupation (a/b), the ratio being lowest in Scandinavian countries, and highest in three new EU-member states: Lithuania, Bulgaria and Latvia, Eurostudent data, HIS, 2005; also more sophisticated indicators can be used). EUROSTUDENT dataset enables also to explore “fathers’ educational attainment” and educational inequity viewed from this perspective (ratio: students’ fathers with up to lower-stage secondary education to all men aged 40-60 with same education). Consequently, it enables to study the combination of occupational and educational background of fathers in viewing inequity in a European comparative perspective.

EU-SILC enables the focus on relative chances of individuals coming from the lowest socio-economic strata quartile (SES quartile one) to have higher education credentials, comparing them with those coming from higher social strata (SES quartiles two, three, and four). Relative odds (4/1, 3/1, 2/1) of different SES groups across all 26 European countries can be compared, according to respondents’ age transformed into a ten year age-cohort variable (for instance, <35, 35-45, 45-55, >55). Dependent binary variable is whether the respondent achieved tertiary education or not.

Inequality of access to tertiary education in EU countries between 1965-2008 is studied (EU SILC data on: respondents’ father’s education, mother’s education, father’s class (from Personal Register): trends over time can be shown, and clusters of countries can be identified. Special focus can be on especially contrasted European cases, as revealed through EU-SILC data: “Nordic countries” (marked decrease in inequality) contrasted with “Central European countries” (marked increase in inequality in some, e.g. the Czech

Republic). Again, as in the case of secondary education, the question could be the following: is access to tertiary education significantly more equitable than forty years ago (the provisional answer is stability or increase in inequality – but clusters of countries with similar patterns can be identified).
What are the mechanisms and processes that generate and reproduce largely constant (from a European comparative perspective) levels of inequality in access to HE in individual countries: demand-driven systems generate lower inequality than supply driven systems (there are less constraints on the expansion than in supply driven systems), binary (two-tier) systems show lower inequality (social selectivity) than unified systems, diversified systems show lower inequality than binary and unified systems, European university systems are undergoing a slow transformation from unitary to binary systems, and from supply to demand driven systems. The above conclusions will be explored in the context of 26 EU countries.

EU-SILC dataset enables a pan-European study of educational expansion, differentiation and market structures and the propositions studied may include the following: Expansion is not associated with inequality at the level where expansion occurs, unless saturation is approached (i.e. inequality is maximally maintained). Tertiary expansion and differentiation are related, with causal effects operating in both directions: diversified systems are more likely to have higher overall enrollments rates, and vice versa. The differentiation of higher education (both the diversified and binary modes) diverts students away from first-tier enrollment. On average, enrollment rates are higher in systems with more funding from private sources. Systems with higher levels of funding from private sources are likely to be more diversified than state-centered systems. The degree of reliance on private funding is associated with inequality in access to HE, but the direction of the association cannot be determined a priori (Shavit et al. 2007).

Research questions include: What is the role of social background for a successful transition between secondary and tertiary levels in systems that differ in important structural settings? Is the lack of economic resources a more important obstacle on the road to tertiary education than other aspects of family background (cultural, social or psychological)? What is the role of ability, social background and the broader socio-cultural environment on the formation of educational aspirations? What is the role of intergenerational transmission of values and beliefs about success in life in shaping educational inequality? Cross-national comparative research enables the identification of the role of different structural settings', longitudinal research enables the identification of potential sources (personal, cultural, social, structural, institutional) of equity throughout entire educational career). The combination of cross-national and longitudinal perspectives would be powerful information tools for policymakers.

Young people and their wellbeing - Disadvantaged young people in the UK

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Work Package 5: *Workable* – Enabling young people to function as capable citizens in European knowledge societies FP7 project, 2009-2012 (FP7- SSH-CT-2009-244909)

Introduction

This paper sets out some indicative findings and broad methodological questions concerning analysis of disadvantaged young people in the UK.

Data and initial findings

The British Household Panel Survey is used and waves corresponding to H (mainly 1998) and R (mainly 2008) are investigated to determine lifestyles and variable associations with employment.

In this report those aged 17 to 24 in 1998 are compared to those aged 17 to 24 in 2008 and those aged 25 to 34 in 2008 (these age groups are for illustration as further analysis will be carried out for other age groups: 16-24, 18-24; and 16-17, 18-20, 21-24). Their employment status is displayed in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Employment status (cross sectional - not matched pairs)

	17-24 yr old in 1998			17 -24 yr old in 2008			25-34 yr old in 2008		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Self-employed	2.6%	0.6%	1.6%	3.9%	0.9%	2.3%	9.5%	4.3%	6.8%
Employed	61.8%	52.4%	57.2%	52.7%	52.3%	52.5%	76.5%	67.4%	71.8%
Unemployed	9.3%	6.6%	8.0%	10.1%	6.7%	8.3%	8.5%	3.0%	5.7%
Maternity leave		0.6%	0.3%		1.3%	0.7%		3.9%	2.0%
Family care		8.1%	4.0%	0.2%	8.0%	4.3%	0.9%	15.4%	8.4%
FT studt, school	24.0%	30.8%	27.4%	31.9%	28.9%	30.3%	1.7%	3.5%	2.7%
LT sick, disabld	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	0.2%	1.5%	0.9%	2.3%	2.1%	2.2%
Gvt train Schem	0.7%	0.4%	0.6%	0.4%		0.2%			
Other	0.9%		0.5%	0.6%	0.4%	0.5%	0.6%	0.4%	0.5%
Number	537	532	1069	486	539	1025	527	564	1091

It appears unemployment rates have increased slightly in 2008 but more strikingly the numbers in full time education have increased significantly, especially for males (nearly an 8% point rise), female rates have declined by almost 2%). Comparing 17 to 24 yr olds in 1998 with 25 to 34 year olds in 2008 - the same cohort - it seems unemployment has fallen by 2.3% points and those in full time employment have increased by around 15% points.

Health is often used when considering well being and relevant questions are presented in Table 2 in which mean scores from a scale 1 = much more than usual to 4 = much less than usual. It compares the 1998 and 2008 cohorts for 16-24 year olds. (Note: in later analysis the directions of the scores will be standardised, e.g. a higher score will be deemed more positive for all questions. Significance is 10% level).

Table 2: Responses to general health questions (low values are good)

	Wave	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	P sig
GHQ: concentration	1998	1066	2.08	.587	.018	
	2008	1010	2.05	.567	.018	
GHQ: loss of sleep	1998	1066	1.85	.795	.024	
	2008	1010	1.88	.848	.027	
GHQ: playing a useful role	1998	1065	1.90	.567	.017	
	2008	1012	1.94	.624	.020	
GHQ: capable of making decisions	1998	1066	1.76	.552	.017	0.001
	2008	1012	1.86	.626	.020	
GHQ: constantly under strain	1998	1066	2.15	.807	.025	0.017
	2008	1011	2.06	.834	.026	
GHQ: problem overcoming difficulties	1998	1065	1.80	.746	.023	
	2008	1012	1.79	.788	.025	
GHQ: enjoy day-to-day activities	1998	1066	2.03	.629	.019	
	2008	1011	2.02	.643	.020	
GHQ: ability to face problems	1998	1066	1.91	.558	.017	
	2008	1012	1.90	.637	.020	
GHQ: unhappy or depressed	1998	1066	1.95	.863	.026	
	2008	1012	1.92	.856	.027	
GHQ: losing confidence	1998	1065	1.67	.760	.023	
	2008	1013	1.71	.822	.026	
GHQ: believe in self-worth	1998	1067	1.38	.645	.020	0.002
	2008	1013	1.47	.726	.023	
GHQ: general happiness	1998	1067	1.91	.630	.019	
	2008	1013	1.90	.669	.021	
Subjective wellbeing (GHQ) 1: Likert	1998	1059	10.44	5.264	.162	
	2008	1003	10.57	5.771	.182	
Subjective wellbeing (GHQ) 2: Caseness	1998	543	3.57	2.911	.125	
	2008	514	3.79	3.035	.134	

Significant differences over the 11 year period are indicated by the P sig column. Overall health indicators are improving (i.e. lower means), but those in 2008 seem less capable of making decisions and have lower feelings of self worth than those in 1998. However, they feel significantly less strained, although strain levels are still high. In Table 3 the responses to health questions for those who work aged 17 to 24 years are reported.

Table 3: General health questions for those who work (low values are good)

	wave	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
GHQ: concentration	1998	608	2.03	.534	.022	
	2008	529	2.05	.524	.023	
GHQ: loss of sleep	1998	608	1.80	.736	.030	
	2008	529	1.86	.847	.037	
GHQ: playing a useful role	1998	608	1.83	.538	.022	0.008
	2008	531	1.92	.617	.027	
GHQ: capable of making decisions	1998	608	1.73	.526	.021	0.008
	2008	531	1.82	.583	.025	
GHQ: constantly under strain	1998	608	2.10	.787	.032	0.078
	2008	531	2.02	.804	.035	
GHQ: problem overcoming difficulties	1998	608	1.71	.716	.029	
	2008	531	1.71	.756	.033	
GHQ: enjoy day-to-day activities	1998	608	2.00	.587	.024	
	2008	530	2.01	.649	.028	
GHQ: ability to face problems	1998	608	1.88	.541	.022	
	2008	531	1.88	.601	.026	
GHQ: unhappy or depressed	1998	608	1.86	.786	.032	
	2008	531	1.90	.827	.036	
GHQ: losing confidence	1998	609	1.61	.708	.029	
	2008	532	1.65	.786	.034	
GHQ: believe in self-worth	1998	609	1.34	.595	.024	0.006
	2008	532	1.45	.708	.031	
GHQ: general happiness	1998	609	1.88	.597	.024	
	2008	532	1.88	.645	.028	
Subjective wellbeing (GHQ) 1: Likert	1998	605	9.81	4.688	.191	
	2008	526	10.21	5.597	.244	
Subjective wellbeing (GHQ) 2: Caseness	1998	277	3.21	2.668	.160	0.078
	2008	242	3.66	3.068	.197	

In general scores have increased in 2008 indicating a slight deterioration in general health in 2008 compared to 1998.

For those in work how work conditions have changed are indicated in Table 4. It appears that hours worked have decreased and mean monthly pay has increased (in nominal terms). In regards satisfaction derived from work reported on a scale from 1 to 7 (where 1 is not satisfied and 7 is completely satisfied) are reported and no significant difference is apparent. But there is a trend for job satisfaction to decrease (significant at 10% level).

Table 4: Reported view on job (high values of the satisfaction variable are good)

	wave	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
No. of hours normally worked per week	1998	593	37.60	7.693	.316	<0.001
	2008	522	34.77	9.334	.408	
Gross rate of pay per month last payment	1998	612	868.52	791.81	32.01	<0.001
	2008	538	1115.03	692.34	29.85	
Job satisfaction: total pay	1998	603	4.86	1.491	.061	
	2008	533	4.84	1.547	.067	
Job satisfaction: security	1998	599	5.61	1.399	.057	
	2008	532	5.49	1.369	.059	
Job satisfaction: work itself	1998	602	5.38	1.294	.053	
	2008	533	5.31	1.361	.059	
Job satisfaction: hours worked	1998	602	5.30	1.294	.053	
	2008	533	5.22	1.405	.061	

The attitude of people aged 17 to 24 years in regard to their finance and their involvement in their community has changed is reported in Table 5. Finance is reported on a scale of 1 = very comfortable to 5 increasingly difficult. It seems from Table 5 that those in 2008 are finding financial issues more difficult.

For the community variables 1 is positive and 5 is less involvement and negative. Generally scores have increased and some significantly so (i.e. things are more negative). Thus there are less involvement with the community and neighbours and friends. Further data on financial issues related to financial capability are in the annex.

Table 5: Attitudes to finance and interaction with neighbours and friends (low values are good)

	wave	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Financial situation	1998	611	2.05	.876	.035	
	2008	536	2.10	.856	.037	
Change in financial position last year	1998	611	1.56	.808	.033	<0.991
	2008	534	1.76	.884	.038	
Financial expectations for year ahead	1998	598	1.58	.871	.036	<0.001
	2008	510	1.91	.956	.042	
Frequency of talking to neighbours	1998	611	2.10	1.102	.045	<0.001
	2008	538	2.49	1.266	.055	
Frequency of meeting people	1998	611	1.40	.605	.024	0.073
	2008	538	1.46	.667	.029	
Spoken to someone in past week	1998	6	1.00	.000	.000	
	2008	6	1.07	.280	.115	
Belong to neighbourhood	1998	610	2.60	.985	.040	0.065
	2008	536	2.49	.952	.041	
Local friends mean a lot	1998	610	2.61	1.000	.040	
	2008	532	2.65	.999	.043	
Advice obtainable locally	1998	610	2.79	1.190	.048	
	2008	535	2.80	1.180	.051	
Can borrow things from neighbours	1998	610	3.10	1.205	.049	0.035
	2008	534	3.24	1.156	.050	
Willing to improve neighbourhood	1998	609	2.42	.880	.036	
	2008	534	2.37	.840	.036	
Plan to stay in neighbourhood	1998	608	3.06	1.224	.050	
	2008	527	2.95	1.125	.049	
Am similar to others in neighbourhood	1998	610	3.06	1.076	.044	
	2008	528	3.06	1.094	.048	
Neighbourhood good/bad place to live	1998	606	1.30	.644	.026	
	2008	529	1.27	.646	.028	

Comparing those in 1998 aged 17 to 24 years in 1998 with those aged 25 to 34 years, a cohort on, is displayed in Table 6. Scores of finance and health are rated on a four and five point scale (low scores are positive so the 2008 cohort is less positive perhaps due to their age). While job satisfaction is rated on a 7 point scale where high scores are good. (In the final version the directions will be changed so as to be consistently positive or negative).

Overall there seems little difference, except for slightly more job security for the older cohort (as may be expected due to more stable careers at this age). It seems in 2008 that people are less satisfied with their financial outlook and have significantly lower satisfaction in regards overall job satisfaction and security. Satisfaction with work has increased.

Table 6: 17 to 24 year olds in 1998 compared to 25 to 34 year olds in 2008

	17 to 24 yr olds 1998	25 to 34 yr olds 2008	
Financial situation	2.05	2.26	Low values good
Change in financial position last year	1.56	2.09	
Financial expectations for year ahead	1.58	2.11	
Job satisfaction: overall	5.42	5.38	High values good
Job satisfaction: total pay	4.86	5.02	
Job satisfaction: security	5.61	5.43	
Job satisfaction: work itself	5.38	5.43	
Job satisfaction: hours worked	5.30	5.30	
Health status over last 12 months	1.99	2.00	

Matched pairs analysis

People aged 16 to 24 years were followed through cohort wise to 2008 when they were aged 25 to 34 years and their job status dependent on their status in 1998 are presented in Tables 7, 8 and 9.

Table 7: Those unemployed in 1998

		Aged 16 to 24 years		
		Not unemployed in 1998	Unemployed in 1998	Total
Current economic activity (2008) Age 25 to 34 years	Self-employed	44 6.6%	4 7.3%	48 6.7%
	Employed	484 73.1%	26 47.3%	510 71.1%
	Unemployed	32 4.8%	14 25.5%	46 6.4%
	Maternity leave	9 1.4%	1 1.8%	10 1.4%
	Family care	60 9.1%	5 9.1%	65 9.1%
	FT studt, school	15 2.3%	1 1.8%	16 2.2%
	LT sick, disabld	14 2.1%	4 7.3%	18 2.5%
	Other	4 0.6%	0 0.0%	4 0.6%
Total		662	55	717

Table 8: Those employed in 1998.

		Aged 16 to 24 years		
		Not employed in 1998	employed in 1998	Total
Current economic activity (2008) Age 25 to 34 years	Self-employed	25 7.5%	24 6.3%	49 6.8%
	Employed	211 63.0%	299 78.1%	510 71.0%
	Unemployed	32 9.6%	14 3.7%	46 6.4%
	Maternity leave	5 1.5%	4 1.0%	9 1.3%
	Family care	32 9.6%	33 8.6%	65 9.1%
	FT studt, school	15 4.5%	2 0.5%	17 2.4%
	LT sick, disabld	13 3.9%	5 1.3%	18 2.5%
	Other	2 0.6%	2 0.5%	4 0.6%
Total		335	383	718

Table 9: Those in full time education in 1998

		Aged 16 to 24 years		
		Not in full time education in 1998	In full time education in 1998	Total
Current economic activity (2008) Age 25 to 34 years	Self-employed	34 7.3%	15 6.0%	49 6.8%
	Employed	341 73.0%	169 67.3%	510 71.0%
	Unemployed	30 6.4%	15 6.0%	45 6.3%
	Maternity leave	5 1.1%	5 2.0%	10 1.4%
	Family care	40 8.6%	26 10.4%	66 9.2%
	FT studt, school	3 0.6%	13 5.2%	16 2.2%
	LT sick, disabld	12 2.6%	6 2.4%	18 2.5%
	Other	2 0.4%	2 0.8%	4 0.6%
Total		467	251	718

Modelling

The numbers are very small and this is going to seriously limit the possibilities of developing statistical models. One might use as a dependent those unemployed but only 85 of the respondents aged 17 to 24 in 1998 were unemployed and of those aged 25 to 34 in 2008 only 62 were unemployed.

Variables can be created to measure happiness, health, job satisfaction and community involvement and to create models to ascertain how these might vary with employment.

Of interest would be to follow the employment status of graduates – but the numbers are still low.

Factor analysis could be employed to create variables of satisfaction, well-being and community involvement. Using these as a model of change in these variables could be developed.

A panel approach might shed light on reported well-being by tracking people over time using explanatory variables of satisfaction, employment status, community involvement and social/friendship support.

We do not think it is going to be possible to investigate the "scaring effect" using BHPS and will use the Labour Force survey to model wellbeing of those aged 17 to 24 and 11 years later compare to a model of wellbeing of those aged 25 – 34 years.

Most of the individual factors are available from the Labour Force Survey and one could incorporate aggregated regional information such as unemployment rates, regional economic factors such as labour market structural measures and measures of economic change. These "external" factors could be input at a higher level and a multi-level approach taken.

The potential lowest regional breakdown is:

Region of place of work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**Tyne and Wear**	119	1.1	2.0	2.0
	Rest of North East	135	1.2	2.3	4.3
	Greater Manchester	268	2.4	4.5	8.8
	Merseyside	86	.8	1.4	10.2
	Rest of North West	321	2.8	5.4	15.6
	South Yorkshire	152	1.3	2.6	18.1
	West Yorkshire	259	2.3	4.3	22.5
	Rest of Yorkshire and Humberside	190	1.7	3.2	25.7
	East Midlands	459	4.1	7.7	33.4
	West Midlands and Met. County	215	1.9	3.6	37.0
	Rest of West Midlands	275	2.4	4.6	41.6
	East of England	509	4.5	8.5	50.1
	Central London	186	1.7	3.1	53.3
	Inner London	137	1.2	2.3	55.6
	Outer London	248	2.2	4.2	59.7
	South East	832	7.4	14.0	73.7
	South West	544	4.8	9.1	82.8
	Wales	269	2.4	4.5	87.3
	Strathclyde	239	2.1	4.0	91.3
	Rest of Scotland	278	2.5	4.7	96.0
	Northern Ireland	238	2.1	4.0	100.0
	Total	5959	52.9	100.0	
Missing	**Does not apply**	5282	46.9		
	No answer	27	.2		
	Workplace outside UK	1	.0		
	Total	5310	47.1		
Total		11269	100.0		

Points for discussion

What is to be used as a model of well-being?

What age bands should be used?

How will this fit into the rest of work package 5?

Can the “external” regional variables be identified and where can the data be sourced?

What are the opportunities for using LFS data for the analysis at a ‘European’ level?

WP5 List of variables for analysis

Outlined in the table below are the headline variables from the employability framework categorised between Internal and External conversion factors (they are based upon the Employability framework (McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005)[1] with some capability variables from Anand et al. (2009)[2]. Alongside both the Internal and External conversion factors are the particular capabilities that are most relevant from the Equalities Review list (2007)[3].

Below is a more detailed description of what we mean by external and internal conversion factors (this is based on material used in Work Package 4).

'Access to resources' is one of the key factors often discussed in capabilities literature – whether individuals have enough resources to convert factors of conversion into capabilities.

Individual Conversion Factors

The individual conversion factors are seen as the skills and knowledge that affect young people's capacity to transform resources into capabilities. Therefore, these sets of variables will seek to identify whether individuals have the necessary conversion factors to transform resources into capabilities. Here we seek to identify the range of individual capabilities/functioning's (such as skills and knowledge) that young people are able to achieve and in particular to identify the individual characteristics that make it possible (or not) to convert resources into capabilities, such as health, education, family, training, qualifications etc. This recognises that it is not only outcomes that are important (such as getting a job) but also to recognise the important role that factors such as health, well-being, family or education plays in influencing outcomes.

External Conversion Factors

Here we wish to distinguish between individual capabilities involving skills and knowledge and to identify the role of external social and structural factors that may affect the conversion of resources into capabilities such as social class, geography, gender, labour market conditions, labour market segregation, discrimination and the legal framework (including welfare legislation). This recognises that conversion factors depend not only on individual conversion factors but also the broader social, economic, environmental and political context in which they are made.

[1] McQuaid, R.W. and C. Lindsay (2005) 'The Concept of Employability', Urban Studies, 42, 2, 197-219.
[2] Anand P., Hunter G., Carter I., Dowding K., van Hees M., (2009) The Development of Capability Indicators, Journal of Human Development and Capabilities, 10, pp. 125-52.
[3] Vizard, P and Burchardt, T (2007). Developing a capability list: Final Recommendations of the Equalities Review Steering Group on Measurement. Paper No' CASE/121: http://sticerd.lse.ac.uk/dps/case/cp/CASEpaper121.pdf

N.B the footnotes are for variables taken from the Anand et al. (2007) paper with examples of questions from the BHPS			
		Factors of Conversion	**Relevant Capabilities (from Equalities Review list)**
Internal Conversion Factors	**Individual**	**Essential attributes** Willingness to work Positive attitude to work Social skills and personal presentation Responsibility and discipline Self efficacy	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Personal competencies Proactivity Motivation Confidence Useful role[4]	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Basic transferable skills Literacy and numeracy	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Key transferable skills ICT skills Interpersonal and communication skills	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		High level transferable skills Team working Continuous learning vision Job specific skills Enterprise skills Relate to colleagues[5] Respected by colleagues[6]	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Qualifications Formal and vocational qualifications Skills used at work[7]	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4)

[4] Outside work, have you recently felt that you were playing a useful part in things? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)
[5] Do you tend to find it easy or difficult to relate to your colleagues at work? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)
[6] At work are you treated with respect (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

			– The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Work knowledge base Work experience Transferable skills e.g. driving	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Labour market attachment Current unemployment/employment duration number and length of spells of unemployment/ inactivity 'balance' of work history	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Demographic characteristics Age Gender Ethnicity	– The capability to be healthy (3) – The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to enjoy individual, family and social life (7) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Health and well-being Current physical and mental health Disability Medical history Under strain[8]/feel worthless[9]/enjoys activities Health limits activities[10]	– The capability to be healthy (3)
		Job seeking Expect to work[11] Use of search services Awareness of opportunities Awareness and use of social networks Ability to complete CVs/interview skills	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)

[7] To what extent does your work make use of your skills and talents? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)
[8] Have you recently felt constantly under strain? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)
[9] Have you recently been thinking of yourself as a worthless person? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)
[10] Does your health in any way limit your daily activities compared with most people of your age? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)
[11] Do you intend seeking work in the future? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

		Discrimination (past and future)[12]	
		Adaptability and mobility Geographical mobility	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to enjoy individual, family and social life (7) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
	Personal	**Household circumstances** Caring responsibilities Access to safe, secure[13], affordable and appropriate housing Tenure[14] Safe during day/safe during night[15]	– The capability to be healthy (3) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to enjoy individual, family and social life (7)
		Work culture (in family and peer group) Influence of parents	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to enjoy individual, family and social life (7)
		Access to resources Transport Financial capital Social capital – makes[16]/meets[17] friends, family love[18]	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to enjoy individual, family and social life (7) The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)

[12] When seeking employment in the past, have you ever experienced discrimination because of your; race, sexual orientation, gender, religion, age? AND When seeking work in the future how likely do you think that you will experience discrimination because of your; race, sexual orientation, gender, religion, age? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

[13] Is your current accommodation adequate or inadequate for your current needs? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

[14] For which of the following reasons, if any, have you not bought your home? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

[15] Please indicate how safe you feel walking alone in the area near your home during the day time/after dark? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

[16] How difficult do you find it to make friendships which last with people outside work? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

[17] Do you normally meet up with friends or family for a drink or a meal at least once a month? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

[18] At present how easy or difficult do you find it to enjoy the love, case and support from your immediate family? (Source: BHPS, Anand et al)

External Conversion factors		**Labour market factors** Demand Structure/location of vacancies	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Macroeconomic factors Demand	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Vacancy characteristics Remuneration Conditions/hours Entry level positions	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Recruitment factors Employer recruitment methods	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Employment policy factors Access to public services and job matching services Welfare system Training Measures to ease school-work transitions	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)
		Other enabling policy factors Childcare, public transport etc	– The capability to be knowledgeable, to understand and reason, and to have the skills to participate in society (4) – The capability to engage in productive and valued activities (6) – The capability to enjoy individual, family and social life (7) – The capability to participate in decision-making, have a voice and influence (8)

Investigating the link between living conditions and youth capabilities

Erica Nordlander and Mattias Strandh

Background

There is a growing knowledge about the importance of parental resources for youth's life chances. Despite efforts to equalize the Swedish educational system there is still a clear class gradient, where children from upper middle class families experience the greatest advantages and children with working class parents meet the greatest obstacles (see for instance Eriksson and Jonsson 1996, 2002, Gustafsson 2000). Some scholars however question an overly structuralistic approach between socio-economic stratification and outcomes and argue that other aspect of children's living conditions also matter (see for instance Meyer 1997). Children's living conditions can also be understood in broader terms where a number of objective and subjective factors matter. This means that the living conditions and life chances of children could be understood and investigated as configurations of objective and subjective factors, where parental resources of course play a significant part, but where also the involvement and relationship with the parents, the school situation, neighborhood characteristics and leisure activities play a role.

Purpose

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a greater understanding of what children's configurations of living conditions look like and how this affect future life chances and opportunities. The chapter has two main tasks:

1) Identifying how children's living conditions in the form of parental resources, relationship with parents, school situation, neighborhood characteristics, leisure activities cluster to form configurations of living conditions experienced by different groups of youths.
2) Analyze the importance of these configurations of living conditions for health, school grades and tertiary enrollment.

Data

The paper will use the study of children's living conditions (Child-ULF) from Statistics Sweden. The studies of children's living conditions provide information about children's living conditions and their everyday lives. The children interviewed are 10-18 years, and have been selected after one of the parents in the household was interviewed in the surveys of living conditions (ULF). Children are asked about; their health, situation at school, what they

do in their spare time and the relationship to friends, parents, teachers and other adults. The responses in the Child-ULF can then be linked to information that the adults in the household has provided, for example, parents' occupation, education, and how the family lives. The survey has been conducted since 2001 and about 1100 children are interviewed every year.

Child-ULF will be combined with the Longitudinal Integration database for Health Insurance and Social Studies (LISA) and the Board of Education's Student Records in order to provide longitudinal information on school grades and enrollment into tertiary education.

Methods

In order to analyze how different dimensions of children's living conditions cluster the paper will use Latent Class Analysis (LCA). This technique identifies clusters (or latent classes), which create patterns of correlations of the included variables. The clusters could here be said to group individuals who have common characteristics, were the principal for classification is based on the probability to belong to different clusters based on different characteristics (Hagenaars and McCutcheon 2002).

The identified clusters will be used as independent variables in order to analyze the importance of these configurations of living conditions for health, school grades and tertiary enrollment. Different regression techniques will be used.

Youth unemployment, youth programs and mental health scarring in Sweden – long term mental health effects of two different forms of unemployment experiences

Mattias Strandh

Background

We know well that unemployment is related to short term mental health consequences for both young and adult populations (se for instance Strandh 2000, Mckee-Ryan et al. 2005, Paul and Moser 2009). We however know considerably less both about if there are long term mental health consequences of youth unemployment and if participation in youth programs have the same negative mental health effects as open unemployment. Such possible effects of participation in youth programs are important to take into account for several reasons. Mental health is an important functioning and if program participation affects the capability of unemployed youth to achieve good mental health in the short or long term, that is a value unto itself. Good mental health is however also a central factor for the capability to achieve other functionings, this not least in relation to the labour market where health has been shown to affect both job chances and unemployment risks (see for instance Clausen et al. 1993, Mastekaasa 1996, Salm 2009). An effect of program participation on mental health could from this perspective lead to what Andersen (2009) labels "indirect employment effects" (IEE).

Purpose

The purpose of this article is to add to previous research on unemployment scarring and the effects of ALMP participation by looking at mental health scarring of youth unemployment over the life course. The overarching questions are here:

1. Are there mental health scarring effects of youth unemployment (ages 18-21) in the short (age 21), medium (age 30) and long term (age 42)?
2. Does time spent in youth programs have less of a scarring effect on mental health than time spent in open unemployment?

Data

In order to do this the study makes use of the "Northern Swedish Cohort" (NSC), a prospective cohort study that includes all pupils who at age 16 in 1981 attended, or should have attended the last year of compulsory school in a medium-sized industrial town in the north of Sweden. This cohort of 1083 participants was investigated using a comprehensive questionnaire covering areas such as somatic and mental health, health behavior, labour market experiences and family situation. The participants were then revisited with the same

questionnaire at ages 18, 21, 30 and most lately at age 42. The attrition of the cohort has been extremely low and at the 26 year follow-up (at age 42) 93.9% (n=1006) of those alive in the original cohort were still participating. The survey data have also been complimented with register data from the Longitudinal Integration Database for Sick Leave and Labour Market Studies (LISA), which provides detailed information on labour market participation and use of different welfare systems from 1991 to date.

Methods

The article will use linear mixed-model analysis of repeated measures which allows the use of both fixed treatment effects as well as random subject effects. An alternative approach which will be considered is to use growth curve modeling in order to be able to model possible feedback mechanisms from further unemployment experiences related to mental health scarring effects.

PRESENTATIONS

Marek Kwiek

Labour-market trajectories of young Europeans.
Educational and occupational intergenerational social mobility in the light of evidence from the EU-SILC (a European comparative perspective)

Labour-market trajectories of young Europeans. Educational and occupational intergenerational social mobility in the light of evidence from the EU-SILC (a European comparative perspective)

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Introduction

- The special focus: the role of education in labor market trajectories of young Europeans - various levels of education (especially viewed from two separate dimensions: equitable access to higher education and the relative position of higher education graduates in the labor market.
- Equitable access to higher education will be linked to social background of students, viewed from two parallel perspectives: educational background of parents and occupational background of parents.
- Different patterns of intergenerational social mobility across European countries will be explored, and clusters of more equitable (or mobile) and less equitable (or mobile) countries will be shown.
- Traditionally, education, and in the era of knowledge economies especially higher education, is the main channel of upward social intergenerational mobility (enables individuals to cross class boundaries between generations).

Introduction

- An equitable or mobile society seems to be a relational, or positional, notion: some societies are clearly more equitable or mobile than other societies, and some clusters of countries seem to be more equitable or mobile than other clusters of countries.
- As defined by OECD: „Intergenerational social mobility refers to the relationship between the socioeconomic status of parents and the status their children will attain as adults. Put differently, mobility reflects the extent to which individuals move up (or down) the social ladder compared with their parents. A society can be deemed more or less mobile depending on whether the link between parents' and children's social status as adults is looser or tighter. In a relatively immobile society an individual's wage, education or occupation tends to be strongly related to those of his/her parents. … Indeed, in an economic sense, intergenerational social mobility is generally defined in terms of the possibility to move up (or down) the income or wage scale relative to one's parents" (OECD 2010: 4).
- Current research – education and occupation trajectories (wages – too changeable over time).

Labor market trajectories: descriptive statistics

- Typical transition patterns between education and labor market will be explored, including transition patterns between (different levels of) education to various labor market statuses (employment, unemployment, or inactivity in the labor market).
- Intergenerational social mobility theme will be explored in two dimensions: educational mobility and occupational mobility between generations.
- The descriptive analysis is based on transition matrices: the number of transitions from a given labor market status to another labor market status, as a percentage of individuals in the initial year.
- The transitions will be shown based on most recent data (2007 to 2008). Consequently, in the vertical cells in the tables, there are three statuses in 2007: E, U, and I, and in the horizontal cells there are also three (arrival) statuses for 2008: E, U, and I.

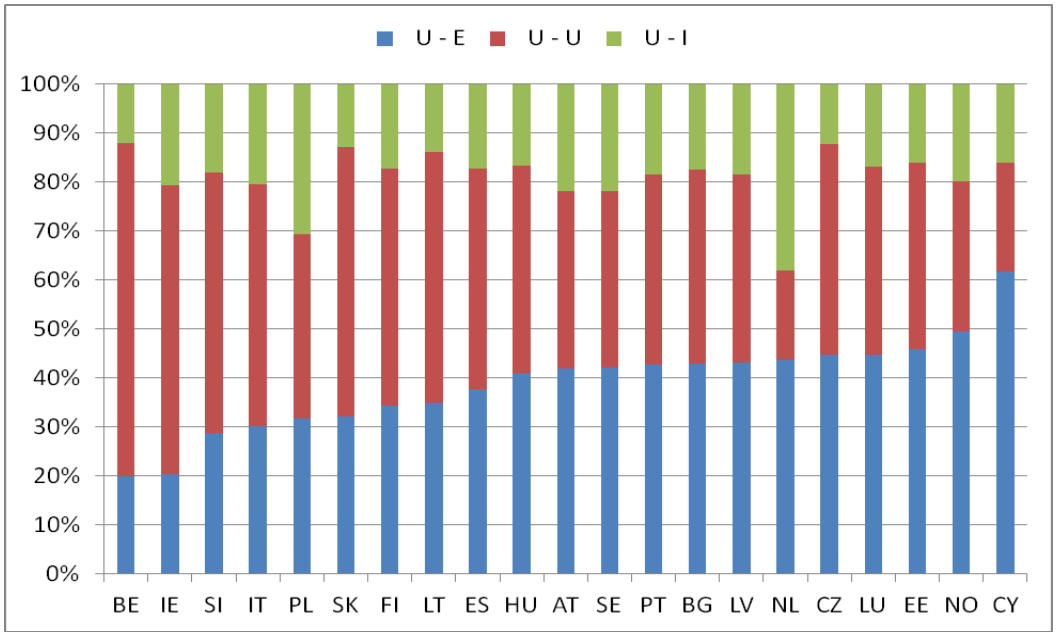
Labor market trajectories: descriptive statistics

- Some socio-economic variables were introduced in the structure of individual transitions: transitions matrices have been calculated, first, by gender and, second, by age groups (age brackets used for calculations of the 15-64 population were 15-35, 36-54, and 55-64).
- Transitions are also broken down by 21 countries.
- Important: two ("positive") types of transitions: from unemployment to employment, and from inactivity to employment; in particular, for the "young Europeans" age bracket of 15-35.

Labor market trajectories: descriptive statistics

- From a European comparative perspective, there are differences between countries with lower transitions rates between unemployment and employment (U-E transition below) and those with higher transitions rates.
- The two countries where leaving unemployment and entering employment seems most difficult is Belgium and Ireland (both below 20%), followed by two countries with the rate below 30% (Slovenia and Italy), followed by several countries in the 30-40% range (Poland, Slovakia, Finland, Lithuania, and Spain).
- The majority of European countries are in the 40-50% range, with Norway in the lead (almost 50%).
- Two Central European countries (Poland and Slovakia) have lower rates (slightly above 30%), while two other (Hungary and Czech Republic) have higher rates, above 40%. There is no common pattern for new EU member states (PL 32%, SK 32%, HU 41%, CZ 45%, SL 29%, BG 43%, no data for RO).

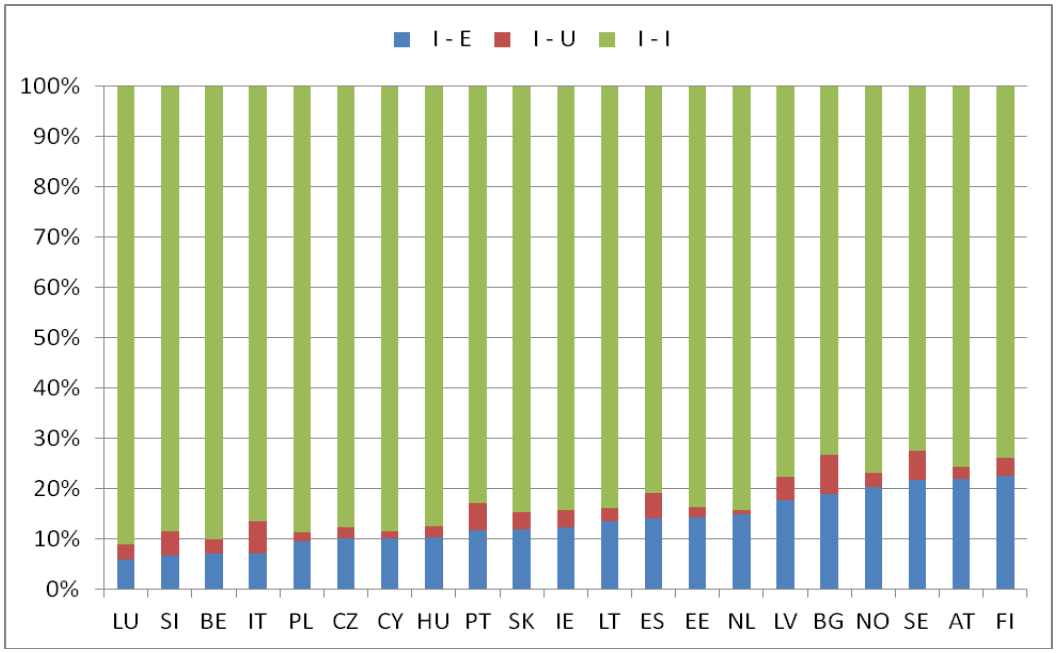
Chart 1. Transition out of unemployment, increasing order U-E (unemployment to employment), all 21 countries, 15-64 age brackets,



Labor market trajectories: descriptive statistics

- The second transition matrice of interest here is <u>from inactivity to employment</u>.
- Transitions rates for leaving inactivity are given below, with the highest rates of transitions to employment in (more than 20%) in three Nordic countries (Norway, Sweden and Finland; data for Denmark are not available) and in Austria.
- The lowest rates (below 10%) are in Luxembourg (which is perhaps too small a system to draw conclusions), Slovenia, Belgium, Italy and Poland.
- Four Central European countries have lower transitions rates. From among new EU member states, the highest rate is in Bulgaria, almost 20% (19%), right after the Nordic leaders and Austria.

Chart 2. Transition out of inactivity, increasing order, I-E (inactivity to employment), all 21 countries, 15-64 age brackets 2008



Labor market trajectories: descriptive statistics

- Transitions rates are calculated as shares (in %) relative to individuals' previous labor market status.
- Individuals were asked whether they have experienced a change in their individual activity status in the last 12 months.
- Two further analysis are done: the first analysis of transitions matrices is broken down by gender, the second is broken down by age.

Labor market trajectories: descriptive statistics

- There is a clear differentiation of transitions rates by gender. Overall transitions rates from unemployment to employment and from inactivity to employment are lower for women than for men.
- In a parallel manner, the probability of transforming towards inactivity (out of employment or out of unemployment) is higher for women than for men.
- While the overall transition rate from the unemployed to employed status (in 2007/2008, for the 15-64 age bracket) is 39% for men, it is only 31 for women (for the transition from inactivity status to employment status, it is 13% and 10%, respectively. Women are also slightly more vulnerable to lose their jobs: while 94% of men had an employment to employment transition, the same transitions rate for women was 92%. Their situation in the labor market is less favorable.
- There are significant cross-country variations and EU-SILC makes it possible to make European comparisons; comparisons are made only for a short period of one year (2007-2008) and they do not have to be stable over time. What matters is both transitions, and levels of unemployment (or, in other words, both flows and stocks).

Labor market trajectories: descriptive statistics

- The analysis of transitions matrices broken down by age:
  - The differentiation by age is significant. Older (55-64) workers are twice as much less likely as young (15-35) workers to have a transition from unemployment to employment. While the transitions rate for young Europeans is 40% (that is, 40% of young unemployed find jobs within a maximum of 12 months), the same rate for the 35-54 age bracket is slightly lower (35%) and much lower for the oldest workers (19%).
  - The overall differences in keeping employment, by age, are much less marked: the transitions rate from employment to employment is 92% for those aged 15-35, 95% for those aged 35-54 and 88% for those aged 55-64.
  - Getting out of the inactive status to the employment status is strongly differentiated by age: while the transitions rate for young Europeans is 15%, for old Europeans it is only 4%.

Labor market trajectories: descriptive statistics

- Younger people declare higher transition rates to employment than older age groups, or higher than the general population. Their transitions rates from employment to unemployment are higher than any other age group, so they are more likely to lose their jobs (4% for 15-35 age group, 3% for the 35-54 age group and 2% for 55-64% age group: the rate for the youngest is twice as high as the rate for the oldest workers) but also their transitions rate from unemployment to employment are higher than any other age group. So they are also more likely to find new jobs. (Inactivity in the lowest age group includes also being in education).
- Again, as in the case of differentiation by gender, there are significant cross-country variations.

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- Descriptive statistics explored above clearly show how employment and transitions patterns differ across Europe, according to age and gender.
- We go now to the second step in which we run a logistic regression in order to assess the specific role of each determinant: binominal logits to explore the relationship between the selected socio-economic variables and transitions between non-employment (constructed as including both unemployment and inactivity) and employment.
- The analysis is focused on the 15-65 age bracket. The probability of moving between two states employment and non-employment is calculated and given in the Exp(B) columns (the last but one on the left), in all four models studied.

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- Each independent variable that includes more than two modalities is replaced by as many dummies as there are modalities.
- A reference category is selected for each variable: the reference country is the UK, the reference education level is the first stage of tertiary education (not leading directly to an advanced research qualification), the reference marital status is divorced and the reference health status is very bad (in Model 1 and Model 2 only) and the reference gender is female. It is possible to test how these factors influence the transitions of individuals.
- In the analysis, individual labor market status was approached through two variables – the basic activity status (RB210 in Personal Register, R-File) and the "most recent change in the individual's activity status" (PL180 in Personal Data, P-File).

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- The transition variable between employment and non-employment is constructed using the respondent's activity status (RB210) and his/her recent status change over the last twelve months (PL180).
- The second variable in the cross-section survey can take 12 values that are all 12 possible transitions between employment, unemployment, retirement and "other inactivity". The cross-section database provides the main individual socio-economic indicators – of we will use here such indicators as gender, age, level of education according to ISCED classification.
- Four models of transitions out of unemployment and inactivity (aggregated) are thus presented. Two classes of socio-economic variables are used: Model 1 and Model 2 include marital status and health status, Model 3 and Model 4 include only education, gender and age.

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- *Model 1.* Dependent variable: transition from "non-working" (aggregate variable of "unemployed" and "inactive") (U) to "employed/working" (E) (success – value 1) or remain "non-working" (failure – value 0). Independent variables: country, highest education level attained, marital status, self-defined health status, gender, and age.

- *Model 2.* Dependent variable: transition from „working" to „non-working" (failure – value 0) or remain as „working" (success – value 1). Independent variables: country, highest education level attained, marital status, self-defined health status, gender, age.

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- The models confirm the role of main socio-economic determinants. In particular, the role of education, and especially higher education, in transitions, has an effect on the probability of making ("positive") transitions from unemployment to employment: the more educated an individual, the more likely s/he will stay in employment or move from unemployment to employment.
- The levels of education attained have also a strong effect on maintaining employment. Strong country variations are observed, though.

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- *Based on Model 1*, we can conclude that both differentiations by gender, age, and highest educational attainment level are important.
- In general, analyzing transition from non-working to working status in the labor market (viewed as "success"), the difference between men and women is very significant: men have 53.6% higher chance to move from unemployment status to employment one (odds ratio 1.536).
- With the increase of age by one year, the probability of success drops by 6.3% (Exp(b) 0.937). The highest chance of leaving unemployment have people with the first stage of tertiary education; for lower educational attainment levels, the chances of "success" transition are considerably lower: for pre-primary education only 26.2% compared with the reference level (Exp(B) 0.262), for primary 34%, etc.The reference category is the first stage of tertiary education.

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- The reference country for European countries was the United Kingdom, and a clear-cut country variations can be observed.
- In the majority of countries, the probability of achieving success (changing status from non-working to working) is higher than in the UK; it is highest in Bulgaria (208.8% higher), followed by the Netherlands (73.6% higher), and Austria (66.7% higher).
- In some countries, such as the Czech Republic, Ireland, Lithuania, and Latvia, the probability is roughly the same as in the UK (the b-coefficient is not significantly different from zero).
- In only several countries, such as Belgium (77.5%), Germany (34.1%), Italy (68%), Slovenia (50%) and Slovakia (77.7%), the probability is lower or much lower than in the UK.
- There is no clear pattern for a cluster of new EU member states.

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- *Based on Model 2*, we can conclude that again both differentiations by gender, age, and highest educational attainment level are important.
- In general, analyzing transition from working to working status in the labor market (that is, remaining in employment throughout the year, viewed as "success"), the difference between men and women is very significant: men have 52.1% higher chance to remain in employment one (odds ratio 1.521). With the increase of age by one year, the probability of success increases by 0.5% (Exp(b) 1,005).
- The highest chance of staying in employment have people with the first stage of tertiary education; for lower educational attainment levels, the chances of "success" transition – that is, in this model, remaining in employment – are considerably lower: for pre-primary education only 37.2% compared with the reference level (Exp(B) 0.376), for primary 37.6%, etc.The reference category is, as in Model 1, the first stage of tertiary education.

Labor market trajectories: the 4 models and their interpretation

- Several reservations need to be made:
  - transitions in employment status in particular countries, or clusters of countries, need to be referred to employment and unemployment levels, major sectors of employment, age structure of employment, as well as the impact of national labor market policies or their changes in the reference year 2007 and earlier.
  - The transitions matrices are for one year only (2007/2008); they can be calculated for previous years (2005/2006 and 2006/2007) to see the consistency of patterns across time. But the three-years time span is still short from a larger comparative perspective.

Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- The second theme – intergenerational social mobility.
- The 2005 module provides data for attributes of respondents' parents during their childhood (age 14-16). The module reports the educational attainment level and the occupational status of each respondents' father and mother.
- As reported by OECD, in almost all European OECD countries there is "a statistically significant probability premium of achieving tertiary education associated with coming from a higher-educated family, while there is a probability penalty associated with growing up in a lower-educated family" (Causa and Johansson, 2009b: 18).
- What we present below is the assessment of the relative "risk ratio" (related to the "ratio of chance" or the "ratio of probability" in OECD analyses on intergenerational social mobility, see Causa and Johansson, 2009a and, Causa and Johansson, 2009b) of "inheriting" levels of educational attainment and "inheriting" occupations in transitions from one generation to another generations.

Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- Thus the paper studies risk ratios with reference to occupational and educational background of an offspring's father.
- The risk ratio shows how probable is a given attribute (here: father's education or father's occupation) to appear in offspring given that his/her father exhibits the same attribute.
- Thus we measure first the probability of falling into low education (teriary education) for those whose fathers had low education (tertiary education), to show variations across countries.
- In most of the countries studied, the correlation is strong or very strong.

Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- There are four educational intergenerational social transitions analyzed below, and two occupational intergenerational transitions. The probabilities (chances) of educational transitions studied for the following cases:
  - fathers with primary education and respondents with primary education,
  - fathers with tertiary education and respondents with primary education,
  - fathers with primary education and respondents with tertiary education,
  - fathers with tertiary education and respondents with tertiary education.

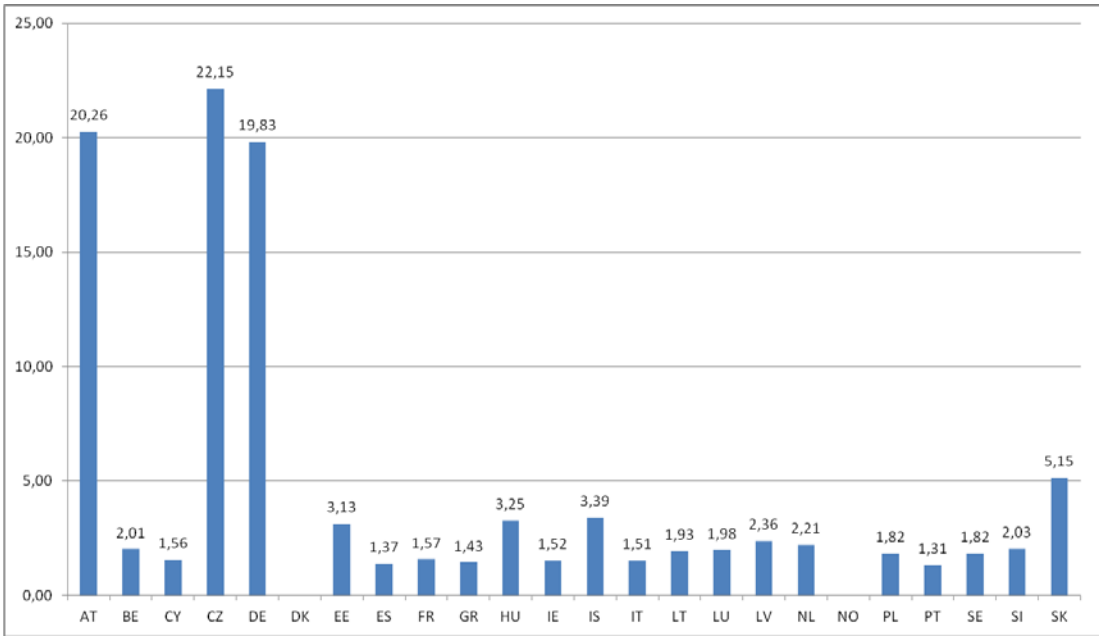
Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- And the probabilities of occupational transitions are studied only for two cases:
  - respondents with elementary occupation, in relation to their fathers' occupation (ISCO group 1 through 9)
  - respondents with ISCO group I occupation (1. legislators, senior professionals, 2. professionals, and 3. technicians and associate professionals), in relation to their fathers's occupations.

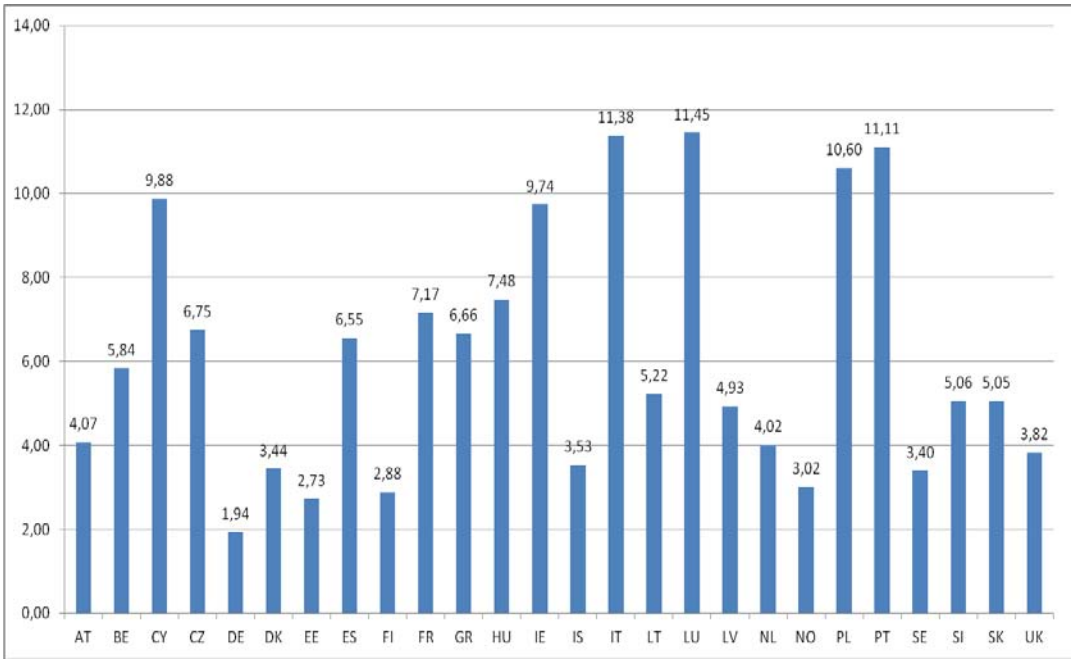
Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- There are three European countries which markedly stand out in variations across countries. These are Austria, the Czech Republic and Germany where the probability (chance) of a person whose father's education is "primary" is about 20 times higher to have primary education than a person whose father's education is higher than primary.
- The probability of "inheriting" primary education in these three countries are four times higher than the next country (Slovakia, 5.15 times). All other European countries show the probability in the range of 1.3-3.6.
- The probability of educational intergenerational downward mobility (father: tertiary education, respondent: primary education) in Europe are very low. For instance, the probability (chance) that in France a person whose father's education was tertiary will attain education level "primary" is 50 times lower than the chance of a person whose father has attainment level lower than "tertiary".

Relative risk ratio for persons with primary or less education in relations to their father's primary or less education.



Relative risk ratio for person with tertiary education in relation to their father's tertiary education



Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- Similar analyses are performed with reference to ISCO Group I occupations, in relation to fathers' occupation. The "inheritance" of occupations from two extreme groups (1 and 9) is very high throughout Europe.
- Thus on the basis of the UE SILC 2005 module we follow the transmission of education and the transmission of occupations across generations: how parental educational and occupational background is reflected in offspring's (young Europeans') educational and occupational background.
- Educational status and occupational status are strong attributes carried across generations, and they are more stable than income on the one hand, and employment/unemployment/inactivity statuses on the other.

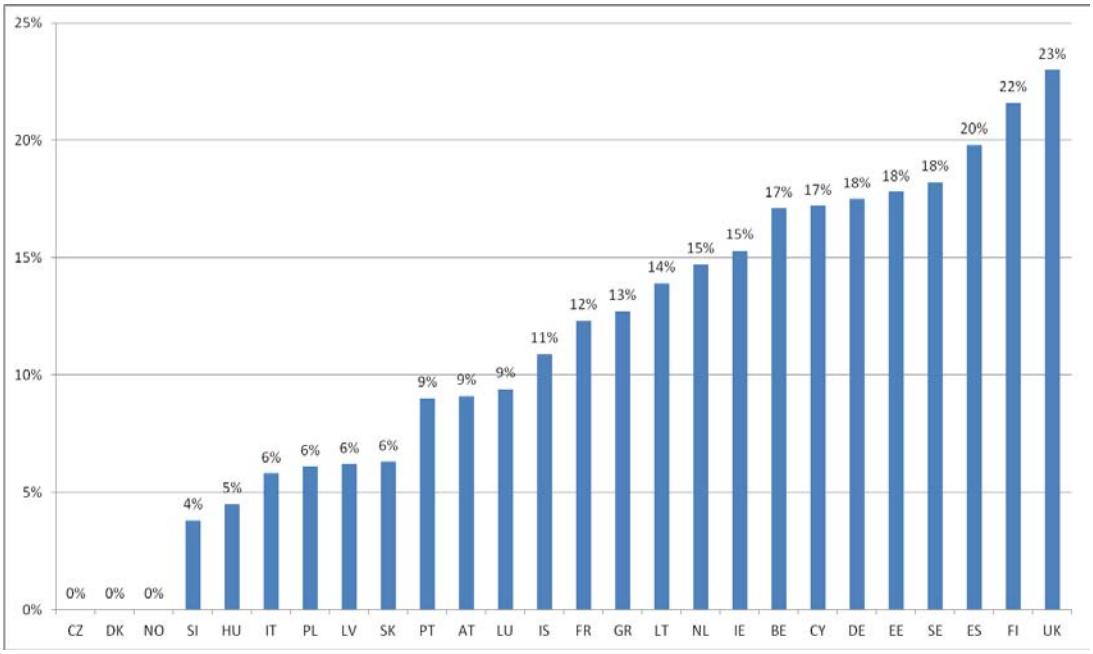
Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- Country variations in intergenerational transitions are seen in the table which presents transitions matrices across generations between educational attainment levels and occupations of parents – and educational attainment levels of offspring (respondents).
- The table (see paper) provides all possible transitions
  - between four educational attainment levels (primary or below, secondary lower and upper, post-secondary non-tertiary, and tertiary) for both respondents' parents and respondents,
  - and all possible transitions between four major groups of occupation of respondents' parents (highly skilled white-collar, low skilled white-collar, highly skilled blue-collar and low skilled blue-collar) and respondents' educational attainment levels.

Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- The paper uses ISCO-88 Basic occupational groups (nine major groups) and, following recent EUROSTUDENT IV study (2011), applies the following hierarchy of workers:
  - *highly-skilled white-collar* (1. legislators, senior professionals, 2. professionals, and 3. technicians and associate professionals)
  - *low-skilled white-collar* (4. clerks, 5. service workers and shop and market sales workers)
  - *highly skilled blue-collar* (6. skilled agriculture and fishery workers, 7. craft and related trades workers)
  - *low skilled blue-collar* (8. plant and machine operators and assemblers, 9. elementary occupations).
- Below, in following charts, we have been especially interested in transitions between extreme categories: primary or below and tertiary education levels, and highly skilled white-collar and low skilled blue-collar workers.
- The Table in Annex 1 shows all possible combinations, though, for all countries studied in the 2005 EU-SILC module.

Transition from parents' primary education to respondent's tertiary education



Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- Chart above shows the probability of respondent's achieving tertiary education given that his/her parental level of education was primary. In more mobile societies, the probability will be higher; in societies in which intergenerational mobility is lower, the probability will be lower.
- The country variations are significant, and there is a major divide between a cluster of countries which include former communist countries (Slovenia, Hungary, Poland, Latvia, and Slovakia, as well as Italy) in which the mobility is very low, and the probability is in the range of 4-6% - and Nordic countries (Finland and Sweden, data for Denmark and Norway not available), Belgium Germany, Estonia (in the Nordic tradition), Spain and the UK in which the mobility is 3-4 times higher, and the probability of a "generational leap" between generations is 3-4 times higher, in the range of 17-23%).
- Other countries are in the middle.
- The most mobile society in Europe is the UK in which the probability is 23%.
- The probability of upward intergenerational mobility through education clearly separates new EU member states from other European countries.

Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- Surprisingly, and against the conventional knowledge that the expansion of private higher education opens up larger segments of society, there is no difference between Hungary and Slovakia (where private higher education enrollments are low) and Poland (where they are highest in Europe, reaching 33% in 2010).
- One of the conclusions is that intergenerational mobility is a long-term process, and postponed (by 1-2 decades) massification of higher education in postcommunist countries is not yet reflected in empirical data. On the other hand, massified systems in the Nordic countries or in the UK are powerful mechanisms of upward social mobility.

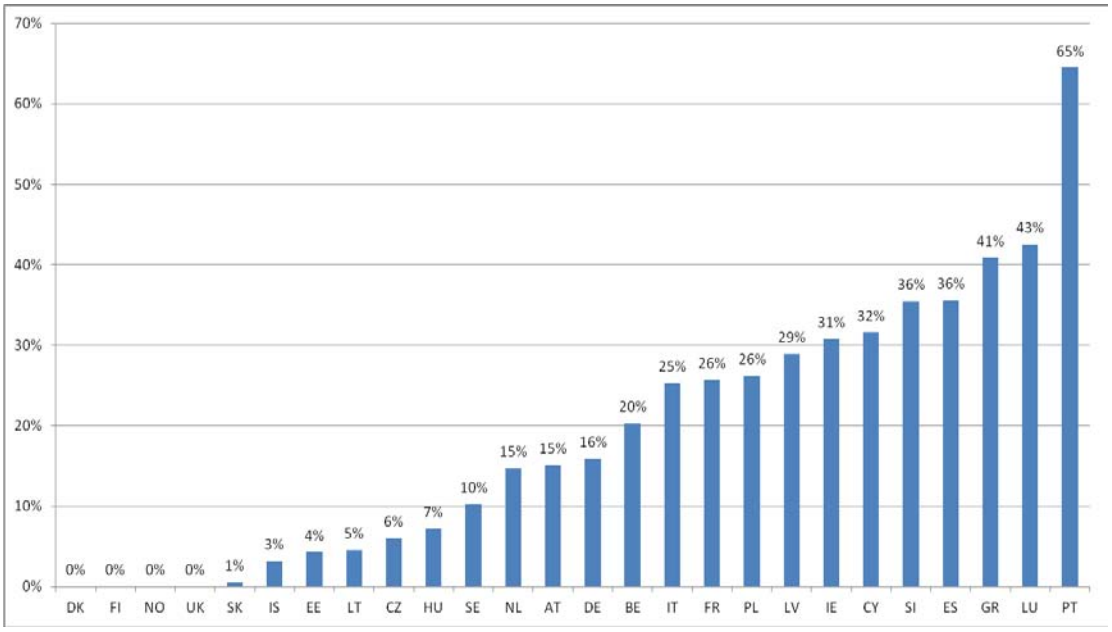
Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- Charts below explore social mobility from a different perspective: the rigidity of educational backgrounds across generations. That is, the "inheritance" of primary education across generations, and the inheritance of tertiary education across generations.
- The country variations in Europe are very significant. Overall, in all 26 European countries studied (except Slovenia), the chance of a respondent whose parents have tertiary education attainment level to have tertiary education attainment level is more than 50%.
- The range of 50-60% dominates in new EU member states (the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Latvia, Estonia, and Hungary, as well as in Denmark, Austria, Norway, Germany and Sweden).
- The top range (70-79%) is shown only for Spain, Ireland, and Belgium. From this perspective, the best chances to "inherit" higher education is in the latter countries.

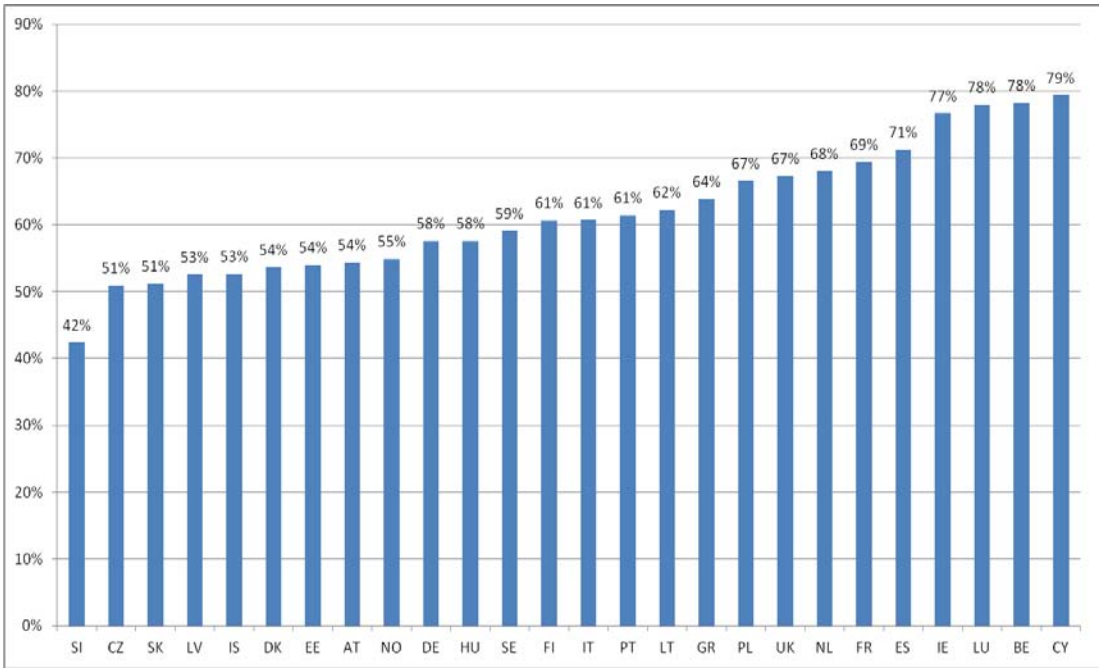
Intergenerational social mobility: standard descriptive statistics

- Chart 4 shows that the highest probability of inheriting primary education from one's parents (over 30%) are in Ireland, Slovenia, and the three Southern European countries of Spain, Greece, and Portugal (for Italy it is 25%).
- Certainly the lowest chances to inherit primary education, or, alternatively, to move upwards on an educational ladder (although not necessarily to the highest step, tertiary education) are in new EU member states (1-7% range): Slovakia, Lithuania, the Czech Republic and Hungary; for Poland it is 26%).
- It may mean that mobility in education occurs gradually and by steps: while in these countries the probability to reach tertiary education level are low, at the same time the probability to go beyond primary education are very high.

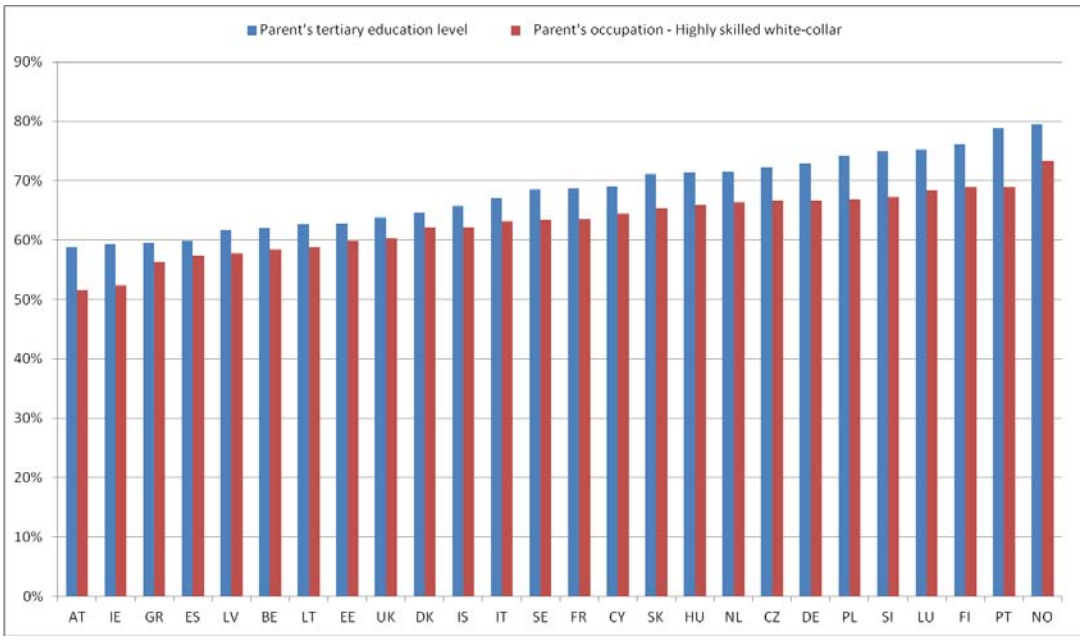
Transition from parents' primary education to respondent's primary education



Transition from parents' tertiary education to respondent's tertiary education



Comparison of transitions from parents' highly skilled white-collar occupation and tertiary education to respondent's same job position



Interpretation

- In more equitable national educational regimes, not only educational trajectories of young Europeans with different social backgrounds will be more similar – but also their labor market trajectories will be more similar.
- By contrast, in less equitable national educational regimes, both educational and labor market trajectories of young Europeans with different social backgrounds will be markedly different.
- In short, the chances of young Europeans from lower socio-economic strata to attain higher education will be closer to the chances of young Europeans from higher socio-economic strata in more equitable systems and in more equitable societies. Alternatively, higher education will be less "inherited", that is, less dependent on parents' (father's or mother's or both's) education in more equitable societies.

Interpretation

- Two questions need to be separated. One question is about labor-market trajectories of young Europeans (aged 15-34, for the purposes of the present research).
- Another question is how labor-market trajectories are determined by social circumstances, and family background in particular. In relatively more equitable (just, fair, open, mobile etc.) systems, the role of social background is less important than in relatively less equitable (just, fair, open, mobile etc.) systems.
- Consequently, EU-SILC data allow to study both the "inheritance" of education and the "inheritance" of occupations: occupations will be less "inherited", that is, less dependent on parents' (father's or mother's or both's) occupations in more equitable societies.

Directions for further research

- Two further directions: The first research direction is linking higher education with labor market trajectories through academic fields of study, with additional lifetime earnings different for different academic degrees viewed horizontally rather than vertically. The difference between following labor market trajectories by educational levels and by fields of study within the same educational level (e.g. at the bachelors and masters levels in different fields of study) is significant.
- The second research direction is a combination of insights from EU-SILC dataset and from two large-scale European datasets about European university graduates and about European professionals, as studied through surveys in twelve European countries in the 2000s, CHEERS and REFLEX.

Directions for further research

- Exploring labor market trajectories of young Europeans from an equity perspective may mean not only linking their labor market trajectories with educational trajectories.
- It may also increasingly mean linking them with fields of study taken, and consequently degrees obtained and used in the labor market.
- The initial hypothesis is that the socio-economic background of students and graduates may be positively correlated with fields of study taken: the SES quartiles of origin may be a determining factor for the choice of fields of study, from those generally least demanding and least competitive (and leading to the lowest financial rewards in the labor market) to those generally most demanding and most competitive.

Directions for further research

- The second research direction is to study of labor market trajectories of young Europeans based on EU-SILC dataset in combination with other datasets currently available about university graduates and professionals (and can be informed by theoretical underpinning of two large-scale, European comparative research projects of the 2000s – CHEERS and REXLEX, surveys of higher education graduates in Europe (CHEERS) and survey of professionals in Europe (REFLEX), with large theoretical output resulting from both projects.
- CHEERS studied about 40.000 questionnaires from graduates in 11 European countries and Japan on their socio-biographical background, study paths, transitions from higher education to employment, early career, links between study and employment, job satisfaction and their retrospective view on higher education.
- REFLEX studied demands that the modern knowledge society places on higher education graduates and the degree to which higher education equips graduates with the competencies to meet these demands, based on 70.000 surveys of higher education graduates in fifteen European countries and Japan.

Directions for further research

- There is a long way to go – but we will do it, in due time.
- Thank you for your attention!

Björn Halleröd & Hans Ekbrand

Main Activities Trajectories and Young Europeans Capabilities to Avoid Poverty and Social Exclusion in 25 European Countries

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Main Activities Trajectories and Young Europeans Capabilities to Avoid Poverty and Social Exclusion in 25 European Countries

Björn Halleröd & Hans Ekbrand
University of Gothenburg
Sweden

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Our aim is to answer 4 specific research questions:

- What types of dominating labour market related trajectories (LMRT) exists in within the EU?
- What kind of LMRT:s are specifically common among young European
- What kind of LMRT:s are especially related to poverty, social exclusion, and lack of independency among young Europeans labour market trajectories are related to poverty?
- Are there substantial differences between EU countries?

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Data, operationalization main activity trajectories

- EU-SILC longitudinal data set from 2007 and 2008 from 21 EU countries (including the non-member Norway).

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Main activities - 36 months

- Employee (full time)
- Employee (part time)
- Self-employed (full time)
- Self-employed (part time)
- Unemployed
- Retired
- Student
- Other inactive
- Compulsory military service

- Employee (full time)
- Employee (part time)
- Self-employed

- Unemployed
- Retired
- Student
- Other inactive

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Trajectories

- 7 stable trajectories
- 20 unstable trajetories
- ”Manual” reduction to 10 unstable cluster

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Table 1. Clusters of main activity trajectories in 22 European countries (including Iceland)

Trajectories	Frequency	Per cent	Per cent in poverty	Per cent of all poor
EFT	43,836	27.99	2.67	6.75
EPT	3,089	1.97	5.11	0.91
Self-employed	6,352	4.06	14.17	5.19
Unemp	1,023	0.65	46.53	2.74
Retired	36,129	23.06	12.16	25.33
Student	6,809	4.35	12.66	4.97
Inactive	8,355	3.51	18.59	5.90
Stud-Stud	5,504	3.51	18.59	5.90
EFT-us	18,790	12.00	8.07	8,74
EPT-us	1,190	0.76	6.64	0.46
EPT-Inactive	5,349	3.41	23.16	7.14
EFT-Retired	5,880	3.75	9.49	3.22
EFT-Unemp	4,910	3.13	34.32	9.72
EFTEPT-us	4,065	2.60	11.64	2.73
Inactive-us	1,935	1.24	26.10	2.91
Stud-EFT	2,728	1.74	12.57	1.98
Stud-Unemp	697	0.44	14.49	0.58
Total	156,641	100.00	11.07	100.00

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Table 1. Clusters of main activity trajectories in among young Europeans (< 26) in 21 EU.

Trajectories	Frequency	Per cent	Per cent in poverty	Per cent of all poor
EFT	3,033	13.3	3.0	3.0
EPT	78	0.3	11.5	0.3
Self-employed	110	0.5	17.3	0.6
Unemp	171	0.8	52.1	2.9
Retired	16	0.1	0.0	0.0
Student	6,641	29.2	12.4	27.1
Inactive	252	1.1	32.5	2.7
Stud-Stud	2,982	13.1	19.9	19.5
EFT-us	4,399	19.3	6.6	9.5
EPT-us	55	0.2	16.4	0.3
EPT-Inactive	680	3.0	23.7	3.0
EFT-Retired	94	0.4	9.6	0.4
EFT-Unemp	1,038	4.6	35.6	4.6
EFTEPT-us	635	2.8	15.8	2.8
Inactive-us	506	2.2	28.9	2.2
Stud-EFT	1,428	6.3	10.9	2.9
Stud-Unemp	622	2.7	15.3	2.7
Total	22,740	100.00	13.4	100.00

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Table 1. Merged clusters of main activity trajectories

Trajectories	Merged trajectories
EFT	EFT
Student	Student
Unemp	Unemployed
EPT	Empl-us
Self-employed	
EFT-us	
EPT-us	
EFTEPT-us	
Inactive-us	Inactive
Retired	
Inactive	
EPT-Inactive	
EFT-Retired	
EFT-Unempl	EFT-Unempl.
Student-Student	Sudent-Student
Stud-EFT	Stud-EFT
Stud-Unemp	Stud-Unempl.

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Table 1. Merged clusters of main activity trajectories in among young Europeans (< 26) in 21 EU.

Merged trajectories	Frequency	Per cent	Per cent in poverty	Per cent of all poor	Per cent deprived	Per cent of all deprived	Per cent not independent	Per cent of all not independent
EFT	3,033	13.3	3.0	3.0	14.5	11.6	11.6	57.0
Student	6,641	29.2	12.4	27.1	13.2	23.1	23.1	87.0
Unemployed	171	0.8	52.1	2.9	50.7	2.3	2.3	76.0
Unstable empl.	5,783	25.4	9.9	18.8	16.1	25.0	25.0	62.0
Inactive/retired	1,042	4.6	24.2	8.3	29.5	7.7	7.7	45.2
EFT-Unempl.	1,038	4.6	35.6	12.2	38.4	10.6	10.6	68.7
Sudent-Student	2,982	13.1	19.9	19.5	13.9	10.9	10.9	70.7
Stud-EFT	1,428	6.3	10.9	5.1	16.9	5.9	5.9	72.4
Stud-Unempl.	622	2.7	12.3	3.1	19.3	2.9	2.9	81.9
Total	22,740	100	13.4	100	16.78	100	100	70.5

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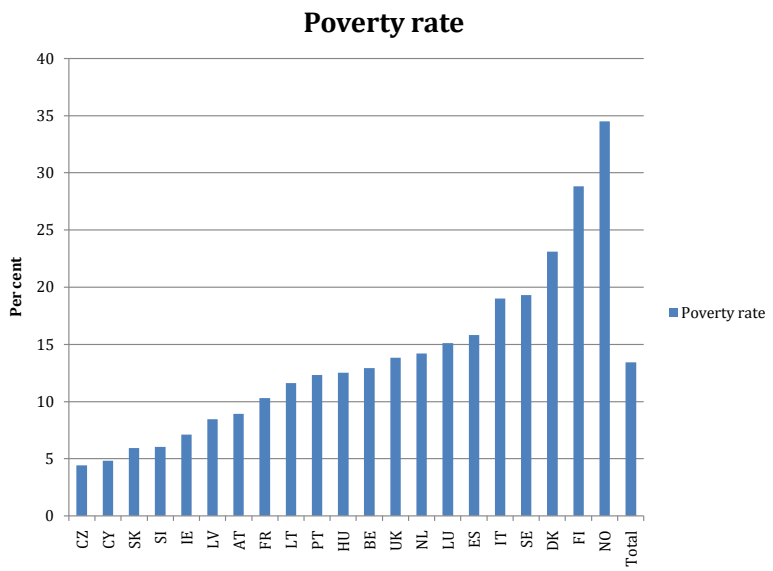

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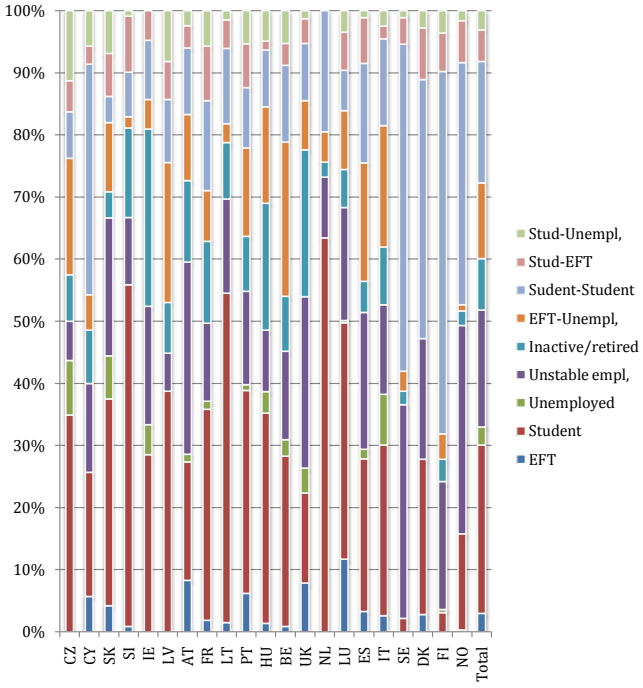

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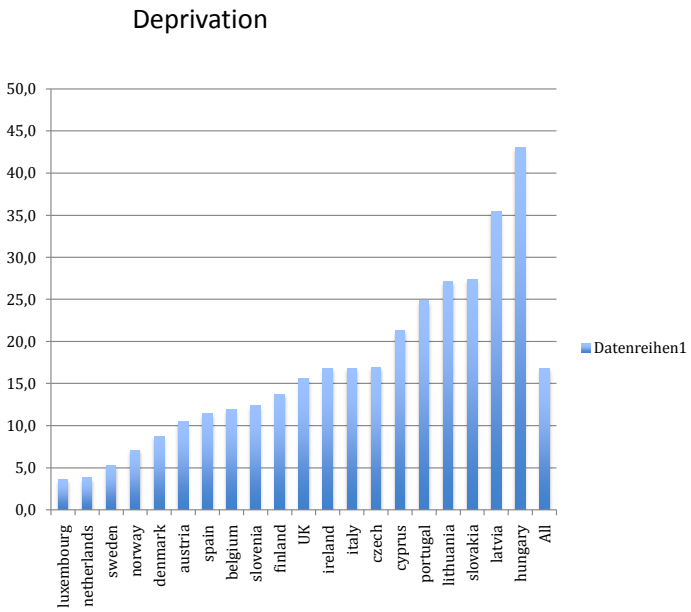

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Lack of independent living

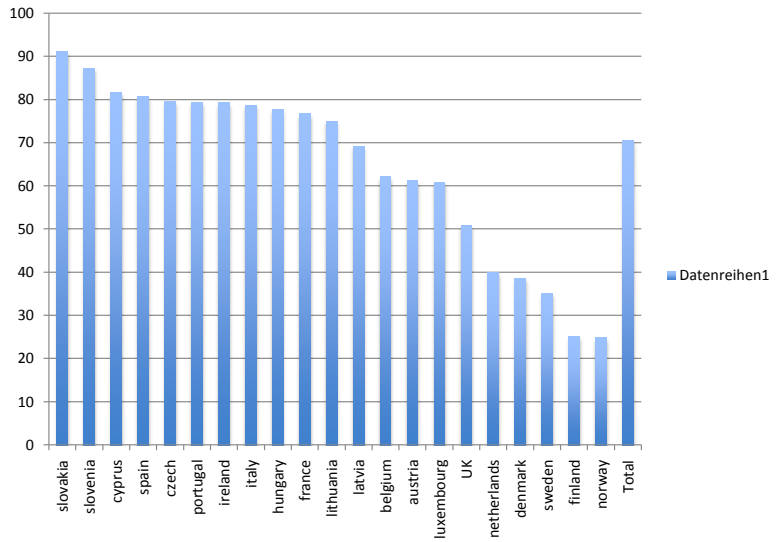

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Table 1. Mixed model – Independent living

	Null model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Fixed effects				
Constant	0,645*	0,500*	1,475*	1,674*
Ref: EFT		0	0	0
Student		0,269*	0,086*	0,086*
Unemployed		0,125*	0,086*	0,086*
Unstable empl.		0,090*	0,029*	0,029*
Inactive/retired		-0,126*	-0,129*	-0,129*
EFT-Unempl.		0,089*	0,017	0,017
Sudent-Student		0,224*	0,077*	0,077*
Stud-EFT		0,175*	0,049*	0,049*
Stud-Unempl.		0,242*	0,076*	0,076*
Sex (male)			0,091*	0,091*
Age			-0,048*	-0,048*
Primary			-0,192*	-0,192*
Lower secondary			-0,080*	-0,080*
Upper secondary			-0,037*	-0,037*
Ref: Post secondary			0	0
GDP				-0,002
Random effects				
Variance: constant	0,041*	0,041*	0,042*	0,036*
Variance: residual	0,176*	0,164*	0,015*	0,015*

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Table 1. Mixed model – Economic poverty

	Null model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Fixed effects				
Constant	0,137*	0,042*	0,873*	0,873*
Ref: EFT		0	0	0
Student		0,106*	0,120*	0,120*
Unemployed		0,479*	0,455*	0,455*
Unstable empl.		0,055*	0,060*	0,060*
Inactive		0,210*	0,180*	0,180*
EFT-Unempl.		0,311*	0,297*	0,297*
Sudent-us		0,141*	0,153*	0,153*
Stud-EFT		0,074*	0,089*	0,089*
Stud-Unempl.		0,128*	0,152*	0,152*
Independent			-0,459*	-0,459*
Independent*age			0,017*	0,017*
Sex (male)			0,001	0,001
Age			-0,016*	-0,016*
Primary			0,171*	0,171*
Lower secondary			0,065*	0,065*
Upper secondary			0,023*	0,023*
Ref: Post secondary			0	0
GDP				0,001*
Random effects				
Variance: constant	0,006*	0,006*	0,003*	0,003*
Variance: residual	0,113*	0,107*	0,104*	0,104*

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Table 1. Mixed model – Deprivation

	Null model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Fixed effects				
Constant	0,168*	0,143*	0,461*	0,461*
Ref: EFT		0	0	0
Student		-0,017*	-0,047*	-0,047*
Unemployed		0,361*	0,231*	0,231*
Unstable empl.		0,026*	0,017*	0,017*
Inactive/retired		0,138*	0,064*	0,064*
EFT-Unempl.		0,238*	0,154*	0,154*
Sudent-Student		0,019	-0,009	-0,009
Stud-EFT		0,026*	0,022	0,022
Stud-Unempl.		0,033	0,026	0,026
Poverty			0,190*	0,190*
Independent			-0,174*	-0,174*
Independent*age			0,007*	0,007*
Sex (male)			-0,008	-0,008
Age			-0,008*	-0,008*
Primary			0,222*	0,222*
Lower secondary			0,133*	0,133*
Upper secondary			0,053*	0,053*
Ref: Post secondary			0	0
GDP				-0,002
Random effects				
Variance: constant	0,010*	0,010*	0,013*	0,006*
Variance: residual	0,131*	0,128*	0,119*	0,119*

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Robert Raeside, Ronald McQuaid, Emma Hollywood & Valerie Egdell

Young people and their wellbeing - Disadvantaged young people in the UK

Employment Research Institute
The Business School

Edinburgh Napier UNIVERSITY

Workable: Young people and their wellbeing Disadvantaged young people in the UK

- **R. Raeside, R.McQuaid, E. Hollywood, V. Egdell**
  Employment Research Institute,
  Edinburgh Napier University, Edinburgh UK
  http://www.napier.ac.uk/eri

WP5 WorkAble Gothenburg meeting

1December 2011

Employment Research Institute
The Business School

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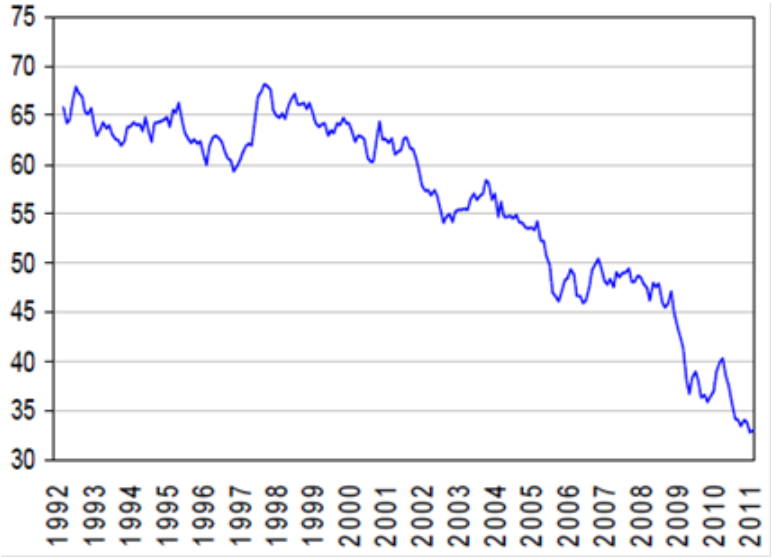
Case Studies

- **Disadvantaged young people in Scotland.**
- **Two young person orientated charities who support young people to get into and sustain employment.**

- **the current recession is the differential impact across the age groups with younger people being far more affected than any other age group.**
- **Young males particularly affected, although this may be changing (as pubic sector budget and employment reductions take effect).**

Under 18s employment rate if not in full-time education UK Source: DWP, 2011



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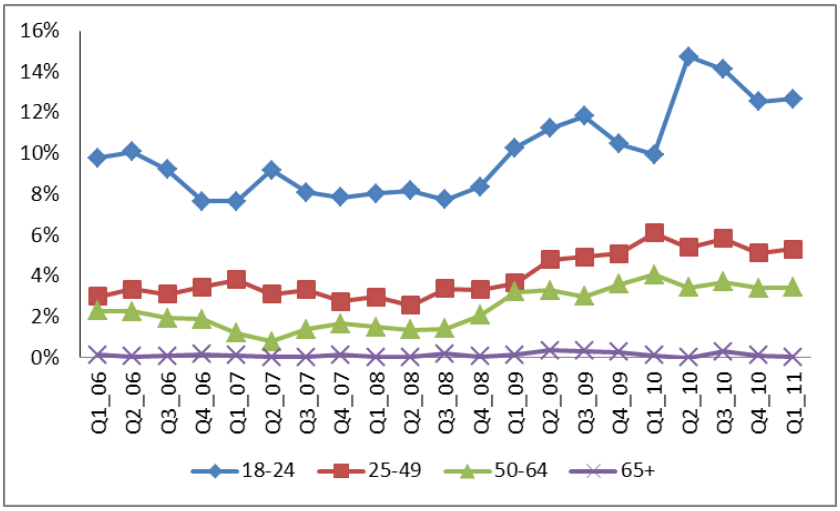
Unemployment Rate by Age, Scotland 2006-11



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Impact of economic downturn by age

- Risk of young people falling into long term unemployment, loss of work experience, income and deprivation, physical and mental heath and wellbeing damage (depression, mortality, suicide)
- Long term 'scarring' effects
- Hidden barriers facing workers and job seekers (age discrimination, lack of experience etc.)
- Links to Capabilities

5

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Impact of economic downturn by age

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- Long term 'scarring' effects
- Hidden barriers facing workers and job seekers (age discrimination, lack of experience etc.)

6

Data

- **Data and initial findings**
- The British Household Panel Survey is used and waves corresponding to H (mainly 1998) and R (mainly 2008) are investigated to determine lifestyles and variable associations with employment**.**
- In this report those aged 17 to 24 in 1998 are compared to those aged 17 to 24 in 2008 and those aged 25 to 34 in 2008
- (these age groups are for illustration as further analysis will be carried out for other age groups: 16-24, 18-24; and 16-17, 18-20, 21-24).
- Simple descriptive statistics so far

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Employment status

Table 1: Employment status (cross sectional - not matched pairs)

	17-24 yr old in 1998			17 -24 yr old in 2008			25-34 yr old in 2008		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Self-employed	2.6%	0.6%	1.6%	3.9%	0.9%	2.3%	9.5%	4.3%	6.8%
Employed	61.8%	52.4%	57.2%	52.7%	52.3%	52.5%	76.5%	67.4%	71.8%
Unemployed	9.3%	6.6%	8.0%	10.1%	6.7%	8.3%	8.5%	3.0%	5.7%
Maternity leave		0.6%	0.3%		1.3%	0.7%		3.9%	2.0%
Family care		8.1%	4.0%	0.2%	8.0%	4.3%	0.9%	15.4%	8.4%
FT studt, school	24.0%	30.8%	27.4%	31.9%	28.9%	30.3%	1.7%	3.5%	2.7%
LT sick, disabld	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	0.2%	1.5%	0.9%	2.3%	2.1%	2.2%
Gvt train Schem	0.7%	0.4%	0.6%	0.4%		0.2%			
Other	0.9%		0.5%	0.6%	0.4%	0.5%	0.6%	0.4%	0.5%
Number	537	532	1069	486	539	1025	527	564	1091

Table 2: Responses to general health questions (low values are good)

	Wave	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	P sig
GHQ: concentration	1998	1066	2.08	.587	.018	
	2008	1010	2.05	.567	.018	
GHQ: loss of sleep	1998	1066	1.85	.795	.024	
	2008	1010	1.88	.848	.027	
GHQ: playing a useful role	1998	1065	1.90	.567	.017	
	2008	1012	1.94	.624	.020	
GHQ: capable of making decisions	1998	1066	1.76	.552	.017	0.001
	2008	1012	1.86	.626	.020	
GHQ: constantly under strain	1998	1066	2.15	.807	.025	0.017
	2008	1011	2.06	.834	.026	
GHQ: problem overcoming difficulties	1998	1065	1.80	.746	.023	
	2008	1012	1.79	.788	.025	
GHQ: enjoy day-to-day activities	1998	1066	2.03	.629	.019	
	2008	1011	2.02	.643	.020	
GHQ: ability to face problems	1998	1066	1.91	.558	.017	
	2008	1012	1.90	.637	.020	
GHQ: unhappy or depressed	1998	1066	1.95	.863	.026	
	2008	1012	1.92	.856	.027	
GHQ: losing confidence	1998	1065	1.67	.760	.023	
	2008	1013	1.71	.822	.026	
GHQ: believe in self-worth	1998	1067	1.38	.645	.020	0.002
	2008	1013	1.47	.726	.023	
GHQ: general happiness	1998	1067	1.91	.630	.019	
	2008	1013	1.90	.669	.021	
Subjective wellbeing (GHQ) 1: Likert	1998	1059	10.44	5.264	.162	
	2008	1003	10.57	5.771	.182	
Subjective wellbeing (GHQ) 2: Caseness	1998	543	3.57	2.911	.125	
	2008	514	3.79	3.035	.134	

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Table 3: General health questions for those who work (low values are good)

	wave	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
GHQ: concentration	1998	608	2.03	.534	.022	
	2008	529	2.05	.524	.023	
GHQ: loss of sleep	1998	608	1.80	.736	.030	
	2008	529	1.86	.847	.037	
GHQ: playing a useful role	1998	608	1.83	.538	.022	0.008
	2008	531	1.92	.617	.027	
GHQ: capable of making decisions	1998	608	1.73	.526	.021	0.008
	2008	531	1.82	.583	.025	
GHQ: constantly under strain	1998	608	2.10	.787	.032	0.078
	2008	531	2.02	.804	.035	
GHQ: problem overcoming difficulties	1998	608	1.71	.716	.029	
	2008	531	1.71	.756	.033	
GHQ: enjoy day-to-day activities	1998	608	2.00	.587	.024	
	2008	530	2.01	.649	.028	
GHQ: ability to face problems	1998	608	1.88	.541	.022	
	2008	531	1.88	.601	.026	
GHQ: unhappy or depressed	1998	608	1.86	.786	.032	
	2008	531	1.90	.827	.036	
GHQ: losing confidence	1998	609	1.61	.708	.029	
	2008	532	1.65	.786	.034	
GHQ: believe in self-worth	1998	609	1.34	.595	.024	0.006
	2008	532	1.45	.708	.031	
GHQ: general happiness	1998	609	1.88	.597	.024	
	2008	532	1.88	.645	.028	
Subjective wellbeing (GHQ) 1: Likert	1998	605	9.81	4.688	.191	
	2008	526	10.21	5.597	.244	
Subjective wellbeing (GHQ) 2: Caseness	1998	277	3.21	2.668	.160	0.078
	2008	242	3.66	3.068	.197	

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Health

- Health - mean scores from a scale 1 = much more than usual to 4 = much less than usual.
- (Note: in later analysis the directions of the scores will be standardised, e.g. a higher score will be deemed more positive for all questions. Significance is 10% level).
- Table 2 compares the 1998 and 2008 cohorts for all17-24 year olds.
- Overall health indicators are improving (i.e. lower means), but those in 2008 seem less capable of making decisions and have lower feelings of self worth than those in 1998. However, they feel significantly less strained, although strain levels are still high.
- Table 3. For those aged 17-24 in work, in general scores have increased in 2008 indicating a slight deterioration in general health in 2008 compared to 1998.

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View of work (doing something valued)

- Table 4, it appears that: hours worked have decreased, mean monthly pay has increased (in nominal terms), satisfaction derived from work reported no significant differences

Table 4: Reported view on job (high values of the satisfaction variable are good)

	wave	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
No. of hours normally worked per week	1998	593	37.60	7.693	.316	<0.001
	2008	522	34.77	9.334	.408	
Gross rate of pay per month last payment	1998	612	868.52	791.81	32.01	<0.001
	2008	538	1115.03	692.34	29.85	
Job satisfaction: total pay	1998	603	4.86	1.491	.061	
	2008	533	4.84	1.547	.067	
Job satisfaction: security	1998	599	5.61	1.399	.057	
	2008	532	5.49	1.369	.059	
Job satisfaction: work itself	1998	602	5.38	1.294	.053	
	2008	533	5.31	1.361	.059	
Job satisfaction: hours worked	1998	602	5.30	1.294	.053	
	2008	533	5.22	1.405	.061	

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Attitudes to finance and interaction with neighbours and friends

- Value of social relations.

- Table 5 young people aged 17 to 24 years - those in 2008 are finding financial issues more difficult (1 is positive).
- For the community variables (1 is positive, i.e. Involvement). Generally less involvement with the community and neighbours and friends.
-

Table 5: Attitudes to finance and interaction with neighbours and friends (low values are good)

	wave	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Financial situation	1998	611	2.05	.876	.035	
	2008	536	2.10	.856	.037	
Change in financial position last year	1998	611	1.56	.808	.033	<0.991
	2008	534	1.76	.884	.038	
Financial expectations for year ahead	1998	598	1.58	.871	.036	<0.001
	2008	510	1.91	.956	.042	
Frequency of talking to neighbours	1998	611	2.10	1.102	.045	<0.001
	2008	538	2.49	1.266	.055	
Frequency of meeting people	1998	611	1.40	.605	.024	0.073
	2008	538	1.46	.667	.029	
Spoken to someone in past week	1998	6	1.00	.000	.000	
	2008	6	1.07	.280	.115	
Belong to neighbourhood	1998	610	2.60	.985	.040	0.065
	2008	536	2.49	.952	.041	
Local friends mean a lot	1998	610	2.61	1.000	.040	
	2008	532	2.65	.999	.043	
Advice obtainable locally	1998	610	2.79	1.190	.048	
	2008	535	2.80	1.180	.051	
Can borrow things from neighbours	1998	610	3.10	1.205	.049	0.035
	2008	534	3.24	1.156	.050	
Willing to improve neighbourhood	1998	609	2.42	.880	.036	
	2008	534	2.37	.840	.036	
Plan to stay in neighbourhood	1998	608	3.06	1.224	.050	
	2008	527	2.95	1.125	.049	
Am similar to others in neighbourhood	1998	610	3.06	1.076	.044	
	2008	528	3.06	1.094	.048	
Neighbourhood good/bad place to live	1998	606	1.30	.644	.026	
	2008	529	1.27	.646	.028	

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Not matched comparison 10 years older

- Scores of finance in the 2008 cohort is less positive perhaps due to their age.
- While job satisfaction is rated on a 7 point scale where high scores are good. Overall there seems little difference, except for slightly more job security for the older cohort

Table 6: 17 to 24 year olds in 1998 compared to 25 to 34 year olds in 2008

	17 to 24 yr olds 1998	25 to 34 yr olds 2008	
Financial situation	2.05	2.26	Low values good
Change in financial position last year	1.56	2.09	
Financial expectations for year ahead	1.58	2.11	
Job satisfaction: overall	5.42	5.38	High values good
Job satisfaction: total pay	4.86	5.02	
Job satisfaction: security	5.61	5.43	
Job satisfaction: work itself	5.38	5.43	
Job satisfaction: hours worked	5.30	5.30	
Health status over last 12 months	1.99	2.00	

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Matched pairs analysis

- People aged 16 to 24 years were followed through cohort wise to 2008 when they were aged 25 to 34 years and their job status dependent on their status in 1998 are presented in Tables 7, 8 and 9.

- of those unemployed in 1998, 25% were unemployed in 2008 compared to 6.3% of all (and 4.8% of those not unemployed in 1998)

Table 7a:

	Unemployed (1998)	Employed (1998)	FT Education (1998)
Then in 2008 % who were: Unemployed	25.5	3.7	6.0
Employed	47.3	78.1	67.3
Family care	9.1	8.6	10.4

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Table 7: Those unemployed in 1998

		Aged 16 to 24 years		
		Not unemployed in 1998	Unemployed in 1998	Total
Current economic activity (2008) Age 25 to 34 years	Self-employed	44	4	48
		6.6%	7.3%	6.7%
	Employed	484	26	510
		73.1%	47.3%	71.1%
	Unemployed	32	14	46
		4.8%	25.5%	6.4%
	Maternity leave	9	1	10
		1.4%	1.8%	1.4%
	Family care	60	5	65
		9.1%	9.1%	9.1%
	FT studt, school	15	1	16
		2.3%	1.8%	2.2%
	LT sick, disabld	14	4	18
		2.1%	7.3%	2.5%
	Other	4	0	4
		0.6%	0.0%	0.6%
Total		662	55	717

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Table 8: Those employed in 1998

		Aged 16 to 24 years		
		Not employed in 1998	employed in 1998	Total
Current economic activity (2008) Age 25 to 34 years	Self-employed	25	24	49
		7.5%	6.3%	6.8%
	Employed	211	299	510
		63.0%	78.1%	71.0%
	Unemployed	32	14	46
		9.6%	3.7%	6.4%
	Maternity leave	5	4	9
		1.5%	1.0%	1.3%
	Family care	32	33	65
		9.6%	8.6%	9.1%
	FT studt, school	15	2	17
		4.5%	0.5%	2.4%
	LT sick, disabld	13	5	18
		3.9%	1.3%	2.5%
	Other	2	2	4
		0.6%	0.5%	0.6%
Total		335	383	718

Table 9: Those in full time education in 1998

		Aged 16 to 24 years		
		Not in full time education in 1998	In full time education in 1998	Total
Current economic activity (2008) Age 25 to 34 years	Self-employed	34	15	49
		7.3%	6.0%	6.8%
	Employed	341	169	510
		73.0%	67.3%	71.0%
	Unemployed	30	15	45
		6.4%	6.0%	6.3%
	Maternity leave	5	5	10
		1.1%	2.0%	1.4%
	Family care	40	26	66
		8.6%	10.4%	9.2%
	FT studt, school	3	13	16
		0.6%	5.2%	2.2%
	LT sick, disabld	12	6	18
		2.6%	2.4%	2.5%
	Other	2	2	4
		0.4%	0.8%	0.6%
Total		467	251	718

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Modelling

- The numbers are very small
- Variables can be created to measure well-being happiness, health, job satisfaction and community involvement and to create models to ascertain how these might vary with employment.
- Factor analysis could be employed to create variables of satisfaction, well-being and community involvement. Using these as a model of change in these variables could be developed.
- A panel approach might shed light on reported well-being by tracking people over time using explanatory variables of satisfaction, employment status, community involvement and social/friendship support.

Modelling (2)

- We do not think it is going to be possible to investigate the "scaring effect" using 10 year gap BHPS to model wellbeing of those aged 17 to 24 and 11 years later compare to a model of wellbeing of those aged 25-34 years.
- Either use shorter time period for BHPS (e.g. 5 years) – with subsequent larger sample; or many of the individual factors are available from the Labour Force Survey.
- One could incorporate aggregated regional information such as unemployment rates, regional economic factors such as labour market structural measures and measures of economic change. These "external" factors could be input at a higher level and a multi-level approach taken. So well-being, capability and other individual, personal circumstances and external factors could be included.

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The potential lowest regional breakdown is:

Region of place of work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Tyne and Wear	119	1.1	2.0	2.0
	Rest of North East	135	1.2	2.3	4.3
	Greater Manchester	268	2.4	4.5	8.8
	Merseyside	86	.8	1.4	10.2
	Rest of North West	321	2.8	5.4	15.6
	South Yorkshire	152	1.3	2.6	18.1
	West Yorkshire	259	2.3	4.3	22.5
	Rest of Yorkshire and Humberside	190	1.7	3.2	25.7
	East Midlands	459	4.1	7.7	33.4
	West Midlands and Met. County	215	1.9	3.6	37.0
	Rest of West Midlands	275	2.4	4.6	41.6
	East of England	509	4.5	8.5	50.1
	Central London	186	1.7	3.1	53.3
	Inner London	137	1.2	2.3	55.6
	Outer London	248	2.2	4.2	59.7
	South East	832	7.4	14.0	73.7
	South West	544	4.8	9.1	82.8
	Wales	269	2.4	4.5	87.3
	Strathclyde	239	2.1	4.0	91.3
	Rest of Scotland	278	2.5	4.7	96.0
	Northern Ireland	238	2.1	4.0	100.0
	Total	5959	52.9	100.0	
Missing	Does not apply	5282	46.9		
	No answer	27	.2		
	Workplace outside UK	1	.0		
	Total	5310	47.1		
Total		11269	100.0		

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Points for discussion

- What is to be used as a model of well-being?
- What age bands should be used?
- How will this fit into the rest of work package 5?
- Can the "external" regional variables be identified and where can the data be sourced?
- What are the opportunities for using LFS data for the analysis at a 'European' level? (instead or as well as EU-SILC)

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Financial Capability

Scotland:

14.94% of the 18-25 year olds (2623 respondents)
11.67% of 26-35 year olds (3962)
11.67% of 36-50 year olds (7861)
8.80% of 51-60 year olds (4783)
3.65% of those over 60 years old (8074)

Although older people may be more likely to provide positive answers due to previous experiences and their expectations.

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Percentage doing poorly in financial terms

- ***Most deprived 15% of areas***:
  25.0% of the 18-25 year olds
  23.8% of 26-35 year olds
  5.0% of those over 60 years old

- ***Rest of Scotland***:
  12.5% of the 18-25 year olds
  9.7% of 26-35 year olds
  3.3% of those over 60 years old

Although older people may be more likely to provide positive answers due to previous experiences and their expectations.

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Those with no savings

Scotland:

54.97% of the 18-25 year olds (2639 respondents)
47.09% of 26-35 year olds (3972)
40.16% of 36-50 year olds (7923)
32.12% of 51-60 year olds (4829)
31.88% of those over 60 years old (8164)

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http://www.napier.ac.uk/eri/

Supported by: "Making Capabilities Work" – WORKABLE (EU 7th Framework project on youth education, training and employment)

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Implications of a Capability Approach

- ***"A person's advantage in terms of opportunities is judged to be lower than that of another if she has less capability – less real opportunity – to achieve those things that she has reason to value"*** (Sen, 2009, p. 232)
- **CA focuses on the ("substantive") freedom of people to choose what they value as opposed to narrowly focusing on utility maximization (e.g. happiness) or access to resources (such as income). The approach is concerned with what people can do rather than what they actually do. (Sen, 2009, 231).**
- **So regional labour market information should consider and seek to identify and measure what young people value and the conditions that help them to make decisions on what they value**

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Implications of a Capability Approach

- **Accordingly, for the capabilities approach, wellbeing should be assessed with reference to what people are free to be or do; for example, being able to work, to care, and to participate in the life of the community.**
- **Capabilities represent the potential to achieve ... (for example) having access to skills development opportunities, working in an environment where individuals have the opportunity to make constructive contributions and engage in social interactions, and the extent to which people of their class, gender and race are permitted to participate in work and learning**

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Diversity under a Capability Approach

- **Under a capabilities approach, inequality should not be limited to material dimensions such as a person's income or wealth, but should include things that are only partly influenced by their affluence such as the richness of family life, relationships, capacity to influence the public sphere and politics and sustainability of their lifestyles.**
- **Also it recognizes differences and diversity between people (heterogeneity), the different or multi-dimensional influences on someone's welfare and the crucial importance of autonomy and freedom of choice.**

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Implications of a Capability Approach

- ***"Evaluating capabilities rather than resources or outcomes shifts the axis of analysis to establishing and evaluating the conditions that enable individuals to take decisions based on what they have reason to value"***
  (Walker & Unterhalter, 2007, p. 3).

- **From a capabilities perspective, it is important to see unemployment in terms of impacts on wellbeing and quality of life as well as just economic penalties for the individual and a mis-aligned labour market.**

- **After controlling for loss of income, unemployed people report 'lower life evaluations' and negative effects in terms of stress and anxiety.**

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'Capability-friendly' action

A 'capability-friendly' form of public action to activate the unemployed would typically involve:

- **a discursive process to inform policy from the bottom-up;**
- **a long-term perspective, based on promoting individuals' freedom to choose the work and learning that they value; and**
- **an acknowledgement of both individual and collective responsibilities to act to promote capabilities for work and learning.**

  Bonvin & Farvaque (2007)

So regional LMI needs to ask more questions and in a different way

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Some issues

- The responsibilities of individuals
- The importance of access to actual resources
- Limitations to people's aspirations (societal, family, social network and self)

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Conclusions

- **A capabilities approach would:**
- **lead to differences in what information a local labour market information system gathers on youth employment and unemployment and how it was gathered;**
- **potentially add value to discussions of local labour market information by posing questions that are not addressed by more general employment debates;**
- **may be inter-twined with actual policies and policy making.**

- **An approach worth considering but much more work to be done?**

Erica Nordlander, Annica Brännlund & Mattias Strandh

Class, education and non-market capabilities - A longitudinal study of parental social class, education and the non-market outcomes of subjective health, voice and agency

Class, education and non-market capabilities

A longitudinal study of parental social class, education and the non-market outcomes of subjective health, voice and agency

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Objective WP5

"WP5 aims to identify and understand transitions from the educational system to the labour market among young Europeans and whether educational strategies contribute to extending their capabilities for work and social participation."

Task 5.3 – Investigating the link between living conditions and youth capabilities (UMU)

- a) Identifying clusters of objective and subjective living conditions among youths
- b) Identifying interactional characteristics of parent-youth relationships and conditions for a successful transition to adulthood
- c) Identifying the interplay of neighborhood, networks and youth characteristics for limiting or activating youth capabilities

Waiting for barn-ulf

- –Has become: Waiting for Godot……
- –What can be done using other data to create a deliverable….

Class, education and non-market capabilities

Starting point:

- The interrelation between parental social class and education
- What is known about market outcomes

- Less is known about their relaitionship with non-market capabilities….

Questions

- Are there differences in non-market capabilities between young adults from different social class backgrounds?
- Does educational attainment affect non-market capabilities?
- Can differences in non-market capabilities between young adults from different social class backgrounds be understood from differences in educational attainment?
- Is education of the same relative importance for non-market capabilities for youth from different social class backgrounds?

Data used

- Survey of Living Conditions ULF), Statistics Sweden
- Partial survey panel - longitudinal data
- Defined as: age 16 to 19 + participating 1988 to 1995 + re-interviewed eight years later (t and t+8)
- Sample: N=1058 (528 females, 530 males)

Independent variables

- Parental social class
  - Blue collar, Lower white collar, Middle white collar, Higher white collar, Self employed
  - Blue collar, other, Higher white collar
- Educational attainment
  - Compulsory or less, 2-year upper secondary, 3-year upper secondary, University

Controls: Baseline capability (t), gender, geographic area t, parental country of birth, cohabitation t+8, children t+8

The non-market capabilities

- The capability of Voice
  - Active in political discussions
- The capability of Agency
  - Ability to appeal government decisions
- The capability of health
  - Subjective health asessed as less than good

All available both at t and t+8

Table 1. Probability of different levels of education at T2 (Logistic regression, Odds Ratios)

	2-year upper secondary		3-year upper secondary		University	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Parents class 1988-1995						
Lower White Collar	0,75	0,77	0,75	0,82	2,33***	2,00***
Middle White Collar	0,50**	0,52**	0,68	0,75	3,33***	2,83***
Higher White Collar	0,15***	0,15***	0,47**	0,53**	6,61***	5,41***
Self employed	0,71	0,72	0,83	0,88	1,94***	1,78**
(Blue collar ref.)						

Table 2. OLS-regression of voice at T2

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Blue Collar	Other	Higher W Collar
Parents class 1988-1995							
Lower White Collar	0,20*	0,11	0,03	0,00			
Middle White Collar	0,36***	0,29**	0,17*	0,12			
Higher White Collar	0,52***	0,32**	0,15	0,07			
Self employed	0,21*	0,15	0,09	0,07			
(Blue collar ref.)							
Voice 88-95		0,32***	0,31***	0,31***	0,25***	0,34***	0,26***
Level of education 1996-2003							
2 year upper secondary			0,04	0,05	-0,03	0,18	-0,49
3 year upper secondary			0,20*	0,18	0,09	0,27	0,18
University			0,55***	0,51***	0,48**	0,61***	0,32
(Compulsory or less							

Table 3. Probability of agency T2 (Logistic regression, Odds Ratios)

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Blue Collar	Other	Higher W Collar
Parents class 1988-1995							
Lower White Collar	1,64**	1,60*	1,32	1,28			
Middle White Collar	2,71***	2,40***	1,89**	1.74*			
Higher White Collar	2,98***	3,01***	1,96*	1,83*			
Self employed	1,31	1,24	1,06	1,06			
(Blue collar ref.)							
Agency 88-95		3,52***	3,21***	3,15***	2,91***	2,87***	14,22***
Level of education 1996-2003							
2 year upper secondary			1,14	1,07	1,69	0,81	0,38
3 year upper secondary			1,60	1,49	2,02	1,13	1,69
University			3,56***	3,30***	5,42***	2,95***	0,89
(Compulsory or less							

Table 4. Probability of reporting self-rated health as not good T2

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Blue Collar	Other	Higher W Collar
Parents class 1988-1995							
Lower White Collar	1,10	1,17	1,33	1,34			
Middle White Collar	0,85	0,87	1,04	1,05			
Higher White Collar	1,19	1,34	1,73	1,81			
Self employed	0,88	0,91	0,99	1,00			
(Blue collar ref.)							
Health 88-95		3,40***	2,97***	2,91***	3,16*	3,44***	2,16
Level of education 1996-2003							
2 year upper secondary			0,66	0,70	0,60	0,75	1,04
3 year upper secondary			0,44**	0,47*	0,22**	0,61	0,77
University			0,34***	0,34***	0,20**	0,37*	0,65

Conclusions?

- Class background matters for the non-market capabilities of agency and voice (but not subjective health)
- The pattern fits the level of educational requirements that the class scheme is built on
- A large part of the effect of parental class on agency and voice can be understood from a class gradient in educational attainment

Conclusions?

- Education matter for the non-market capabilities of voice, agency and health
- It is here primarily university level education that matter, indicating that it might not only be a good life and human flourishing…..;)
- There are indications of education mattering more for youths with a blue collar background and less for those with a higher white collar background. positional good if non-market outcomes are taken into account (democracy,
- Are youth with higher white collar background inoculated through parental education and context, while youth with in particular blue collar background need to inoculate themselves through the education system?

Mattias Strandh

Youth unemployment, youth programs and mental health scarring in Sweden

Youth unemployment, youth programs and mental health scarring

Data – The Northern Swedish cohort

- Prospective cohort study that includes all pupils age 16 in 1981, in a medium size industrial town
- n=1083
- Re-interviewed at ages 18, 21, 30 and 42
- The attrition of the cohort has been extremely low, at age 42 93.9% (n=1006) of those alive still participating

Background

Policy recomendations and practice for youth unemployment

- Research on unemployment scarring
- Research on ALMPs
- Research on unemployment and mental health

- Young unemployed identified as at particular risk
- Young unemployed targets for youth programs

Questions that are of interest

- Does youth unemployment leave long term mental health scars?
- Is there a difference in mental health scarring between youth programs and open unemployment?
- What does the interrelationship labour market scarring and mental health scarring look like…

Central variables

Exposure:

- Months in open unemployment 18-21
- Months in youth programs 18-21

Mental health

- PPI at ages 16, 18, 21, 30, 42

Table 2. Correlations (Pearson) between unemployment exposure 18-21 and Psychological Problems Index (age 16, age 21, age 30 and age 42),

	PPI age 16	PPI age 18	PPI age 21	PPI age 30	PPI age 42
Months in open unemployment	0,03	0,05	0,21***	0,12***	0,11***
Months in youth programs	0,05	0,07*	0,11***	0,06*	0,09**

Table 3. Mixed models Psychological Problem Index (ages 16 and 21) in relation to different kinds of unemployment experiences 18-21 (repeated measures, random intercept).

	Model 1		Model 2	
	B	95% CI	B	95% CI
Exposure variables				
Months in open unemployment 18-21	0,037***	0,023-0,049	0,039***	0,025-0,054
Months in ALMP-measures 18-21	0,001	-0,005-0,008	0,002	-0,005-0,009

Table 4. Mixed models Psychological Problem Index (ages 16 and 30) in relation to different kinds of unemployment experiences 18-21 (repeated measures, random intercept).

	Model 1		Model 2	
	B	95% CI	B	95% CI
Exposure variables				
Months in open unemployment 18-21	0,021**	0,007-0,035	0,021**	0,007-0,036
Months in ALMP-measures 18-21	0,001	-0,006-0,007	-0,001	-0,008-0,006

Table 5. Mixed models Psychological Problem Index (ages 16 and 42) in relation to different kinds of unemployment experiences 18-21 (repeated measures, random intercept).

	Model 1		Model 2	
	B	95% CI	B	95% CI
Exposure variables				
Months in open unemployment 18-21	0,028**	0,009-0,046	0,028**	0,009-0,046
Months in ALMP-measures 18-21	0,010*	0,002-0,019	0,009*	0,000-0,017

Conclusions?

- There are short and long term scarring effects
- Changed set points…
- Youth programs seem to be less detrimental than open unemployment

Marion Lambert, Isabelle Marion & Josiane Vero

Activation policies and early school leavers in the light of the CA
A comparison of France, Italy, Poland and Sweden

CENTRE D'ÉTUDES ET DE RECHERCHES SUR LES QUALIFICATIONS

Activation policies and early School leavers in the light of the CA

A comparison of France, Italy, Poland and Sweden

Marion LAMBERT
Isabelle MARION
Josiane VERO

PLAN

1. ALMP through the lens of the CA
2. Early school leavers in Europe
3. Consequences of ESL to a range of later outcomes: initial investigations
4. Next steps

- Aim of ALMP :

  (1) Individuals are made more attractive to employers through training and financial incentives,

  (2) they are expected to increase their job search activity. New definition of the relationships between rights and responsibilities.

- Main objective: increase employment rate whatever the quality of employment
- Moving toward a CA would entail a number of developments :

Capability for work :

- Empowerment (opportunity aspect of freedom),
- Freedom of choice(Process aspect of freedom)

3

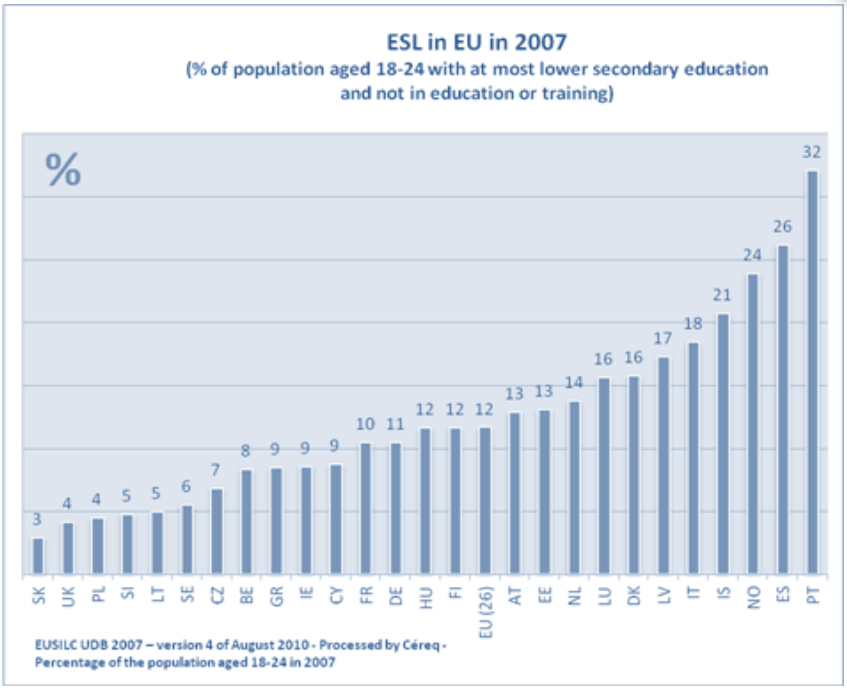
Targets in Lisbon Strategy and Europe 2020 strategy :

- 10 % ESL
- Various definition of ESL :
  - **OECD** : ESL = 20-24 years old with at most upper secondary level education
  - **EU** : ESL = 18-24 years old not in education with at most lower secondary level education or short upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2, 3c)
  - **Our definition :**

    ESL = 18-24 years old not in education with at most lower secondary level education or short upper secondary education (ISCED 0, 1, 2)

4

Nature and extent of ESL (EU-SILC cross sectional 2007)



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Consequences of ESL to a range of later outcomes : Initial investigations

- Employment rate
- Unemployment rate
- Non standard employment rate :
  - Temporary contract
  - Part-time employment
- Relationship with ALMP (LMP database)

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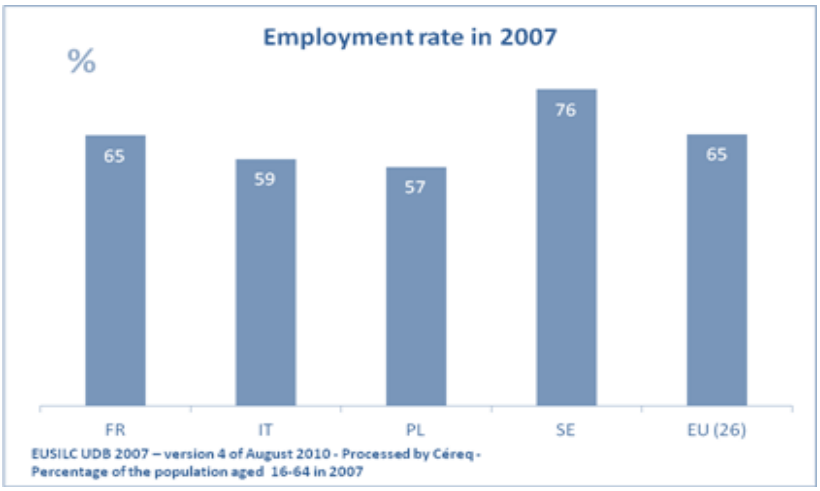
Employment rate of 16-64 year olds



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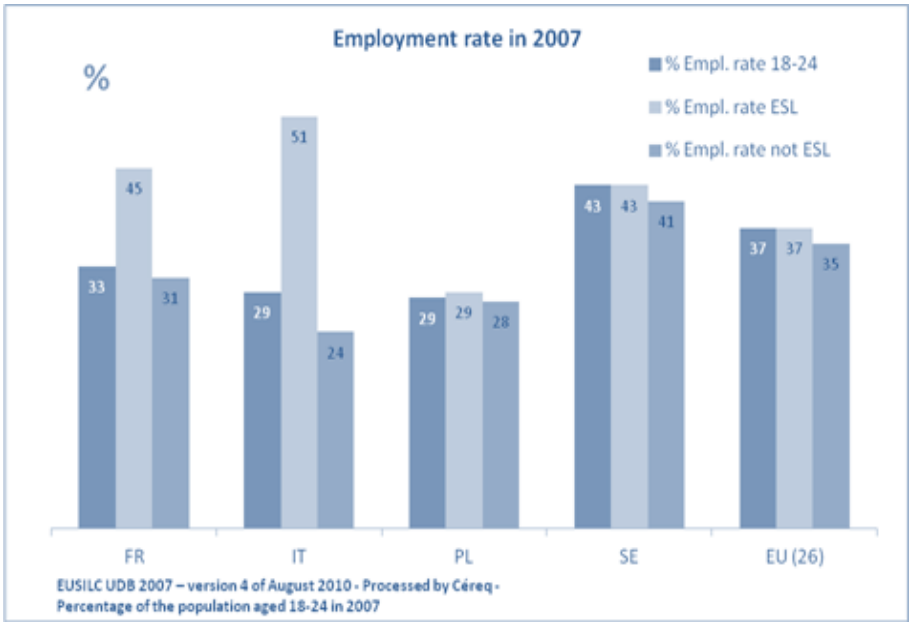
Employment rate of 18-24 year olds



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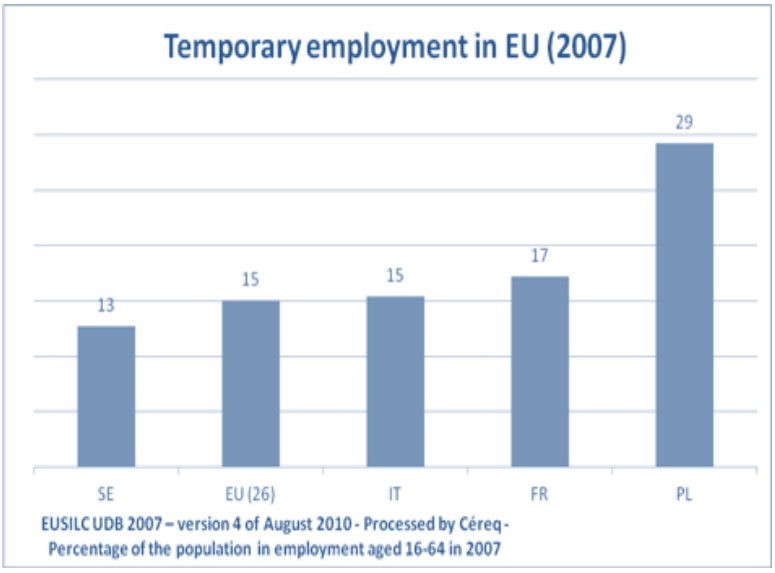
Temporary employment rate of 16-64 year olds



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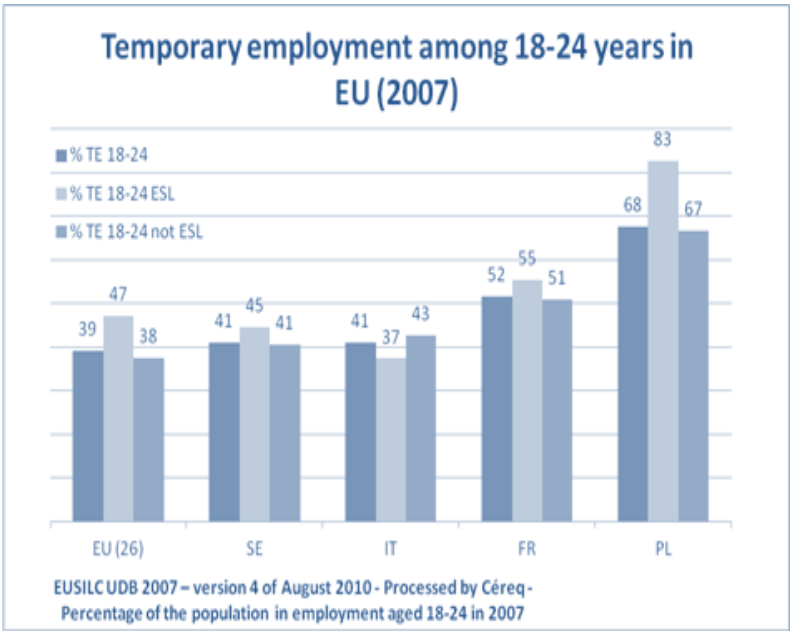

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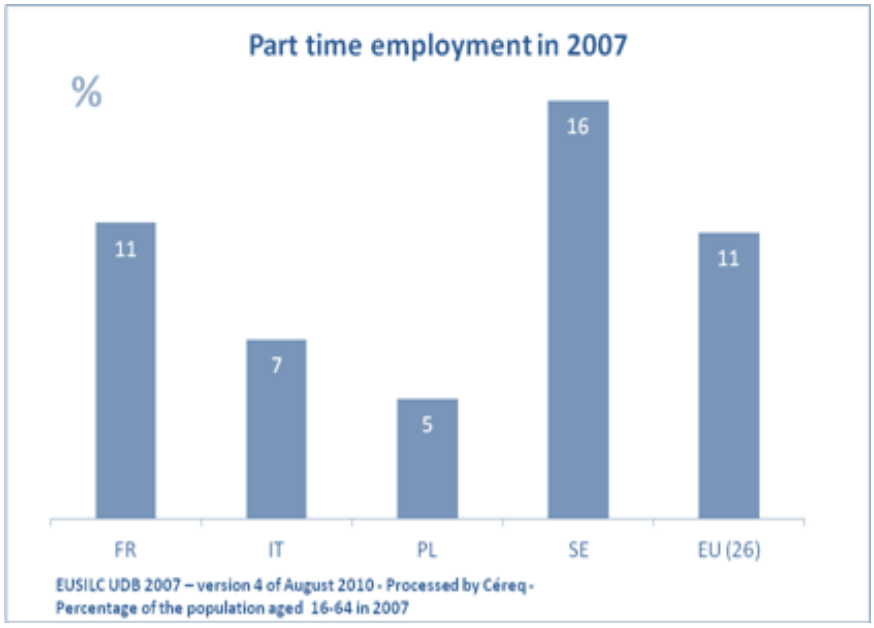
Part time employment rate of 16-64 year olds



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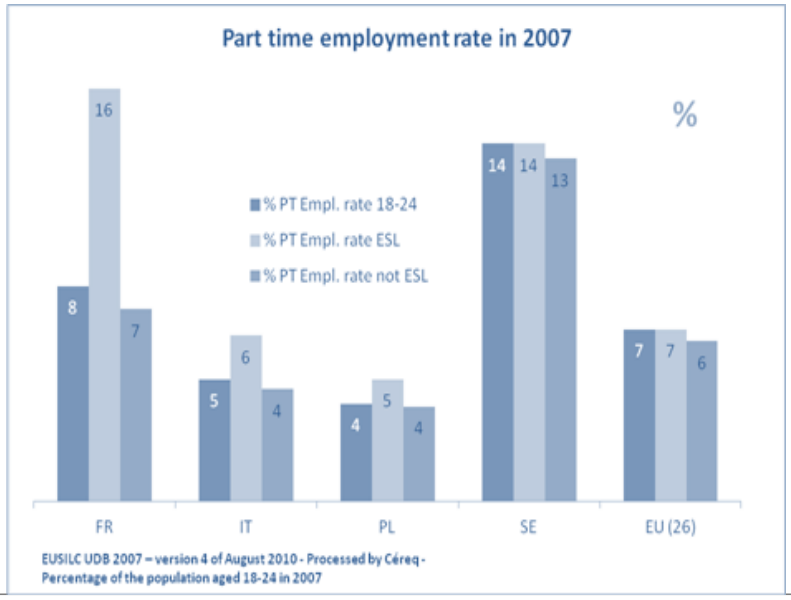
Part time employment rate of 18-24 year olds



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Reasons for working less than 30 hours (EU-SILC 2007)

	18-24	18-24 ESL	18-24 non ESL
Undergoing education or training	33,96	0,03	41,58
Personal illness or disability	1,61	6,34	0,55
Want to work more hours but cannot find a job(s) or work(s) of more hours	30,91	42,07	28,4
Do not want to work more hours	7,77	8,38	7,64
Number of hours in all job(s) are considered as a full-time job	3,63	7,23	2,82
Housework	8,9	11,41	8,33
Other reasons	13,22	24,54	10,68
Total	100	100	100

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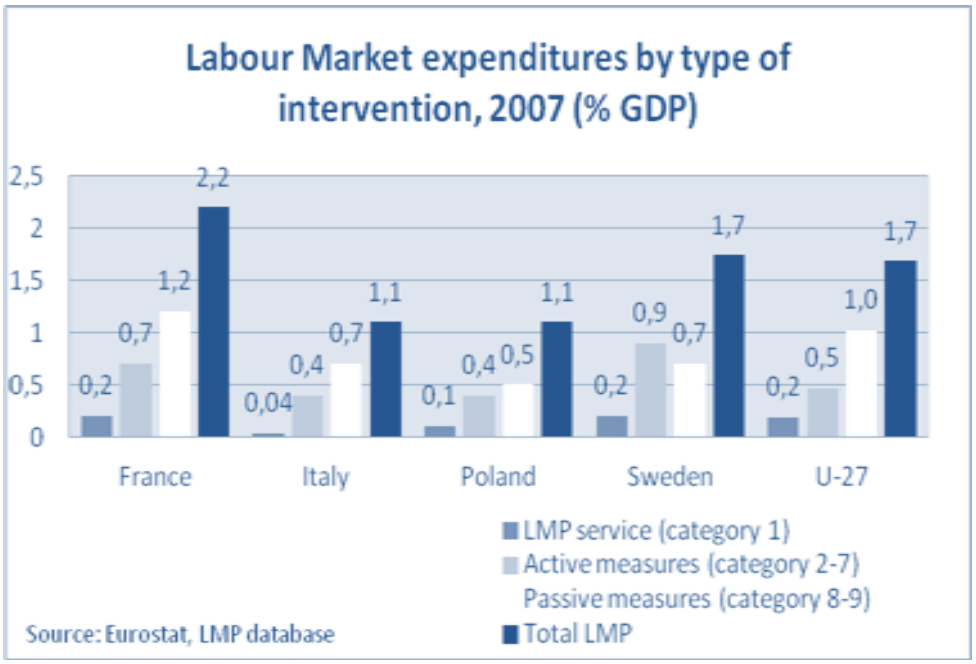
Member states differ in their Labour Market expenditures



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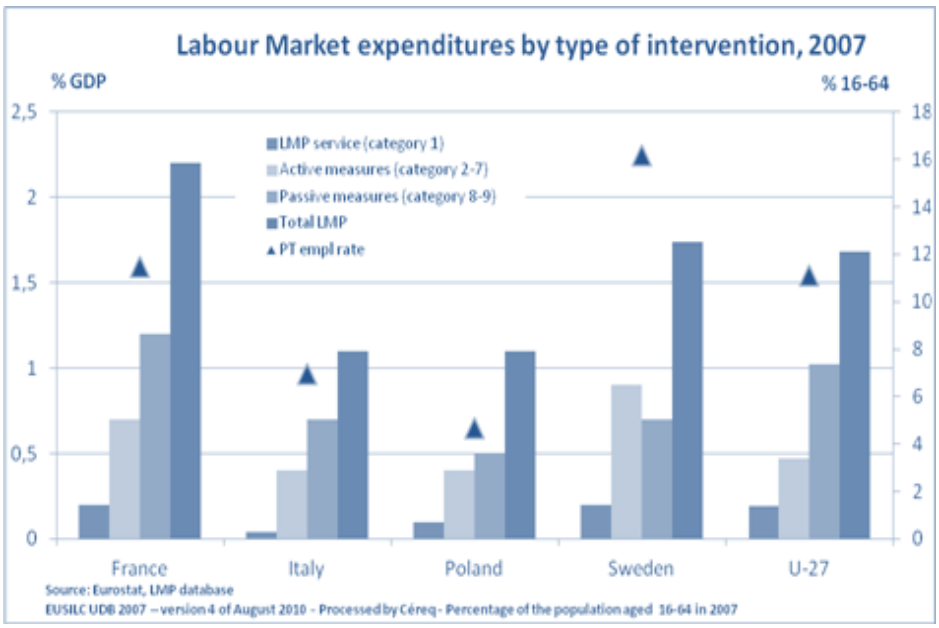
Labour Market expenditures and Part-time employment rate



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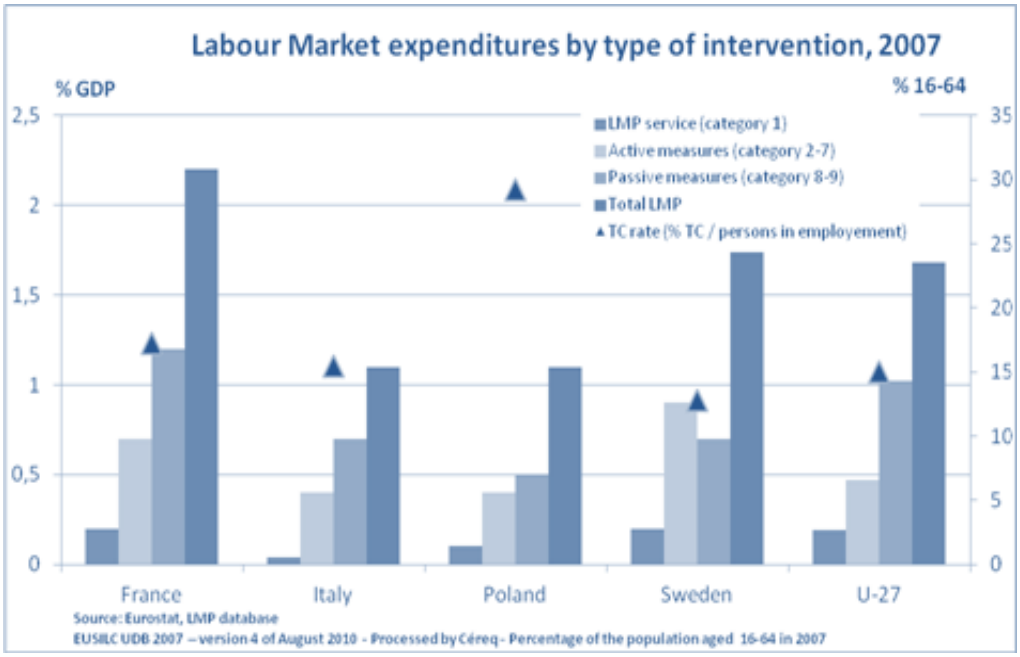
Labour Market expenditures and Temporary contract rate



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NEXT STEPS :

- Further supplement EU-SILC with contextual data (LMP database, etc)
- Multi-level Models : 3 levels
- Objective : Analysing various conversion factors

1. **Institutional conversion factors**
   - Active and passive Labour Market Policies
   - National economic situation : GDP, Unemployment rate, …
   - National education system : Dual system or not, median age of leaving school, etc…
2. **Environmental factors**
   - Household characteristics
3. **Individual characteristics**
   - ESL
   - Labour Market trajectories
   - Gender etc…

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Dependant Variable : A proxy of capability for work

Various dimensions to be analysed separately or within a multidimensional index

- The possibility to work more than 30 hours
- The possibility to work in a permanent contract
- The possibility to work full time
- The possibility not to be unemployed
- The possibility not to be working poor

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