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and
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GENERAL SUMMARY

1. *Background and Coverage*

This report contains the results of a survey of *Transition from education to working life and early labour market experience in Ireland* which was carried out by The Economic and Social Research Institute between the months of March and June 1982. The inquiry, hereafter referred to as the "Transition Survey", was sponsored and funded by the Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education of the EC Commission.

The basic objective of the survey was to provide information on and to investigate the labour market situation of *persons aged between 15 and 24 years who were resident in private households and who had left full-time education* — subsequently referred to in this report as the *target group*. The inquiry is concerned with analysing (a) the relevant demographic and social characteristics of the young people involved; (b) their position in the labour market at the time of the inquiry and (c) their previous experience in the work-force, including, in particular, the stage of transition from education to working life. The study also attempts to link these aspects, e.g., in determining the extent to which a young person's current situation *vis-a-vis* the labour market has been influenced by background social factors and/or previous experiences. The relevant information was obtained by means of personal interviews which were conducted with a sample of nearly 6,000 young persons in the above-mentioned target group.

2. *The Nature and Content of this Report*

Basically it may be said that there are three dimensions to this report, which may be described as *statistical, methodological,* and *analytical.* There is a strong statistical utility associated with this report arising from the breadth of information collected (much of it of a kind not available heretofore), and the fact that the sample size was big enough to allow the presentation of a range of fairly detailed tabulations. For this reason a significant proportion of the text of this report is essentially descriptive. The methodological aspect (described in Chapter II) derives from the fact that in a Community context the Transition Survey was experimental and was one of a number of different initiatives promoted by the EC Commission with a view to possible wider application on a Community basis. Notwithstanding its experimental nature, the survey information did provide a basis for much useful economic and social analysis, the elements of which are set out in Chapters III to IX of the report.

3. *Conceptual Problems; Analytical Approaches*

On the basis of the information available from the Transition Survey, one can identify two distinct focuses in relation to analysing the data. In the first place the survey provides basic data on the structure of the youth labour force as it was in 1982, while additionally, the retrospective information on employment histories affords the opportunity to derive some information on the dynamics of the youth labour market. With regard to the latter feature, however, there are some limitations from an analytical point of view, arising from the age-truncated nature of the survey target group. The durations over which labour force experience were observed varied greatly between respondents, depending on the age of leaving education and current age. For those groups or cohorts within the target group with significant labour force experience (for example, those who left the educational system during the first half of the 1970s) there is a preponderance of unskilled or unqualified members since the better qualified who left the educational system during these periods would have exceeded the upper age limit of 24 years by the time the Transition Survey was taken. Thus in analysing successive educational cohorts within the survey target group the position tends to become less representative the further one moves back in time. This emphasises the need for care in interpreting the Transition Survey data.

4. *The Economic climate at the time of the Transition Survey*

The Transition Survey was carried out at a time when labour market conditions were deteriorating rapidly, according as the full impact of the recession which followed the second oil price shock of 1979 began to be felt. Between 1981 and 1983 the numbers at work in the economy as a whole fell by over 20,000 (see Table 1.1 in Chapter I), all of this decline being attributable to job losses among young people.

The unemployment rate in the youth labour market rose from 14.1 per cent in 1981 to 20.1 per cent in 1983. Even though the rate for the adult[1] labour force also rose during this time (from 8.8 to 11.8 per cent), the relative deterioration was not as severe.

The deterioration in labour market conditions which began in the early 1980s has continued in recent years. By 1986 (the most recent year for which detailed labour force estimates were available at the time of writing) the numbers at work in the youth labour force had fallen to 253,000 — 75,000 less than the peak employment figure of 328,000 reached in 1979, and almost as low as the level which prevailed 25 years earlier in 1961. Unemployment among young people had risen to 87,000 by 1986 — 25½ per cent of the total labour force, even though the pressure of labour supply had eased due to the effects of increased emigration.

1. Unless otherwise indicated, the term "adult" is meant to refer to persons aged 25 years or over.

5. *Structural Aspects of the Youth Population and Labour Force*

The report contains a number of cross-sectional analyses of the youth population in terms of various socio-economic variables such as age, educational attainment, social background, employment and unemployment (Chapter III).

It is of particular interest to note, in relation to educational attainment, that up to 27 per cent of the stock of young people surveyed in the Transition Survey (over 100,000 in absolute terms) had left the educational system without any qualifications, and of these more than 25,000 were recorded as having quit the system at primary level. Nearly 40 per cent of the total (144,000) had completed the lower cycle of second-level education and a further 30 per cent (120,000) had completed both cycles at this level.

The very fact of the existence of sizeable numbers of young people with low levels of educational attainment is further exacerbated by the high levels of unemployment which prevail for such groups. The Transition Survey estimates indicate that at the time of the inquiry the unemployment rate for those young persons without any educational qualifications was as high as 28 per cent, compared with rates of 16 per cent and 10 per cent respectively for those who had completed the lower and higher cycles of second-level education.

6. *Transition from Education to the Labour Force*

The average duration of search for first regular job was 8½ weeks. However this figure cloaks considerable underlying variation since nearly 50 per cent of young people left full-time education having already secured a regular job, or else found one without having to engage in any formal job search. A further 17 per cent acquired regular employment within four weeks of commencing search. Thus up to two-thirds of the young people in question found their first employment within a month of leaving the educational system.

A notable feature of these results is the relatively high percentage for those without educational qualifications who did not have to engage in any search activity — almost 52 per cent compared with the overall average of 48 per cent. This feature is all the more notable since in terms of *average* duration of job search the figure for unqualified young people (11½ weeks) is significantly greater than the overall average quoted above. This suggests that the situation, in so far as it relates to these young people, appears to be one of extremes. On the one hand there are apparently unqualified young persons who leave the educational system to take readily available but probably unskilled employment, of a tenuous and insecure nature. On the other hand there are those who leave education prematurely without any real prospect of employment, and who obviously have to search for a very considerable time before they secure a foothold in the job market.

A further important feature of the transition from education to work concerns

the means used by young people to obtain their first regular job. The survey estimates indicate that 38 per cent of young persons secured their first employment by means of personal or family contacts. A further 21 per cent took the initiative themselves and approached firms directly by calling in person, while 18 per cent found their first job by answering or placing advertisements in newspapers. Some 8 per cent entered family businesses (mainly males) and perhaps somewhat disconcertingly, less than 5 per cent of young people cited the National Manpower Service (NMS) as their main medium for obtaining a first regular job.

More highly qualified young people tend to secure employment through more formalised channels involving advertisements in newspapers while at the lower end of the educational spectrum unqualified young people tend, for the most part, to use informal or personal means. Over three-quarters of young people without qualifications found their first job by informal means or by direct approaches to employers.

It should be borne in mind, however, that the above figures may not fully reflect the extent to which different approaches were used in *seeking work*. A respondent's recall perception may be that a job was acquired by a particular means, but the search process may have involved several different methods which may have indirectly influenced the final event. One cannot exclude the possibility for example that the NMS through its placement or counselling activities or, for example, school guidance services, may have indirectly contributed to the acquisition of employment. This contention is supported by the other studies in which the relevant questions are framed in terms of obtaining information on job search (as distinct from job acquisition); in these circumstances the NMS emerges as a more important alternative.

In regard to *geographical mobility at the point of transition,* it appears that the take-up of a first regular job involves a change of residence in less than 10 per cent of cases. The proportion for girls, at 11 per cent, was somewhat higher than for boys which was just over 8 per cent. The estimates suggest that such mobility is closely related to the level of educational attainment. Only some 5 per cent of those who left school prior to or at the lower cycle of second-level education changed residence to take up a first job; the corresponding proportion was over 14 per cent for young people who left school at Leaving Certificate standard and it was over one-third for those who acquired third-level qualifications. This can be taken to be indicative of the fact that the attainment of higher qualifications generally conveys a wider perspective on life and a greater sense of confidence which enables young people to be more mobile in taking up their first employment. Further relevant factors here are that many of the job opportunities available to young persons with better educational qualifications tend to be concentrated in specific urban locations and are obtained through centralised

or national recruitment procedures organised by the public sector, semi-state agencies and indeed some of the larger private companies.

The analyses of transitional residential movement contained in Chapter IV include a multiple regression routine designed to identify the impact of a wide range of explanatory variables (see Table 4.7). This procedure confirms the relationship described above (e.g., the effects of educational attainment) and highlights some other interesting aspects. Age at leaving education and the earnings of first jobs are shown to be significant factors influencing movement for males, but not for females. On the other hand location of residence on leaving school appears to be a very significant entity in the case of girls. Aside altogether from the other influences treated, the degree of residential movement associated with the take-up of first jobs by girls in provincial centres appears to be substantially higher than in the Dublin region a feature which does not seem to apply to young males.

7. *Early Employment Experience*

Chapter V of the study indicates that nearly 30 per cent of the young people in the target group procured their first substantial foothold in the job market in the manufacturing sector; a further 27 per cent gained employment in the commerce/finance area and 18 per cent in what were classified as "other private services". The proportions relating to the public sector and to agriculture and the building and construction areas were all in the 7 to 11 per cent range.

Turning to the question of educational attainment and sector of first job it is of interest to note that nearly 40 per cent of unqualified school leavers took up employment in the industrial sector and some 25 per cent in the commerce, etc., area. Persons who leave the educational system with second-level qualifications tend to enter a wide variety of sectors, a notable feature here being the importance of the commercial and financial sphere which accounted for about 30 per cent of the intake at this level. The public sector assumes particular importance for those who complete the higher cycle at this level and for those who acquire third- level qualifications. A sizeable proportion of unqualified male school leavers find their first regular job in the agricultural sector — in the absolute terms as many as 10,000, or about 1 in 5 of the overall total. This is a substantial number when on considers that the agricultural sector does not constitute a sizeable entity in the context of the youth labour market as a whole. It also raises serious questions about the adequacy of the skill level in this sector.

The figures just quoted need to be interpreted in the context of the kinds of job changes which take place during the initial stages of labour market experience. The survey data indicate that during this phase substantial intersectoral movements take place which follow fairly clearly identifiable patterns. A "flow" analysis involving current and first regular jobs (Table 5.5) shows that many

of those who take up their first employment in the broad services sphere subsequently move on to find work in other sectors, particularly in industry and in the Public sector. The evidence here points to a tendency for some young people initially to take up less secure forms of employment before moving on to more permanent work in other areas which offer better longer-term prospects. These patterns may however have changed significantly in recent years. The greater uncertainty which now pervades the labour market scene may have caused the overall level of flows to diminish; furthermore, the retrenchment in Public Service recruitment would have had the effect of reducing the flows into that sector.

An important aspect of early labour force experience covered in the Transition Survey concerned the reasons why young people leave their first regular job. The survey estimates indicate that over the retrospective period covered by the inquiry a surprisingly small proportion of the young people involved, 25 per cent, left this employment as a result of "involuntary" job loss. The remaining 75 per cent of job separations involved a wide variety of reasons either because the young people in question did not like their first employment or because they left to get a better job, or they quit for "domestic reasons" (which applied mainly to girls) or for other unspecified purposes. When this phenomenon is considered in the context of the structural factors referred to earlier which underpin some of the differences between youth and adult unemployment rates, one is indeed led to the view that a significant proportion of measured youth unemployment is not associated with job finding difficulties. In this sense therefore the Transition Survey results (in so far as they refer to 1982 and earlier years) appear to support the "turnover hypothesis" which embodies the view that much youth unemployment is attributable to a natural "settling down" period which is characterised by intermittent brief periods of unemployment as young people seek an appropriate niche in the job market. These results thus run counter to the views on the pattern of youth job separations expressed in the 1984 OECD report *The Nature of Youth Employment — am Analysis for Policymakers*". In summarising the debate on key aspects of youth employment and unemployment, that report concluded that "most youth separations were involuntary, reflecting the fact that youth shoulders a major part of the burden and adjustment to economic change". It must be borne in mind however in interpreting the above mentioned Transition Survey results, that the position may have changed significantly since the inquiry was taken in 1982. The deteriorating labour market conditions may nowadays restrain young people from leaving a job once they find one.

8. *Training*

The Transition Survey involved a comprehensive attempt to assess *the degree of training in the youth labour market* (Chapter VI). This extended not only to involvement in special training courses or schemes, but also in more informal "in-firm" training acquired on the job. The latter gave rise to some problems of definition as clearly the concept cannot be precisely articulated. Basically the approach adopted in this case was to consider as training any "on-the-job" initiative which conferred a tradable skill on the participant.

On the basis of this definition the Survey estimates showed that nearly 220,000 or well over one half of the total survey target group of 384,000 had not received any training. Just under a quarter (91,000) were recorded as having completed a training programme, some 14 per cent (54,000) indicated that they were actually in training, while a small but significant number, 21,000 or 6 per cent, had commenced a training programme but had not completed it.

The educational profile of those who had actually completed training programmes is of particular interest. The data show that less than 13 per cent of those who had completed training programmes were unqualified educationally, even though such persons accounted for some 27 per cent of the target group as a whole. Roughly equal proportions of those trained (above 40 per cent in each case) had completed the lower and higher cycles of second-level education. The position is noticeably different for males and females. Most of the boys who were trained had left education at the lower cycle of second-level (reflecting to some extent the influence of apprenticeship) and over 60 per cent of trained girls were of Leaving Certificate standard.

The results also reveal serious imbalances in the structure of female training provision. Even though the overall extent of female training appears to be more or less on a par with that provided for boys, closer inspection indicates that a very large part of it consists of office skills or clerical training. In fact very little training of any description is provided to girls in other skill areas. To quantify the position, of the 50,000 girls who had completed training programmes, less than 14,000 had participated in schemes which involved activities other than office skills. The latter figure represents 7½ per cent of the overall female target group, compared with a corresponding proportion of 19 per cent for young males. This female training deficiency is essentially an extension of a similar technical and scientific deficiency which exists in second-level education — an issue which has been amply illustrated in other recent work, notably that of Hannan *et al.* (1983).

The study also assesses the influence of training programmes on labour market performance. This is done in a somewhat rudimentary fashion by compiling unemployment rates for those in the labour force who had completed training programmes and comparing these with corresponding rates for the rest of the

labour force (other than those who were actually in training at the time of the survey). One might summarise the results by stating that training appears to confer the greatest advantage on those with low standards of educational attainment.

9. *Aggregate Labour Force Experience*

Most of the analyses presented in this report are based on observing different aspects of the youth population in relation to a point in time, i.e., the Spring and early Summer of 1982. However the causative factors affecting employment and unemployment at one time may reflect transient labour market influences. It can thus be argued that a more comprehensives representation is obtained if, in addition to assessing current circumstances, *an individual's total or cumulative past labour force experience is taken into account.* Such analyses are given in Chapter VII.

The data are presented in terms of the proportions of time which young people actually spend in different states, i.e., employed, unemployed or inactive. For the most part the analyses relate to assessing the aggregate duration of unemployment taken as a percentage of total time spent in the labour force, according to different socio-economic headings.

It is of particular interest to analyse cumulative labour market experience in terms of the economic status of the respondents at the time the survey was undertaken. Those who were actually at work at the time of the inquiry had, on average, spent more than 80 per cent of their post-school experience in employment, some 5½ per cent in unemployment and about 7 per cent in activities outside the labour force. Those who were unemployed having lost a job had spent 58 per cent of the corresponding period at work, 24 per cent in unemployment and as much as 18 per cent in economically inactive pursuits. For those who were classified as seeking their first regular job at the time the Transition Survey was taken the average proportion of post-school time engaged in activities outside the labour force was as high as 39 per cent, marginally higher than the proportion for the duration spent seeking first regular employment.

There are a number of aspects which stand out in relation to these results. In the first place it is clear that there is a significant degree of "concentration of unemployment" in the youth labour market in so far as a sizeable proportion of the total volume of unemployment is attributable to a relatively small number of young people in the target group covered. If one considers the totality of previous unemployment accumulated at the time of the Transition Survey (measured in weeks) it can be shown that those who were then unemployed accounted for 55 per cent of this cumulative total, even though they comprised less than 10 per cent of the overall group covered by the inquiry. A further point of relevance concerns the relatively high proportion of time spent outside the labour force, particularly by the unemployed. This is partly attributable to the

fact that young people tend to move in and out of the labour market (for reasons connected with the pursuit of further education, domestic or family responsibilities, etc.) but it may also be due to "discouragement" as young people abandon job search in the face of continued failure to find employment.

10. *Earnings*

The final series of analyses contained in this report are concerned with *the net weekly earnings of young employees* (Chapter VII). While this chapter contains some summary tables which contain basic data on average levels of net earnings, it must be recognised that wages are subject to many parallel influences which renders it necessary to formulate a process of assessment which jointly embraces as many relevant aspects as possible. With this objective in view multiple regressions were undertaken which were designed to identify the impact on earnings of various factors such as sex, level of education, training, occupation, geographical location of job etc. There are two different kinds of analyses involved. The first concerns the net earnings which were earned by the respondents at the commencement of their first regular job, while the second exercise attempts to evaluate the impact of different factors on current (i.e. 1982) earnings for those in employment when the Transition Survey was taken. For the purposes of the first mentioned analysis it was necessary to adjust the earnings data to a constant price basis.

With regard to the net earnings associated with first regular employment, among the features analysed it is hardly surprising that educational attainment emerges as a factor of considerable importance. While the overall effect on net wages does not appear to be very substantial for those who completed the lower cycle of second-level education (i.e. the Intermediate or Group Certificates), the results indicate that considerable financial benefit accrues to those who attained Leaving Certificate standard.

The results relating to cohort (year of leaving full-time education) are of particular interest. These suggest that, aside from the influence of other factors, real net earnings for first regular jobs in the labour market diminished progressively year by year over the period covered by the survey. The estimated total decrease in net weekly pay attributable to this time or trend effect is found to be of the order of £16 between 1976 and 1981. It is necessary, however, to sound a note of caution here since the details of some first jobs refer back as far as the early 1970s and inaccuracies could have arisen due to recall or memory effects. Nevertheless the size and consistency of the observed impact is surprising and it calls into question claims that initial youth wages have been excessive, at least from the employee's perspective.

Turning to the question of current (1982) net earnings, some additional features are considered. Obviously, the time spent in the labour force is a factor which

had to be taken into account; the range of explanatory variables has been extended to cover the effects of both education and training, and a variable designed to assess the impact of the previous degree of unemployment on current earnings has also been included.

The results show, not surprisingly, that duration of labour force experience has a highly significant effect in terms of augmenting net take home pay. The results for the educational/training variables are interesting, not so much because of the strong influence of education *per se* (not unexpected since this was very much in evidence in the previously mentioned regression) but because of the additional significant impact on earnings of the acquisition of training, particularly for those with low levels of educational attainment.

The results also indicate that training appears to be more financially advantageous for boys at all levels of educational attainment. On the other hand, training does not appear to confer any substantial benefit on girls who have already attained Leaving Certificate standard. This may well be attributable to the manner in which training provision has been allocated. For girls manpower support has tended to be directed heavily towards those who are already well equipped educationally. One interpretation which can, therefore, be put on the Survey results is that the female youth labour market involves an oversupply of persons with office related skills, with the result that there is little inducement to employers to offer more in the way of financial reward to job seekers with this kind of training.

The results indicate a significant gender effect in relation to current earnings, which appears to be favourable to young males. The relevant coefficient (highly significant) indicates a net weekly earnings differential of almost £7 per week. This suggests that sex is still a substantial influence affecting earnings despite the provisions which have been introduced over the years designed to equalise the position of males and females in the labour market.

The variable reflecting the degree of previous unemployment is statistically significant for both males and females and yielded, as one would expect, negative coefficients. The results suggest that, leaving all other influences aside, for every single percentage point by which the cumulative incidence of previous unemployment[2] is increased, the current net weekly wage tends to be reduced by an amount in excess of £1.

2. The cumulative time spent unemployed (excluding duration of search for first regular job) taken as a proportion of total time to date in the labour force.

INTRODUCTION

Background and Coverage

This report contains the results of a survey of *Transition from education to working life and early labour market experience in Ireland* which was carried out by The Economic and Social Research Institute between the months of March and June 1982. The inquiry was sponsored and funded by the Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs and Education of the EC Commission. Detailed results from this inquiry have already been made available in an earlier report submitted to the EC Commission in October 1983.[3] The present study, while covering some of the ground already included in that report, includes additional features (e.g., analyses of earnings) and places a much greater emphasis on aspects of national importance.

The basic objective of the survey, hereafter referred to as the "Transition Survey", was to provide information on and to investigate the labour market situation of *persons aged between 15 and 24 years who were resident in private households and who had left full-time education* — subsequently referred to in this report as the *target group*. The inquiry was concerned with analysing (a) the relevant demographic and social characteristics of the young people involved; (b) their current position in the labour market (i.e., as of Spring 1982) and (c) their previous experience in the work force, including, in particular, the stage of transition from education to working life. The study also attempts to link these aspects, e.g., in determining the extent to which a young person's current labour market situation has been influenced by background social factors and/or previous experiences.

The relevant information was obtained by means of personal interviews which were conducted with nearly 6,000 young persons in the above-mentioned target group. Basically the information collected in respect of respondents related to demographic aspects (age, sex, etc.), education and training, social background, the current position with regard to employment/unemployment and details of previous periods of work and job search. The sample used was of a sufficient size to allow the compilation of reasonably accurate grossed-up national totals as long as the level of classificatory detail involved is not excessive. A number of the tables presented in the report are, therefore, of this kind and relate to an estimated national total of 384,000 individuals, this representing the number

3. *Survey of Youth Employment and Transition from Education to Working Life — Final Report to the EEC Commission* by J.J. Sexton, B.J. Whelan and M.M. Dillon, ESRI, 1983.

of young persons who, in 1982, were in the target group as defined. This aggregate represents some 63 per cent of the then total youth population of 607,000.

The Nature and Content of this Report

Basically it may be said that there are three strands to this report, which may be described as *statistical, methodological,* and *analytical.* There is a strong statistical utility associated with this report arising from the breadth of information collected (much of it of a kind not available heretofore), and the fact that the sample size (nearly 6,000) was big enough to allow the presentation of a range of fairly detailed tabulations. For this reason a significant proportion of the text in the subsequent chapters of this report is essentially descriptive. While this may appear somewhat turgid it was considered necessary in order to highlight the salient features of the statistics involved. The reader should be cautioned, however, that some of these tables, particularly those in the appendices, have perhaps been presented in somewhat more detail than the sample size warrants. This has been done in order to provide as much information as possible, particularly in areas where the data are new and not available elsewhere. The methodological aspect derives from the fact that in a Community context the Transition Survey was experimental and was one of a number of different initiatives promoted by the EEC Commission with a view to possible wider application on a Community basis. Notwithstanding its experimental nature, the survey information did provide a basis for much useful economic and social analysis, the elements of which are set out in Chapters III to IX of the Report.

The content of this Report is structured as follows. Chapter I reviews the youth employment scene in an overall labour market setting and discusses some relevant research issues. Chapter II describes the survey methodology, explains some associated conceptual problems and sets out the analytical approaches used. Chapter III deals with the social and economic structure of the youth population, drawing on information from the Transition Survey itself and from other sources such as Censuses of Population and Labour Force Surveys. The stage of actual transition from full-time education to working life is dealt with in Chapter IV while Chapter V contains various analyses of early labour force experience covering such issues as the nature and duration of first job held, the reasons for leaving this job, intersectoral employment movements during this period, etc. Chapter VI deals with youth vocational training, describing its nature and extent and attempting to assess its effects. Chapter VII analyses what is termed "aggregate labour force experience"; this extends the concept of measuring labour force performance to cover a respondent's entire experience in the labour market over the period since leaving full-time education. Earnings in the youth labour market are analysed in Chapter VIII, with particular emphasis being placed

on assessing the impact of factors such as educational attainment, training, and duration of employment. Finally, Chapter IX considers a number of aspects of the Survey results which are thought to be of particular interest in a policy context.

The Appendices contain an extended series of statistical tabulations, not all of which have been analysed in detail in the text, but which provide information across a wide spectrum of aspects relating to the youth population and labour force.

Chapter I

THE GENERAL LABOUR MARKET CONTEXT: RESEARCH ISSUES

1. *YOUTH IN AN OVERALL DEMOGRAPHIC AND LABOUR MARKET CONTEXT*

Before we proceed to consider the survey results in detail it is appropriate first of all to review the position of youth in the overall context of the Irish population and labour market. In doing this it is appropriate to take into account not only the situation at or prior to the time of the Survey (1982) but also to consider subsequent developments in the labour market in view of the significant changes which have occurred in recent years. It is true that the Survey material is now some years old. However it should also be remembered that this Report contains analyses which are, for the most part, structural or cross-sectional in nature. Thus many of the relationships identified can be deemed to be still valid, or at least valid to the extent that they can be subjected to reasonable interpretation, as long as the changes which have occurred in the intervening period are borne in mind. This aspect is referred to at various points in the subsequent chapters, particularly where it is considered that the changes which have occurred with the passage of time may have significantly altered the position.

The Economic Climate at the Time of the Transition Survey

The Transition Survey was carried out at a time when labour market conditions were deteriorating rapidly, according as the full impact of the recession which followed the second oil price shock of 1979 began to be felt. Table 1.1 shows that between 1981 and 1983 the numbers at work in the economy as a whole fell by over 20,000. All of this decline was attributable to job losses among young people, the actual youth employment level falling by 28,000, from 315,000 to 287,000 over this short two-year span. The numbers of young unemployed (including first job seekers) rose by a somewhat smaller amount (22,000) from 50,000 to 72,000. The figures thus imply that during the period in question the size of the youth labour force decreased. This can be attributed mainly to the re-emergence of emigration on a significant scale even though the increasing numbers being accommodated within the educational system was an additional factor which influenced the situation. Between 1981 and 1983 the number of young persons aged 15 years or over in full-time education rose by nearly 25,000 from 198,000 to 223,000, compared with an increase of 17,000 in the immediately preceding two-year period.

Table 1.1 *The population aged 15 years and over by economic status and age, 1961-1986*

Year	15-24 years							25 years or over						Total					
	At work	Unemployed	Seeking First Job	Labour Force	Education	Other Activities	Total	At work	Unemployed	Labour Force	Education	Other Activities	Total	At work	Unemployed	Seeking first job	Labour Force	Education	Other Activities	Total
	000																			
1961	251.1	10.8	15.8	277.7	77.8	36.3	391.9	766.5	31.7	798.2	1.8	749.3	1549.2	1017.7	42.5	15.8	1076.0	79.6	785.6	1941.1
1966	281.9	11.8	14.4	308.1	100.4	36.2	444.7	753.2	28.5	781.7	1.8	755.5	1538.9	1035.1	40.3	14.4	1089.8	102.2	791.7	1983.6
1971	278.7	14.2	11.2	304.1	134.9	43.9	482.9	751.7	35.3	787.0	2.1	775.2	1564.2	1030.4	49.5	11.2	1091.1	137.0	819.1	2047.1
1975	292.3	25.2	20.0	337.5	150.4	45.2	533.1	777.5	51.2	828.5	2.4	830.2	1661.1	1069.6	76.4	20.0	1166.0	152.8	875.4	2194.2
1977	291.3	28.9	15.3	335.5	175.6	46.9	557.9	792.0	59.8	851.8	3.0	854.1	1708.9	1083.3	88.7	15.3	1187.3	178.6	901.0	2266.8
1979	327.7	19.2	14.0	360.9	189.0	47.8	583.7	822.6	51.2	873.8	2.1	878.7	1754.6	1150.3	70.4	14.0	1234.7	182.1	921.5	2338.3
1981	314.8	30.1	20.0	365.1	196.7	41.3	603.1	834.2	75.7	906.0	3.6	886.1	1796.6	1446.0	104.0	20.0	1272.0	200.3	927.4	2399.7
1983	286.5	44.8	27.4	358.7	221.8	32.2	612.7	837.5	111.2	948.0	3.3	897.0	1849.1	1124.0	156.7	28.7	1307.4	225.1	929.3	2461.8
1984	276.4	48.0	32.7	357.0	230.6	29.0	616.6	827.0	122.8	949.0	4.0	918.3	1872.1	1103.4	169.3	34.2	1306.8	234.6	947.3	2488.7
1985	269.0	50.4	34.8	354.2	232.8	31.0	618.0	810.3	140.9	951.2	2.9	934.1	1888.2	1079.3	189.7	36.3	1305.0	235.7	965.1	2506.2
1986	252.8	50.3	37.0	340.1	244.9	32.5	617.5	822.1	140.2	962.3	3.3	932.7	1898.4	1074.9	188.5	38.9	1302.4	248.2	965.2	2515.9

Notes: (1) All of the data given in Table 1.1 are based on Labour Force Survey definitions, even though the figures for some years (1961,1966,1971, 1981) were derived originally from Censuses of Population and adjusted to accord with the survey concepts. For details of the adjustment procedures used for the years 1961, 1966 and 1971, see Sexton (1981). The adjustments made to the aggregate 1981 Census figures are described in the Report of the 1983 Labour Force Survey. Minor adjustments were also made to the original Labour Force Survey estimates for 1984, 1985 and 1986 in order to ensure greater consistency over time. These changes are described in the Report of the 1986 Survey. The subdivision of the adjusted figures for 1981 and for 1983 to 1986 according to the two age groups were made by the authors.

(2) The unemployed category for those aged 25 years and over includes small numbers of first job seekers for the years 1983 to 1986.

The number of adult workers in employment actually increased slightly (by about 6,000) during the period under discussion. It must be borne in mind, however, that in interpreting labour force trends in terms of age categories underlying demographic changes tend to influence the position. The increase in employment indicated for those aged 25 years or over between 1981 and 1983 is not necessarily attributable to actual movements into employment, but derives principally from the ageing process in the population. This is illustrated by the fact that the total adult population rose significantly (by over 50,000) during this two year span.

As a result of the trends as described the unemployment rate in the youth labour market rose from 14.1 per cent in 1981 to 20.1 per cent in 1983 (see Table 1.2). Even though the rate for the adult[4] labour force also rose during this time (from 8.8 to 11.8 per cent) the relative deterioration was not as severe.

Table 1.2: *Unemployment Rates in the Youth and Adult Labour Force, 1971-1986.*

Year	*Youth Labour Force (15-24 years)*	*Adult Labour Force (25 years or over)*	*Total Labour Force*
	Per cent		
1971	8.4	4.5	5.6
1975	13.4	6.2	8.3
1977	13.2	7.0	8.8
1979	9.2	5.9	6.8
1981	14.1	8.8	10.3
1982	16.6	9.3	11.4
1983	20.1	11.8	14.0
1984	22.4	12.9	15.5
1985	24.0	14.8	17.4
1986	25.5	14.5	17.4

Source: See Table 1.1 for all years except 1982. The 1982 unemployment rate for the 15-24 year age caregory was derived from the Transition Survey. The rate for the total labour force for the same year has been taken from the annual CSO labour force estimates. The 1982 rate for the adult labour force was then derived from the two previously mentioned figures.

The scenario just described is radically different from that which prevailed a few years earlier in the closing years of the 1970s. During that period the youth labour force was expanding rapidly, employment was rising and unemployment was actually in decline (even if from the admittedly high levels which it reached during the 1974/76 recession). The extent of the overall buoyancy which then prevailed is also indicated by the low levels to which youth emigration had fallen. It can be estimated that the net population loss relating to the 15 to 24 year

4. Unless otherwise indicated the term "adult" is meant to refer to persons aged 25 years or over.

age category between 1976 and 1981 was of the order of 17,000 — historically a very low figure. This compares with a corresponding net emigration of more than 48,000 for the same age group[5] in the succeeding 1981/86 intercensal period.

It is worth reflecting at this point on some relevant aspects of youth external migration in view of the impact it can have on the Irish labour market scene. Appendix Table A.1.1 contains an analysis of net migration for those aged 15 to 24 years over the 1981/86 period according to single year of age. Corresponding population figures are also given for the end years of the period. The calculated net migration figures are virtually all negative so that the discussion is concerned exclusively with emigration. It will be noted that there was little or no emigration for the group who were aged 15 to 17 at the end of the period in question. However the net outflow increases rapidly to over 3,000 for those aged 18 years, and to over 5,000 for 19 year olds. The outflows were significantly greater for young persons aged 20 to 24 years, the net population loss in 1981/86 for individual years of age in this category being of the order of 8,000 or nearly 40,000 for the entire five-year age band. It can broadly be assumed that this relative pattern remains more or less the same over time, even though the actual migration levels may vary. The effect of this configuration on the age distribution of the youth population is quite significant. It will be noted from the table in question that at the beginning of the age span covered the individual age categories involve substantially greater numbers. For each of the years involved these decrease progressively from a level of about 70,000 for those aged 15 years to just over 50,000 for 24 year olds. While it is only to be expected that there would be some variation in these figures arising from mortality and the numbers of births in the original age cohorts, the pattern referred to principally reflects the impact of the migratory outflows within the youth age group.

More Recent Labour Market Trends

The deterioration in labour market conditions which began in the early 1980s has continued in recent years. Table 1.1 shows that by 1986 (the most recent year for which detailed labour force estimates were available at the time of writing) the numbers at work in the youth labour market had fallen to 253,000 — 75,000 less than the peak employment figure of 328,000 reached in 1979, and almost as low as the level which prevailed 25 years earlier in 1961. Unemployment among young people had risen to 87,000 by 1986 — 25½ per cent of the total youth labour force, even though the pressure of labour supply had eased as the youth labour force continued to decline. It will again be noted that in the years prior to 1986 the situation in the adult labour force did not deteriorate to the

5. The age classification in the context of a net migration calculation of this kind usually relates to age at the end of the periods in question, in this case 1981 and 1986 respectively.

same extent, even though the unemployment rate for this category rose to 14½ per cent. Thus the brunt of the enforced readjustment brought about by the continuing employment crisis has been shouldered by young people — either in the form of unemployment or emigration.

A notable feature of the entire period under review is the extent to which the educational system has absorbed an increasing number of young people. Table 1.1 shows that in the ten years from 1976 to 1986 the numbers aged 15 years or over in education increased by almost 90,000 (from 160,000 to nearly 250,000). The current retrenchment in public sector activities in so far as the educational sector is concerned must surely impede or bring this expansion to a halt, with further disadvantageous consequences for the youth population.

The above-mentioned results also illustrate the differential effects of the variation in the level of economic activity in so far as they apply to youths and adults. They are indicative of a greater cyclical amplitude in the youth labour market in relation to unemployment. During an expansionary period the position regarding employment opportunities for young people tends to improve more rapidly *vis-a-vis* those for adult workers (as it did in 1977/79), but on the other hand it also appears to deteriorate more significantly when economic conditions disimprove (as in 1975/76 and since 1980). This feature derives from the greater volatility which applies to the youth labour market in relation to entering and leaving employment — an issue which is discussed further in the next section of this chapter.

Structural Aspects of the Youth Labour Force

It is also of interest to observe the characteristics of the youth labour force in a specifically cross-sectional way in the context of the labour force as a whole. In doing this it is more appropriate to refer to the most up-to-date information, which at the time of writing, was that derivable from the 1986 Labour Force Survey. The total youth population aged 15 to 24 years in the Spring of 1986 was 618,000, accounting for 17½ per cent of the then estimated total population of 3,541,000. The youth group so defined consisted of some 245,000 persons still in full-time education and 373,000 who had left the educational system, the great majority of whom (some 340,000) were in the labour force.

Appendix Table A.1.2 contains comparative labour force data on a broad sectoral basis, for persons aged less than 25 years and for older persons. The position is summarised in relative terms in Table 1.3 which indicates that in overall terms the youth labour force in 1986 constituted over 26 per cent of the total work-force. Within this overall setting, however, young people accounted for somewhat less than one-quarter of those at work, but over 38 per cent of the total unemployed.

Table 1.3: *Labour Force aged less than 25 years in 1986 expressed as a percentage of the total labour force, distinguishing different sectors and those who were unemployed.*

Sector	*Males*	*Females*	*Total*
		Per cent	
Agriculture	11.1	11.0	11.1
Manufacturing	22.0	49.0	29.4
Building, etc.	17.7	—	17.9
Commerce, finance, etc.	24.0	42.3	30.8
Other	15.9	30.4	22.5
Total at work	18.0	35.8	23.6
Unemployed	32.1	58.7	38.4
Labour Force	20.6	39.0	26.1

Source: 1986 Labour Force Survey.

The position is significantly different for males and females. Males aged less than 25 years accounted for 21 per cent of the total male labour force, while the corresponding percentage for females was nearly 40. This arises mainly because of the tendency for many women to withdraw at a relatively early age from the labour force for family and domestic reasons, the net result being that in overall terms the female work-force is significantly younger than the male labour force. Even allowing for this feature, the figures show that young persons form a very high proportion (59 per cent) of the total female unemployed; the corresponding proportion for males was just over 30 per cent. This is due to the fact that for older women the tendency to withdraw from the labour force is an even stronger influence in circumstances of unemployment.

With regard to those who were at work in the Spring of 1986, young persons formed the highest proportion (nearly one-third), among those employed in the commerce, finance, etc., area. The lowest proportion was in the agricultural sector where young people accounted for just over 10 per cent of the total at work (for both males and females). This is a reflection of the particular age structure in agriculture which still involves a distinct imbalance towards the older age groups, a feature which has persisted over the years despite many attempts to promote structural change. It is not altogether surprising to find a low proportion of young females involved in farming. Those females who become involved in farming activities do so mainly as farmers' wives (and are thus classed as "assisting relatives") which contributes to a relatively older age profile for this group when compared with females working in other sectors. It will be noted, for example, that women aged less than 25 years constituted almost 50 per cent of all females at work in manufacturing industry.

For both males and females individually one will notice that the youth proportions relating to the miscellaneous "other services" sector are significantly lower than for other categories (apart from agriculture). This sector includes,

inter alia, sizeable numbers of professional and technical personnel (in the areas of health, education and the professions), many of whom would tend to be in the older age groups (and would even have been somewhat older at the point of entry to the labour market).

II. *RESEARCH ISSUES*

The deterioration which characterised youth labour markets over the period since the mid-1970s provided an impetus for a great deal of research relating to the questions of youth employment and unemployment. This research has covered a multitude of different aspects and it is possible to engage only in a summary discussion of the main issues. Among the areas which have received special attention are the influence of education and training (especially problems arising from lack of skill and deficiencies in educational attainment), age, social background and the particular difficulties which apply at the actual point of transition from education to working life (i.e., gaining a first foothold in the labour market). Broadly speaking all of these issues are covered in this Report.

However, a central question which has been the focus of much discussion is whether the apparently high levels of youth unemployment are indicative of a real underlying problem, particularly when viewed in comparative terms in relation to adult unemployment. Cannot the problem of youth unemployment be regarded as a normal phenomenon attributable to a natural "settling down" period on entry to the labour market, which of necessity is characterised by intermittent periods of unemployment as young people seek an appropriate niche in the job market? Some literature, particularly in the United States, has argued that youth unemployment rates are high because young people exhibit unstable job-holding patterns by leaving jobs that are less desirable in order to look for better employment. This generates relatively high flows into and out of employment. It is argued, however, that young people do not tend to remain unemployed for long. Since their average duration of unemployment is therefore relatively short, this appears to suggest that job finding for many of them is not altogether difficult. Basically this argument embraces the view that a sufficient number of employment opportunities exist in the youth labour market but one obtains an exaggerated perception of the difficulties because of the greater propensity of young people to move between jobs. Work which can be considered to support views of this kind is that of Feldstein and Elwood (1982).

Others, however, dispute this "turnover hypothesis" and hold the view that youth do face exceptional difficulties on entry to the labour market. For some disadvantaged groups, such as the unqualified, the range of job opportunities is limited (and dwindling) and, therefore, policy responses are needed, designed both to aid their transition and protect their position when in employment. It

is argued that the brevity of the youth employment spells which the turnover analysts emphasise can be misleading since these assume much greater significance when they are accumulated and viewed in aggregate over time. Furthermore, recent developments, such as the trend towards greater segmentation in the labour market and the more entrenched attitudes of those with jobs, have created a situation where there are fewer opportunities for young people to gain a firm foothold in the job market (i.e., the "ports of entry" are increasingly blocked off). Even when young persons are already in employment, in circumstances of aggregate job loss within a firm, they are usually at a disadvantage because of existing practices (e.g., "last in, first out").

Examples of work which support the latter view are those of Clark and Summers (1982) and Hasan and de Broucker (1984). The former study highlights, in particular, the fact that spells of youth unemployment are frequently interspersed by periods outside the labour force rather than in employment. This (in a Labour Force Survey measurement context) tends to lead to an understatement of the problem since it can be argued in the case of youth that it is the entire period without employment which should be the main centre of attention. The latter study, using Canadian longitudinal data covering the period from 1975 to 1979, found that young people experienced on average greater total unemployment than older people, despite the fact as already noted, that the average length of single spells of unemployment is shorter for youths than for adults. The work of Bowers (1984) can also be said to support the view that special problems apply to the youth labour market even though he states in summarising his work, that some of the flows and status changes which characterise this market (in the US) "should clearly be considered a normal pattern of settling into the realities of the full-time labour force but part is also related to institutions on the demand side which place the onus of adjustment to economic change on persons with low job tenure and on entrants to the labour market". He goes on to conclude, however, that the quantification of the relative importance of these aspects is difficult. Interestingly, Bowers's study points to the absence of information on *reasons* for job separations as a significant gap in our knowledge of the operation of labour markets, a feature on which the Transition Survey does, in fact, shed some light. (See Chapter V under the heading of "reasons for leaving first regular job".)

More recent research in the United Kingdom is also of relevance in regard to the issues under discussion, particularly that of Ashton and Maguire (1987) and Elias and Blanchflower (1988). Both studies break new ground in that they take account of the influence of local labour market conditions on young person's prospects. The former research also sheds some light, *inter alia*, on the nature of job separations (in particular whether these were involuntary or otherwise) while a significant conclusion of the latter work by Elias and Blanchflower is

that job-changing *per se* (whether or not associated with intervening periods of unemployment) appears to be detrimental to a young person's longer-term occupational prospects, particularly in so far as earnings are concerned.

In a purely Irish context Walsh (1984) raised issues of a somewhat similar nature to those discussed in the preceding paragraphs. While he did not specifically consider the "turnover" and alternative hypotheses, he questioned whether in a structural sense the phenomenon of youth unemployment is basically different from adult unemployment. His interpretation of labour force and population figures for the period from 1961 to 1983 suggested that youth unemployment moves more or less in tandem with adult unemployment, even if it is subject to cyclical variations of a greater amplitude. Its alleviation need not, therefore, require special measures, apart from those designed to counter unemployment generally. Indeed he argues that such special measures could serve to deflect attention from other disadvantaged groups, such as the adult long-term unemployed.

The 1984 OECD report *The Nature of Youth Unemployment — An Analysis for Policy-Makers* provides a most useful summary of the major research and policy issues which apply to the youth labour market. In addition to providing an overview on such aspects, it also contains the results of comprehensive studies of the youth labour market in five of the major OECD economies[6] (some of which have already been referred to). Concerning the basic issues discussed in the preceding paragraphs it is of interest to note that the summary analysis in this report concludes that young people face inherent difficulties in the labour market which cannot all be attributed to the "settling down" phenomenon. While the Report acknowledges that higher job turnover is part of the normal pattern of transition from school to work, it goes on to express the view that the higher rate of employment separation among young people accounts for most of the differential between youth and adult unemployment. It concludes that "most of those job separations are involuntary, reflecting the fact that youth shoulders a major part of the burden and adjustment to economic change". It is of interest to mention, at this stage, that this is a view which does *not* appear to be borne out by the results of the Transition Survey which, for the period covered by the inquiry, indicate a significant level of voluntary job quitting in the Irish youth labour market. This aspect will be discussed further in Chapter V.

In a national context the difficulties which have characterised the Irish youth labour market since the mid-1970s have prompted others to research the area. In addition to the above-mentioned work by Walsh, we would refer in particular to work by Sexton (1983), Breen (1984a,b) Breen, Whelan and Costigan (1986) and various reports published by the (former) Youth Employment Agency, all of which are listed among the references given.

6. Canada, France, Federal Republic of Germany, United Kingdom, United States.

Chapter II

METHODOLOGY: SOME CONCEPTUAL AND ANALYTICAL PROBLEMS

This chapter describes both the Transition Survey methodology in some detail and the analytical approaches used in presenting and interpreting the results. The methodological issues are discussed in the main body of the Report rather than in an appendix, since as already indicated in the preceding chapter, these aspects of the study are considered to be of particular interest.

1. *The Information Collected*

An initial basic set of topics to be included in the Transition Survey questionnaire was specified by the EC Commission. A form incorporating these, as well as a number of other aspects considered to be of importance nationally, was drawn up in the Autumn of 1981. This initial draft questionnaire was then revised and extended as a result of pilot field tests and on the basis of comments from colleagues and other interested parties.

In summary, the particular aspects on which information was collected were as follows:-

For the households covered:
- Household composition (sex, age, relationship of members to head of household, numbers in full-time education or otherwise engaged)
- Response information
- Location

For persons in the target group:
- Demographic information (sex, age, marital status, nationality).
- Detailed educational data
- Training in progress
- Basic training acquired
- Further training acquired

} Nature, duration, etc.

- Details of parents (current employment situation, occupation)
- Current economic status of respondents (e.g., at work, unemployed, outside of the labour force, etc.)
- Details of employment in reference week (occupation, industry, hours worked, earnings, method by which job was found, second job, etc.).

- Details of search for work if looking – (methods used, duration of search, etc.).
- Transition from school to work (date of leaving full-time education, method of initial job search, duration of search, etc.)

Details of each job held to date:
- Date commenced each job
- Status held to date: – Occupation
- Industry
- Location
- Did the job require change of residence?
- Earnings
- Date of leaving
- Reason for leaving
- Duration of subsequent unemployment (if any).

Further details of the information collected can be obtained by referring to Appendix A which contains a full reproduction of the Transition Survey questionnaire.

2. *Sample Design.*

No readily available sampling frame for the members of the target population (persons aged 15 to 24 years who had left full-time education who were resident in private households) was available. It was therefore decided to base the sample on a "sift" of the general population. This was accomplished by utilising the EC Consumer Attitudes Survey, then a thrice-yearly study conducted in Ireland by the ESRI and An Foras Taluntais. Three rounds of the Consumer Survey were used to generate the appropriate sample of young people which was designed to involve some 6,000 individuals. It was considered that a sample of this size was needed in view of the fairly detailed analyses which were envisaged.

The initial numbers of households visited in each round of the Consumer Attitudes Survey were as follows:

May 1981	3,240
October 1981	12,960
January 1982	6,448
Total	22,648

When interviewers visited the designated households for the purpose of carrying out this inquiry they recorded on their lists of names and addresses the number of persons in the household who belonged to the Transition Survey target group. In the October and January rounds, interviewers called to one adjacent household

as well as to the designated household in order to inquire if any members of the target group resided there. This augmentation of the sift was necessary in order to bring the achieved sample to the desired level. Those households containing at least one member of the target group were then subsequently used as the sample for the Transition Survey, the actual interviewing for which was carried out between March and June 1982.

3. *Reweighting Procedures*

The original Consumer Attitudes Survey sample from which the sample for the present study was derived involves a multi-stage design based on the Electoral Register entailing clustering and stratification, as described in Whelan (1979). Each elector has an equal probability of selection. This means that households have a probability of selection proportional to the number of electors they contain. Hence it was likely that young people resident in smaller households would be somewhat under-represented in the sample for the Transition Study. Furthermore, it was thought likely that response rates (and non-contact rates) could vary as between young people resident in different areas and in different household circumstances.

To overcome these problems it was decided to use the preliminary results of the 1981 Census of Population to reweight the achieved sample. This also made it possible to present the data in terms of grossed national totals with a greater degree of confidence. In this regard it should be mentioned that even though the detailed reweighting structure relates to 1981, all the grossing factors were adjusted by the same relative amount so as to yield aggregate estimates for the youth population and labour force which were consistent with estimated 1982 levels. This adjustment was minimal in relative terms, involving a reduction of some 11,000 persons (or 2½ per cent) of the original 1981 total of 394,000 persons in the Survey target group. The actual reweighting was carried out on the basis of age, sex, an urban/rural subdivision, household size and marital status.[7] The grossing (weighting) factors classified according to these criteria are given in Appendix Table A.2.1. These are simply the ratios of census to sample figures (incorporating the adjustment to convert to 1982 levels).

4. *Response Rates: Final Sample Size*

Because of the multi-stage nature of the sift used to generate the sample, it is somewhat difficult to define a "response" rate. It should be noted that some co-operation (i.e., one or more interviews) was obtained from about 83 per cent of the eligible households contacted. Because of incomplete co-operation in some households, the response rate was somewhat lower when computed in terms of persons, amounting to some 70 per cent. The final sample involved usable

7. This necessitated the compilation of a special tabulation (relating only to private households) of the 1981 Census data.

returns covering 5,985 young persons in the target group.

Some aspects of the accuracy of the estimates derived, particularly in relation to comparisons with similar information from other sources, are considered in Appendix B.

5. *Conceptual Problems*

On the basis of the information available from the Transition Survey one can identify two distinct focuses in relation to analysing the data. In the first place the survey provides basic data on the structure of the youth labour force as it was in 1982, while additionally, the retrospective information on employment histories affords the opportunity to derive some information on the dynamics of the youth labour market. With regard to the latter feature, however, there are some limitations from an analytical point of view, arising from the age-truncated nature of the survey target group. The durations over which labour force experience were observed varied greatly between respondents, depending on the age of leaving education and current age. For those groups or cohorts[8] within the target group with significant labour force experience (for example, those who left the educational system during the first half of the 1970s) there is a preponderance of unskilled or unqualified members since the better qualified who left the educational system during these periods would have exceeded the upper age limit of 24 years by the time the Transition Survey was taken. Thus in analysing successive educational cohorts within the survey target group the position tends to become less representative the further one moves back in time. This phenomenon is clearly illustrated in Table 2.1 which classifies the survey

Table 2.1 *Youth population outside of education who were resident in private households in 1982, classified by year of leaving full-time education (cohort) and age at leaving full- time education*

Year of leaving full-time ed. (cohort)	Age on leaving full-time education (years)									Total
	≤15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
	'000									
1973 or earlier	25.3	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26.2
1974	12.7	8.6	1.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	22.4
1975	14.6	8.3	9.1	0.7	-	-	-	-	-	32.7
1976	14.8	8.9	11.1	9.4	0.8	-	-	-	-	45.0
1977	17.2	8.0	13.0	6.2	2.5	0.5	-	-	-	47.4
1978	16.2	10.3	12.3	8.4	2.5	2.4	0.5	-	-	52.6
1979	17.7	11.2	12.3	7.8	2.2	2.2	0.8	0.2	-	54.4
1980	15.0	10.4	12.5	6.1	2.4	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.1	49.8
1981 or later	13.4	10.4	11.8	9.7	3.5	1.3	1.1	1.3	0.9	53.4
Total	146.8	77.1	83.2	48.4	13.9	7.6	3.6	2.3	1.0	383.9

8. Unless otherwise indicated, the word "cohort" as used subsequently in this report should be taken to mean "educational cohort" as described in this paragraph.

respondents by cohort and the age at leaving full-time education. It will be seen that almost all of those included in our survey who left the educational system in 1973 or earlier were aged 15 years or under at the point of leaving; the corresponding proportion for the 1974 cohort is 53 per cent; it is 45 per cent for those who left the educational system in 1975. Clearly as one moves on in time the data become more widely spread among the various "age at leaving full-time education" categories and a rather more representative structure is achieved.

6. *Analytical Approaches Used*

The foregoing discussion emphasises the need for care in interpreting the Transition Survey data. In view of the relationship between educational cohort and some other variables (aggregate duration of employment or unemployment for example) frequently cohort has of necessity to be included as an additional classificatory variable. This can in some instances lead to unwieldy tabular presentations and the dispersal of the survey data over a greater number of cells. This can, in turn, give rise to problems of sampling accuracy. However, as the subsequent analyses will show, even allowing for these difficulties, it was possible to derive useful and interesting insights into the youth labour market. It should be borne in mind that the more recent cohorts, which formed the majority of the target group, were adequately representative in terms of content and structure. It was also possible to distinguish and analyse separately the data for some groups of particular importance which were not affected by the problem of cohort truncation (depending on the variable being analysed). One might mention for example the transition experiences of those who left school at an early age at various stages over the time span covered by the inquiry. This aspect is dealt with in Chapter IV in the form of retrospective year by year analyses of duration of search for first regular job for those who left school without qualifications.

It was also possible to circumvent some of the above-mentioned problems by utilising multivariate methods (i.e., multiple regression analyses) where this was appropriate. In this context educational cohort (expressed in the form of year of leaving full-time education) can be included as an explanatory variable so as to allow a more precise or clear-cut assessment of the effects of other factors on the dependent variable under consideration. This approach is used in a number of instances throughout the Report (see Chapters IV, V and VIII).

7. *The Influence of Cohort Truncation on the Measurement of Youth Labour Force Stock Aggregates.*

The issues raised in the preceding paragraph also need to be borne in mind in assessing youth labour force problems in a "stock" context relating to a point in time. Since the youth labour force is likely to contain a higher proportion

of unskilled persons (amongst whom unemployment rates tend to be particularly high) this suggests that part of the reason for the high *measured* rate of youth unemployment *vis-a-vis* that for adults may be due to structural causes rather than to reasons arising from intrinsically greater difficulty which young people may have in finding jobs.

In making comparisons between youth and adult unemployment it is, of course, necessary in the first place to make a distinction in relation to first job seekers since this group is unique to the youth labour force and is of little relevance in the case of adults. It can be deduced from Table 1.2 in the preceding chapter that even though the overall youth unemployment rate in 1986 was 25.5 per cent, if first job seekers are excluded from this calculation the rate is reduced to 16.5 per cent — only some 2 percentage points higher than the adult rate of 14.5 per cent for the same year. This line of argument is not meant to imply that first job seekers should not be taken account of in assessing unemployment, but rather that in specific circumstances involving comparisons with the adult labour force their inclusion can tend to obscure the issues, depending on the particular perspective taken. The latter two figures, for example, illustrate the comparative difficulties which face both youths and adults in circumstances of unemployment brought about by job loss, as distinct from problems encountered on entering the labour market (in relation to which a consideration of first job search is clearly more relevant).

It is of interest therefore to see if structural differences between the youth and adult labour forces (such as those which arise from the age truncation problem as described) explain some of the remaining difference between the youth and adult unemployment rates if the analysis is confined to those who were previously in employment. Such an assessment, which requires fairly detailed information for both the youth and adult labour forces, can only be carried out with full Census of Population data. Table 2.2 following shows unemployment rates for males aged less than 25 years and aged 25 years or over with different occupations derived from the 1981 Census.[9] The table also shows, for each age group and for the labour force as a whole, the proportion of the work force attributable to the particular occupational categories indicated. The unemployment rates derived for this period are, of course, significantly lower than those for 1982 or later years but it must be borne in mind that the main issue under discussion involves cross-sectional comparisons between rates, rather than a consideration of trends.

One can obtain an indication of the extent to which the difference between the two overall rates is accounted for by "structural" causes if a standardisation process is applied to the occupational rates for each age category. One way to

9. At the time of writing all of the required information was not available from the 1986 Census.

Table 2.2 *Unemployment rates for different occupational categories for male youths and adults, along with the proportion of the total labour force accounted for by persons with these occupations 1981 Census of Population*

Occupational Group (1)	15 - 24		25 years and over		All Persons	
	Lab. Force proportion (2)	Unemployment rate (3)	Lab. Force proportion (4)	Unemployment rate (5)	Lab. Force proportion (6)	Unemployment rate (7)
	%					
Agriculture	11.5	6.0	23.5	4.1	20.9	4.3
Industrial	34.3	11.3	20.0	12.8	23.1	12.3
Building	5.2	17.3	5.4	17.3	5.3	17.3
Unskilled Manual	9.1	33.7	8.3	35.1	8.5	34.7
Transport etc.	7.7	13.3	9.4	11.0	9.1	11.4
Clerical	7.1	3.5	3.6	3.7	4.3	3.6
Commercial etc.	10.5	8.7	9.9	4.8	10.1	5.7
Services	4.4	11.7	4.8	6.8	4.8	7.8
Professions etc.	6.1	3.4	9.6	1.9	8.9	2.1
Other	4.1	8.8	5.4	3.2	5.1	4.2
Total	100.0	11.8	100.0	9.7	100.0	10.1
Standardised Unemployment Rates	-	11.2	-	10.0	-	-

Source: 1981 Census of Population, Vol. VII, Occupations.

Note The information on previous occupation was not available in the case of a significant number of the Census respondents who were unemployed (10.6 per cent). The numbers involved were distributed pro rata over the specified occupational categories on the basis of the distributions relating to those for whom this information was available.

do this is to "reweight" the occupational rates for each age group with a common set of weights or proportions relating to the numbers in each occupation in the labour force as a whole (i.e., those given in Col. (6) of Table 2.2). When this is done (the results are shown in the last row of the table) the youth unemployment rate is reduced from 11.8 to 11.2 and the adult rate increased from 9.7 to 10.0, the net result being that the overall difference between the two rates is reduced from over 2 percentage points to just over 1 percentage point. This "narrowing of the gap" is attributable mainly to the fact that certain occupational categories associated with low unemployment rates (such as those relating to agriculture and the professions) exert significantly greater influence on the adult rate. This is evident from the occupational weighting patterns indicated for each of the

two age groups. The relatively low rates for the sectors referred to derive in part from the high incidence of self-employment which exists in these areas, an option to which not many young people can realistically aspire.

As for the occupational rates themselves, these are not substantially different for youths and adults in the case of industrial, building and transport occupations nor are they all that different for clerical workers or for unskilled manual workers. The youth rates are significantly higher, however, for occupations associated with the services sector, thus illustrating the greater volatility of employment for young people in this sphere.

Chapter III

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF THE YOUTH POPULATION

In Chapter I the position of youth in an overall population and labour market context was discussed. In this chapter more detailed consideration is given to certain social and economic aspects which are of particular relevance to youth. The chapter begins with a consideration of the educational levels and the social background of the youth population and then goes on to discuss the position of those young people who were actually in the labour force in 1982. In the latter analysis particular attention is paid to such aspects as unemployment, the industrial sectors in which persons were working and the types of occupations engaged in.

1. SOCIAL ASPECTS OF THE YOUTH POPULATION

Educational Attainment

Information on the educational levels of young persons in the target group covered in our study are given in Table 3.1. A notable feature is the high proportion of young people who are recorded as having left the educational system with very low educational attainment. Up to 27 per cent of the young people surveyed (over 100,000) had left the educational system without any qualifications, and of these more than 25,000 were recorded as having quit the system at the primary level. Nearly 40 per cent of the total (144,000) had completed the lower cycle of second-level education (i.e., achieved the Intermediate or Group Certificate) and a further 30 per cent (120,000) had completed both cycles at this level (i.e., successfully completed the Leaving Certificate stage). Only some 5 per cent of the respondents indicated they had completed a third-level course — which is mainly a consequence of the age-truncated nature of our target group. It should thus be borne in mind that the group of young people with higher qualifications included in our sample cannot be taken as representative of third-level graduates as a whole.

The above-mentioned data indicate a very high drop-out rate from the vocational stream of the lower cycle of second-level education. The figures in Table 3.1 show that almost a half (46 per cent) of those who entered this stream to take the Group Certificate did not stay on to attain this award. The corresponding proportion for the general or more academically oriented Intermediate Certificate stream was 29 per cent — still fairly substantial but

Table 3.1 *Persons aged 15 to 24 years in 1982 who had left full-time education classified by educational level*

Educational Level	Males	Females	Total
	'000		
Primary	13.5	12.0	25.5
Group Cert. not completed	25.4	13.0	38.5
Inter. Cert. not completed	16.4	23.2	39.5
Group Cert. completed	34.4	10.4	44.9
Inter. Cert. completed	56.4	42.3	98.7
Leaving Cert. completed	45.1	74.6	119.7
Third Level completed	10.0	7.0	17.0
Total	201.3	182.5	383.8

significantly less than the drop-out rate for those following vocational courses at the same level.

These overall figures tend to obscure quite significant differences between males and females. A majority of girls in the target group (56 per cent) who started second-level vocational education quit without having completed the Group Certificate; for boys this proportion was 43 per cent. With regard to drop-outs from the Intermediate Certificate stream the corresponding percentages were 35 for girls and 23 for boys. Even though the actual figures are not shown in Table 3.1, the survey estimates indicated that the great majority of young persons who embark on Leaving Certificate courses tend to finish them; the proportion who dropped out at this stage was quite small, less than 10 per cent. It will be noted that for the target group as a whole, a much higher proportion of females than males had completed all stages of second-level education, the relevant proportions being 41 per cent and 22 per cent respectively. This is mainly due to the fact that relatively large numbers of young males enter the lower cycle vocational stream and leave the educational system on or before taking the Group Certificate. Some of these however subsequently enter apprenticeships.

The foregoing analyses relate basically to the stock of young people aged 15 to 24 years who had already left education. However, in assessing educational issues (particularly in a labour market context) a consideration of flows, particularly outflows from the system, is of particular importance. One can,

in fact, obtain from the Transition Survey data a reasonable representation of the outflow position for the years immediately prior to 1982 by observing the figures for individual educational cohort categories. Such information is given in Appendix Table A.3.1. The table shows, for example, that of the 53,000 young persons who left full-time education in 1981 or later (which effectively means during 1981 and the first few months of 1982) an estimated 10,000 (19 per cent) did not have any qualifications[10] some 17,000 and 21,000 respectively had completed the first and second cycles of second-level education, while nearly 5,000 had acquired higher qualifications. These figures also provide a further illustration of the extent and nature of the cohort effect referred to earlier in Chapter II. It will be noted, for example, that the earlier cohorts are markedly unrepresentative in so far as they contain a very high proportion of unqualified school leavers — over 70 per cent for those young people who left the system in 1973 or earlier, and nearly 43 per cent for those who left in 1974.

Social Background of those in the Target Group

Levels of educational attainment are influenced by social background and it is of interest to consider this aspect in relation to the youth group under consideration. The survey questionnaire included questions on father's occupation which was in turn used to formulate a classification according to social group. The survey estimates indicate a very strong relationship between social background and educational attainment. In this regard Table 3.2 indicates those who fare best in the educational system are shown as coming from the better off sections of society. Over 80 per cent of the young persons surveyed whose fathers were in the higher professional, managerial, large proprietor or farmer category had completed the higher cycle of second-level education, and over 16 per cent subsequently went on to pursue third-level courses. These proportions decrease gradually as one progresses downwards through the social class groups; at the lower end of the social spectrum it will be noted that only 16 per cent of the children of unskilled manual workers reach the Leaving Certificate stage. Entry to third-level education is virtually non-existent for young persons from this social background. No less than 46 per cent of such children leave school without having attained any qualifications whatever. Fairly sizeable numbers of the children of skilled and semi-skilled workers complete the first cycle of second-level education. This may in fact tend to understate the general level of attainment for those young people (particularly boys) as many in this category undergo further apprenticeship-type training. The broad pattern of the results is similar for males and females except that, as already mentioned, within the

10. It is of interest to compare these figures with corresponding estimates obtained from the Annual Department of Labour Survey of Second-Level School Leavers. See Appendix C.

Table 3.2 *Youth population outside of eduation in Spring 1982, classified by father's socio- economic status and level of educational attainment*

Father's Socio-Economic Status	MALE					FEMALE					ALL PERSONS				
	Highest Level of Education Completed														
	No Qualifications	Second Level First Cycle	Second Level Second Cycle	Third Level	Total	No Qualifications	Second Level First Cycle	Second Level Second Cycle	Third Level	Total	No Qualifications	Second Level First Cycle	Second Level Second Cycle	Third Level	Total
	%														
Higher Professional and Managerial	3.3	17.5	57.6	21.7	100.0 (9.8)	4.7	12.2	71.4	11.7	100.0 (10.7)	4.0	14.7	64.8	16.4	100.0 (20.6)
Lower Professional and Managerial	14.7	38.8	34.4	12.2	100.0 (25.4)	14.0	16.0	61.4	8.6	100.0 (23.3)	14.3	27.9	47.3	10.5	100.0 (48.7)
Other Non-Manual	21.3	48.0	27.1	3.5	100.0 (40.9)	14.8	29.9	50.5	4.8	100.0 (30.5)	18.5	40.3	37.1	4.1	100.0 (71.4)
Skilled Manual	29.3	48.3	19.3	3.2	100.0 (55.6)	27.6	33.6	36.6	2.2	100.0 (51.7)	28.5	41.2	27.6	2.7	100.0 (107.3)
Semi-Skilled Manual	32.7	50.9	15.0	1.4	100.0 (28.2)	29.7	37.5	30.0	2.8	100.0 (26.8)	31.2	44.4	22.3	2.1	100.0 (55.0)
Unskilled Manual	43.0	45.7	9.5	1.8	100.0 (33.2)	48.8	29.6	21.1	0.5	100.0 (30.8)	45.8	38.0	15.1	1.2	100.0 (64.0)
Total ('000)	27.2 (52.5)	45.3 (87.5)	22.6 (43.6)	4.9 (9.4)	100.0 (193.1)	26.2 (45.5)	29.1 (50.7)	40.8 (70.9)	3.9 (6.8)	100.0 (173.9)	26.7 (98.1)	37.7 (138.2)	31.2 (114.5)	4.4 (16.2)	100.0 (366.9)

Notes: (1) The figures in parentheses are estimates in absolute terms ('000).
(2) The table relates only to those respondents for whom father's occupation was known.

second-level education category there is a larger concentration of girls indicated as having completed the higher cycle (i.e., Leaving Certificate).

The type of analysis illustrated has been taken a stage further by Whelan and Whelan (1984) who also investigated intergenerational occupational mobility using the Transition Survey data. In this study the assessment involved the formulation of socio-economic classes for both fathers and offspring. The results are consistent with the broad pattern indicated in Table 3.2 in that they indicate a relatively low level of mobility across social boundaries between generations, particularly in the case of children from the lower social groups. These data[11] show that 40 per cent of sons of semi-skilled and unskilled manual workers were also in this class, with a further 33 per cent having advanced to the skilled manual group. Generally speaking relatively few from this background were recorded as having progressed higher on the social scale, particularly to the professional or managerial categories (even in their less elevated forms). The position is shown to be very similar for the sons of skilled workers except that, not unexpectedly, a higher percentage were also skilled manual operatives. For the sons of persons in the higher social classes there is evidence of a wider spread among the various categories specified. However, it should be borne in mind that in this analysis the offspring's occupation on which the socio-economic class categorisation was based relates to the first regular job engaged in. If the position was assessed at a later stage in the respondents' careers, it is likely that there would have been some upward progression for all classes. However, it is probable that those who came originally from the higher social groups would have moved upwards more rapidly.

II. THE POSITION OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE LABOUR MARKET IN 1982

Let us now consider the position of young people who were in the labour market when the Transition Survey was taken. One may well question the relevance at this stage of reviewing the youth labour market position for 1982 in any detail, given that the situation has changed so much (for the worse) since the time when the Transition Survey was taken. However it is necessary to provide a suitable backdrop against which the other information contained in this Report can be assessed. Furthermore most of the subsequent analyses presented are cross-sectional in nature and, therefore, in a structural context, many of the inferences which can be drawn from them would still be valid.

Table 3.3 following sets out a broad profile of the total youth population who were resident in private households in 1982 according to "principal economic status", i.e., in terms of the numbers who were at work, unemployed, seeking

11. Whelan and Whelan (1984), Table 7.1, page 146.

Table 3.3 *Youth population resident in private households in 1982 classified by principal economic status*

Principal Economic Status[1]	Males	Females	Total
	'000		
At work	160.4	132.7	293.0
Seeking first[2] regular job	13.7	7.8	21.8
Unemployed	24.1	12.6	36.7
Labour Force	198.2	153.1	351.5
In full-time[3] education	93.9	100.9	194.8
Other Status	3.0	29.4	32.2
Total	295.1	283.4	578.5

(1) A respondent was classified as "at work" if he or she was recorded as being in a "principal regular job" during the week preceding the Survey interview. Respondents were classified as "unemployed" if they:
(a) described themselves as unemployed and were seeking work (of any kind);
(b) were "discouraged", i.e., described themselves as unemployed, were not seeking work but wanted a job;
(c) described themselves as "inactive" (i.e., outside the labour force) but were seeking regular work and were immediately available for work.

(2) This category includes young persons who indicated that they were on full-time training courses or special employment schemes.

(3) These estimates have not been derived from the 1982 Transition Survey. They were obtained by interpolating between figures obtained from the 1981 Census of Population and the 1983 Labour Force Survey.

work for the first time, in education or engaged in other activities outside the labour force. Of the totality of 579,000 people in this group 352,000 were in the labour force, of whom in turn 293,000 were at work, 22,000 were seeking regular employment for the first time and 37,000 were unemployed having lost or given up a previous job. Some 227,000 were engaged in activities outside the labour force of whom the great majority (195,000) were in full-time education. Thus total youth unemployment (including first job seekers) stood at nearly 59,000 or 16.6 per cent of the then (1982) labour force. This compares with an overall unemployment rate of 11.4 per cent at that time. The unemployment rate among young males, at 19.1 per cent, was some 6 percentage points higher than that for young females which stood at the 13.3 per cent.

Aspects of the Labour Force Participation in the Youth Population

The overall rate of labour force participation among young people aged 15 to 24 years in 1982 was over 60 per cent. However, this aggregate figure cloaks considerable variation for persons of different ages within this group. This can be seen from Appendix Table A.3.2, which provides estimates from the Transition Survey of the numbers of persons at work, unemployed or outside the labour force according to single year of age. The position is summarised in Table 3.4 following which shows the relevant labour force participation rates for young males and females. Looking first at the figures for all persons these vary progressively from a very low involvement in the labour force for the younger ages (11 and 24 per cent respectively for those 15 and 16 years) to relatively high rates (of the order of 80 to 85 per cent) for those aged 22 years or over. It will be noted that for all ages the male labour force participation rates are higher than those for females. For the younger age categories (16 to 18 years) this is due to greater involvement by girls in education, but at the upper end of the age band this difference arises because at that stage some women begin to withdraw from the labour force for family and other such reasons. The latter

Table 3.4 *Labour Force participation rates for single years of age for the youth population, Spring 1982*

Age	Males	Females	Total
	%		
15	12.9	8.1	10.5
16	30.6	17.9	24.4
17	50.0	34.5	42.1
18	71.6	61.4	66.7
19	81.1	72.1	76.6
20	85.1	75.7	80.4
21	87.1	77.1	82.3
22	88.9	75.5	83.6
23	93.2	68.1	80.8
24	94.0	76.0	85.1
Total	67.2	54.0	60.7

feature is illustrated by the relatively sizeable numbers of females in the "other status" category in Appendix Table A.3.3, particularly in the older ages of the span under consideration.

The figures under discussion also indicate (see Table 3.5) that young people who enter the labour force at an early age face a high risk of unemployment. The unemployment rate is of the order of 50 per cent for those aged 15 years and about 30 per cent for persons aged 16. The rate decreases significantly as one moves from age 16 years to age 17 years in the case of girls (from 28 per cent to 21 per cent), but no such improvement is evident for boys of those ages. It is, therefore, a matter of some concern in the case of young males to note that in terms of labour market participation, almost one-third of 16 year olds and one half of 17 year olds were in the labour market.

Table 3.5 shows that the unemployment rate tends to fall markedly as one progresses upwards to the older age categories in the target group, the rate reducing to less than 10 per cent for those aged 23 and 24 years, which is similar to that which prevailed in the adult labour force generally, when the Transition Survey was taken.

Table 3.5 *Unemployment rates by single year of age for persons in the youth labour force, Spring 1982*

Age	Males	Females	Total
	%		
15	51.2	46.1	49.3
16	33.6	28.3	31.5
17	31.3	21.4	27.4
18	28.6	20.0	24.7
19	16.8	12.6	14.8
20	15.8	11.8	13.8
21	14.0	9.4	11.9
22	14.6	14.6	14.3
23	11.2	7.0	9.6
24	13.2	4.8	9.5
Total	19.1	13.3	16.6

The male unemployment rates for different ages are consistently higher than those for females. Among the older age categories in our target group this is possibly due to the "withdrawal" phenomenon referred to already, as for some women this would constitute an alternative to unemployment. However, in the very young age groups (where this feature would not apply and where, therefore, a more straightforward comparison is possible) the figures suggest that the smaller numbers of females who actually enter the labour market tend to fare somewhat better than their male counterparts.

The Influence of Educational Levels

The above-mentioned high rates of unemployment among very young members of the labour force do not arise solely for reasons associated with age but also relate to deficiencies in education and lack of skills. Information on this particular aspect is given in Appendix Table A.3.3 which provides estimates of the numbers in the target group in 1982 with different levels of educational attainment, further classified by broad economic status. The position regarding unemployment is summarised in Table 3.6 which shows unemployment rates

Table 3.6 *Unemployment rates in the Youth Labour Force in Spring 1982 for persons with different levels of educational attainment*

Education Level	Males	Females	Total
	%		
Persons without qualifications	29.9	25.9	28.4
Primary	44.8	46.5	45.5
Group Cert. not completed	28.3	25.2	27.3
Intermediate Cert. not completed	20.6	17.4	19.2
Lower Cycle, Second Level Completed	17.5	11.1	15.5
Group Cert.	23.3	12.5	21.2
Intermediate Certificate	14.0	10.7	12.8
Higher Cycle, Second Level Completed			
Leaving Certificate	11.8	8.3	9.7
Third Level Completed	7.1	8.8	7.8
All Levels	19.1	13.3	16.6

for groups with different levels of educational attainment. The estimates indicate an unemployment rate of over 28 per cent among those young people who left the educational system without having acquired any qualification. Within this category the rate approached 50 per cent for the relatively small but still significant group who were recorded as having quit education at the primary stage. For those who completed the lower cycle of second-level education the rate stood at nearly 16 per cent but it was as high as 21 per cent for those within this group who completed the more vocationally oriented Group Certificate. In fact this rate (i.e., for those with the Group Certificate) was higher than that for those who commenced but who did not complete the Intermediate Certificate course. The unemployment rate was nearly 10 per cent for those who attained Leaving Certificate standard and just under 8 per cent for young persons with third-level qualifications.

In the case of unqualified school leavers the figures do not indicate any substantial difference between males and females. However, for those who completed the lower cycle of second-level education the unemployment rate for boys (17½ per cent) is much higher than that for girls (11 per cent). This applies particularly for boys who have obtained the Group Certificate for whom the rate was a high as 23 per cent, as against 13 per cent for girls. This category includes a significant number of young males who undertake apprenticeship training subsequent to leaving school and one would not, therefore, have expected to find a high unemployment rate here. However the Survey period was one when redundancies among apprentices had begun to escalate (see NESC, 1985, p. 108), a feature which is further indicated by the uncharacteristically high degree of unemployment among trained persons in this educational subgroup as illustrated later in Chapter VI. With regard to those who completed the higher cycle of second-level education (Leaving Certificate) the unemployment rate for males was significantly higher than that for females, nearly 12 per cent as against 8½ per cent.

The foregoing analysis represents a particular instance where one can validly question whether the unemployment pattern identified has changed since 1982. The figures in Table 1.2 in Chapter I indicated that between 1982 and 1986 the youth unemployment rate increased from 16.6 per cent to over 25 per cent. In view of this it is reasonable to ask whether the emphasis, in so far as unemployment is concerned, may have changed in relation to the various educational categories involved. It is not possible to derive labour force "stock" figures classified by educational level similar to those shown in Appendix Table A.3.3 for years other than 1982. However, one can obtain an indication of unemployment trends by educational level in relation to the outflow from second-level education by using the results, of the annual Department of Labour School Leavers Survey. The relevant results given in Table 3.7, show for each cohort

Table 3.7: *Unemployment Rates One Year Subsequent to Leaving Education for Second-Level School Leavers, Classified by Educational Level Completed*

Year of Leaving	Level Completed			Total
	No Qualifications	1st Cycle 2nd Level	2nd Cycle 2nd Level	
	Per Cent			
1979	21.4	10.0	7.9	10.1
1980	30.8	17.5	13.4	16.9
1981	41.7	23.9	19.8	23.4
1982	48.8	34.3	37.0	39.2
1983	49.5	38.9	31.1	35.6
1984	65.6	36.7	38.5	41.0
1985	44.5	41.0	27.5	33.3
1986	60.4	34.7	30.0	34.6

Source: Department of Labour, Annual Surveys of Second-Level School Leavers.

of second-level school leavers from 1979 to 1986, the proportion of those who entered the labour force who were unemployed in the late Spring of the year subsequent to leaving school. Even though the actual values for these unemployment rates, when viewed in overall terms covering all educational levels, are different from those given earlier in Table 1.2, the results do indicate a similar trend, particularly in relation to the sharp escalation in youth unemployment which took place during the early years of the 1980s. However, while the previously mentioned "stock" figures reflect a slow but gradual increase in youth unemployment after 1983, the position as indicated by the flow estimates given in Table 3.7 for this period is rather erratic. This may be due partly to the re-emergence of sizeable emigration flows during this time, even though one would not necessarily expect emigration to exert such a significant influence during this very early stage of transition.[12]

It is important to note however that over the period in question the relationship between the magnitudes of the unemployment rates for different educational categories is much the same as that previously indicated by the 1982 "stock" figures in Table 3.6. Broadly speaking for both the "stock" and flow estimates, the unemployment rate for unqualified persons is about twice the overall rate for young people generally; that for persons who completed the first cycle of second-level education is approximately equal to this overall rate, while the rate for young persons of Leaving Certificate standard tends to be somewhat lower than the aggregate rate. On this basis, therefore, it can be held that the Transition Survey estimates given in Table 3.6, even though they refer to an earlier period, still provide a reasonable representation of the *relative* degree to which unemployment affects young persons of different levels of educational attainment.

12. For a more detailed discussion of this aspect, see Sexton (1987).

Industrial Sectors and Occupations

Let us now consider in somewhat more detail the industries in which young people were working and the kinds of occupation they engaged in, as shown by the results of the Transition Survey.

Looking first at the distribution by sector of the 293,000 young people who were at work in 1982 (Appendix Table A.3.4) it will be noted that the greatest concentration was in the Manufacturing and Building industries with almost 110,000 persons or over 37 per cent of the total. The next most important category was Commerce and Finance which accounted for over 70,000 persons or one-quarter of the total. There were nearly 41,000 young persons (14 per cent) working in the broad public sector covering Public Administration, Defence, Education and Health, while the rest of the Services sector comprising mainly private professional and personal services accounted for further 32,000 persons or over a tenth of the total at work. There were over 26,000 engaged in Agriculture. The full sectoral percentage distribution of the total of young persons who were at work in 1982 is given in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8 *Percentage distribution by sector of young people at work in 1982*

Sector	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
Agriculture	15.1	1.5	8.9
Manufacturing	27.0	31.9	29.2
Building	14.0	1.1	8.1
Commerce, Finance	20.8	28.0	24.1
Transport etc.	6.0	3.1	4.7
Public Admin. and Defence	5.6	7.1	6.6
Education, Health	3.6	11.9	7.4
Other Professional Services	2.0	4.1	2.9
Other	5.3	11.5	8.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notes: (1) The absolute figures on which these percentages are based are given in Appendix Table A3.4.

There are some significant differences between males and females in regard to the distribution of those at work across sectors. Males tend to be somewhat

more widely spread among the different sectors while there are noticeable concentrations of women in certain areas. Not unexpectedly, females hardly feature at all in some sectors such as Building and Construction and Agriculture. On the other hand Commerce and Finance accounts for 28 per cent of the total number of females at work, as against 21 per cent for males; in the broad Public sector (covering Public Administration, Defence, Health and Education) the corresponding proportions are 19 per cent and 9 per cent respectively. The miscellaneous sector "Other" (consisting mainly of personal services) is another area where there is a sizeable accumulation of young women in employment, accounting for nearly 12 per cent of total youth female employment, as against a corresponding percentage of 5 for young males.

It is also of interest to look at the unemployment situation in the youth labour market from a sectoral point of view. Relevant information on this aspect is also derivable from Appendix Table A.3.4 which contains a classification of the unemployed (excluding, of course, first job seekers) according to the sector in which they previously worked. By using these figures in association with those for the employment totals in each sector it is possible to derive "sectoral" unemployment rates, which are given in Table 3.9. The Building and Construction sector stands out as having by far the highest unemployment rate (18.2 per cent) followed by the miscellaneous "Other" services sector (14.2 per cent) which embraces mainly private personal service activities. The unemployment rate among young people associated with Manufacturing industry was almost 13 per cent and, rather surprisingly, a relatively high rate of 11½ per cent emerged for the Public Administration and Defence sector. The last mentioned result is attributable mainly to male unemployment in the sector and the indications are that it is related to job losses among unskilled workers in Local Authority employment.

The very low unemployment rate associated with the Agricultural sector (3 per cent) derives principally from the nature of the employment situation involved. Very few young people are in fact classified as unemployed in a farming context. Typically many of those involved are from a family farm background and if there is no substantial work available on the farm they seek or obtain it elsewhere. However even where job opportunities in the non-agricultural labour market are scarce, there is however always *some* work to be done on the family farm, even if this may be of a part-time or peripheral nature. The end result is that in a farming context most young people tend to be classified as "at work" irrespective as to how insignificant this work may be. With regard to private Professional services, the low unemployment rates here (2½ per cent) reflect the long-standing security of employment associated with those occupations. This is due essentially to barriers to entry to these activities which arise both from

Table 3.9 *Sectoral unemployment rates in the Youth Labour Force, 1982*

Sector	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
Agriculture	2.8	-	3.0
Manufacturing	14.4	11.1	12.8
Building	18.8	-	18.2
Commerce/Finance	13.2	6.1	9.6
Transport, Communications	11.0	-	8.0
Public Admin., Defence	17.4	4.1	11.5
Education, Health	1.7	8.1	6.9
Professional Services	3.1	1.8	2.3
Other	17.5	12.3	14.2
Total(1)	19.1	13.4	16.6

Notes: (1) The absolute figures on which these rates are based are given in Appendix Table A3.4.
(2) The aggregate rates shown include those seeking a first regular job.

limitations on numbers and from the costs of the education and training initially required.

Even though the above-mentioned data provide an interesting insight into particular aspects of the youth labour market, the analysis has its limitations. The broad sectors used involve aggregations of persons with a great variety of occupations and the risk factors associated with different skills vary greatly. It is perhaps more meaningful, therefore, to assess the position in terms of occupations and skill groupings rather than in terms of industrial sectors. Such information is given in Appendix Table A.3.5 which contains estimates in absolute terms of the numbers of young people at work and unemployed classified by occupation.

In assessing even the overall occupational distribution of those at work it is necessary at the outset to consider males and females separately as the distributional patterns are very different — much more so than in the case of the sectoral distribution just discussed. The relevant information is given in Table

3.10 which shows that males again tend to be fairly widely spread among the different categories. The highest concentration (over 20 per cent) is for occupations associated with the electrical/ electronic/engineering industry, with a further 14 per cent for occupations related to other manufacturing processes. Over 15 per cent of young males were engaged in agricultural occupations. The remainder are distributed over a range of different occupations and skills among which the highest proportion was for commercial/financial activities for which the relevant percentage was over 11 per cent.

Table 3.10 *Percentage distribution by occupations of young persons at work in 1982*

Occupation	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
Agricultural	15.3	1.4	9.0
Electrical/Engineering	20.4	5.8	13.8
Other Producers	14.1	13.6	13.9
Building etc.	5.5	0.5	3.1
Labourers, Unskilled	7.8		4.5
Transport etc.	4.9	3.4	4.3
Clerical	8.9	38.3	22.2
Commercial/Financial	11.4	17.0	13.9
Professional/Technical	6.1	8.3	7.1
Service workers	3.3	11.0	6.8
Other	2.1	0.7	1.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notes: (1) The absolute figures on which these percentages are based are given in Appendix Table A3. 5.

Young females in employment, on the other hand, are shown to be heavily concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations. Almost 40 per cent of the young women surveyed were engaged in clerical and office type activities and a further 17 per cent in occupations associated with Commerce and Finance. Over 19 per cent were in industrial occupations and a similar proportion were engaged in professional, technical and service activities. The factors which are

considered to have contributed to this concentration are discussed later in the Report, particularly in Chapter VI which deals with training.

Turning to the question of unemployment among persons with different occupations, it will be seen from Table 3.11 that the highest unemployment rate was for the exclusively male category covering labourers and unskilled manual workers for which the rate was as high as 28 per cent. The next highest rate (21 per cent) was for male workers with transport-related occupations. The

Table 3.11 *Unemployment rates for different occupational groups in the youth labour force in 1982*

Occupation	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
Agricultural	3.1	-	3.3
Electrical/Engineering	8.1	5.0	7.5
Other Producers	13.0	15.0	13.9
Building workers	16.8	-	16.7
Labourers/Unskilled	28.0	-	28.4
Transport etc.	21.0	16.4	19.3
Clerical	8.4	2.3	3.6
Commerce, Finance	10.3	7.4	8.7
Professional workers, Technical	1.0	5.1	3.3
Service workers	18.5	14.0	15.2
Total(1)	19.1	13.4	16.6

Notes: (1) The absolute figures on which these rates are based are given in Appendix Table A3. 5.

(2) The overall unemployment rate includes persons seeking their first job and also covers persons in the labour force whose occupation was not known.

lowest rates were for activities associated with the Electrical and Electronics industry, for Professional and Technical occupations and for those engaged in Agricultural work. Generally speaking the unemployment rates among females in different occupations were lower than for males, the rate for young girls engaged in clerical or office work being particularly low at just over 2 per cent. It must be borne in mind, however, that the female unemployment rates for some occupations are based on very small sample sizes and caution should be exercised in interpreting the figures.

Chapter IV

TRANSITION FROM EDUCATION TO WORKING LIFE

In the preceding chapter the position of the youth population was examined in terms of various social and economic characteristics. In this chapter we move on to consider more specifically the actual phase of transition from education to working life and certain aspects of first *regular* job obtained.[13] An analysis of the process of transition from education to working life is important for a number of reasons. In the first place the nature and circumstances of this transition, and the problems encountered during it, can have significant long-term effects. Furthermore, over the last decade or so, considerable public resources have been allocated to aiding this transitional stage and it is desirable, therefore, to shed as mugh light as possible on the salient aspects involved. In the latter context, however, it must be recognised that even though relevant issues are considered under a number of headings, the impact of more recent initiatives, such as the Social Guarantee for Young People introduced in late 1985, is not reflected in the analyses. The actual transition phase is analysed in terms of variables such as duration of search for first job, the means of search used to find this job, the nature of the first employment acquired (i.e., sectors or occupations) and whether the procurement of a first job entailed a change of residence.

Duration of Search for First Regular Job

Turning to the question of the time spent searching for a first job, Table 4.1 gives a frequency count according to different duration categories, as well as showing overall average durations. It should be noted that, in common with most of the other tables subsequently discussed in this chapter, this particular analysis relates only to those young people in the target group who actually ever had a first regular job — some 356,000 people in all, or 93 per cent of the total group covered. The remaining 7 per cent consisted of persons who were still seeking their first regular employment when the Transition Survey was taken, or economically inactive persons who never entered the labour force.

The table shows that for those who had had a first regular job the overall average duration of search was 8.6 weeks. The average duration for males (9.2 weeks) was somewhat higher than that for females (7.9 weeks). Some 48 per

13. This first period of employment was considered *regular* only if it was commenced on the understanding that it constituted permanent employment, or if entered into without such an understanding, that it lasted for a period of at least six months.

4.1 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by duration of search for first regular job*

Duration of Search	Males	Females	Total
	%		
Job arranged or no search required	50.0	46.2	48.2
1-4 weeks	15.5	18.6	17.0
5-13 weeks	17.2	19.7	18.4
14-26 weeks	8.6	7.8	8.2
27-52 weeks	5.5	5.9	5.7
53 weeks or over	3.2	1.8	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
(000)	(185.7)	(169.8)	(355.5)
Averaged duration of search (weeks)	9.2	7.9	8.6

Note: This table relates only to those who had a first regular job.

cent of young people left full-time education having already secured a regular job, or else found one without having to engage in any formal job search; a further 17 per cent acquired regular employment within four weeks of commencing search. Thus, up to two-thirds of the young people surveyed at the time of the Transition Survey had found their first employment within a month of leaving the educational system, making allowance for the fact that some of this time may have been spent other than in job search.[14]

Appendix Tables A.4.1 to A.4.4 contain analyses of first regular job search duration according to a sequence of explanatory variables. The first such table (A.4.1) involves a classification by educational cohort. The position appears to be rather stable for the early cohorts covering the period from 1973 to 1977, the average first job search durations during this period being about 10 weeks. However, subsequent to this the averages begin to fall, declining to just over 6 weeks for those who left the educational system in 1980 or later. However,

14. The Transition Survey questionnaire contained questions designed to determine the time spent actually searching for a regular job – as distinct from periods spent on holiday, in incidental seasonal employment, or engaged in family related activities, etc. However, this is not always an easy distinction to make in individual cases and the estimates should be regarded as providing only broad estimates of the search durations involved.

the last-mentioned figure is strongly affected by the influence of "cohort truncation"; in other words, a significant number of young people who left education in 1980 or later would not have had time to "complete" their search for first employment and their exclusion thus gives rise to a downward bias in the calculation of the average search duration. On the other hand, the estimates for the earlier cohorts would include data for many young people who spent a considerable time seeking a first regular job — an eventuality which is effectively precluded for the later cohorts. Hence the average figure of 6.1 weeks for the most recent cohort category is effectively representative of young people who were more successful in the labour market.

The data given in Table A.4.1 can be broadly interpreted as indicating a fairly constant duration of search for first job for the earlier cohorts, with perhaps some evidence of a fall in the average duration in the more favourable economic circumstances in or about 1978. There is some evidence to support the latter contention if one looks at the average search durations for *individual* cohort years as given in Table 4.2. One will notice, for example, the significant fall (from 10.5 weeks to under 8 weeks) between 1977 and 1978 followed by a slight rise in the average for 1979. Subsequent to 1979 the decreases evident can be attributed to the influence of cohort truncation. Despite the apparent uniformity over time evident for the figures for earlier periods, it must be borne in mind that the composition of the earlier cohorts would have the effect of increasing the associated average job search durations. These cohorts include higher proportions of unskilled workers who tend to face greater difficulties on entry to the labour market. It will subsequently be shown (Table A.4.4) that, for young males in particular, the average first job search durations associated with low skill occupations are significantly higher than average.

Table 4.1 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by duration of search for first regular job*

Sex	Cohort									Total
	1973 or earlier	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981 or later	
	weeks									
Males	12.3	12.4	9.8	10.6	11.7	7.8	8.7	7.0	5.2	9.2
Females	8.5	9.8	10.2	8.3	9.2	7.8	7.3	6.8	5.1	7.9
All persons	10.6	11.4	9.9	9.5	10.5	7.8	8.0	6.9	5.2	8.6

Note: This table relates only to those who had a first regular job.

Appendix Table A.4.2 illustrates the variation in the duration of search for first job *according to highest level of educational attainment.* A notable feature of this

table is the relatively high percentage for those without educational qualifications who did not have to engage in any search activity — almost 52 per cent compared with the overall average of 48 per cent. This feature is all the more notable since in terms of average duration of job search the figure for unqualified young people (11.5 weeks) is substantially greater than the overall average of 8.6 weeks. This suggests that the situation, in so far as it relates to these young people, seems to be one of extremes. On the one hand there are apparently unqualified young persons who leave the educational system to take immediately available but probably unskilled employment of a tenuous and insecure nature. Typically many such jobs are obtained through family or other personal contacts — a feature which appears to be borne out by later analyses in this chapter. On the other hand there are those who leave education prematurely without any real prospect of employment and clearly have to search for a very considerable time before they secure a foothold in the job market. This is indicated by the fact that nearly 12 per cent of first job search durations for unqualified young persons exceeded six months, compared with a corresponding proportion of about 7 per cent for those who left education with second-level qualifications.

The above-mentioned figures (i.e., from Table A.4.2) show that the average duration of search for first job is somewhat longer for those young persons who left school at the higher cycle of second-level education when compared with those who left at the lower cycle (8.2 weeks compared with 7.3 weeks). A relevant aspect here may be that young persons with higher qualifications are prepared to spend more time testing the job market. A further contributing factor may be the type of jobs for which senior cycle school leavers apply. Such jobs may offer better career prospects and greater security, but may also necessitate more formalised and lengthy application procedures. Entry to the Public Service, for example, is usually at fixed points in each year, often involving an extended period between leaving school, notification of a job offer and the job actually starting. Many young people may have considered such a waiting period as a time of job search, even though a regular job had in fact been secured. On the other hand, it should be borne in mind that many young males who leave education at the lower cycle of second-level enter apprenticeships, which in the period covered (from the early 1970s to 1982) involved *direct* entry to employment in order to acquire training "on the job".[15]

In summary, while the figures in Table A.4.2 do not indicate substantial variations in job search duration between those with different levels of educational attainment, they highlight the fact that some of those who leave the system without any qualifications and without prior contacts in the labour market, have to spend very long periods searching for their first employment.

15. In recent years the great majority of first year apprentices have spent their first year "off the job" in a training centre.

Further information derivable from the Transition Survey indicates that the circumstances of the transition experienced by unqualified school leavers did not change significantly throughout the 1970s. This is evident from Table 4.3 which shows average first regular job search durations for those without educational qualifications further classified by single year of age cohort. Even though some variation is evident in the figures it is difficult to discern an overall clear-cut pattern. The figures for males, however, do suggest some deterioration in the circumstances of the unqualified in 1976 when the average duration of search for first regular job rose to a particularly high level — 18½ weeks. This was followed by an apparent improvement in the more buoyant 1978 period when the average fell to 9½ weeks. It is not possible to derive a meaningful interpretation from the figures for later years (1980, 1981 or later) because of the problems of cohort truncation.

Table 4.3: *Average duration of search for first regular job for those without educational qualifications classified by cohort (single year)*

	Cohort									
Sex	*1973 or earlier*	*1974*	*1975*	*1976*	*1977*	*1978*	*1979*	*1980*	*1981 or later*	*Total*
					Weeks					
Males	15.1	17.3	9.1	18.5	15.3	9.6	12.5	10.1	3.3	12.9
Females	9.8	14.3	9.3	7.9	8.9	13.4	10.7	6.8	6.2	9.9
All persons	12.4	16.1	9.2	13.4	12.3	11.6	11.6	8.6	4.4	11.5

Note: This table relates only to those who had a first regular job.

Appendix Tables A.4.3 and A. 4.4 provide information on variations in duration of search for first job relating to *sector of first job* and the *occupations engaged in*. The most striking feature in the first table is the extended duration of job search associated with public sector recruitment, particularly for males for whom it was about 18 weeks. A more detailed inspection of the survey results indicated that these long durations reflect a diverse range of activities in this sector which involve, on the one hand, those seeking clerical, technical and administrative posts and, on the other hand, unskilled operatives, mainly recruited by Local Authorities, for whom first job search duration tends to be considerably longer. This leads one to suggest that such unskilled public sector jobs appear to be an employment of last resort in many cases. This table also shows that the average search duration associated with the industrial sector is significantly higher than the overall average of 8.6 weeks, the figures being in excess of 10 weeks for both males and females.

The occupational analysis (Table A.4.4) shows that young persons without skills have to search for a very long time in order to gain a foothold in the job

market. Those young persons who took up their first job as building workers or as labourers and unskilled workers (virtually all males) generally had to spend some 15 weeks (nearly twice the overall average duration) searching for this employment. These figures highlight an interesting feature of the different search patterns for males and females. Even though, in overall terms, the average duration of search for first job is somewhat shorter for girls, this global figure is heavily influenced by the "clerical workers" category for which the relevant average is one of the lowest among the figures presented. For quite a number of occupations relating to the electrical and engineering industries, transport, commerce, etc., and in the case of professional and technical employment, the figures show that young girls have to engage in job search for significantly longer periods than is the case for young males.

Main Means Used to Obtain First Regular Job

A further important feature of the transition from education to working life concerns the means used by young people in obtaining their first regular job. Table 4.4 presents the principal results under this heading which show that almost 38 per cent of young persons secured their first employment by means of personal or family contacts. A further 21 per cent took the initiative themselves and approached firms directly by calling in person, while 18 per cent found their first jobs by answering or placing advertisements in newspapers. A total of 8 per cent entered family businesses and, perhaps somewhat disconcertingly, slightly less than 5 per cent of young people cited the National Manpower Service as their main medium for obtaining a first regular job. The figures show little difference between the methods adopted by males and females with the exception of "entering family business" which is almost an entirely male phenomenon. On the whole a predominant feature of the results is the overwhelmingly informal nature of the means by which employment is obtained in the youth labour market.

It should be borne in mind that the data under discussion relate to those who, at the time of the 1982 Transition Survey, had actually found a first regular job. The figures do not cover the estimated 22,000 young persons who were still seeking their first jobs. Thus the estimates can be said to relate to a more successful group of young people and do not cast any light on the problems faced by the sizeable minority who at the time of the inquiry had failed to find work (and whose number had risen to nearly 40,000 by Spring 1986).

It is of interest to mention that the percentages associated with the different job finding methods described in Table 4.4 bear a close resemblance to corresponding figures for the United Kingdom given in Ashton and Maguire (1987). The latter data, which relate to four urban centres,[16] show that the

16. Leicester, St. Albans, Stafford, Sunderland.

Table 4.4 *Youth population outside of education in 1982, classified by main means of obtaining first regular job*

Main Means of Obtaining First Regular Job	Males	Females	Total
	%		
National Manpower Service	4.6	4.7	4.6
Private Employment Agency	0.2	1.5	0.8
Answering or placing advertisements	15.4	21.1	18.2
Calling in person to firms	20.6	20.9	20.7
Writing to/telephoning firms	2.1	4.4	3.2
Personal contact involving a relative	17.3	14.8	16.1
Other personal contact	20.0	23.2	21.5
Entered family business	13.9	1.6	8.0
Other means	6.0	7.9	6.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
(000)	(184.8)	(169.3)	(353.2)

Table relates only to those who held a first regular job.

Government Jobcentres were cited in between 6 and 13 per cent of cases in regard to finding a first job. Interestingly the proportion associated with the Jobcentres were shown to be higher in connection with the procurement of subsequent jobs, which perhaps, suggests that such centres cater more for the unemployed.

It should also be borne in mind that since the above-mentioned figures relate to the main means used to *obtain* a first regular job they may not fully reflect the extent to which different approaches were used in *seeking* work. A respondent's recall perception may be that a job was acquired by a particular means, but in fact several different methods may have simultaneously been used which may have indirectly influenced the final event. These may have included the NMS or, for example, school guidance services. This contention is supported by the fact that when questions are framed in terms of obtaining information on *job search* (as distinct from job acquisition) the NMS emerges as a more important alternative. The 1985 NESC Report on Manpower Policy, Breen's (1984b) study

and the YEA Report on Transition from School to Work all indicate a fairly substantial utilisation of the NMS in the context of the search for work, the relevant proportions being in the range 20 to 40 per cent.[17] On the other hand, a more pessimistic interpretation of these results, when viewed in association with the Transition Survey data, would be that many young people initially use the NMS as a search mechanism, but relatively few find employment as a result. One cannot, however, exclude the possibility that the NMS, through its placement or counselling activities, may have directly or indirectly contributed to the acquisition of employment in a significant number of cases. There is evidence which indicates that, in the context of job search, the State placement agency tends to be used more extensively by the unemployed, as distinct from those who are already in a job but seeking work (either as additional or alternative work). The above-mentioned 1985 NESC study, quoting estimates from the 1983 Labour Force Survey, indicates that nearly a quarter of persons (of all ages) who were unemployed and seeking work in 1983 were using the NMS as a principal means of search, compared with less than 15 per cent of those who were already in employment but seeking work.[18] Breen (1984b), in utilising the Department of Labour Annual Survey of Second-Level School Leavers data, found similar evidence in relation to early school leavers.

Table A.4.5 in the Appendix presents a sub-division of the main means of obtaining first regular employment according to highest level of educational attainment. These results show, not unexpectedly, that the more highly qualified young people secure employment through more formalised channels involving advertisements in newspapers. Almost 44 per cent of those who completed third-level education secured their first job by answering or placing advertisements in newspapers; the corresponding percentage for those who completed the higher cycle of second-level education was 28 per cent. At the lower end of the educational spectrum unqualified young people, for the most part, tend to use informal or personal means. Nearly 50 per cent of the unqualified young people in the Survey target population found their first job by means of personal contacts and a further 28 per cent by means of direct approaches to employers. An interesting general feature of these results is that the medium of personal contact, other than that involving a relative, is fairly sizeable in percentage terms for persons of all educational levels, indicating that informal or personal methods of recruitment and job procurement are significant throughout the entire Irish labour market.[19]

17. The relevant figures in the NESC Report (p.325) relate to job seekers of all ages and Breen's data (Chapter 7) involve multiple choices.
18. Table A.32, page 325 of the NESC Report.
19. This phenomenon is by no means exclusive to the Irish labour market. Figures from the 1982 ESD Rayner Scrutiny of the United Kingdom placement service, quoted in the 1985 NESC study on Manpower Policy, indicated that nearly 50 per cent of recruitments by enterprises relating to manual operatives were through informal contacts.

Tables A.4.6 and A.4.7 analyse main means of first job acquisition according to sectors and occupations. Looking first at the sectoral figures these show, hardly surprisingly, that more formalised means of obtaining first employment are used more frequently by those who enter public employment. This is in contrast to those sectors with a high proportion of unskilled or semi-skilled workers, such as the building industry, where the different forms of personal contact are of much greater relative importance. The position for manufacturing industry, commerce/finance, and transport/communication tends to be intermediate between the two extremes, involving a mixture of formal and informal methods of obtaining jobs.

The occupational classification outlined in Table A.4.7 exhibits the same general pattern. A total of 45 per cent of professional/technical workers obtained their first job by answering or placing advertisements in newspapers, with 20 per cent of this group securing this employment by means of personal contacts. On the other hand, only 8 per cent of those who took up building and unskilled occupations found their first job by more formalised application procedures but some 50 per cent obtained such employment through various types of personal contact. Clerical and service workers appear to employ the greatest range or combination of methods in finding jobs. It should be noted that 7 per cent of those who entered clerical occupations cited the National Manpower Service as the main means of obtaining their first regular employment. Indeed, of the estimated 16,000 young persons in the target group who listed the NMS as the main means of obtaining a first regular job, some 30 per cent entered clerical occupations. This may reflect the influence of placements achieved through the Work Experience Programme, a great many of which relate to the clerical or office work area.

Change of Residence to take up First Regular Job

Geographical mobility is an aspect of some importance in the context of the operation of the labour market. It was considered of interest, therefore, to analyse the procurement of a first regular job by young people in terms of whether this involved a change of residence. This variable, it should be noted, is designed to cover all residence changes, including those taking place within an area or locality. The overall figures in relation to this aspect (see Table 4.5) show that the take-up of a first regular job involved a change of residence in less than 10 per cent of cases. The proportion for girls, at nearly 11 per cent, was somewhat higher than that for boys which was just over 8 per cent.

The results indicate significant differences between levels of educational attainment in relation to this characteristic. Only some 5 per cent of those who left school prior to, or at the lower cycle of, second-level education changed residence to take up a first job; the proportion was over 14 per cent for young

Table 4.5 *Proportion of the youth population who are outside of education in 1982 who changed residence to take up a first regular job, classified by educational level attained*

Educational Level	Males	Females	Total
	%		
No qualifications	5.1	4.2	4.7
Second Level:			
1st cycle completed	5.9	5.0	5.6
2nd cycle completed	11.4	16.1	14.3
Third Level completed	28.6	44.6	34.9
Total	8.1	10.8	9.4

Note: This table relates only to those who had a first regular job.

persons who left school at the Leaving Certificate stage and it was over one-third for third-level leavers. This pattern is attributable to a number of factors. In the first place it is indicative of the fact that attainment of higher qualifications generally conveys a wider perspective on life and a greater sense of confidence, which enables, indeed motivates, young people to be more mobile in taking up their first employment. It also relates to the fact that the employment opportunities to which young people with higher educational qualifications aspire tend to be concentrated in specific locations, particularly in the larger urban centres, which frequently requires residential movement if these openings are to be availed of. Job opportunities not requiring a high level of skill (such as those in the services and building areas, for example) tend to be more widely spread geographically. In interpreting the low mobility figures for those without qualifications it must be remembered that many such persons, apart from being unskilled, also tend to leave school at an early age. This in itself constitutes a disincentive to move away from home as young persons of this age would not possess the maturity or self-confidence required to travel far afield in search of work. Nor indeed would the wages they earn enable them to survive outside of their family environment. On the other hand, many of the job opportunities available to

young persons with better educational qualifications are obtained through centralised or national recruitment procedures organised by the public sector, semi-State agencies and some of the larger private companies. In these circumstances jobs would have been successfully procured before any change of residence took place, or need even be contemplated. It is obviously a rather different matter to venture forth in search of unskilled or even skilled manual work in a situation where no organised recruitment procedures exist, and where many local labour markets already involve an oversupply.

An interesting feature of the results shown in Table 4.5 is that for the higher cycle of second-level education and for the third-level sector, women are shown to change residence more readily than their male counterparts. However, as we shall subsequently illustrate, this difference is largely attributable to the pattern of movement associated with a small number of specific occupations.

Tables 4.6 and 4.7 provide information on early labour force mobility in terms of industrial sectors and occupations. The results are consistent with the pattern already evident from the earlier tables. Considering first the sectoral analysis, the figures show that up to one-third of new entrants to the Public sector changed residence on taking up employment, a feature which is presumably attributable to both the geographical concentration effect and the educational requirements involved. The estimates also show that a relatively high proportion (nearly 16 per cent) of those who took up first employment in the area of other (mainly private) professional activities tend to move away from their domestic environment.

When the change of residence phenomenon is viewed in terms of the occupations engaged in rather than in relation to sectors (see Table 4.6), the figures for males indicate a modest degree of variation. The occupations which stand out relate to the residual service activities category for which the measured incidence of residence change was over 28 per cent and professional and technical workers (15 per cent). There was also a fairly significant degree of residential movement associated with occupations related specifically to building and construction for which the proportion of movers was nearly 13 per cent. This forms an interesting contrast to the figures for unskilled young workers generally, of which only 7 per cent moved on obtaining their first employment.

The situation is much more diverse for girls with the proportion who changed residence for first employment varying from as high as 40 per cent for those with professional and technical occupations to as low as 3 per cent for those engaged in industrial activities. The former high figures would be due in part to the sizeable numbers of young girls who enter the teaching and nursing professions. An interesting feature of these figures is that for most occupations, other than those related to professional and technical activities, the degree of

Table 4.6 *Proportion of the youth population who were outside of education in 1982 who changed residence to take up a first regular job, classified by sector*

Sector of First Regular Job	Males	Females	Total
	%		
Agriculture	5.5	-	5.4
Manufacturing	5.5	3.4	4.4
Building	9.4	-	9.0
Commerce, Finance	5.4	4.4	4.8
Transport, Communications	7.1	8.6	7.6
Public Administration, Defence	29.7	30.8	30.1
Education, Health	16.5	39.4	33.8
Other Professional Services	11.1	18.3	15.7
Other	12.5	13.6	13.2
All Sectors	8.1	10.8	9.4

Table 4.7 *Youth population who are outside of education in 1982 who changed residence to take up a first regular job, classified by occupation*

Occupation of First Regular Job	Males	Females	Total
	%		
Agriculture	5.1	-	5.0
Electrical, Engineering	6.4	2.7	5.9
Other producers	4.6	2.9	3.7
Building, etc.	12.8	-	11.7
Labourers, Unskilled, etc.	6.9	-	6.6
Transport, etc.	3.9	5.9	4.6
Clerical	10.1	11.6	11.2
Commerce, etc.	6.8	3.8	5.0
Professional, Technical	14.7	40.1	29.5
Service and other workers	28.4	18.5	21.7
All Occupations	8.1	10.8	9.4

residential movement is shown to be somewhat lower for females than it is for males.[20]

The tables just discussed allow only a limited or unidimensional interpretation of the factors influencing change of residence on the take-up of first regular job. The phenomenon in question is obviously subject to many parallel influences some of which may interact with one another. It is therefore appropriate to attempt to formulate a means of assessment which simultaneously embraces as many relevant aspects as possible. With this objective in mind a multiple cross-sectional regression analysis was undertaken with a dichotomous variable involving change of residence (1 = change, 0 = no change) as the dependent variable, and with the following range of explanatory variables:-

	Variable	Formulation
1.	Age at leaving full-time education	AGE LEAVING EDUC. (actual age)
2.	Education 2nd Level, 1st Cycle 2nd Level, 2nd Cycle 3rd Level	EDUCATION 1st Cyc (1,0) 2nd Cyc (1,0) 3rd Level (1,0) (The "without qualifications" catetory has been used as a reference base).
3.	Sex	SEX (1 = males, 0 = females)
4.	Real weekly net earnings on take-up of first regular job) (expressed in terms of 1982 prices – see Chapter VIII)	REAL EARNINGS FRJ
5.	Duration of search for first regular job, in weeks	DUR SEARCH FRJ
6.	Occupation on take-up of first regular job Electrical, Engineering, etc. Other Producers Building, etc., workers Labourers, Unskilled manual Transport, Communications, etc., workers Clerical	OCCUPATION Electrical (1,0) Other Producers (1,0) Building (1,0) Labourers (1,0) Transport (1,0) Clerical (1,0)

20. The overall female ratio is greater therefore because of the effect of one category – which serves to illustrate how structural factors can significantly influence the global picture in terms of male/female comparisons. This is an aspect which has to be borne in mind in other similar circumstances where apparently global differences in regard to sex are really attributable to structural variations (such as those related to industries or occupations) rather than to essentially gender related factors.

Commercial, financial, etc., workers	Commercial (1,0)
Professional, Technical	Prof., Tech. (1,0)
	(The "Other Service workers" category has been used as a reference base).
7. Residence on leaving full-time education	RESIDENCE
Rest of East	Rest of East (1,0)
South East	S. East (1,0)
North East	N. East (1,0)
Midlands	Midlands (1,0)
Mid-West	Mid-West (1,0)
West	West (1,0)
South West	S. West (1,0)
North West, Donegal	NW, Donegal (1,0)
	(The Dublin region has been used as a reference base)
8. Cohort (Year of leaving full-time education)	COHORT
1976	1976
1977	1977
1978	1978
1979	1979
1980	1980
1981 or later	1981 +
	(The cohorts which left school in 1975 or earlier are used as the reference category)

It will be noted that in the case of a number of the explanatory variables (education, occupation, place of residence on leaving full-time education, cohort) a pivotal arrangement is used whereby one category is excluded and the resultant coefficients then reflect the differences between the specified categories relative to the excluded or "reference" group. For example, in regard to educational attainment no variable is specified for those respondents without any qualifications and the resultant regression coefficients relating to higher levels of attainment then represent the differences in relation to change of residence *vis-a-vis* the position for those who are educationally unqualified. Similarly in the case of occupations the residual "other service workers" category have been used as a reference base, while for the cohort variable the combination of annual cohorts covering those who left education in 1975 or earlier years has been used in a similar manner.

It must be borne in mind that the regression analyses presented should be regarded as providing only a general indication of the relationships in question, and can be subjected only to a very broad interpretation. Even allowing for the fact that the dependent variable is a dummy, the total degree of variation captured is rather small ($R^2 = 0.10$) and there are, therefore, likely to be substantive influences other than those specified affecting the position. One such factor which, for example, immediately comes to mind is *local* labour market conditions (as distinct from broad regional effects which are catered for in the regression). The work of Elias and Blanchflower (1988) identified a significant relationship between this aspect and geographical mobility in the sense that "outward flows" were associated with locations of high unemployment (and corresponding "inward flows" with localities of low unemployment). Another important aspect to bear in mind is that since the results relate to the members of the youth target group who were resident in the country in 1982, they provide only a partial picture of residence change on transition since they cannot obviously take account of young persons who had already emigrated — a deficiency of some significance in the context of an analysis of residential movement in Ireland.

A notable feature of the results (given in Table 4.8) is the fact that the degree of variation explained differs significantly for males and females — for young males it is rather low (0.07) but significantly higher for females (0.15).

A summary inspection of the results reveals noticeably fewer significant variables for males than is the case for females. Duration of search for first regular job, the occupational and place of residence variables, and the earlier cohort variables are not shown as having a substantial impact on residence change for males at the stage of transition. The fact that the later cohort variables are significant (in the sense of indicating a reduction in residential movement) is an outcome which can presumably be attributed to the onset of recession in the post 1980 period. Age on leaving education, higher levels of educational attainment and real net earnings are indicated as having a positive effect (in the sense of increasing the probability of movement). The actual coefficient for the earnings variable for males, even though extremely small, is associated with a very high level of statistical significance, indicating that higher starting up earnings has a widely spread but limited influence in inducing residential movement among males at the transition stage. The figures indicate that an increment of £10 in net weekly earnings for first regular jobs increases the associated probability of residential movement by about 1 per cent.

The results for females are quite different. While the positive effects of higher levels of educational attainment are similar to those evident for males, age at leaving full-time education and net earnings are *not* indicated as being significant in influencing residential change on the take-up of a first regular job. However, virtually all the occupational categories specified in the analyses are shown to

Table 4.8: *Results of Multiple Regression designed to estimate the influence of certain variables on the extent of change of residence to take up first regular job.*

Variable	*Males*		*Females*		*All Persons*	
	Coefficient	*t*	*Coefficient*	*t*	*Coefficient*	*t*
AGE LEAVING EDUC.	0.014	3.03	0.010	1.74	0.011	3.20
EDUCATION						
1st Cycle	0.004	0.30	0.004	0.25	0.007	0.65
2nd Cycle	0.031	1.64	0.066	2.99	0.056	3.90
3rd Level	0.170	4.75	0.183	3.91	0.170	5.93
SEX	–	–	–	–	−0.190	−2.23
REAL EARNINGS FRJ	0.001	5.77	0.000	1.22	0.001	5.38
DUR. SEARCH FRJ	−0.000	−1.68	0.001	−2.44	−0.000	−2.53
OCCUPATION FRJ (C)						
Electrical	−0.022	−1.40	−0.139	−4.01	−0.050	−3.38
Other Producers	−0.040	−2.32	−0.094	−4.84	−0.064	−4.98
Building	0.037	1.42	−0.134	−1.56	0.013	0.49
Labourers	−0.021	−1.13	−0.154	−1.86	−0.041	−2.20
Transport	−0.026	−1.13	−0.072	−2.21	−0.040	−2.08
Clerical	−0.019	−0.94	−0.062	−3.49	−0.039	−3.06
Commercial	−0.022	−1.26	−0.112	−6.29	−0.067	−5.40
Prof, Tech.	−0.073	−2.46	0.148	5.02	0.063	3.03
RESIDENCE						
Rest of East	−0.034	−1.67	0.078	3.57	0.022	1.51
S. East	0.020	1.11	0.054	2.50	0.036	2.60
N. East	−0.008	−0.34	0.066	2.69	0.027	1.62
Midlands	0.004	0.17	0.034	1.26	0.021	1.21
Mid-West	0.048	2.80	0.160	8.52	0.105	8.26
West	0.008	0.38	0.045	1.76	0.030	1.78
S. West	−0.011	−0.70	0.023	1.34	0.007	0.56
N.W. Donegal	0.031	1.43	0.070	2.60	0.051	3.04
COHORT						
1976	0.004	0.20	0.030	1.38	0.019	1.35
1977	0.003	0.16	0.021	0.99	0.012	0.86
1978	−0.033	−1.86	−0.004	−0.18	−0.017	−1.32
1979	−0.028	−1.60	0.009	0.44	−0.007	−0.50
1980	−0.060	−3.31	−0.045	−2.10	−0.052	−3.74
1981+	−0.082	−4.49	−0.121	−5.58	−0.098	−6.99
CONSTANT	−0.166		−0.078		−0.119	
	R^2 = 0.070 n = 2,643		R^2 = 0.150 n = 2,503		R^2 = 0.100 n = 5,148	

Note: The significance levels for t (n = ∞) are $t_{5\%}$ = 1.96, $t_{1\%}$ = 2.58, $t_{0.1\%}$ = 3.29.

be linked with a lower incidence of residential change than that which pertains to the base "other services "category, with the exception of the category relating

to professional and technical activities which are indicated as being associated with a relatively high level of movement.

The results for the location variables relating to place of residence at the point of leaving school are particularly interesting in the case of females. Most of these results are significant and all of them are strongly positive, indicating a relatively high degree of residential movement at the transition stage in the regions outside of Dublin (which is the reference or pivotal area in this instance). This is in stark contrast to the figures for young males none of which (but one — the Mid-West) attain statistical significance. It would thus appear that, apart from the influence of other relevant factors, young females possess an inherently greater propensity than males to move in order to obtain their first employment.

The figures for the Mid-West region really stand out. Apart from the fact that this is the only region for which the results for both males and females are significant, the relationship in the case of females is shown to be particularly strong (the t-value is 8.52). For this region the results suggest that the take-up of a first regular job by a young female has an associated probability of residential movement some 16 percentage points higher than that for the Dublin region.

The cohort variables for females exhibit a similar pattern to that evident for males, with indications of a substantial diminution in residential movement at transition in the post-1980 period. This finding is similar to that of Ashton and Maguire (1987) who, in their study of the youth labour market in four selected urban locations in the United Kingdom, found that mobility had decreased over the 1974-81 period.

Chapter V

EARLY EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE

Having analysed the stage of transition from education to working life let us now turn to consider the early employment experience of young people as indicated by the Transition Survey. This chapter is concerned with such aspects as the number of jobs held, the duration of first employment, the sectors and occupations relating to this employment, intersectoral movements in the immediate post-transition stage and the reasons indicated by young people for leaving their first regular employment.

1. *Number of Jobs Held*

Table 5.1 provides information on the numbers of jobs held by young persons in the target group as a whole as well as for those in different cohort categories. The figures show that in aggregate terms just less than 50 per cent of the young persons covered had held one job, some 25 per cent had been employed in two different jobs while 20 per cent had experienced three or more jobs. Some 5 per cent had never been in a job, a group who comprised mainly those who were still seeking their first regular employment when the Survey was taken.

Obviously the number of jobs held in this context is heavily influenced by the total time spent in the labour force and it follows that this number would, on average, be significantly greater for those from the earlier educational cohorts. The above-mentioned table shows that for those who left the educational system in 1973 or earlier, only a quarter had held just one job by the time the 1982 Transition Survey was taken, while as many as 45 per cent had been in three or more jobs. On the other hand, for those from the most recent (1980 or later) cohort category, two-thirds had held only one job and only 4 per cent had been in three or more jobs. It is also possible to illustrate this pattern in terms of the average number of jobs held. These data (also given in the final row of Table 5.1) show that persons who had left the educational system in 1973 or earlier held on average 2.7 jobs. This average number decreases progressively over the cohorts to give an average of 2.3 for 1973/75, 2.1 for 1976/77, 1.7 for 1978/79 1.3 for 1980 or later.

An interesting aspect to emerge from the Transition Survey in regard to the number of jobs held is that this does *not* appear to be related to qualification or social background, etc. This is evident from Appendix Table A.5.1 which shows for the survey respondents a classification of the average number of jobs

Table 5.1 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by number of jobs held and by cohort*

Number of Jobs Held	Males						Females						All Persons					
	Cohort						Cohort						Cohort					
	1973 or earlier	1974 1975	1976 1977	1978 1979	1980 or later	All years	1973 or earlier	1974 1975	1976 1977	1978 1979	1980 or later	All years	1973 or earlier	1974 1975	1976 1977	1978 1979	1980 or later	All years
	Percentages																	
Never had a job	2.0	1.8	1.3	3.7	15.3	5.8	6.0	2.7	1.7	2.3	13.2	5.4	3.8	2.2	1.5	3.0	14.3	5.6
1 Job	23.0	34.1	46.1	52.6	64.8	43.4	25.3	39.8	38.5	50.2	66.5	48.8	24.3	36.5	42.4	51.4	65.6	46.1
2 Jobs	26.3	28.9	24.4	26.5	16.1	23.6	28.7	22.3	35.6	31.5	15.7	25.8	27.9	26.1	29.9	29.0	15.9	25.2
3 - 5 Jobs	44.0	32.1	28.0	16.8	3.8	19.8	35.8	32.2	21.9	15.6	4.5	17.7	40.1	32.2	24.0	16.2	4.1	18.8
6 or more jobs	4.6	3.1	2.2	0.4	0.1	1.5	2.4	3.0	2.2	0.4	0.1	1.2	3.8	3.1	2.2	0.4	0.1	1.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N.000)	(14.1)	(31.4)	(47.1)	(54.9)	(53.8)	(201.4)	(12.1)	(13.0)	(45.3)	(52.1)	(49.3)	(182.4)	(26.2)	(55.1)	(92.4)	(107.0)	(103.1)	(383.8)
Average number of Jobs held	2.8	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.1	1.7	2.3	2.2	2.6	1.7	1.1	1.7	2.5	2.3	2.6	1.7	1.1	1.7

(1) This table covers all jobs, including those of an incidental or irregular nature.

(2) The figures in parentheses are estimates in absolute terms (000).

held according to educational level. When due allowance is made for the cohort variable, the figures show the job number averages to be markedly similar over the different educational classes. This is perhaps surprising as one might have expected more frequent job changing to be a characteristic of the unskilled or of those with lower standards of education. These figures are in fact consistent with earlier findings by Elias and Blanchflower (1988) who summarised their results relating to this issue by stating that "clearly there exists ... a number of young people who have demonstrated exceptionally high levels of turnover in the labour market, but who, it would appear, are no more disadvantaged (in terms of education or social background) than those who changed employers just once" (parentheses added). These findings are a matter of some significance as, when account is taken of other contributing factors, job changing was shown in that study to have long-term disadvantageous effects. To the extent that this might also apply in Ireland it is a also point of some relevance, in view of the fact that the propensity for young people in Ireland to leave jobs voluntarily appears to be much greater than in several other European countries (see Section 5 of this chapter). This aspect is considered further in Chapter VIII.

2. *Duration of First Regular Job*

In considering this aspect one must logically restrict the analysis to those who, at the time of the survey, were either in a first regular job or previously had held one. Table 5.2 shows that this aggregate group numbered 356,000 (some 92 per cent of the target group as a whole) of which 196,000, or 55 per cent were still in their first regular job when the inquiry was taken. This indicates what one could describe (in 1982 terms) as a fairly significant degree of job stability in the youth labour market.

Table 5.2 shows that, of those who had a first regular job and left it, 19 per cent of such jobs were of less than six months duration and a further 22 per cent were of durations of between six months and a year. Thus of those young people in the target group who had a first regular job and left it, over 40 per cent had been in this employment for less than one year. The figures do not indicate any material difference between males and females in relation to this analysis.

It must be borne in mind, however, that analysing job durations on the basis data from the Transition Survey is really fraught with conceptual difficulties because of the nature of the inquiry. Job duration, by virtue of its very definition, is influenced by the time spent in the labour force. This is evident from observing the variations in the average durations for both "current" and "completed" first regular jobs for different cohort categories given in Appendix Table A.5.2. One will note, for example, the much longer average durations for the earlier cohorts arising from the fact that the young persons concerned have been in the labour

Table 5.2 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by duration of first regular job.*

Duration of First Regular Job	Males			Females			All Persons		
	Still in first regular job	Left first regular job	All those who had a first regular job	Still in first regular job	Left first regular job	All those who had a first regular job	Still in first regular job	Left first regular job	All those who had a first regular job
	Percentages								
Less than 4 weeks	0.9	1.6	1.2	0.9	1.4	1.1	0.9	1.5	1.2
5 to 26 weeks	7.4	17.2	11.6	9.5	18.3	13.7	8.4	17.8	12.6
27 to 52 weeks	15.1	21.0	17.6	15.4	23.2	19.1	15.2	22.1	18.3
53 to 78 weeks	6.6	16.0	10.6	8.1	13.7	10.8	7.3	14.8	10.7
79 to 104 weeks	10.8	8.0	9.6	10.4	10.2	10.3	10.6	9.1	9.9
105 or more weeks	59.0	36.2	49.3	55.6	33.3	45.0	57.4	34.7	47.3
Total (N = '000)	100.0 (106.9)	100.0 (79.1)	100.0 (186.0)	100.0 (89.4)	100.0 (80.6)	100.0 (169.9)	100.0 (196.3)	100.0 (159.6)	100.0 (355.9)

(1) Table includes only those who had a first regular job.

(2) The figures in parentheses are estimates in absolute terms (000)

force for a considerable time and so had the opportunity to experience first jobs of a much longer duration. This, combined with the fact that the occupational/skill mix varies within cohorts, should be taken as a signal that considerable caution must be exercised in interpreting duration related data for these early post-transition employments.

3. *Sectors and Occupations for First Regular Jobs*

Table 5.3 and 5.4 provide information on the acquisition by young people of their first regular job in terms of sectors and occupations. Not surprisingly these global figures are not materially different from those given earlier in Chapter III when the sectoral and occupational profiles of current employment (i.e., jobs held at the time of the Survey) were discussed. The first table shows that nearly 30 per cent of young people in our target group procured their first substantial foothold in the job market in manufacturing industry; a further 27 per cent gained employment in the commerce/finance area and 18 per cent in what are classified as "other private services". The proportions relating to the public sector and to agriculture and to the building and construction areas were all in the 7 to 11 per cent range. The main difference between males and females in this regard relates to the fact that significantly greater numbers of young females obtained their first employment in the services area, both public and private.

Table 5.3 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by sector of first regular job*

Sector	Males		Females		Total	
	000	%	000	%	000	%
Agriculture	25.5	13.7	2.0	1.2	27.5	7.7
Industry	51.4	27.6	51.2	30.1	102.6	28.8
Building etc.	26.0	14.0	1.5	0.9	27.5	7.7
Commerce, Finance	44.0	23.7	52.4	30.8	96.4	27.0
Public Sector	13.5	7.3	24.3	14.3	37.9	10.6
Other Private Services	25.6	13.8	38.6	22.7	64.2	18.0
Total	186.0	100.0	169.9	100.0	356.1	100.0

Note: This table covers only those who held a first regular job.

Table 5.4, which deals with occupations, shows that the categories clerical/commercial and industrial/building/ transport each account for about

one-third of the youth target group in question in terms of the procurement of first employment. These global figures conceal quite significant differences between males and females. Over 40 per cent of young males took up occupations in the industrial/building/transport area with the remainder being fairly widely spread among the other occupational groupings. Young women, on the other hand, tend to be more concentrated in specific occupations, with more than one half entering first regular employment in occupations related to the clerical/commercial area.

Table 5.4 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by occupation of first regular job*

Occupation	Males		Females		Total	
	000	%	000	%	000	%
Agricultural	26.9	14.5	2.2	1.3	29.1	8.1
Industrial/Building/ Transport	79.6	42.8	39.7	23.4	119.3	33.3
Labourers/ Unskilled	19.1	10.3	0.8	0.5	20.0	5.6
Clerical/ Commercial	42.6	22.9	90.7	53.4	135.3	37.8
Other Workers	17.7	9.5	36.6	21.5	54.4	15.2
Total	186.0	100.0	169.9	100.0	355.9	100.0

Note: This table covers only those who held a first regular job.

Educational attainment is clearly a factor which can profoundly influence the range of employment opportunities available to a young person at the point of transition. Appendix Tables A.5.3 and A.5.4, which contain estimates for first regular jobs taken up under sectoral and occupational headings further classified according to educational level, shed some light on this aspect. The figures for all persons given in the first table show that in broad terms nearly 40 per cent of unqualified school leavers take up employment in the industrial sector and some 25 per cent in the commerce, etc., area. Persons who leave the educational system with second-level qualifications tend to enter a wider variety of sectors, a notable feature here being the particular importance of the commercial and financial sphere which accounted for about 30 per cent of the intake at this level. The public sector assumes greater importance for those who complete the higher cycle at this level and for those who acquire third-level qualifications.

The figures for males and females reveal a number of interesting features. Nearly one-half of the 43,000 unqualified female school leavers included in the Survey target group had found employment in manufacturing industry, compared with a corresponding proportion of less than 30 per cent for young males. A further aspect of note here is the relatively sizeable proportion of unqualified males who found their first regular job in the agricultural sector — 1 in 5, or some 10,000 in absolute terms. This is a substantial number when one considers that the agricultural sector does not constitute a sizeable entity in the context of the youth labour market as a whole.

The above-mentioned results are broadly consistent with those of Breen (1984a) who, using the results of the 1980 Department of Labour School Leavers Survey, found that those who leave school early are highly likely to enter occupations in the exposed sector of the labour market. His work indicated that the risk of unemployment in the immediate post-transition stage is primarily a function of educational level if the position is viewed in a "path analysis" context which also takes account of aspects such as sex and social background.

It is of interest to transform the above-mentioned figures for the agricultural area so that they show the proportions with different educational levels within the sector. When this is done it reveals that up to 40 per cent of those who took up their first employment in this sector did not have any educational qualifications and a further 40 per cent had completed only the first cycle of second-level education. This pattern probably reflects familial decisions in relation to the access to education. Stable employment on the family farm may be given to one (male) household member — but at the expense of his forgoing opportunities for further education which are then extended to others for whom it is perceived to be more necessary. This is consistent with the findings of Conway and O'Hara (1986) who, in studying the post-primary educational attainment of farmers' male offspring concluded that:

> ... if education is viewed as a means of influencing access to occupations, it would be less relevant to farming sons who get farms by gift or inheritance from their parents. In contrast access to non-farm occupations is determined in competition with others. This could explain why non-farming sons are more likely to attend post-primary school or indeed why sons who perform well in school might be encouraged to remain at school while a son who performs less well academically might be encouraged to take up farming.

The above-mentioned evidence is rather disconcerting in the context of promoting the development of an efficient farming sector. It is all the more disturbing as it will subsequently be shown (Chapter VI) that these apparent educational deficiencies in this sector are not alleviated by the provision of any

significant post-school agricultural training. It certainly supports the view that more intensive training efforts in the area were needed. This is therefore one further aspect on which it would be of great interest to have more up-to-date information in order to determine whether the resources devoted to training and education in this area since the beginning of the decade, principally carried out by ACOT (now incorporated in TEAGASC) since its inception in 1980, have significantly improved the position.

4. *Mobility Between Sectors*

Assessing post-transition employment solely in terms of the characteristics of first regular jobs does not necessarily portray a full picture. Even though the figures presented earlier in this chapter indicate a substantial degree of stability in the youth labour market in the context of the numbers of jobs held, this apparently exists in parallel with a significant element of job changing. It is of interest therefore to consider further the latter aspect, particularly in regard to movements between different sectors. Table 5.5 provides some broad information of this kind. It contains a cross-classification of sector of current employment against sector of first regular employment. The table also shows the sector of first regular job for those young persons who were unemployed or economically inactive at the time of the Transition Survey. Thus the totally covered relates to all persons who actually held a first regular job at some stage (some 356,000 persons in all).

The off-diagonal figures in the main body of the table provide an indication of inter-sectoral mobility. In aggregate these account for nearly 72,000 persons or about a quarter of the total of 290,000 who were at work when the Transition Survey was taken. This does not, however, convey the full extent of actual job mobility as persons can change their employment without moving from one sector to another. Such estimates can be derived from the figures given in parentheses along the diagonal which represent the numbers of persons who did not change jobs at all over the period since leaving full-time education. If these are deducted from the main diagonal elements, a further 51,000 persons are identified as having engaged in intra-sectoral job changes. Thus, among the 290,000 young persons who were recorded as at work at the time of the 1982 Survey, some 123,000 (42 per cent) had changed job at some time subsequent to leaving full-time education.

Some interesting features are evident when one observes the aggregate movements between sectors. For those who were at work when the survey was taken (i.e., the 290,000 persons, referred to above) it will be noted that for the commerce and finance and miscellaneous private service categories, the numbers in current employment are significantly less than the corresponding totals indicated under the same headings for first regular job. This indicates a tendency

Table 5.5 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by sector of first regular job and sector of current job*

Sector of First Regular Job	Current Sector for those at Work in Spring 1982							Currently Unemployed	Currently Inactive	Total
	Agriculture	Industry	Building, Construction	Commerce, Finance	Public Sector	Other Private Services	Total at Work			
	000									
Agriculture	23.4 (21.4)	1.3	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.6	26.5	0.8	0.1	27.5
Industry	1.0	61.8 (45.2)	2.0	5.6	4.1	3.7	78.2	14.2	10.1	102.7
Building, etc.	0.6	2.0	16.6 (12.2)	1.0	0.8	0.9	21.9	4.9	0.7	27.5
Commerce, Finance	0.4	11.7	2.3	55.4 (41.9)	5.7	3.6	79.1	8.9	8.4	96.4
Public Sector	0.2	2.7	1.0	1.8	26.3 (21.8)	1.1	33.1	2.2	2.4	37.8
Private Services[2]	0.3	5.8	1.5	5.2	3.3	35.3 (25.7)	51.4	6.7	5.8	64.1
All Sectors	25.9	85.3	23.7	69.8	40.3	45.2	290.4	37.8	27.6	355.8[1]

Notes

(1) This Table relates to all those who held a first regular job

(2) The "Other Private Services" category for first regular job include cases where the sector was not known.

(3) The figures in parentheses relate to those who not only remained within the same sector, but did not change job either.

for young people to initially take employment in these particular sectors, probably on a part-time or temporary basis, before moving on to more permanent work in other areas which offer better longer-term prospects. On the other hand it will be noted that the totals shown for those currently employed in industry and in the public sector (particularly the latter) are substantially greater than the corresponding totals for first employment, indicating gradual flows into these sectors from other areas of work during the early stages of labour force experience. The figures indicate in particular a substantial flow from commerce into manufacturing industry. There is little evidence of any significant inter-sectoral mobility in the case of the agricultural sector and for building and construction.

The situation is summarised by the sets of ratios given in Table 5.6. The first set has been calculated by dividing the figures on the diagonal of Table 5.5 by the corresponding row totals, relating to those who were at work at the time of the inquiry. This can be taken as an index of inter-sectoral stability (or lack of mobility) in the sense that it measures the degree to which persons were still in their first regular job when the Transition Survey was taken. The agricultural sector is indicated as being the most stable, with an index of 0.88. Rather surprisingly the industrial sector is shown as having almost as high a level of stability as the public service (0.79) with the least degree of stability (about 0.70) being associated with the private services area.

Table 5.6 *Indexes of sectoral stability*

Sector	Sectoral Stability Index (1)	Sectoral Directional Index(2)	Index of intra-sectoral stability(3)	General Job Stability Index(4)
Agriculture	0.88	0.98	0.91	0.81
Industry	0.79	1.09	0.73	0.58
Building etc	0.75	1.08	0.73	0.55
Commerce etc	0.70	0.88	0.75	0.53
Public Sector	0.79	1.22	0.83	0.65
Private Services	0.69	0.89	0.73	0.50

Notes. All the ratios have been derived from Table 5.5.

(1) Diagonal totals as ratio of row totals for those at work

(2) Column totals as ratio of row totals for those at work

(3) Diagonal elements in parentheses as ratio of diagonal elements

(4) Diagonal elements in parentheses as ratio of row totals for those at work.

The second column of figures shown contains the ratios of the sectoral totals for current employment to corresponding totals for first regular job (i.e., the ratio of corresponding row and column totals for those at work when the survey

was taken). These indices portray the sectoral indices direction of the movements in question. For example, in the case of the industrial, building and public sectors these calculations yield figures greater than unity indicating net inflows over time, while the other sectors (particularly in the commerce and service areas) are indicated as sustaining a net loss. The ratio relating to the public sector (at 1.22) is the highest, reflecting a sizeable net accumulation at the expense of other areas.

The third set of figures given can be taken as indices of intra-sectoral stability. They show, for those who were in the same sector for current job and for first regular job, the proportion who did not actually change job (i.e., the ratios of the two sets of diagonal elements). It will be noted that the relationship between these numbers is markedly similar to that shown in the first column which reflects inter-sectoral stability.

The figures in the fourth and final column of Table 5.6 can be regarded as providing a more general indication of job stability for each sector in the sense that they indicate the proportions who never changed job at all subsequent to obtaining a first regular job. The highest proportion here is for the agricultural sector (over 0.80) followed by the public sector for which the ratio is 0.65. The lowest proportions relate to the services areas for which the ratios are in the range 0.50 to 0.55.

It must be borne in mind that the above-mentioned figures relate to movements which took place prior to 1982. The effects of the sustained economic difficulties which have persisted since then would undoubtedly have changed the position and if similar calculations were made for a more recent period they would probably show a significantly different pattern. In particular it is likely that there would be evidence of a greater degree of stability in the sense that young persons who procured employment in recent years would be less likely to leave it because of the difficulty of finding an alternative job. One would also expect the flow indicators associated with public sector to be lower since the intake into that sector has been reduced gradually over the years and has now all but ceased.

5. *Reasons for Leaving First Regular Employment*

Finally let us utilise the Transition Survey results in order to analyse the reasons why young people leave their first regular job. The distinction as to whether this separation is voluntary or otherwise is of special interest as it may help to shed some light on the issues raised in Chapter I, particularly, for example, the extent to which the so-called "turnover" hypothesis represents a valid proposition.

Table 5.7 shows that among the 160,000 young people in the target group who had acquired a first regular job and left it, 25 per cent left this employment as a result of "involuntary job loss", 34 per cent left to get a better job, while

26 per cent left because they did not like their first employment. Smaller proportions, 8 per cent and 6 per cent, respectively, left because of "domestic responsibilities" and for other unspecified reasons.

Table 5.7: *Youth Population Outside of Education in 1982 Classified by Main Reason for Leaving First Regular Job*

Main Reason for Leaving First Regular Job	*Males*	*Females*[1]	*Persons*
	Per Cent		
(1)	*(2)*	*(3)*	*(4)*
Involuntary Job Loss	31.5	19.3 (22.7)	25.3
Domestic Responsibilities	1.7	14.9 (–)	8.4
Did not like the job	22.8	28.3 (33.3)	25.6
Got better job	36.1	32.6 (38.3)	34.3
Other	7.8	4.9 (5.7)	6.3
Total	100.0	100.0 (100.0)	100.0
(N'000)	(79.1)	(80.6)	(159.6)

Note: 1. The figures in parentheses for females are the percentages calculated excluding those who left employment to take up "domestic responsibilities".

The analysis indicates marked differences between males and females. Obviously the figures for girls are influenced by the category covering the outflow to "domestic responsibilities" but even if one excludes this element (and effectively confines the comparisons to those who remained in the labour force), significant differences are still evident. With the latter type of calculation (the figures for which are shown in parentheses in Column (3) of Table 5.7), involuntary job loss among girls, at 23 per cent, is substantially lower than that for boys (32 per cent). However, it will subsequently be shown that this derives to a significant extent from variations in the occupational structure of the male and female labour forces, rather than from intrinsically gender-related reasons.

These results appear to run counter to the summary views on the pattern of youth job separations expressed in the 1984 OECD Report on the *Nature of Youth Unemployment* referred to earlier in Chapter I (OECD 1984). In summarising the position in a number of different countries that report concluded that most youth job separations were *involuntary*. It quotes French data for 1975 which indicates that only 30 to 35 per cent of youth job separations were "quits", i.e., voluntary (compared with 23 per cent for adults); corresponding German data for 1977 indicate even lower proportions, from 8 to 16 per cent, while figures for Australia for 1980 suggest a voluntary job separation incidence of about 35 per cent for teenagers (compared with 41 per cent for persons aged 25 years

or over). On the basis of such evidence the Report rejects the hypothesis that post-transition youth unemployment is primarily explained by voluntary job changes according as young people strive to find a suitable niche in the labour market. Our results suggest, on the contrary, that in Ireland the position was quite different throughout much the same period. The Transition Survey results indicate that some 60 per cent of first regular job separations were attributable to what one might describe as "exploration" or "experimentation" in the youth labour market, with a further 15 per cent attributable to other reasons which cannot be described as "involuntary".

It is of interest however in this context to note the previously quoted work relating to the United Kingdom youth labour market by Ashton and Maguire (1987) which provides information on the nature of first job separations. While it is not possible to make very precise comparisons with other data as the study was confined to four specific urban[21] locations, in terms of the distinction between voluntary and involuntary separations the results can be said to be broadly similar to those obtained from the Irish Transition Survey.

Considering further the Transition Survey results relating to this topic one aspect which might be expected to influence the circumstances of job termination is the duration for which a job is held. It is not unreasonable to postulate, for example, that the incidence of involuntary job loss would tend to be lower for employments which endure for longer periods. However, the relevant estimates for first regular jobs derived from the Transition Survey, given in Appendix Table A.5.5, do not appear to support this thesis. For males, the incidence of involuntary job loss actually rises in accordance with duration for jobs which last for relatively short periods. For jobs which lasted less than a month the proportion of involuntary terminations was 20 per cent; it rises to 30 per cent for jobs of durations between one month and three months, and it exceeds 40 per cent for employments which last between three and six months. Thereafter, for jobs of longer duration, it decreases to about 30 per cent, but broadly speaking, remains at this level irrespective of actual duration. This overall pattern is not perhaps surprising as it probably reflects employers' practices in dismissing unsuitable workers at a relatively early stage (and presumably before the one-year time limit after which statutory tenure provisions apply). For females, the proportions in question are remarkably stable for all durations, deviating little from the overall average involuntary job loss proportion of some 20 per cent.

The principal reasons for leaving first regular job classified according to educational level attained are shown in Appendix Table A.5.6. The figures show a much higher incidence of involuntary job loss among those with lower levels of educational attainment. For those with no qualifications and for those who

21. Leicester, St. Albans, Stafford, Sunderland.

progress only as far as the lower cycle of second-level education, the involuntary job loss rates are as high as 30 per cent, compared with rates of approximately half that level for those with higher qualifications. The figures show males to be more prone to involuntary job separation than females at all levels of educational attainment, but particularly at the higher cycle of second level education for which the male incidence, at 22 per cent, was more than twice that for females (9 per cent). However, if females are viewed in isolation, the incidence of involuntary job loss appears to fall more rapidly with increased educational attainment than is the case for males.

The job loss position for different sectors is analysed in Appendix Table A.5.7. The building/construction industry has the highest rate of involuntary separation at 56 per cent, reflecting the underlying insecurity of employment in this area. Not surprisingly, the lowest incidence of involuntary job loss is associated with the public sector (12%), followed by agriculture (16%) and the general services area (about 20%). The relatively low figure for the agricultural sector is undoubtedly linked to the involvement of family workers in this area. The lower than average job loss ratios associated with commerce and other private services is probably a reflection of the fact that (as already indicated earlier in this chapter) these areas frequently provide what one might describe as "transient" employment during the immediate post-transition stage, i.e., many young people take positions in these sectors initially and then move on (voluntarily) to other areas where employment prospects are considered to be more attractive.

An analysis of employment termination patterns by occupation (Appendix Table A.5.8) pinpoints three distinct occupational groupings. In the first place there is an unskilled group, mostly associated with the building industry, which exhibits very high rates of involuntary job loss (nearly 50%); secondly, there is a group consisting of electrical/electronics/engineering and other industrial occupations, as well as transport/communications, with rates of between 30 and 40 per cent, while finally, there are the services, clerical and administrative occupations with relatively low involuntary separation rates of between 10 and 20 per cent.

The occupational classifications just referred to throw further light on the reasons why the overall degree of involuntary job loss among males tends to be higher than it is for females. Many young males tend to enter employment of an unskilled nature in the building and allied trades, and in the industrial sector, where the incidence of involuntary job loss tends to be relatively high. The figures for these sub-sectors significantly influence (in an upwards direction) the aggregate male job loss ratios.

It is difficult to obtain from the foregoing analyses a comprehensive view of the extent to which different factors influence involuntary job loss. Many of the effects operate in parallel and some interact with one another. Furthermore there

are factors other than those considered in the preceding tables which may influence the circumstances of job separation. As in the case of employment-related residential movement treated in the preceding chapter, it is desirable to attempt to take account simultaneously of as many effects as possible. With this objective in mind a multiple cross-sectional regression analysis was undertaken with a (dummy) variable representing the nature of job loss (0 = voluntary separation, 1 = involuntary job loss) as the dependent entity and the following range of explanatory variables:-

Variable		Formulation		
1. Age at leaving first regular job		AGE LEAVING FRJ (in actual years)		
2. Education/Training		EDUCATION/TRAINING		
No qualifications	– Training Completed	No qualifications	– trained	(1,0)
1st Cycle, 2nd Level	– Training Completed	1st cyc	– trained	(1,0)
1st Cycle, 2nd Level	– No training	1st cyc	– untrained	(1,0)
2nd Cycle, 2nd Level	– Training Completed	2nd cyc	– trained	(1,0)
2nd Cycle, 2nd Level	– No training	2nd cyc	– untrained	(1,0)
3rd Level	– Training Completed	3rd level	– trained	(1,0)
3rd Level	– No training	3rd level	– untrained	(1,0)
		(The "no qualification, no training" category has been used as a reference base)		
3. Sex		SEX, 1 = males, 0 = females		
4. Duration of first regular job		DUR FRJ (years)		
5. Industry of first regular job		INDUSTRY FRJ		
Manufacturing		Manufacturing		(1,0)
Building, etc.		Building		(1,0)
Commerce and Finance, etc.		Commerce		(1,0)
Transport, Communications, etc.		Transport		(1,0)
Public Administration Defence		PAD		(1,0)
Education, Health		Education, Health		(1,0)
Other Professional Services		Other Prof. Services		(1,0)
		(The residual "Other Private Services" category has been used as a reference base)		
6. Occupation on leaving first regular job		OCCUPATION FRJ		(1,0)
Electrical, Engineering, etc.		Electrical		(1,0)
Other Producers		Other Producers		(1,0)
Building workers		Building		(1,0)
Labourers, Unskilled manual		Labourers		(1,0)
Transport, etc., workers		Transport		(1,0)
Clerical		Clerical		(1,0)
Commercial, etc., workers		Commercial		(1,0)

Professional, Technical	Prof. Technical (1,0) (The residual "Other Service Workers" category has been used as a reference base).
7. Year of leaving first regular job 1976, 1977, ..., 1981 or later	YEAR LEAVING FRJ 1976, 1977, ..., 1981 variable (1,0) for each period. (The period covering "1975 or earlier" has been used as a reference base).

It will be noted that, as in the previous residence change analysis, for a number of variables — education/training, industry of first regular job, occupation when leaving first regular job, and year of first regular job — a pivotal arrangement is used whereby one category is excluded and the resultant coefficients then reflect the differences between the other categories relative to the excluded or "reference" group.

The results of the regression routines, shown in Table 5.8, have been compiled for males and females separately and in this regard one feature which immediately stands out is the relative scarcity of statistically significant results in the case of females. Variables such as the age at leaving first regular job, education/training, or duration of first regular job, do not appear to have any material influence on the nature of job losses for females in the sense of these being involuntary or otherwise. There is some evidence of a higher incidence of involuntary job loss for certain industrial and occupational categories (manufacturing industry for example). While the year in which young females left their first regular employment does not appear to be a significant feature influencing the circumstances of job separation over the period from the mid-1970s to 1980, the results do indicate an escalation in compulsory separations in 1981/82. In this latter period, for example, the figures suggest that the probability of a first regular job held by a female ending in involuntary separation was some 20 per cent higher than in the pre-1976 period.

The results for males are quite different. The coefficients for the education/training variable for the higher levels of educational attainment are highly significant and negative in sign, indicating that the possession of qualifications at these levels minimises the risk of involuntary job loss. The results indicate that for those with higher cycle second-level qualifications the probability of a first regular job ending involuntarily is nearly 30 per cent lower than for those young persons without any educational qualifications. However, the acquisition of training does not seem to materially affect the position.

It would also appear that in the case of males the longer a job is held the less likely it is to end in involuntary separation. Earlier analyses (i.e., based on Appendix Table A.5.5) suggest that this applied mainly to jobs of relatively short duration. It may well be that this effect is still the dominant one, but perhaps

Table 5.8: *Results of Multiple Regression designed to estimate the influence of certain variables on the incidence of involuntary job loss*

Variable	*Males*		*Females*		*All Persons*	
	Coefficient	*t*	*Coefficient*	*t*	*Coefficient*	*t*
AGE LEAVING FRJ	0.066	3.61	−0.018	−1.23	0.023	2.14
EDUCATION/TRAINING						
No Qualification Trained	−0.055	−0.75	0.014	0.20	−0.014	−0.29
1st Cycle Trained	−0.053	−1.11	0.031	0.57	−0.021	−0.61
Untrained	−0.143	−3.85	−0.041	−1.09	−0.109	−4.15
2nd Cycle Trained	−0.268	−3.36	−0.089	−1.52	−0.194	−4.32
Untrained	−0.280	−4.70	−0.117	−2.19	−0.211	−5.45
3rd Level Trained	−0.659	−3.29	−0.099	−0.54	−0.368	−2.73
Untrained	−0.472	−4.20	0.140	1.43	−0.188	−2.66
SEX	−	−	−	−	0.035	1.96
DUR FRJ (years)	−0.055	−3.61	−0.011	−0.09	−0.029	−3.12
INDUSTRY FRJ						
Manufacturing	0.064	1.68	0.103	2.97	0.096	3.78
Building	0.225	4.76	0.523	4.39	0.284	7.52
Commerce	−0.007	−0.18	−0.016	−0.48	0.011	0.43
Transport	0.126	1.81	−0.058	−0.74	0.094	1.86
PAD	−0.102	−1.52	0.037	0.66	−0.008	−0.20
Education, Health	−0.011	−0.14	−0.121	−2.53	−0.065	−1.55
Other Prof. Services	−0.014	−0.14	−0.031	−0.53	−0.024	−0.61
OCCUPATION FRJ (L)						
Electrical	0.093	3.61	−0.230	−2.00	0.082	1.71
Other Producers	−0.063	−0.97	0.245	0.49	−0.025	−0.61
Building	0.207	2.20	−0.200	−1.10	0.130	1.72
Labourers	0.158	2.40	0.262	1.04	0.142	2.65
Transport	0.121	1.45	0.276	3.28	0.163	2.83
Clerical	−0.151	−2.16	−0.079	−1.84	−0.128	−3.48
Commercial	−0.169	−1.20	−0.068	−1.53	−0.118	−3.14
Prof., Technical	−0.180	−1.31	0.040	0.47	−0.103	−1.38
YEAR LEAVING FRJ						
1976	−0.006	−0.08	−0.08	−1.32	−0.051	−1.04
1977	−0.184	−2.51	−0.051	−0.95	−0.105	−2.38
1978	−0.264	−3.68	−0.022	−0.44	−0.116	−2.77
1979	−0.236	−3.48	−0.060	−1.21	−0.127	−3.14
1980	−0.156	−2.18	0.069	1.38	−0.016	−0.39
1981 +	0.047	0.67	0.201	3.95	0.141	3.40
CONSTANT	−0.572	0.544	0.544		−0.035	
	R^2 = 0.130 N = 1,217		R^2 = 0.128 N = 1,241		R^2 = 0.140 N = 2,461	

Note: The significance levels for t (n = ∞) are $t_{5\%} = 1.96$, $t_{1\%} = 2.58$, $t_{0.1\%} = 3.29$.

more reliance can be placed on the present analysis since in the earlier simple tabular presentation it was not possible to control for the parallel effect of other factors. With regard to the industry and occupational variables, the figures indicate that higher levels of involuntary job loss tend to be associated with the building industry, with unskilled occupations and with certain industrial occupations such as those related to activities in electrical/engineering, etc., area. The last-mentioned result is rather surprising in the sense that the reverse appears to be true for young females, i.e., lower than average involuntary job loss seems to be evident for this category.

The results for the variable "age on leaving first regular job" are rather surprising for males in that they indicate that involuntary job separations tend to be more common for those in the older age groups of the youth category under discussion — an outcome which is rather difficult to explain.

The relationship between male involuntary job losses and the periods in which these jobs terminated is rather interesting. The figures suggest that the degree of involuntary job separation declined fairly substantially during the buoyant 1977/79 period, as evidenced by the negative signs and the level of significance of the associated t-values. By 1981, however, the scene had obviously changed and the figures indicate that involuntary dismissals were beginning to rise markedly, presumably with the renewed onset of recession. For girls, on the other hand, as already mentioned there was little evidence of any improvement in the involuntary separation situation in the late 1970s, but the figures suggest a noticeable worsening of their situation in the early 1980s.

Chapter VI

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

This chapter presents information on vocational training obtained from the 1982 Transition Survey. The data provide estimates of the overall extent and nature of training engaged in, as well as illustrating the degree to which this varies for persons with different levels of educational attainment, in different occupations and industrial sectors. The estimates also indicate, in a summary fashion, the effect which training appears to have on young persons' post transition experience in the labour market.

The Training Concept Used

Before, however, the results are analysed it is first of all necessary to explain in some detail what is meant by the concept of training as adopted in this study. Defining or conceptualising training is not a straightforward matter. There are a number of grey areas where the application of a precise definition is difficult. These relate principally to the problem of overlaps with other activities, such as education, and even in relation to the basic concept of work itself since employment experience almost always enhances personal competence or ability to some extent, even if this process is not always considered as training.

With regard to the first mentioned aspect, i.e., the problem of the interface between education and training, generally speaking, with one exception, the approach taken in this inquiry has been to consider only training undertaken subsequent to leaving full-time education. The exception relates to full-time secretarial and commercial courses undertaken while still in school (mainly taken by girls). The extent of these programmes is substantial and they are so closely related to specific occupations that it was decided that they should be included under the general umbrella of "training received" as defined in this survey. However, since the target group covered in our study consisted only of those who had already left full-time education the inclusion of these school-based programmes is relevant only in considering "training previously acquired". The estimates presented also provide information on "training in progress" and obviously these data relate only to post-school training.

With regard to the range of post-school training activities covered, clearly there is no particular difficulty in identifying and classifying training obtained by means of formal courses or through recognised apprenticeship schemes (whether statutory or otherwise). However, the position is less clearcut when

training is organised on an informal basis, as is frequently the case across many sectors in Ireland. Very often such informal arrangements consist mainly or exclusively of "on the job" training. The problem is that every job, even of the simplest nature, involves some element of "training" or acquired experience. If, therefore, one were to stretch the definition to its limits, every person who ever held a job can be deemed to be "trained" in some sense. Therefore, some operational criteria have to be adopted in order to cope with the question of informal training if the training concept is to have any real or distinct meaning. In this study, when considering possible informal training arrangements, at the fieldwork stage the following conditions generally had to be satisfied for the activity in question to be considered as "training":-

(a) the experience involved a skill content which had to be learned over a period of time;

(b) guidelines or conventions, either formal or informal, governed this training or learning process;

(c) having acquired the relevant training a person would be recognised as qualified in the particular skill or occupation and would have acquired potential job mobility based on the skills obtained; in other words, as a result of the training acquired, the respondent could sell or trade his/her skills to different employers in the labour market.

More formal arrangements involving actual courses or youth manpower support programmes *were always classified as training,* even if some of these were not closely associated with the acquisition of a particular skill. It should be noted that in recent years many of these programmes have assumed a more "general purpose" nature and have tended to be particularly directed at groups with special problems, such as unqualified young people or the long-term unemployed. Examples of such programmes are to be found in the form of Career Development Courses, Community Training Workshops, "Teamwork" projects, etc.

The Survey results show in fact (Appendix Table A.6.1) that a sizeable proportion, nearly 40 per cent, of those who had *completed* training programmes acquired this training solely on-the-job or through schemes which involved a combination of both on-the-job instruction *and* course work. It will be noted that those involved were predominantly males. Some 30 per cent of those identified as trained (almost exclusively girls) had received this training solely in educational institutions, and a similar proportion in other post-school training centres of different kinds.

It is relevant to mention however that a significant proportion of "on the job" training is of a more formalised nature than might appear at first sight. There is extensive State support for in-company training through the Levy/Grant system

and the IDA funded programmes of New Industry Grants and Domestic Industry Grants. As those funds are channelled through enterprises in many cases the actual trainees (or the respondents in our survey context) would not necessarily be fully aware of the extent to which they are participants in formal training initiatives.

Many training programmes begin with a period of special instruction or course work and then progress gradually to a stage where finally there is very little regulated instruction and where most of the trainee's time is spent actually working. This type of system applies in the case of apprenticeships, particularly in relation to the AnCO Statutory Apprenticeships. Participants in this kind of training programme were regarded as being "in training" at all stages of this process.

Is it clear from the foregoing that the concept of training as used in this study is rather rudimentary. Furthermore, the criterion of tradability of skills used in the definition of informal training may appear rather restrictive and implies that some "firm specific" training would not be covered. This could be an omission of some significance since it is in these circumstances that firms are more inclined to train (on the presumption that the trainees will remain with the firms and not be "poached"). This may give rise to an underestimation of training in the Survey results, particularly in some high technology sectors.

The Overall Extent of Training

Summary information on the overall training situation with regard to the youth population is given in Table 6.1. These data indicate that nearly 218,000 or almost 57 per cent of the Transition Survey target group population of 384,000 had not received any training.[22] Just under a quarter (91,000) were recorded as having completed a training programme, some 14 per cent (54,000) indicated that they were actually in training while a small yet significant number, 21,000 or nearly 6 per cent, had commenced a training programme but did not complete it. Relatively more girls than boys (27 per cent as against 20 per cent) are recorded as having "completed training" but it will subsequently be shown that a very high proportion of training for girls relates to courses in secretarial or office skills and that the extent of female training is quite deficient in other areas.

A comparison between males and females in relation to "training in progress" is not altogether meaningful. As already indicated, a great deal of female training

22. Alternatively one may say that some 43 per cent of respondents were actually involved in or had participated in training or manpower programmes. This compares with a proportion of some 22 per cent as indicated by the 1984 YEA Transition Inquiry which assessed the position of a cohort of second-level school leavers two years after leaving full-time education. One would expect to obtain a higher figure with the present study since the coverage of training is more extensive (the YEA inquiry dealt only with full-time programmes) and many of the Transition Survey respondents were in the labour force for periods in excess of two years and would thus have had greater opportunity to acquire training.

Table 6.1 *Youth population outside of education in 1982, classified by training received*

Training	Males	Females	All Persons
		'000	
Training in progress	39.7	14.1	53.8
Training completed	40.1	49.9	91.0
Started training but didn't complete it	12.0	9.4	21.4
Others (i.e., no training)	108.6	109.0	217.6
Total	201.3	182.4	383.8

related to office skills activities takes place within the educational system and thus, because of the nature of our target group, estimates for "training in progress" tend to understate the position for young females.

Table 6.2 shows estimates of the extent of training acquired or in progress for young persons with different levels of educational attainment. There is clearly an association between these two attributes. The figures show that only 18 per cent of those without any educational qualifications were either trained or in training compared with proportions of 44 and 48 per cent for those who had completed the first and second cycles of second-level education respectively. Even though separate figures are presented for persons who completed third level education the data under this heading are not entirely meaningful since the possession of a qualification at this level virtually precludes the need for further training in the sense involved here. Furthermore, many such qualifications are of themselves basically vocational in character, e.g., in engineering, medicine, other professions, etc.

Looking at the figures for "training completed" it will be noted that for those without any educational qualifications a somewhat greater proportion of boys than girls (12½ per cent as against less than 10 per cent) had undergone some training. The incidence of training acquired appeared to be much the same for young males and females who had completed the lower cycle of second-level education (about 25 per cent) but a much greater proportion of females who had completed both cycles had acquired training (42 per cent as against 20 per cent for males). This reflects the fact that at or subsequent to the higher cycle stage many young girls undergo training in secretarial or office skills.

The emphasis in Table 6.2 is on illustrating the extent of training within

Table 6.2 *Youth population outside of education in 1982, classified by training received and education level*

Educational level	Males				Females				Persons			
	Training in progress	Training completed	Others	Total (N)	Training in progress	Training completed	Others	Total (N)	Training in progress	Training completed	Others	Total (N)
	%											
No qualifications	9.8	12.4	77.9	100.0 (55.3)	4.2	9.8	86.0	100.0 (48.2)	7.2	11.2	81.6	100.0 (100.0)
Second level: First cycle completed	23.6	26.7	49.8	100.0 (90.8)	9.0	25.5	65.5	100.0 (52.7)	18.2	26.3	55.5	100.0 (143.5)
Second cycle completed	23.3	20.0	56.6	100.0 (45.1)	9.3	41.6	49.0	100.0 (74.6)	14.6	33.5	51.9	100.0 (119.7)
Third level	22.6	9.9	67.5	100.0 (10.0)	6.2	9.4	84.4	100.0 (6.9)	15.9	9.7	74.4	100.0 (17.0)
All levels ('000)	19.7 (39.6)	20.4 (41.1)	59.9 (120.6)	100.0 (201.3)	7.8 (14.1)	27.3 (49.9)	118.4 (64.9)	100.0 (182.4)	14.0 (53.8)	23.7 (91.0)	62.3 (239.0)	100.0 (383.7)

Notes: (1) The figures in parentheses are estimates in absolute terms ('000).

(2) The training category "other" includes those who commenced training, but did not complete it.

educational levels. It is also of interest to observe the educational profile of those trained. Such information is given in Appendix Table A.6.2. This shows that of those young people who had completed a training programme, less than 13 per cent were without educational qualifications. Since unqualified persons accounted for up to 27 per cent of the target group as a whole, this raises questions as to whether training provision is being delivered in a sufficiently equitable manner. Roughly equal proportions of those trained (some 40 per cent or more) had completed the lower and higher cycles of second-level education respectively.

The position is noticeably different for males and females. Most of the boys who were trained had left education at the lower cycle of second level (reflecting the influence of apprenticeship) but, for the reasons outlined in the preceding paragraphs, over 60 per cent of trained girls were of Leaving Certificate standard. The latter aspect, when viewed in parallel with the fact that girls of this educational standard constitute only some 40 per cent of the female target group as a whole, (see Table 3.1 in Chapter III), indicates a most serious inequity in the training sphere in the female youth labour market. This feature was also evident in the 1984 YEA study.[23]

Training in Different Industries and Occupations

The extent of training in different industrial sectors is illustrated in Appendix Table A.6.3. The highest incidence of training is evident for the building and Construction sector where nearly 65 per cent of those at work were either in training or had already been trained. Private services is another area where the degree of training is shown to be fairly substantial, the corresponding proportion being almost 55 per cent. The relatively high incidence of training in the Building sector reflects the large numbers of craft or skilled workers in this industry, many of whom would either have been undergoing or would have completed apprenticeships. It should be remembered that apprenticeship training is of long duration (up to four years in most cases) which would partly explain the fact that, of all sectors, the building industry also has the highest proportion of young people actually in training (over 31 per cent when the survey was taken). The extent of training in the private services is partly due to the influence of secretarial and office skill training among females in this sector. Nearly 40 per cent of those at work in manufacturing industry were either in training or had been trained at the time the survey was taken. The agricultural sector stands out as having by far the lowest incidence of training – less than 20 per cent of young people who were at work in this sector in 1982 were either in training or had previously acquired training. Thus the low educational standards of many entrants to this sector (see Chapter V) are not offset to any significant extent by the acquisition

23. YEA (1984). *Transition from School to Work. The Situation of 1981/82 School Leavers in late 1984.*

of subsequent training, which again leads one to raise serious questions as to the adequacy of overall skill levels in this sphere.

Observing training across broad industrial sectors is not, however, entirely meaningful since each sector involves a very diverse range of skills and occupations. One can perhaps obtain a better perception of the position when training is associated with occupational categories, which is done in Table A.6.4. The highest proportion of trained operatives were in occupations related to the electrical, electronics and engineering industries in which nearly 70 per cent were either in training or had been trained. This represents a much higher proportion than in other industrial occupations for which the corresponding percentage was of the order of 45. The incidence of training was also shown to be high (of the order of 60 per cent) for occupations associated with building and construction and in relation to professional and technical activities. Occupations for which the extent of training was shown to be low were those related to the agricultural and transport and communications areas, for which the above-mentioned proportion was of the order of 20 per cent in each case. Not unexpectedly very few young persons classified as "unskilled" were recorded under the training heading, this of course being basically a consequence of the definition of this occupational category.

The data given in Table A.6.4 highlight some interesting gender differences in regard to the provision of training. In global terms the incidence of training among girls does not appear to be materially different from that for young males. However, as already indicated, this proportion is heavily influenced by the large number of girls engaged in "clerical" work, amongst whom the degree of training tends to be particularly high. If the figures for this category are abstracted from the total the balance between males and females is significantly altered. With this more restricted coverage some 28 per cent of females are recorded as being in training or trained[24] compared with a corresponding proportion of 42 per cent for males. This can, of course, be readily observed if one examines the position for individual occupations other than the "clerical" category. For example, in activities related to manufacturing industry the extent of training among female is extremely low, being only 20 per cent for occupations in the electrical, electronic and engineering industries, and 24 per cent in other industrial occupations. The corresponding proportions among males with these occupations are 77 per cent and 53 per cent respectively. A similar position applies in a number of other areas (such as in commercial, etc., occupations) even though the extent of the divergence between males and females is not as marked.

24. When secretarial and office skills training is excluded, it becomes more meaningful to consider the aggregate of those "in training" and "trained" for females, since virtually all other forms of training take place outside the educational system.

Thus the overall picture portrayed is one where across many sectors the majority of higher level or skilled jobs requiring training appear to be held by males, with females occupying either clerical or generally unskilled positions. One has, of course, to look further afield than the training sphere in order to understand the reasons underlying this situation. The female training deficiency to which we refer is really an extension of a similar technical and scientific deficiency which exists in second-level education — an issue which has been amply illustrated in earlier work, notably that of Hannan, *et al.*, (1983). It is worth quoting the summarisation of the position in which they state:

> So although girls are less likely to drop out of school ..., and are, as a consequence, on average, more employable than boys, and although they are less likely to enter low paying unskilled or semi-skilled or service employment, their employment opportunities are nevertheless so concentrated in a narrow range of females dominated lower non-manual or white collar occupations that their labour market opportunities are strictly limited. This high degree of sex segregation of the labour market exists as part of a more widespread social and cultural system which clearly differentiates men's from women's roles in adult life. This sex role differentiation ... is also clearly represented in the cultural assumptions shared by the main educational institutions in their provision and allocation of subjects.

Given the deep rooted nature of the problem it would indeed have been surprising if we had found the training situation to be materially different. It is disappointing, nevertheless, to find that the opportunity has not been taken to try and redress this imbalance; on the contrary it appears to be reinforced.

It must be recognised, however, that there may be other reasons underlying the male/female training imbalance. In many of the non-administrative or industrial type occupations where we observed the extent of female training to be low, training is normally acquired after employment has been attained and the gross costs are thus borne by employers.[25] The imbalance to which we refer suggests that employers may be exercising a preference towards investing in male trainees who are far less likely to leave for family or domestic reasons. In this context it is of interest to refer again to Appendix Table A.6.1 which shows that about 20 per cent of girls in the survey target group who were trained had received this training wholly or partly "on-the-job"; the corresponding proportion for young males was over 60 per cent.

25. Some would, however, dispute this contention, since the extent to which an employer bears this cost depends crucially on the relationship between the wages of the trainee and his/her output.

Different Types of Training

Finally, in relation to the pattern of training provision, let us consider this training in terms of its type and duration. Table A.6.5 provides a broad classification by type of training generally defined along what one might generally describe as occupational or industrial lines. In interpreting these figures it is again necessary to look separately at the situation for males and females. For young males training related to the industrial and building sectors is predominant with "engineering" standing out as the single most important category, accounting for over a third of the total who were either trained or in training. For girls commercial and administrative training is predominant — nearly three-quarters of those who had completed training courses fell in this category. As already indicated, a great deal of this particular type of training takes place inside the educational system and for this reason this activity does not form such a large proportion of the "in training" total for girls. These data again emphasise the low incidence of training among girls in the labour force in areas other than secretarial activities and office skills. If one considers only the "training completed" category and excludes the large "secretarial" component from the total, the estimated absolute number of young girls who were trained is reduced from 50,000 to less than 14,000. The latter figure represents 7.6 per cent of the females target population covered in the Transition Survey. The corresponding proportion for males is nearly 19 per cent.

Another important aspect of training relates to the duration over which it takes place. This particular feature is analysed in Table A.6.6 which gives data on durations for completed training spells for different types of training. In this context duration of training covers the entire period over which the person was considered to be a "trainee", including periods spent training "on the job".

The great majority of training programmes identified in our survey were substantial in terms of length. Only some 3 per cent of training activities recorded were of less than one months duration, and less than 13 per cent involved a total duration of less than 3 months. Nearly 30 per cent of respondents indicated that their period of training lasted for more than one year. Looking at the durations for different types of training one will notice some variation. Training programmes in the building industry, in manufacturing and in distribution tend generally to be of long duration, with the majority of programmes extending beyond a year. The influence of apprentice training would be a significant factor here. Training programmes related to the textile industry and the miscellaneous "other" industry category appear to be noticeably shorter in duration when compared with other industrial sub-categories. Training for clerical and administrative jobs tends to be heavily concentrated in the six to twelve months category, with few such programmes extending beyond a year.

The Influence of Education and Training on Labour Market Performance

Thus far in this chapter attention has been concentrated on the degree or extent of training found to exist in the youth population and on assessing the position in terms of relevant socio-economic factors. In the final analysis, however, the issue of primary importance is whether the training provided ultimately has a beneficial effect. However, assessing the impact of training is not necessarily a straightforward matter as it depends very much on the perspective adopted. If the situation is viewed solely in terms of those actually trained, then in conceptual terms the position is relatively straightforward, since it reduces to an assessment as to whether they subsequently fare better in the labour market (in regard to earnings, unemployment experience, etc.,) when compared with other peer groups who did not receive training. However, in a wider labour market context is must be remembered that in conferring an advantage on one group the problems of others can be accentuated, particularly in circumstances of restricted demand. Thus in this broader scenario any assessment of training or of other manpower programmes should ideally take account of aspects such as displacement and substitution, the extent to which the trained individuals use the skills acquired and whether the training provided makes a positive contribution to aggregate output. However, such a wider review is outside the scope of this study[26] and in the concluding section of this chapter the discussion is confined to reviewing the impact of training solely in terms of its effects on those trained.

One can obtain a broad indication of the effect of training in an individual context by observing the current (i.e., 1982) employment/unemployment position for those young people who were trained as compared with the situation for those who did not receive any training. The relevant information is given in Appendix Table A.6.7 which shows a classification of our target group according to principal economic status and the training variable. The position is summarised in terms of unemployment rates in Table 6.3 following. It was considered appropriate in this table to confine the comparison, on the one hand, to those who had *completed training courses* and on the other to those who have *never received any training* in order to restrict the analysis to two manifestly distinct groups. Those seeking their first job were excluded since most post-education training takes place subsequent to this stage and the inclusion of this element of unemployment would only serve to confuse the situation.

These global figures suggest that training does convey a significant advantage on those who receive it. The unemployment rate for the "trained" group, at 9.5 per cent, is some 5 percentage points lower than that for those without any

26. For a more comprehensive discussion on assessing training programmes, see NESC Report No. 82 *Manpower Policy in Ireland*, Chapter IV, pages 92-99.

Table 6.3: *Unemployment Rates*[1] *in Spring 1982 for those who had completed training programmes and for those without any training*

Training Situation	*Males*	*Females*	*All Persons*
		%	
Training completed	14.6	5.1	9.5
No training[2]	16.1	11.7	14.6
Both groups combined	15.7	9.6	13.1

Notes: 1. The unemployment rates do not cover first job seekers.
2. This category includes those who commenced a training programme but did not complete it.

training. The relative advantage of training appears to be more pronounced for girls, the rate for trained females (just over 5 per cent) being less than a half of that for the untrained group.

It would, however, be premature to conclude on the basis of the above results that training was the principal causative factor underlying the differences indicated. The earlier sections of this chapter have shown that there are other significant influences involved, particularly educational attainment with which the acquisition of training is correlated (see Table 6.2). It is relevant, therefore, to analyse the position further in a manner which takes both training and education into account. An additional reason for considering such an approach is that the dividing line between where education ends and training begins is becoming increasingly uncertain. Within both the vocational education system and the manpower sphere there are many programmes which are directed largely at the same target groups and which are broadly similar in terms of content. With these considerations in mind Table 6.4 contains a composite classification showing unemployment rates for different educational levels with a further distinction involving those "trained" and "without any training".

This table yields some unusual results. The advantage conveyed by training appears to have the greatest impact in the case of those without formal educational qualifications. For the group consisting of unqualified persons who had received training the unemployment rate is 17 per cent,compared with over 22 per cent for those who were both untrained and unqualified educationally. This differential appears to be greater in the case of girls. For boys who completed both cycles of second-level education the unemployment rates for those who did not receive any training are *lower* than those who were trained. The unemployment rate for young trained males who had completed the lower cycle of second level education was nearly 16 per cent, compared with just over 11 per cent for those boys who were untrained. The corresponding proportions for boys who completed the higher cycle were 9½ per cent for the trained group and 4½ per cent for those who were untrained. For girls, even though the unemployment rate for

Table 6.4 *Youth population outside of education in 1982. Unemployment rates for those who completed training courses and for those who did not receive any training*

Educational Level/Training	Unemployment Rate		
	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
No Qualifications			
Trained	18.7%	13.9%	16.9%
No Training	22.8%	21.9%	22.4%
Second Level, 1st Cycle Completed			
Trained	15.7%	8.0%	13.2%
No Training	11.3%	7.2%	9.9%
Second Level, 2nd Cycle Completed			
Trained	9.5%	2.6%	4.2%
No Training	4.5%	4.5%	4.5%
Third Level			
Trained	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
No Training	6.2%	2.5%	4.7%
All Levels			
Trained	14.5%	5.1%	9.5%
No Training	16.1%	11.7%	14.6%

Note: (1) The unemployment rates exclude those seeking their first regular job.
(2) The "no training" category includes those who commenced training programmes, but did not complete them.

those without training who completed the lower cycle of second level education is smaller than that for those who were trained, the difference is marginal and cannot be regarded as significant. Nevertheless this suggests that training does not appear to convey any significant benefits in this instance. On the other hand, training does appear to be advantageous to girls who completed Leaving

Certificate standard, the relevant rate for those who acquired training being 2½ per cent, compared with 4½ per cent for girls who were recorded as untrained at this level.

It is difficult to try and rationalise the results for boys. At the lower cycle of second level education the apparently perverse nature of the outcome may be due to the fact that unemployment has been particularly high among apprentices in recent years because of problems of over-supply and structural changes in the pattern of demand.[27] In the case of the higher cycle, the figures may be a reflection of the basic fact that for young males the attainment of a higher educational standard is *the* important criterion in achieving successful integration into the labour market. It is possible that many at this level who were accommodated on training programmes were relatively low achievers who would, in any case, have experienced particular difficulty in procuring employment. On the other hand, the very different nature of the results for girls who completed the higher cycle at second level (for whom training is seen to be significantly advantageous), is probably a reflection of the influence of secretarial and office skills courses which tend to predominate within the training sphere for girls at this level.

Thus perhaps the most disconcerting feature to emerge from the training results generally is that for girls training support does not appear to be directed to those who really need it. The previously mentioned YEA 1984 report emphasised the case for directing aid to the underprivileged since it illustrates how those without educational qualifications find it more difficult to find or regain employment when compared with better endowed groups. Over the two year retrospective period covered by that inquiry it was found that the degree of joblessness among unqualified young people who were unemployed at the beginning of the period remained stubbornly high, while over the same period it declined substantially for those with qualifications.[28] One must presume, however, that the position would have improved since the introduction of the Youth Guarantee in 1985, in view of the emphasis given in that initiative to aiding the less well qualified.

27. See NESC, 1985 — *Manpower Policy in Ireland* — pages 107, 108.
28. See Page 4 of the Summary version of that Report.

Chapter VII

AGGREGATE LABOUR FORCE EXPERIENCE

1. *General Aspects*

Heretofore most of the analyses which have been presented are based on observing different aspects of the youth population in relation to a point in time, i.e., the spring and early summer of 1982. There are limitations with an approach of this kind. The causative factors affecting employment and unemployment at any one time may, for example, reflect transient labour market influences. It can be argued that a more comprehensive representation is obtained if, in addition to assessing current circumstances, an individual's total or cumulative labour force experience is taken into account. This could, depending on the requirements, provide a more solid basis for assessment, since it reflects individual's experience over periods when economic conditions varied. One of the strengths of the 1982 Transition Survey is that, despite the problems associated with cohort truncation as referred to earlier, the detailed job histories obtained for each respondent makes it possible to carry out precisely this type of exercise.

It is possible to present data based on job histories in different ways. In this particular chapter we will present the data mainly in terms of aggregate average periods spent at work, unemployed and economically inactive. The overall position is summarised in Table 7.1 following. For the target group as a whole the overall average duration subsequent to leaving full-time education was 226 weeks (about four years and four months) of which 175 weeks (nearly 77 per cent of the total duration) related to periods at work, 19 weeks (8½ per cent) related to unemployment and 32 weeks (14 per cent) to economically inactive pursuits. There was a slightly longer overall average duration (230 weeks) for men, compared with that for women (222 weeks). The latter experienced, on average, 41 weeks in which they were economically inactive as opposed to 24 weeks for men, mainly reflecting the extent to which women in the older age categories of the target group had withdrawn from the labour force for domestic and family reasons. Overall, males had longer average periods at work (184 weeks) and in unemployment (22 weeks) compared with females who had, on average, 166 weeks of employment and 15 weeks of unemployment.

For those who were actually in the labour force in the spring of 1982 (and these were the great majority) the overall average duration subsequent to leaving full-time education was 218 weeks of which 178 weeks (82 per cent) related to employment; an average period of 19 weeks (8.7 per cent) was spent in

Table 7.1 *Youth population outside of education in 1982. Aggregate average duration of periods at work, unemployed and economically inactive*

Status and category of duration	Males	Females	All Persons
	Average weeks per person		
All Persons			
At work	183.7	166.2	175.3
Seeking 1st regular job	12.2	9.6	11.0
Unemployed	9.6	5.7	7.7
Inactive	24.4	41.0	32.3
Total	229.9	222.4	226.2
In Labour Force			
At work	185.0	168.8	177.9
Seeking 1st regular job	12.3	9.2	10.9
Unemployed	9.5	6.0	8.0
Inactive	22.5	19.0	21.0
Total	229.2	203.2	217.7

unemployment (including search for first job) while a somewhat greater duration, 21 weeks, related to activities outside the labour force.

If one computes, for those who were in the labour force when the survey was taken, an "unemployment ratio" consisting of the ratio of the average duration of unemployment to the aggregate duration spent in the labour force (i.e., the period at work and unemployed) this calculation yields a figure of 9.6 per cent — considerably lower than the conventional "head count" rate of 16.6 per cent for the youth labour force relating to the Survey period (see Table 1.2 in Chapter I). This is not entirely unexpected since the calculation of a conventional unemployment rate involves classifying individuals to employment or unemployment in a wholly dichotomous fashion in relation to their situation at a point in time. The calculation of the above-mentioned ratio is not only heavily influenced by those currently in employment who tend to have a minimal record of past unemployment, but also by those among the unemployed with a significant previous history of work experience (see Table 7.5). This in effect means that with an unemployment ratio based on cumulative labour force experience the employment element can assume much greater weight than in a conventional

index, particularly if the Survey period is recessionary and the employment histories used extend over periods when economic conditions varied.

It is therefore necessary to sound a note of caution at this point in regard to the interpretation of unemployment ratios based on aggregate labour force experience. While, as already indicated, it may be an advantage to have an assessment mechanism which embraces present and past labour force experience, such a measure will not fully reflect current circumstances in view of the broader coverage involved. In 1982 these were distinctly unfavourable in so far as the youth labour market was concerned. Both approaches, i.e., the aggregate or cumulative measures just described and conventional unemployment rates which reflect the manner in which current economic events impact on the labour market, have their merits depending on the particular context and the objectives involved.

2. *The Influence of Duration of Search for First Regular Job*

An important issue which should be highlighted before detailed evaluations of the kind envisaged in this Chapter are engaged in, is the necessity to consider separately the estimates for average duration of search for first regular job. When viewed in absolute average terms this is a largely constant entity and is clearly independent of subsequent duration in the workforce. Since overall labour force duration can vary greatly from one respondent to another (depending on current age and the period when the young person left education) assessments of labour market performance which are related to overall duration in the workforce can be greatly distorted if the time spent seeking a first job is included in the aggregate unemployment period. This is amply illustrated if one considers the average durations of search for first job and the total time spent in the labour force for different cohort groups.

The figures in Table 7.2 show that the average duration of search for first employment does not vary substantially for different educational cohorts. However, since the average durations of total labour market experience decrease steadily as one considers the more recent cohorts, the duration of search for first job tends to have a more dominant effect on the measured labour market experience of those who recently left the educational system. Thus, if search for first regular job is included in the cumulative unemployment figures, the relative degree or incidence of unemployment is significantly increased for the later cohorts - not necessarily because of any underlying rise in the trend of youth unemployment as such, but because the period of search for first job forms an increasing proportion of the total time spent in the labour force.

The effect in question is illustrated in Table 7.3 which contains figures representing cumulative measures of the *relative* degree of unemployment. The first column of percentages, based on the aggregate durations including search for first regular job, appear to suggest that the relative extent of unemployment

Table 7.2 *Persons who were in the labour force in 1982. Average duration of search for first regular job and overall average duration in the labour force for different cohorts*

Cohort	Average Duration in Labour Force	Average Duration of Search for 1st Regular Job
	Weeks	
(1)	(2)	(3)
1973 or earlier	405.8	14.1
1974/75	328.5	12.6
1976/77	249.0	11.2
1978/79	157.8	9.8
1980 or later	58.2	10.0
Total	194.5	10.9

Table 7.3 *Persons who were in the labour force in Spring 1982: Average incidence of cumulative unemployment*

Cohort	Including Duration of Search for 1st Job	Excluding Duration of Search for 1st Job
	%	
(1)	(2)	(3)
1973 or earlier	8.1	5.4
1974/75	7.6	3.9
1976/77	8.1	4.0
1978/79	10.6	4.7
1980 or later	21.1	4.7

experienced was much greater for those who left the educational system in more recent years. This is an entirely cohort related effect, arising from the largely constant absolute duration of this initial post-education job search period. If the same calculation is repeated with duration of search for first regular job excluded (i.e., as in Column (3)) then no such effect is indicated and the unemployment position is then shown to be rather similar for all cohorts. In view of this a number of the subsequent analytical tables presented in this chapter are concerned primarily with *post-transition* labour market experience, i.e., they do not cover periods spent seeking first regular employment.

3. *Cumulative Post-Transition Unemployment*

Let us now, therefore, turn to analyse the aggregate labour market experience of young people under different headings in terms of the relative degree of cumulative unemployment experienced.

Table 7.4 analyses the position in terms of *educational levels*. Generally speaking, the pattern of results is similar to that already indicated in Chapter III (Table 3.8) which involved conventional unemployment rates. The cumulative degree of unemployment for those without any educational qualifications, at 7.1 per cent, is several times that observed in the case of those who acquired second-level qualifications. The figures also indicate a significant difference between respondents who had completed the first and second cycles of second-level education, the relevant ratios being nearly 4 per cent of those who completed the lower cycle and just over 2 per cent for those who had finished the higher cycle. The results are generally similar for both males and females.

Table 7.4 *The incidence of post-transition unemployment classified by educational level: Persons who were in the labour force in Spring 1982*

Educational Level	Average Proportion of Labour Force Experience Unemployed		
	Males	Females	Total
		%	
No qualifications	7.6	6.2	7.1
1st Cycle, 2nd level completed	4.1	3.2	3.9
2nd Cycle, 2nd level completed	2.6	1.7	2.1
Third level completed	2.4	1.8	2.2
Total	4.9	3.3	4.4

The cumulative labour market experience of the Survey respondents is analysed in relation to *current economic status* in Table 7.5. The table shows, in average terms for each status category, the distribution of time spent since leaving full-time education attributable to employment, unemployment and activities outside the labour force. It should be noted that in this table, in order to give a complete picture of post-school experience, periods spent searching for a first regular job are *included* in the unemployment figures.

Those who were actually at work at the time of the Transition Survey in 1982 had, on average, spent more than 87 per cent of their post-school experience

Table 7.5 *Youth population outside of education in 1982: Distribution of time spent since leaving full-time education in different forms of activity, classified by current principal economic status*

Principal Economic Status	Males	Females	Total
	%		
Those currently at work			
At work	87.2	87.8	87.4
Unemployed(1)	5.5	5.2	5.4
Inactive	7.3	7.0	7.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Those currently unemployed			
At work	58.3	58.4	58.3
Unemployed(1)	24.4	21.5	23.7
Inactive	17.4	20.1	18.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Those currently seeking first regular job			
At work	21.5	27.0	23.5
Unemployed(1)	41.4	31.5	37.7
Inactive	37.1	41.5	38.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Those outside labour force			
At work	36.2	47.1	46.2
Unemployed(1)	8.7	4.8	5.1
Inactive	55.1	48.1	48.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
All Persons			
At work	79.9	74.7	77.5
Unemployed(1)	9.5	6.9	8.2
Inactive	10.6	18.4	14.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

(1) Including time spent seeking a first regular job.

in employment, some 5½ per cent in unemployment and about 7 per cent in activities outside the labour force. The position is shown to be virtually identical for males and females. Those who were unemployed having lost a job had spent 58 per cent of the corresponding period at work, 24 per cent in unemployment and 18 per cent in economically inactive pursuits.

The relatively high figure for the proportion of time spent outside the labour force by unemployed persons is of particular interest. It illustrates the extent to which young people who are prone to unemployment spend their time in activities other than job search and serves to emphasise the need to view the position in terms of a wider perspective than that provided by a consideration of unemployment (conventionally defined). Basically the figures are a reflection of the fact that the post-transition stage is a period when many young people move not only in and out of employment, but in and out of the labour force, a feature which seems to apply more or less equally to boys and girls. This may be due to "discouragement", i.e, abandoning job search because of bleak employment prospects, or it may be attributable to other reasons such as returning to education or engaging in domestic or recreational activities. This phenomenon is even more evident for those who were engaged in seeking a first regular job at the time of the survey. For this group the proportion of post-school time engaged in activities outside the labour force is shown to be as high as 39 per cent, which is almost on a par with the proportion of time spent seeking first regular employment. In this regard it is also noticeable that even for those who were "at work" at the time of the Transition Survey the recorded proportion of time since leaving education spent "inactive", even though small (about 7 per cent), is actually greater than the proportion of time spent in unemployment.

By associating the data analysed in the preceding paragraph with the information on numbers of persons in different status groups given earlier in Table 3.3 in Chapter III, it is possible to derive measures of the "degree of concentration" of unemployment in the youth labour market. One can, for example, derive an estimate of the proportion of aggregate unemployment measured in person-weeks accounted for by persons who were actually unemployed at the time of the Transition Survey. This type of information is given in Table 7.6. The figures show that unemployed persons (other than first job seekers), even though they comprised less than 10 per cent of the target group, accounted for no less than 55 per cent of the accumulation of person-weeks of post-transitional unemployment attributable to the group as a whole. Those who were at work at the time of the Transition Survey accounted for 38 per cent of this total, the remainder of the unemployment volume being accounted for by first job seekers and economically inactive persons. The figures thus indicate that the total volume of youth unemployment bears heavily on a relatively small proportion of the youth population.

Table 7.6: *Distribution of Aggregate Unemployment According to Principal Economic Status at the Time of the Transition Survey*

Principal Economic Status at Time of Survey	*Number in Survey Target Group*		*Aggregate Weeks Unemployed to date*[1]		*Aggregate weeks Unemployed*[1] *or Inactive to date*	
	000	*%*	*000*	*%*	*000*	*%*
At Work	293.0	76.4	1,151.5	38.2	5,792.6	37.6
Unemployed	36.7	9.6	1,658.8	55.0	3,361.4	21.8
Seeking 1st Regular Job	21.8	5.7	36.4	1.2	1,061.7	6.9
Inactive	32.2	8.4	168.7	5.6	5,171.3	33.6
Total	383.7	100.0	3,015.4	100.0	15,387.0	100.0

Note: 1. Excluding periods spent seeking a first regular job.

Table 7.7 provides information on the incidence of post-transition unemployment classified by *number of jobs held.* This table, it should be noted, also includes separate information on the average duration of search for first regular job, since in relation to the aspect being analysed, the survey estimates indicate some interesting differences between the transitional and post-transitional experiences. The average period spent seeking first employment is shown to be significantly lower for those who had experienced frequent job changes. For those who had two jobs the average duration of search for first regular

Table 7.7 *Indicators of aggregate labour force experience since leaving full-time education classified by number of jobs held*

No. of Jobs Held	Average Duration of Search for First Regular Job			Average Proportion of Post-Transition Labour Force Experience Unemployed		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
	Weeks			%		
Never had a job	59.8	44.1	53.6	-	-	-
1 job	10.1	8.7	9.5	2.4	1.2	1.9
2 jobs	9.6	6.9	8.3	5.7	3.9	4.9
3-5 jobs	8.3	6.5	7.5	7.7	6.2	7.1
6 or more jobs	7.8	2.3	5.6	8.9	5.4	7.6
Total	12.1	9.3	10.9	5.0	3.6	4.4

employment exceeded 8 weeks, while for those who held six or more jobs it was less than 6 weeks. However, on the other hand, the extent of *post-transition* unemployment for the latter group appears to be relatively high when compared with those with more stable labour market histories.

Generally, these figures perhaps portray the nature of the dilemma facing many young persons (particularly the unskilled) at the vital transition stage. They suggest, as has already been indicated in earlier chapters, that there is a temptation to avail of tenuous forms of employment which, even if they provide a first foothold in the labour market,do not last and subsequently further spells of unemployment materialise. One might be tempted to suggest on this basis that it is better to wait for a more substantial job opportunity. While this may be a practical proposition if one is still in the educational system (or in training), if one is already out of work then there is a risk of drifting into long-term unemployment, a predicament from which it is particularly difficult to escape.

The above-mentioned relationships are all the more interesting since it must be remembered that not all job changes are necessarily disadvantageous. Many persons change employment for reasons of personal advancement and often without intervening periods of unemployment. This suggests that the figures in question probably understate the unemployment situation in so far as it relates to those who suffer involuntary job loss and experience actual unemployment before another job is found.

4. *The Distribution of Aggregate Unemployment*

Finally, it is of interest to observe how the cumulative incidence of unemployment varies between individuals. Table 7.8 shows the distributional pattern of this variable for different aggregate durations of total labour force experience. The table, which relates to those with some labour force experience,[29] shows that over 70 per cent of the Transition Survey respondents had not experienced any unemployment at all; a further 16 per cent had spent less than one-tenth of their accumulated labour force experience in this state; over 8 per cent of the survey respondents had been unemployed for more than 20 per cent of their aggregate time in the labour market.

Not unexpectedly, the position varies with duration of total labour market experience since the longer this spell, the more one is exposed to the risk of unemployment. Nearly 40 per cent of the young people covered who had been in the labour force for over seven years had experienced some unemployment compared with a corresponding percentage of 16 for those who had been in the labour market for a year or less. The figures do not indicate any substantial difference between males and females in regard to this analysis.

29. First jobseekers (and therefore search durations for first jobs) are not included in these figures.

Table 7.8 *Youth population outside of education in 1982: Distribution of the cumulative degree of unemployment classified by duration of labour force experience*

Cumulative degree of Unemployment (1)	Duration of Labour Force Experience (excluding search for first regular job)																			
	MALE							FEMALE							ALL PERSONS					
	Under 1 year	1 to 2 years	2 to 3 years	3 to 5 years	5 to 7 years	Over 7 years	Total	Under 1 year	1 to 2 years	2 to 3 years	3 to 5 years	5 to 7 years	Over 7 years	Total	Under 1 year	1 to 2 years	2 to 3 years	3 to 5 years	5 to 7 years	Over 7 years	Total
	Per Cent																			
No Unemployment	81.4	74.3	69.9	68.4	62.2	62.3	69.3 (131.7)	86.9	80.3	74.5	68.6	71.8	59.0	73.8 (127.8)	84.1	77.3	72.3	68.5	66.4	61.2	71.5 (259.4)
Up to 10%	3.7	8.8	11.8	16.6	23.9	26.8	15.7 (29.8)	1.7	8.3	15.3	19.1	21.7	32.0	15.6 (27.0)	2.7	8.5	13.5	17.9	23.0	28.5	15.7 (56.8)
10% to 20%	2.9	4.0	5.0	6.0	6.3	4.9	5.1 (9.1)	2.9	2.7	4.4	5.4	3.4	3.7	4.0 (7.0)	2.9	3.3	4.7	5.7	5.1	4.5	4.6 (16.6)
20% to 50%	6.0	6.2	8.6	6.6	6.0	5.8	6.5 (12.4)	4.5	5.2	3.8	5.5	2.8	4.5	4.5 (7.9)	5.3	5.7	6.1	6.1	4.6	5.3	5.6 (20.3)
Over 50%	6.0	6.8	4.9	2.4	1.5	0.3	3.4 (6.5)	4.0	3.6	1.9	1.3	0.2	0.8	3.4 (1.9)	5.0	5.2	3.4	1.8	1.0	0.5	2.7 (9.8)
Total	100.0 (25.7)	100.0 (25.5)	100.0 (28.9)	100.0 (53.6)	100.0 (27.1)	100.0 (12.1)	100.0 (172.8)	100.0 (52.6)	100.0 (50.5)	100.0 (55.8)	100.0 (105.0)	100.0 (62.7)	100.0 (36.1)	100.0 (362.9)							

Notes: (1) The cumulative degree of unemployment is the proportion of time in the labour force spent in unemployment. The duration of search for first regular job is excluded from this calculation.

(2) Persons who were seeking a first regular job at the time of the Transition and persons who were never in the labour force are not covered by these figures.

These figures are of course affected to some extent by cohort truncation in the sense that those groups in the labour force for longer periods involve a higher proportion of unskilled persons who tend to be more prone to unemployment.

Chapter VIII

EARNINGS IN THE YOUTH LABOUR MARKET

This chapter is concerned with assessing the influence of certain socio-economic factors on earnings as estimated from the Transition Survey. In circumstances where a current job was held at the time of the inquiry, information was collected on both gross and net (i.e., take-home) earnings, but net earnings only were sought in respect of previous jobs held. This approach was adopted as it was considered that many young people, while knowing what they actually received in net or cash terms, might not be aware of the precise extent of their gross pay. The experience with the Survey confirmed this as in a fairly significant number of cases (25 per cent of respondents) it was not possible to obtain the gross pay even for the current job held. It should be borne in mind, therefore, that the following analyses relate exclusively to usual *net* earnings, i.e., gross pay less deductions for income tax, PRSI, contributions to pension funds, etc. The information collected related to "usual" earnings in the sense that irregular or occasional payments in the form of bonuses or overtime wages paid during the survey period[30] were excluded. If, however, overtime was a regular feature of the employment in question, the earnings from this were included.

This chapter involves two different forms of analysis. In the first instance net earnings which were earned by respondents at the commencement of their first regular job are considered, followed by an evaluation of current (i.e., 1982) earnings for those in employment when the Transition Survey was taken. All the analyses relate to *paid employees* who formed the great majority of the Survey target group. There were some self-employed and assisting relatives identified in the sample, but the numbers involved were relatively small. Many of the young self-employed in question were associated with family businesses. Their recorded incomes (like those of other family workers) tended to be low, and it was considered that the inclusion of these groups would have had a distorting effect on the overall results obtained.

The survey respondents could have commenced their first regular job at any point between the early 1970s and the beginning of 1982 and therefore any consideration of earnings data in relation to such jobs clearly raises problems of comparability arising from the effects of inflation. It was, therefore, necessary

30. Information collected on the current job held related principally to the week preceding the Survey interview. However, earnings data were supplied on a monthly basis and these were subsequently converted to a weekly basis. All of the earnings figures quoted in this Chapter relate to *weekly net earnings*.

to adjust such figures to a constant price basis. This was done on a monthly basis using an index derived from the Consumer Price Index (CPI) in association with the date of commencement of first regular job. The CPI is only available quarterly, of course, but monthly index values intermediate to those points relating to the CPI reference dates were obtained by a simple process of linear interpolation.[31] The base to which all net earnings data were adjusted is May 1982, the CPI point of reference most closely related to the Transition Survey period.

1. *Net Earnings from First Regular Job*

Summary information on the net weekly wages earned by young people at the commencement of their first regular job is given in Table 8.1. The data (expressed in constant 1982 prices) are also given for different levels of educational attainment. The overall average net weekly figure was £57.43. However, it was less than £48 for those without any qualifications, nearly £53 for young persons who completed the lower-cycle of second level education and £66 for those who completed the higher cycle at this stage. The figure was much higher (£95) for persons who received third-level education, but the last-mentioned figure cannot

Table 8.1 *Average weekly starting net earnings (expressed in constant May 1982 prices) for first regular jobs classified by educational level: Employees only*

Educational Attainment	Males	Females	Total
	£		
No Qualifications	52.36	43.07	47.65
Second Level			
1st cycle completed	52.29	52.28	52.29
2nd cycle completed	70.15	64.35	66.41
Third level completed	96.24	92.92	94.81
Total	58.53	56.36	57.43

31. Consideration was given to using a polynomial or spline function to derive an index for use in converting the nominal earnings data to a fixed price basis. While a best fitting polynomial would have given a smoother monthly trend index, it would not have passed through the known CPI quarterly reference points. On the other hand, while the use of a spline function would have involved the actual CPI reference points, experimentation with this approach indicated that the estimated values intermediate to these points would be very unstable.

be taken as entirely representative of award recipients generally at this level in view of the limited coverage in the Survey of such persons.

There are some notable differences relating to the earnings figures for males and females. In the case of young males the starting-up wages for first regular jobs for persons without qualifications (which tend to be much higher than the corresponding earnings for girls) do not appear to differ materially from those who completed the first cycle of second-level education. For each of these two categories the relevant male average weekly earnings is about £52. The position is different for young females, however, for whom the earnings associated with lack of qualifications are noticeably lower — £43 per week or some £9 per week lower than the corresponding figure for males. There are a number of reasons for this, basically related to the different occupational structures involved which are illustrated in Table 8.2. The figures for males are influenced by the exceptionally high average earnings for unskilled workers without qualifications (£63 per week) while, on the other hand, the aggregate figure for unqualified girls is affected by the relatively low earnings levels for the residual services "Other occupations" category (£37 per week). Thus, while unqualified girls are paid relatively low wages, the progression from "no qualifications" to the minimum stage of lower cycle second level education appears to convey a considerable advantage.

The relatively high earnings indicated for unskilled young males is a point of particular interest — the levels are shown to be considerably higher than the pay for those who entered specific industrial and building occupations, and even higher than the net wages earned by young males who engaged in clerical or commercial work. This is probably a reflection of the fact that unskilled manual work requires little training input from the employer; the young recruit is, in effect, in a position to make an immediate contribution to output, even if in a fairly rudimentary way. On the other hand, the starting wage for more skill-intensive occupations would tend to be depressed as the initial output of the employee would be low. In addition, the conveying of these skills is perceived as a cost by the employer. The latter feature would appear to be borne out by the fact that the lowest average net earnings figures relate to occupations connected with the industrial and building sectors where training costs would tend to be relatively high. The net result of the phenomenon described is to bring about a "narrowing" of the range over which net male weekly earnings for first employment vary, at least when viewed in broad occupation terms.

The foregoing analysis only allows a rather limited perception of the factors determining first regular job net earnings. Wages are subject to many influences other than educational levels and occupation and it is necessary to devise a process of assessment which jointly takes account of as many relevant aspects as possible. With this objective in view a multiple cross-sectional regression (similar to those

Table 8.2 *Average weekly starting net earnings (in constant May 1982 prices) for first regular jobs classified by broad occupational groups and level of education: Employees only*

Educational Attainment	BROAD OCCUPATION: MALES					FEMALES					ALL PERSONS				
	Industrial/ Building/ Transport	Labourers/ Unskilled Workers	Clerical/ Commercial	Other* Workers	All Occupations	Industrial/ Building/ Transport	Labourers/ Unskilled Workers	Clerical Commercial	Other* Workers	All Occupations	Industrial Building Transport	Labourers Unskilled Workers	Clerical Commercial	Other* Workers	All Occupations
	£'s														
No Qualifications	51.75	62.68	41.73	49.43	52.36	46.39	-	42.26	36.97	43.07	49.04	62.19	44.48	42.02	47.65
Second Level															
First Cycle completed	50.89	57.65	50.62	56.62	52.29	57.25	-	54.77	35.20	52.28	52.32	57.93	53.36	46.94	52.29
Second Cycle completed	61.96	83.96	73.70	71.23	70.15	67.62	-	62.19	70.62	64.35	63.90	83.18	65.13	70.83	66.41
Third Level completed	102.31	82.92	84.24	98.80	96.24	49.72	-	75.99	99.76	92.92	95.66	82.92	80.83	99.14	94.81
Total	53.93	62.90	60.66	65.81	58.63	53.22	-	57.45	57.04	56.38	53.69	62.70	58.45	60.74	57.43

* Mainly service type activities.

used earlier in analysing residential movement and nature of job loss for first regular jobs) was undertaken with net earnings of first regular job[32] as the dependent variable and with the following range of explanatory variables:-

Variable	*Formulation*
1. Education	
Second Level, 1st cycle completed	1st cyc (1,0)
Second Level, 2nd cycle completed	2nd cyc (1,0)
Third Level completed	3rd lev (1,0)
	(The "without qualifications" category was used as a reference base)
2. Occupation	
Electrical Engineering, etc.	Electrical (1,0)
Other Producers	Other Producers (1,0)
Building, etc., occupations	Building (1,0)
Labourers, unskilled manual workers	Labourers (1,0)
Transport, etc., occupations	Transport (1,0)
Clerical, office occupations	Clerical (1,0)
Commerce, finance, etc. occupations	Commerce, etc. (1,0)
Professional or Technical Workers	Prof. Technical (1,0)
	(The "Other Service Workers" category was used as a reference base)
3. Sex	Sex, 1 = males, 0 = females
4. Change of residence to take up first regular job	Change of Residence 1 = change, 0 = no change
5. Age at commencement of first regular job	Age, years
6. Whether first regular job was full-time	Full-time 1 = full-time, 0 = part-time
7. Whether first regular job was in Dublin (City or County)	First job in Dublin 1 = in Dublin, 0 = elsewhere
8. Year of leaving full-time education (cohort)	Cohort: 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81+ (1,0) for each cohort (The "1975 or earlier" cohort was used as a reference base)

With the sole exception of the age at commencement of first regular job all the explanatory variables are formulated in the form of dummies. Furthermore it will be noted that, as in the similarly constructed regression procedures in

32. Expressed in constant May 1982 prices.

Chapters IV and V, for the education, occupational and cohort variables, a pivotal arrangement is used whereby one category is excluded and the resultant coefficients then reflect the differences between the other categories relative to the excluded or "reference" category.

Consideration was given to using the natural logarithm of the earnings figures in applying this regression routine. This can be advantageous with earnings data, the distribution of which tends to be skewed due to the presence of extreme values relating to persons with very high earnings. In such circumstances the basic underlying condition of normality is not fulfilled. However, youth earnings tend to be more concentrated and not dispersed in this manner (evidence for which has already been quoted earlier in this Chapter) and this, when considered with the relatively large size of the sample involved, indicated that the use of logarithms was not necessary. Thus, the earnings data used in the regression analyses in this Chapter are unadjusted net weekly earnings.

The results of the multiple regression as formulated above are given in Table 8.3 which shows the coefficients for the variables in question with the associated t-values. The overall degree of explanatory power associated with the analysis is not large. The value of R^2, at 0.15, while not unusually small for a cross-sectional regression analysis, does suggest that factors other than those included in the equation influences the pay of young people on entry to the labour market. It is not possible to specify precisely what those factors might be, but aspects such as the degree of personal initiative, regional or local characteristics or particular skills not specifically identified by the occupational categorisation used, come immediately to mind.

Among the features actually covered it is hardly surprising that educational attainment emerges as a factor of considerable significance influencing first regular job wages. The results suggest that those who completed Leaving Certificate standard appear to have on average a £14 advantage over those without any qualifications in relation to the net weekly starting pay for regular employment. The corresponding advantage for those who acquired third-level qualifications was £34. The overall difference is not particularly marked, however, in relation to the lower cycle of second-level education (i.e., attainment of the Intermediate or Group Certificates). It is noticeable, however, that for this level the regression exercise reaffirms the gender difference already evident from Table 8.1. For females the coefficient relating to the lower cycle of second-level education is significant (at the 0.1 per cent level) and the analysis suggests a financial advantage of some £5 per week over those without any formal qualifications. In the case of young males, however, the corresponding coefficient is not statistically significant.

With regard to occupations, for young males two rather diverse groups — unskilled manual and clerical occupations — are indicated as being of significance

Table 8.3 *Results of multiple regression analysis designed to estimate the influence of certain variables on the net starting wage of first regular jobs: Employees only*

Variable	Males		Females		All Persons	
	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t
EDUCATION						
1st cyc.	1.38	0.72	5.46	3.59	3.14	2.53
2nd cyc.	16.75	6.18	12.37	6.24	13.86	8.28
3rd Lev.	38.76	7.43	29.29	6.87	34.32	10.01
OCCUPATION						
Electrical etc.	-1.20	0.48	7.44	2.93	0.73	0.43
Other Producers	2.97	1.11	1.15	0.64	2.72	1.73
Building etc.	-2.50	0.70	13.78	0.73	-2.26	0.80
Labourers	11.87	3.95	14.37	1.85	12.37	5.40
Transport	5.69	1.59	2.75	0.91	4.75	2.03
Clerical	11.13	3.48	8.26	5.45	8.92	5.84
Commercial, etc.	0.87	0.30	-0.05	0.03	0.92	0.58
Prof., Technical	6.17	1.48	22.90	8.77	14.85	6.24
SEX	-	-	-	-	4.29	4.22
CHANGE OF RESIDENCE	15.38	5.65	1.05	0.60	8.10	5.12
AGE	1.54	2.56	1.48	3.15	1.54	4.00
FULL-TIME	10.42	2.13	4.86	1.66	7.19	2.62
FIRST JOB IN DUBLIN	-1.94	1.17	1.29	1.15	-0.28	0.28
COHORT						
76	-5.07	1.89	-8.20	4.32	-7.35	4.45
77	-12.65	4.81	-6.19	3.30	-9.38	5.78
78	-8.92	3.47	-4.11	2.25	-6.83	4.32
79	-15.98	6.31	-7.51	4.08	-12.04	7.64
80	-19.42	7.21	-12.05	6.25	-15.76	9.48
81 or later	-26.89	9.46	-18.94	9.30	-23.04	13.10
CONSTANT	23.57		21.00		19.96	
	$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.147 n = 2,460		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.199 n = 2,506		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.154 n = 4,966	

Notes: (1) The earnings data, which are weekly, are on the basis of Constant (1982) prices (see text).

(2) The significance levels for t (n = ∞) are:
$t_{5\%} = 1.96$; $t_{1\%} = 2.58$; $t_{0.1\%} = 3.29$

in relation to augmenting earnings. For each of these classes the coefficients indicate an advantage of the order of some £12 per week when compared with the reference "other service workers" occupational category. The results relating to unskilled activities are consistent with our earlier observations when the unexpectedly high net earnings associated with such work was noted. In the case of young girls, clerical and professional skills and occupations related to the electrical and engineering sphere are shown to be clearly associated with higher earnings.

The fact that the last-mentioned electrical/engineering related occupation is identified as being of significance (to the extent of increasing female net weekly earnings by over £7 above the base reference figure) may appear rather surprising. This is likely to have arisen because of the sizeable numbers of young women working in the electronic and other "light" industries sectors. An inspection of the detailed 1981 Census of Population results for the occupational group in question[33] reveals that over 80 per cent of the females in question (of all ages) are concentrated in two occupational sub-categories — the manufacture of precision instruments and "unspecified" electrical and electronic workers. What the results suggest, therefore, is that within the context of the female employee labour force, the procurement of such work conveys fairly substantial financial benefits.

Generally speaking, these results again indicate that for males in particular, occupation is not a particularly strong influence affecting net earnings at the point of entry to the labour market. Other more fundamental characteristics, such as educational level which plays a significant role determining occupational choice in the first instance, exert a greater influence.[34]

The sex or gender variable included in the analysis for all persons indicates that young males appear to have an advantage in relation to net earnings of first regular job. The additional net pay element appears to be some £4.30 per week, with the associated degree of statistical significance exceeding the 0.1 per cent level. This may be considered a rather surprising result in view of the progress which was made in eliminating discrimination throughout the 1970s. It must be remembered, however, that the analysis is primarily retrospective and the first regular jobs under consideration were taken up over the period from the beginning of the 1970s. Some would therefore relate to circumstances where discriminatory practices still prevailed. This issue will be considered again later in this Chapter when current earnings are analysed.

For young males there appears to be a significant relationship between earnings

33. Census of Population 1981, Volume VII, Table 2.

34. For a more detailed sequential analysis of influences such as social background and educational level, see Breen (1984a).

and residence change. The relevant regression coefficient, which is highly significant, indicates that the average financial addition to net starting up earnings is as high as £15 per week for those who moved. This variable is not shown to be significant for females, which is rather surprising since it will be recalled from Chapter IV that young girls exhibited a greater propensity to leave home when taking up this early employment (see Table 4.3 in Chapter IV). In summary, therefore, while fewer young males leave their domicile at this stage, those who do appear to gain more in the way of financial reward. However, this has to be offset against the fact that such a residence change normally involves increased living costs. These results are broadly consistent with those of Elias and Blanchflower (1988) who identified a positive relationship between earnings and geographical mobility (the latter, however, being measured over a fairly lengthy time span).

With regard to the other explanatory variables considered, age at commencement of first regular job emerges as a significant influence and is shown to have a positive effect on net earnings, to the extent of some £1.50 for each additional year of age, for both males and females. It is hardly surprising that the possession of a full-time (as distinct from a part-time) job conveys a financial advantage even though a noticeable feature here is that this variable attained significance for men, but not for women. This classification was based on the subjective view of the respondents and the results may reflect a tendency on behalf of women to view the distinction between full-time and part-time work in a less clear-cut manner than is the case for men. The relatively small number of part-time women workers in the target group sample is another factor that should be borne in mind in this instance. The regression analysis also included a variable designed to reveal whether net first regular job earnings were different in the Dublin area when compared with the rest of the country. The results given in Table 8.3 do not indicate any notable variation under this heading in aggregate terms but we will subsequently show that this aspect can be of significance within individual industrial sectors.

The final explanatory variable set included in our regression analysis purports to measure the influence of year of leaving full-time education (i.e., cohort). These results reveal a particularly interesting pattern. As one moves forward in time the results suggest that real net commencement earnings for first jobs in the labour market diminished, particularly in the post-1978 period.[35] All the specified cohort variables are highly significant and the total decrease in weekly net pay attributable to this time or trend effect is seen to be of the order of £16 between 1978 and 1981. It is necessary, however, to exercise some caution in interpreting these results. While the Transition Survey was taken in 1982, the

35. These results are broadly consistent with those of Breen, Whelan and Costigan (1986) who analysed hourly net earnings using the Annual Department of Labour School Leavers Surveys 1980 to 1985.

details of some first jobs refer back as far as the early 1970s and inaccuracies could have arisen due to recall or memory effects.

However, it is not altogether surprising to have identified some such influence. Our assessment is, after all, concerned with net earnings and from 1979 onwards income tax and PRSI contributions made increasingly greater inroads into employees' take-home pay. The size and consistency of the observed impact is nevertheless surprising and, to the extent that it can be considered a genuine influence, it calls into question claims that initial youth wages have been excessive. Certainly when the position is viewed from a young person's perspective the results suggest a sustained reduction in living standards over the period in question. It is true, of course, that the situation can be quite different when viewed from an employer's cost perspective, since this is of necessity based on gross wages and must also take into account additional costs such as employers' PRSI contributions and other labour-related expenses. Furthermore, in this latter context the Consumer Price Index is not the most appropriate index to use in adjusting earnings' data to a constant price basis; the GDP deflator would be more suitable but the use of this would not, of itself, alter the outcome to any significant extent. The two perspectives in question have diverged substantially in recent years according as the incidence of income tax and social insurance payments (for both employees and employers) has increased (see Bacon, 1986, p. 15).

There was evidence from the Survey results to suggest that some respondents tended to overstate their previous earnings levels — partly it appears because of a tendency to equate current earnings with those relating to earlier periods and also because of genuine recall difficulties. While it is important to acknowledge that such an effect existed, it is not considered to be of a sufficient magnitude to explain the entire significance of the cohort variable and the authors' view is that a period-related influence was present. Further data to support this contention will become evident when current earnings are analysed later in the chapter.

2. *Net First Regular Job Earning By Sector*

The above-mentioned regression analyses yielded results of sufficient interest to warrant further investigation. It is of interest, for example, to see whether the patterns which we have identified vary for different sectors. Table 8.4, therefore, shows a repetition of the earlier multiple regression across five broad sectoral categories.

The first point of interest is the variation in the overall explanatory power across different sectors. In the case of the industrial, commercial and other private service areas the value of R^2 is similar to the overall average for all sectors (0.155). However, in the case of the building industry R^2 is extremely low

Table 8.4 *Results of multiple regression analyses for different sectors designed to estimate the effects of certain variables on the net starting wage for first regular job: Employees only*

	Industry		Building		Commerce, etc.		Public Sector		Other Services		All Sectors	
Variable	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t
EDUCATION												
1st cyc.	1.60	0.87	-1.42	0.21	6.40	2.82	7.35	1.45	3.13	1.20	3.44	2.53
2nd cyc.	5.99	2.23	12.73	1.19	16.34	5.28	28.08	4.99	13.65	4.15	13.86	8.28
3rd Lev.	25.79	4.52	42.80	1.60	19.50	2.14	54.96	6.45	21.53	3.26	34.32	10.01
OCCUPATION												
Electrical	-3.36	1.31	-3.80	0.37	-10.28	3.11	-15.14	2.35	6.59	1.66	0.73	0.43
Other Producers	-1.84	0.85	-14.98	1.41	-5.43	1.38	-1.63	0.20	2.77	0.65	2.72	1.73
Building	-1.06	0.19	-15.21	1.43	-9.74	1.48	-18.08	2.04	-0.87	0.10	-2.26	0.80
Labourers	6.27	1.67	-1.60	0.14	9.83	2.24	-3.20	0.45	9.91	1.72	12.37	5.40
Transport	-1.84	0.53	-16.81	0.83	-5.97	1.26	9.17	1.33	14.25	3.33	4.75	2.03
Clerical	4.51	1.61	18.21	0.94	6.58	2.49	3.51	0.69	9.60	3.49	8.92	5.84
Commercial, etc.	4.38	1.13	-8.52	0.49	1.25	0.50	-10.38	0.99	3.06	0.96	0.92	0.58
Prof., Tech.	-5.43	1.19	-15.24	0.62	-2.03	0.30	17.99	3.45	4.99	1.10	14.95	6.24
SEX	3.22	2.03	14.37	0.33	4.57	2.54	11.98	3.75	9.59	4.34	4.29	4.22
CHANGE OF RESIDENCE	12.76	3.38	-0.88	0.09	22.69	6.15	-4.16	1.48	-1.55	0.54	8.10	5.12
AGE	3.43	5.71	-2.13	1.11	0.48	0.63	0.08	0.08	1.48	1.91	1.54	4.00
FULL-TIME	2.50	0.35	14.40	0.72	0.57	0.14	21.94	2.19	7.16	1.75	7.19	2.62
FIRST JOB IN DUBLIN	-7.29	4.40	-14.78	2.43	5.21	3.02	-4.19	1.59	5.11	2.58	-0.28	0.28
COHORT												
76	-9.36	3.66	-3.52	0.37	-6.51	2.32	-9.86	1.82	-2.44	0.71	-7.35	4.45
77	-9.81	3.90	-15.07	1.58	-6.78	2.40	-10.41	2.14	-7.36	2.23	-9.38	5.78
78	-9.22	3.69	-5.48	0.63	-8.27	3.03	-3.19	0.64	-3.41	1.02	-6.83	4.32
79	-3.64	5.38	-18.52	2.17	-10.08	3.75	-15.27	3.07	-2.32	2.22	-12.04	7.64
80	-16.39	6.24	-17.93	1.96	-15.45	5.30	-22.82	4.27	-8.24	2.32	-15.76	9.48
81+	-22.68	7.87	-29.85	3.02	-21.48	7.17	-33.49	6.17	-14.75	4.01	-23.04	13.10
CONSTANT	5.68		85.58		38.74		42.13		6.83		19.96	
	$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.161 n = 1,538		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.025 n = 399		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.144 n = 1,423		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.356 n = 648		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.152 n = 900		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.155 n = 4,966	

Notes: (1) The earnings data are on the basis of Constant (1982) prices (see text).

(2) The significance levels for t (n = ∞) are:
$t_{5\%} = 1.96$; $t_{1\%} = 2.58$; $t_{0.1\%} = 3.29$.

(0.025) while for the public sector it is relatively high (0.356). The latter represents a fairly sizeable level of variance explanation in the context of a cross-sectional regression analysis.

An inspection of the results of the building industry reveals few coefficients which are statistically significant. While the relative magnitudes of the coefficients relating to educational level are what one would expect, they are not shown to be statistically significant in influencing net first regular job earnings in this sector. Neither are the occupational variables or the fact that young persons may have changed residence to take up their first employment. The only variables for which the associated t-values exceed the 5 per cent significance level are those relating to "Dublin location" and some of the cohort categories. In the case of the former the indications are that the take-up of first regular employment in the building

industry in Dublin is financially disadvantageous, to the extent of some £15 per week on average. In the case of the cohort variable the results, while being of lower significance (in statistical terms) than those for other sectors, are similar to the overall pattern reflecting a reduction in the net commencement earnings of first regular jobs over time.

Education is shown to be a highly significant influence in all sectors (except building) in augmenting the net earnings of first regular jobs. On the other hand, as already indicated, occupation does not appear to possess substantial explanatory power. The table shows that across sectors there are relatively few statistically significant t-values associated with the different occupational categories, which suggests that the significant values derived at the aggregate or total level in part reflect sectoral differences with which occupations would tend to be correlated.

The gender variable is significant for all sectors (again except building), a surprising aspect being the high level of significance and the size of the coefficient associated with the public sector. The relevant t-value exceeds even the 0.1 per cent level and the actual coefficient suggests an advantage of nearly £12 per week in net earnings for males *vis-a-vis* females, the highest such coefficient for any sector. It is unexpected to find what could be described as discriminatory evidence emerging from figures related to the public service. It must be remembered again, however, that the basic data in question cover first jobs which commenced as far back as the early 1970s when occupational gradings and pay scales in the public service were differentiated according to sex. It is difficult to accept, however, that this aspect could exert all that strong an influence, and one must also allow for the possibility that within this sector the gender-related variable is subsuming other forms of variation which are correlated with sex.

The residence change variable (which it will be recalled is significant only for males) is seen to have a substantial effect in augmenting net first regular job earnings in the industrial and commerce areas, but not for other sectors. The size of the coefficient (£23 per week) for the commerce sector is substantial. It is worth recalling that when this particular aspect was analysed earlier in Chapter IV it was noted that the take-up of first jobs in the public sector involved a high incidence of residence change (over 40 per cent — see Table 4.4), largely because of the concentration of such jobs in the larger urban areas. The analysis under discussion suggests that such changes of themselves do not convey any financial advantage. This is not surprising, since public sector pay scales tend to be standardised nationally.

The fact that the regression routine yielded consistent results for the Public Service lends greater credence to the results for other sectors. The figures for the industrial and commercial sectors are surprising in so far as the size and level of significance of the coefficients are concerned (the net weekly increments

are estimated at £13 and £23 respectively). One would not expect that the sole fact of moving would convey such an advantage. It should be borne in mind, of course, that the proportions in these sectors who actually changed residence to take up a first regular job (less than 5 per cent) are quite small.

Even though the more summary analysis given earlier in Table 8.3 indicated that location of first job (in the sense of being in the Dublin area or elsewhere) did not influence net earnings, Table 8.4 shows that this aspect does make a difference for all sub-sectors except the Public Service. It has a negative influence in the industrial and building areas and a positive impact for commerce and other private services. It is hardly surprising that this variable did not attain statistical significance in the case of the public sector, again in view of the national standardisation of pay scales. This is, interestingly, an example of a situation where the overall regression picture is misleading since the apparent non-significance of this variable in the more general analysis in Table 8.3 is attributable to diverse trends across sectors, each of which is significant in its own right.

The cohort variables are, with few exceptions, significant in the case of all the sectors distinguished with, in each case, the coefficients indicating a downward influence on net real earnings for each successive year of entry to the labour market. This trend is noticeably weaker (though still significant) for the building sector and for "other private services". One can but speculate on the reasons underlying these variations. Since the analysis involves net earnings there is the possibility that many of the jobs identified in the building and residual private services areas were of an informal or "black economy" nature in regard to which the influence of increases in personal taxation or in social welfare contributions might not be all that significant. On the other hand, those who entered employment in the formal labour market (particularly in the Public Service) would obviously bear the full rigour of increasingly heavy demands of this kind as the years progressed.

3. *Net Current Earnings*

Turning to the question of current net wages earned by young employees, Table 8.5 contains information on the average weekly levels which prevailed for different occupational groups in Spring 1982. The overall average was £64.24, the level for males at £67.25 being somewhat greater than that for females which was £60.60. In the case of young male employees, with the exception of the "professional/technical" category, the estimates indicate relatively little variation in net earnings between the different occupational groups — even less than was previously evident in the case of first regular job earnings. This appears to have arisen because the differences in the initial post-transition net wages between those in skilled occupations and those in unskilled manual activities seem to have

Table 8.5 *Average net current weekly earnings for those in the Survey target group who were at work in Spring 1982, classified by broad occupational group*

Occupation	Male	Female	All persons
		£	
Electrical/engineering	66.71	61.47	65.64
Other producers	67.56	54.63	61.78
Building, etc.	69.71	53.52	69.49
Labourers, unskilled	68.05	59.22	67.69
Transport, etc.	70.11	59.26	66.30
Clerical	68.90	66.81	67.27
Commercial, etc.	63.64	50.10	55.59
Professional/technical	83.80	82.24	82.96
Services	66.33	51.18	55.02
Other*	57.04	56.44	56.96
Total	67.25	60.60	64.24

* Includes agricultural employees.

narrowed according as the wages of the former group increased as a result of the acquisition of experience and training. The data for girls indicate rather more variation. Female weekly earnings appear to be very low (averaging about £50) in service activities in contrast to the amount earned by young women in clerical occupations (£67) and, of course, in the professional and technical sphere for which the average net weekly wage was £82. In regard to male/female comparisons for individual occupational categories, one will notice that for commercial and service activities and in industrial occupations (other than those related to the electrical/engineering sphere) female average net earnings are substantially lower than those for males.

Table 8.6 contains the results of a multiple regression analysis designed to assess the effects of different socio-economic factors on current net earnings. The formulation is similar to that used in the earlier regression analysis presented in this chapter. The dependent variable is the net (i.e., take-home) current wage. Among the explanatory variables included those relating to sex, occupation,

Table 8.6 *Results of multiple regression analysis designed to estimate the effects of certain variables on net current earnings for jobs held when the Transition Survey was taken (1982): Employees only*

Variable		Males		Females		All Persons	
		Coeff.	t (1)	Coeff.	t (1)	Coeff.	t (1)
DURATION OF LABOUR FORCE EXP. (YRS.):		5.34	27.45	3.09	17.88	4.36	33.45
EDUCATION/TRAINING: (2)							
No Qualifications:	Trained	12.94	5.21	7.64	3.14	11.38	6.48
First Cycle:	Trained	14.86	8.83	12.03	7.28	14.96	12.75
	Untrained	2.91	2.29	6.74	5.57	4.38	4.94
Second Cycle:	Trained	24.17	10.78	15.69	11.01	18.81	15.91
	Untrained	12.86	8.74	13.56	10.45	13.77	13.91
Third Level:	Trained	45.17	6.58	31.92	5.13	39.13	8.27
	Untrained	38.50	15.20	34.05	14.39	36.31	20.57
OCCUPATION:							
Electrical, etc.		-0.84	0.48	9.44	4.38	2.75	2.25
Other producers		-0.78	0.44	2.58	1.82	0.92	0.81
Building		2.50	1.06	8.84	0.92	4.48	2.35
Labourers		1.41	0.73	7.40	1.54	3.56	2.34
Transport		1.51	0.69	5.36	2.24	4.06	2.56
Clerical		-0.38	0.20	7.60	6.17	3.67	3.43
Commercial, etc.		-1.95	1.07	0.28	0.22	-1.24	1.13
Profess., technical		-0.41	0.16	13.69	7.08	7.33	4.53
SEX:		-	-	-	-	7.76	11.80
FULL-TIME:		18.66	5.74	20.98	11.15	21.29	12.44
INCIDENCE OF UNEMPLOYMENT:		-11.74	2.05	-14.41	2.85	-13.07	3.36
JOB IN DUBLIN:		3.95	3.92	3.89	4.64	3.54	5.33
CONSTANT:		20.59		13.81		11.36	
		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.4192		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.3706		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.3954	
		n = 1,880		n = 1,862		n = 3,742	

Note: (1) The significance levels for t (n = ∞) are:
$t_{5\%} = 1.96$; $t_{1\%} = 2.58$; $t_{0.1\%} = 3.29$.

(2) The "trained" category includes only those who had completed training programmes (see Chapter VI for the definition of training used).

Dublin residence and whether the job was full-time or part-time are formulated in much the same manner as in the previous regressions, even though obviously the different variables now relate to current jobs whereas in the previous exercise they related to first regular jobs. Variables which could be deemed to be relevant only to first regular jobs have now been excluded, but some new variables which could be expected to influence current earnings have been added. These are (i) the addition of a "training" component to the educational variable which is now basically reformulated as an education/training variable, (ii) "duration of labour force experience" in years, and (ii) "the cumulative degree of previous unemployment" as defined in Table 7.8 in Chapter VII.

The new education/training group of variables is again formulated as a pivotal arrangement with the category comprising those without educational qualifications and who did not receive any training as the base reference group. Thus the specified variables which appear explicitly in the regression consist of a category covering those who were unqualified but who had completed a training programme, and six other groups involving those who were (a) trained and (b) untrained, under each of the three standard educational attainment headings. It should be noted that "trained" in the above-mentioned context *covers only those who had completed training programmes.*

One particular qualification should be kept in mind in interpreting these results. The analysis can obviously only relate to those young people *who were in employment* at the time of the Transition Survey. If, conceptually, one were to broaden the exercise and attempt to evaluate the impact of socio-economic influences on respondents' current situations in a more comprehensive way, it would be appropriate to include other groups, such as the unemployed. It should be emphasised, therefore, that these regression results do not illustrate the full impact of the factors specified in such a wider context, since many who would have endured disadvantages in the labour market are by definition excluded from the exercise.

An interesting feature of the results of this regression routine is the relatively sizeable degree of variance explained. The value of R^2 is 0.40,considerably higher than the corresponding value for the analysis relating to the net earnings of first regular job, which was 0.15.

Since this analysis is concerned with the current earnings of individuals who entered the labour market at different times over an extended retrospective period, it is not surprising that the variable representing duration of labour force experience is shown to be highly significant. The estimated regression coefficients suggest that, on average, for each additional year young people spend in employment their weekly net earnings are increased by £4.36. The results also indicate that this average increment is substantially greater for boys (£5.34) than

it is for girls (£3.09) suggesting that accumulated employment experience is more financially beneficial for young males in the labour market.

There is, as in the analyses relating to first regular job earnings, a strong relationship between basic educational levels and net wages. If one sets aside for the moment the training element, it will be noted that the coefficients imply a financial advantage of more than £4 per week over the base reference group for those who completed the lower cycle of second-level education, nearly £14 for those who completed the higher cycle and some £36 for third-level graduates. However, the results for the general education/training area are interesting, not so much because of the obvious influence of education *per se* but because of the significance and size of the additional impact on wages of the acquisition of training, particularly for those with low levels of educational attainment. Looking at the *additional* increments attributable to training, (all of which are highly significant in a statistical sense), for those without any educational qualifications, training is shown as conveying a financial advantage to the extent of some £11 per week in terms of net earnings; for young persons who had completed the lower cycle of second-level education the training-related differential was again nearly £11, but it is lower, about £5, for those who completed the higher cycle at this level. The difference is not very substantial in the case of third-level graduates, but then, as already indicated in earlier chapters, the concept of training is not altogether meaningful at this level.

The results indicate that training appears to be more financially advantageous for boys at all levels of educational attainment but particularly at the higher cycle of second-level education. At this level the regression coefficients suggest that training augments male net earnings to the extent of some £11; for girls the corresponding differential is estimated at about £2. In interpreting these results it is of interest to recall that the results in Chapter VI indicated that there was a higher incidence of training among girls at this level and that the acquisition of training enhanced their employment prospects (in the sense that the unemployment rate was lower for the trained group). The present results, however, suggest that training does not appear to contribute to any substantial augmentation of their actual earnings.

The results do not indicate a particularly strong relationship between occupation and current earnings. None of the relevant t-values for young males is statistically significant. The variables relating to female workers in electrical and electronic, and transport occupations, and in clerical and professional activities are statistically significant, and indicate net income levels considerably greater than those which apply to the "miscellaneous services" base reference category. It should be borne in mind, however, that these results reflect the manner in which the data have been interpreted by the multivariate routine in question. The absence of an observed relationship between occupation and

current earnings for young males does not, of course, imply that earnings do not vary with occupation. In the context of the regression routine this variation has been subsumed by or mediated through other variables (particularly educational level) with which occupation is correlated. The results for young females suggest however that in addition to basic educational attainment, occupation has, of itself, an influence on earnings.

The specifically gender related advantage which we have already noted that males appear to have over females in relation to first regular job net earnings seems to have carried over into current wages. The relevant coefficient (highly significant) indicates a differential of almost £7 per week. This suggests that sex may still be a substantial influence affecting earnings since the factors which caused us to qualify our remarks in the case of first regular jobs (e.g., the influence of earlier cohorts covering periods when discriminatory practices still prevailed) do not apply here in regard to current earnings. These results reflect a somewhat stronger gender effect than that found by Breen (1984). This work, which involved analyses with successive cohorts of second-level school leavers from the annual Department of Labour Surveys of Second-Level School Leavers for 1980, 1981 and 1982, found male average hourly earnings to be significantly greater than those for females for the 1981 data, but not for the other years.

The new variable reflecting the degree of previous unemployment is statistically significant for both males and females and yielded, as one would expect, negative coefficients. The results suggest that, leaving all other influences aside, for every single percentage point by which the cumulative incidence of previous unemployment is increased, the current net weekly wage tends to be reduced by about £1.30. Interestingly this feature seems to have a stronger impact in the case of female net earnings.

With regard to the residence variable, those who were working in Dublin when the Transition Survey was taken in 1982 are shown to have a financial advantage to the extent of some £4 per week in terms of current net earnings. It will subsequently be shown that this is largely attributable to the pattern of net earnings in the private services sector.

An additional feature which might be expected to influence earnings which was also investigated subsequent to the main analysis given in Table 8.6 was the number of jobs held since leaving full-time education. This was done because other work (i.e., that of Elias and Blanchflower, 1988) suggested that this aspect can have a significant impact. The results (not given here) did not indicate any substantial relationship. Interestingly Elias and Blanchflower found a highly significant *negative* relationships between multiple job holding and occupational earnings for young males (in the sense that job changing appear to depress earnings), but no evidence of any such association for young girls.

Table 8.7 *Results of multiple regression analyses for broad sectors designed to estimate the effects of certain variables on net current earnings for jobs held in 1982: Employees only*

Variable		Industry		Building		Commerce, etc.		Public Sector		Other Services		All Sectors	
		Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t
DURATION OF LABOUR FORCE EXP. (YRS.)		3.72	18.95	6.27	10.82	4.42	18.75	3.52	8.65	4.69	14.16	4.36	33.45
EDUCATION/TRAINING:													
No Qualifications:	Trained	7.47	3.12	27.15	4.15	11.20	2.88	0.90	0.11	11.95	3.06	11.33	6.43
First Cycle:	Trained	17.67	10.41	2.99	0.69	12.68	5.73	15.14	3.75	13.69	4.53	14.96	12.75
	Untrained	5.77	4.59	-1.13	0.30	4.20	2.63	10.20	3.14	1.80	0.77	4.38	4.94
Second Cycle:	Trained	18.92	9.19	16.34	2.65	16.13	7.77	16.27	5.09	17.49	6.03	18.81	15.91
	Untrained	16.05	10.27	-1.40	0.29	11.83	7.00	14.03	4.61	10.79	4.31	13.77	13.91
Third Level:	Trained	40.43	6.77	-	-	-	-	27.93	1.93	41.48	5.16	39.13	8.27
	Untrained	33.94	9.81	32.95	4.29	29.14	5.76	31.72	6.58	33.72	8.12	36.31	20.57
OCCUPATION:													
Electrical, etc.		0.77	0.36	-2.81	0.46	-7.08	2.52	-5.89	1.48	11.59	3.75	2.15	2.25
Other producers		-2.56	1.30	-1.06	0.17	-3.86	1.24	-8.62	2.46	2.97	0.88	0.92	0.81
Building		-2.41	0.66	-1.48	0.23	-3.71	0.64	-11.08	1.94	11.27	1.24	4.48	2.35
Labourers		-1.87	0.71	-1.43	0.24	-0.98	0.29	-4.10	0.95	10.41	2.29	3.56	2.34
Transport		1.78	0.70	5.48	0.61	-1.64	0.48	-3.43	0.78	10.85	3.26	4.06	2.56
Clerical		-1.21	0.56	-6.21	0.88	4.41	1.90	-2.70	1.16	10.29	4.95	3.67	3.43
Commercial, etc.		-3.46	1.49	-10.19	1.43	-0.42	0.19	-6.56	1.89	7.30	3.18	-1.24	1.13
Profess., technical		0.07	0.00	-1.59	0.15	6.47	1.31	5.68	2.10	-3.48	1.03	7.33	4.53
SEX:		6.31	6.32	10.95	1.56	8.78	7.45	6.37	3.46	11.05	6.66	7.76	11.80
FULL-TIME:		20.61	6.19	23.02	1.81	20.95	9.12	18.25	2.46	14.61	4.04	21.29	12.44
INCIDENCE OF UNEMPLOYMENT:		-15.67	2.75	-1.30	0.09	-13.29	1.63	-23.87	2.51	-10.02	0.97	-13.07	3.36
CURRENT JOB IN DUBLIN:		1.51	1.31	4.96	1.73	7.14	6.07	2.24	1.45	2.71	1.75	3.54	5.33
CONSTANT:		18.46		12.91		9.24		30.18		10.11		11.36	
		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.3743		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.4375		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.4284		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.2960		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.4749		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.3954	
		n = 1,235		n = 339		n = 980		n = 563		n = 620		n = 3,742	

Note: The significance levels for t (n = ∞) are:

$t_{5\%} = 1.96$; $t_{1\%} = 2.58$; $t_{0.1\%} = 3.29$.

4. *Current Earnings by Sector*

Table 8.7 contains a series of regression analyses on current net earnings for broad industrial sectors which correspond with the overall results given in Table 8.6. Observing the data for different sectors, it will be noted that the duration of labour force experience has a significant positive effect on earnings for all sectors. A point of particular interest, however, is that even though the relevant t-value for the Public Sector (8.65) is highly significant, it is surprising to note that it is in fact the lowest such value across sectors. Since the majority of established employments in the Public Service involve incremental pay scales, one might have expected duration of labour force experience to be a particularly strong influence in this instance. Similarly, one would not have expected labour

force experience to have such an impact in, for example, the building sector in view of the insecure nature of much of the employment involved.

The group of education/training variables exhibit significance to some degree for all sectors even though it will be noted that the emphasis changes as between basic education and vocational training from one sector to another. In the building and construction area, for example, none of the basic educational variables is significant but a number of the purely training-related variables are. This suggests that it is vocational training rather than basic educational attainment which influences net youth earnings in this area. A notable feature of results for this section is the apparently substantial effect of training for those without any educational qualifications. Not only is the result highly significant in a statistical sense, the relevant coefficient suggests an earnings increment of the order of £27 per week attributable to training. A similar phenomenon is evident to some extent for the residual "other services" category where little benefit appears to accrue from the acquisition of lower cycle second-level educational qualifications unless these are augmented by the acquisition of training. In the other sectors distinguished (manufacturing, industry, commerce, the public sector) the results are rather similar to the overall position in so far as they indicate that both education and training are financially beneficial.

The gender variable is highly significant for all sectors (except for building and construction, which is predominantly male in any case) thus reaffirming again the likelihood of an intrinsic bias favouring males in relation to current net earnings.

With regard to the influence of past spells of unemployment, the results in Table 8.7 suggests that in the industrial sector and in the public service, those with a higher previous incidence of unemployment tend to earn less in current terms. In other spheres of economic activity, i.e., in building and construction, in commerce and in other private services, the results are not statistically significant which suggests that an earlier record of unemployment does not appear to put employees at a financial disadvantage. This may reflect the nature of the latter labour markets which involve a relatively high degree of casual or temporary employment for which, in recruitment terms, current suitability is more important than an impressive employment history.

Even though the regression results for the residence related variables are statistically significant only for the commerce, etc., category (and here they are highly significant) the positive signs of the other sectoral coefficients broadly suggest that there appears to be some relative financial advantage for those working in the Dublin area. This it will be noted is somewhat in contrast to the outcome for first regular job net earnings for which the corresponding regression results indicated a strongly negative influence for those who took up such jobs in the industrial and building sectors in the Dublin region.

It is worth reflecting further on the nature of the results relating to duration of labour force experience. The outcome here, involving a relatively low level of significance for the Public Sector, suggests that this variable may be subsuming variation attributable to other sources. One alternative influence which immediately comes to mind is educational cohort as this variable is clearly correlated with duration of labour force experience (the earlier the cohort the longer this duration). Table 8.8 shows the results of a sectoral regression analysis for current net earnings identical to that contained in Table 8.7, except that educational cohort is included as an additional variable.[36]

At the overall level, duration of labour force experience is still a significant influence but the extent of its impact is now greatly reduced. The t-value indicated for the Public Service is now the highest across all sectors, which is what one would expect, in view of the nature of the employment involved. However, this duration variable does not now attain statistical significance in the case of the building and "other services" areas. This is perhaps also more in accord with expectations since, as already noted, one would not have anticipated the length of previous employment experience to exert a great deal of influence on current earnings in sectors which involved temporary and insecure employment on a fairly widespread scale.

Turning to the results for the actual cohort variables, it will be noted that these are significant for all sectors except the Public Service and suggest strongly that those who entered the labour market in the later years of the period under discussion appear to have suffered a disadvantage even in terms of their current (i.e., 1982) earnings. This pattern is particularly noticeable for the building industry. One might tentatively interpret these results as indicating the effects of a growing pressure on earnings generally and perhaps an increasing incidence of more casual or insecure forms of employment with associated lower pay levels. The fact that this pattern does not seem to apply to Public Sector net earnings is consistent with a perspective of this kind since the consistency and uniformity over time of the pay structures involved here would largely preclude such an effect. It is, however, necessary to exercise care in interpreting these results. With two such strongly correlated variables as cohort and duration of labour market experience, it can be difficult to disentangle the respective effects, and one must be cautious in assuming that the regression results given in Table 8.8 indicate a correct balance between the relative degrees of influence attributable to each variable. The results do, however, lend further credence to the view that the significant cohort effects observed earlier in relation to first regular job earnings (in Tables 8.3 and 8.4) represent a reasonably valid reflection of the effects of entering the labour force at different periods. It is not unreasonable

36. The manner in which the cohort variable has been formulated is identical to that used earlier in Tables 8.3 and 8.4, with the "1975 or earlier" cohort categories being used as a reference basis.

to postulate, for example, that if one tended to suffer a period-related financial disadvantage on entering the labour market, then one would expect that this disadvantage would, to some degree, carry over into current earnings, which is what the regression routine in Table 8.8 appears to imply.

Table 8.8 *Results of multiple regression analysis for broad sectors designed to estimate the effects of certain variables (including cohort) on net current earnings for jobs held in 1982: Employees only*

Variable		Industry		Building, etc.		Commerce, etc.		Public Sector		Other Services		All Sectors	
		Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t	Coeff.	t
DURATION OF LABOUR FORCE EXP. (YRS.):		1.89	4.06	0.60	0.49	2.33	3.09	3.89	4.41	1.38	1.53	2.03	6.15
EDUCATION/TRAINING:													
No Qualifications:	Trained	7.52	3.19	25.14	3.93	11.03	2.85	-0.69	0.09	12.19	3.14	11.08	6.39
First Cycle:	Trained	16.12	9.58	2.14	0.50	12.32	5.58	13.24	3.28	12.16	4.03	14.24	12.27
	Untrained	5.40	4.37	-0.48	0.13	3.93	2.48	9.69	2.99	1.95	0.83	4.29	4.89
Second Cycle:	Trained	17.44	8.58	13.38	2.23	15.91	7.63	12.93	3.91	16.56	5.76	17.59	14.96
	Untrained	15.19	9.85	0.71	0.15	11.27	6.65	11.94	3.86	10.21	4.11	13.08	13.34
Third Level:	Trained	37.68	8.40	-	-	-	-	26.47	1.84	40.68	5.12	37.79	8.08
	Untrained	33.72	9.91	39.75	5.27	30.41	6.06	30.05	7.96	35.25	8.57	37.13	21.34
OCCUPATION:													
Electrical, etc.		0.63	0.31	5.10	0.84	-7.34	2.64	-7.47	1.81	11.39	3.72	2.85	2.38
Other producers		-3.09	1.59	4.83	0.80	-4.94	1.59	-8.39	2.41	2.26	0.67	0.47	0.42
Building		-3.23	0.89	2.71	0.44	-3.99	0.69	-11.46	1.96	10.21	1.14	3.18	1.62
Labourers		-2.86	1.10	3.44	0.59	-0.61	0.18	-5.39	1.25	10.75	2.40	2.35	1.89
Transport		1.21	0.48	11.03	1.26	-2.36	0.69	-3.73	0.85	9.89	2.99	3.99	2.54
Clerical		-0.64	0.30	2.36	0.34	4.38	1.90	-2.15	0.92	10.54	5.09	4.19	3.96
Commerce, etc.		-4.34	1.90	-5.87	0.85	-0.21	0.09	-7.41	2.15	7.65	3.37	-1.07	0.99
Profess., technical		0.53	0.18	0.02	0.00	6.00	1.22	5.77	2.15	-3.91	1.16	7.23	4.53
SEX:		6.33	6.46	11.66	1.70	8.81	7.50	6.10	3.31	11.42	6.96	7.68	11.82
FULL-TIME:		20.45	6.21	16.72	1.35	20.85	5.99	19.22	2.61	14.81	4.09	20.84	12.24
INCIDENCE OF UNEMPLOYMENT:		-17.16	3.05	-3.72	0.27	-14.86	1.83	-24.18	2.50	-16.12	1.55	-14.26	3.71
CURRENT JOB IN DUBLIN:		2.09	1.84	4.39	1.58	7.30	6.24	2.13	1.39	3.13	2.04	3.78	5.77
COHORT:													
1976		3.34	1.76	-7.43	1.58	-4.91	2.10	12.89	3.74	-3.52	1.06	0.22	0.18
1977		-2.55	1.22	-14.93	2.59	-4.25	1.53	9.52	2.65	-9.16	2.35	-3.31	2.33
1978		-4.28	1.81	-21.15	3.49	-8.09	2.48	7.56	1.90	-10.77	2.49	-6.61	4.14
1979		-6.55	2.43	-29.35	4.17	-6.31	1.65	7.79	1.67	-17.70	3.58	-9.18	5.00
1980		-9.95	3.16	-38.11	4.77	-12.06	2.65	7.23	1.35	-18.49	3.21	-12.49	5.84
1981 or later		-16.31	4.56	-45.54	5.02	-16.82	3.24	6.13	0.99	-25.33	3.99	-18.38	7.60
CONSTANT:		31.22		54.68		24.60		22.88		34.33		27.75	
		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.370		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.4829		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.4385		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.3118		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.4892		$\bar{R}^2$ = 0.4112	
		n = 1,235		n = 339		n = 980		n = 568		n = 620		n = 3,742	

Note: The significance levels for t (n = ∞) are

$t_{5\%} = 1.96$; $t_{1\%} = 2.58$; $t_{0.5\%} = 3.29$

Chapter IX

SOME ASPECTS OF POLICY RELEVANCE

While this report is mainly descriptive in nature, the main purpose being to set out in some detail the Transition Survey results across a wide range of headings, there are a number of areas for which the results are of particular relevance in a policy context. This chapter contains a brief resume of some such issues.

1. *The Nature of Job Separations*

The first aspect of note concerns the nature of job separations in the youth labour market which is analysed in some detail in Chapter V. While it is true that about one half of those surveyed were still in their first regular job when the Transition Survey was taken,[37] among those who changed jobs it was surprising to find that the great majority (some 75 per cent) of the separations in question appeared to be voluntary. While this proportion appears to be somewhat similar to that which prevails in the United Kingdom, the available evidence suggests that it is much higher than that which applies in the youth labour markets in other western economies.

This phenomenon can be viewed in two ways. One can consider it to be favourable in the sense that it may be said to reflect a fluid or flexible situation in which young people continuously test the labour market to their advantage. This would imply that such changes are usually accompanied by an increase in earnings or an enhancement of their employment situation generally. On the other hand one can also take the view that the Transition Survey results are indicative of the somewhat cavalier attitude to job changing by young people in that they tend to quit employment prematurely, and without sufficient reason, and without allowing sufficient time for the accumulation of work experience and skills. A consideration of relevance in so far as the latter view is concerned is that the Survey results indicate that job changing of itself does not appear to confer a substantial advantage in terms of augmented earnings, and in fact evidence from abroad suggests that job changing may even be disadvantageous in this regard.

It is difficult to take a definitive stance on this issue. A prerequisite for adopting a firmer view now would be the derivation of more up-to-date information (from

37. It should be noted however that this proportion is significantly influenced by those in the target group who recently entered the labour market.

the series of Labour Force Surveys for example, or from the Annual Department of Labour Surveys of School Leavers) in order to determine whether the position has materially changed since the early 1980s. It may well be that the prolonged employment crisis has caused young people to become more cautious, so that jobs, once acquired, are now retained to a greater degree, and not relinquished without good reason. To the extent that a high level of voluntary quits is undesirable (and the authors tend towards this view) this suggests that more attention should be given in the educational and training systems to emphasising the advantages which derive from having a stable employment history and the need to remain in particular employments long enough so to derive some benefit from them.

It should be borne in mind however that the situation as just portrayed refers to those young people who had obtained a first regular job. Major problems in the youth labour market are encountered not so much by those with jobs, but by those who are attempting to "make an entry" in the first instance, particularly those of low educational attainment. These latter problems are amply illustrated by the analyses in Chapter IV and by the evidence of rapidly increasing numbers of first job seekers in recent years.

2. *Education and Skill Levels in the Agricultural Sector*

The Transition Survey results revealed (Chapter V) that the great majority of those young people who took up their first regular employment in the agricultural sector were of very low educational attainment (a finding which has also been noted by other researchers).[38] Some 40 per cent of the young people in question did not have any educational qualifications at all and a further 40 per cent had completed only the lower cycle of secondary education. These figures exhibit a very poor educational profile when compared with the inflow into other economic sectors.

The above mentioned pattern derives to a significant extent from familial decisions in relation to access to education. Stable employment on the family farm may be given to one (usually male) household member — but at the expense of his forgoing opportunities for further education which are then extended to others for whom it is perceived to be more necessary. This evidence is rather disconcerting in the context of promoting the development of an efficient farming sector. It is all the more disturbing in that the survey results also show that these apparent initial educational deficiencies are not alleviated by the provision of any significant post-school agricultural training. The results certainly support the view that more intensive training efforts in the agricultural area were needed. This is, therefore, one further aspect on which it would be of great interest to have more up-to-date information, in order to determine whether the efforts

38. See Conway and O'Hara, 1986.

devoted to training and education in this sector since the beginning of the decade, principally those of ACOT which was set up in 1980, have significantly improved the position.

The deficiency is however of such a magnitude that it is unlikely that any improvements which have been brought about have been on such a scale so as to achieve an acceptable position. It would appear necessary therefore that education and training initiatives, which are now the responsibility of *Teagasc,* the new comprehensive agricultural agency into which ACOT has been subsumed, should be pursued with vigour. It is certainly to be hoped that the new institutional arrangements will not cause these to be accorded less priority.

The issue in question is however a complex one which requires a more in-depth analysis than is possible with the aggregate figures available from the Transition Survey. Any more comprehensive assessment would have to take account of the influence of factors which relate specifically to the agricultural sector such as the structure of farms and the age profile of the farm work-force. The sector is in fact in a state of sustained flux with continuously declining numbers and choices would have to be made as to where (and to whom) training support should be directed so as to maximise the results, while at the same time observing reasonable standards of equity.

3. *Deficiencies in Skilled Training for Females*

The results of the Transition Survey revealed serious imbalances in the structure of female training provision (Chapter VI). Even though a summary inspection of the results would suggest that the extent of female training provision appears to be more or less on a par with that provided for young males, a closer examination indicates that a very large part of it consists of training in office or other clerical skills. In fact very little training of any description is provided to girls in other skill areas. To quantify the position, of the 50,000 girls in the Transition Survey target group who had completed training programmes, less than 14,000 had participated in schemes which involved activities other than office skills. The latter figure represents 7.5 per cent of the overall female target group, compared with a corresponding proportion of 19 per cent for young males. This female training deficiency is essentially an extension of a similar technical and scientific deficiency which exists in second-level education — an issue which has been amply illustrated in other work, notably that of Hannan, *et al.,* (1983).

Given the deep rooted nature of the factors which have contributed to the situation as described it is unlikely the position has changed materially over the period since the Transition Survey was taken. Within the educational system, while there has been some modest increases in the take-up of technical and scientific subjects by girls, the overall situation has not changed significantly, nor has there been any major initiatives of a policy or administrative nature

which would have given rise to such a fundamental shift. Neither has there been a major re-orientation of training provision designed to promote skilled training among girls (other than that related to office or clerical employment). However, it must be recognised that any such adjustment in the training sphere is difficult to achieve if the school ethos and the girls' own attitudes and aspirations continue to direct them along traditional paths.

A further point of relevance in this context is that training in clerical skills does not appear to confer any substantial financial benefit on girls, particularly in the case of those who have already attained the Leaving Certificate. One possible interpretation of this outcome is that the female youth labour market involves an oversupply of persons with office-related skills, with the result that there is little inducement to employers to offer more in the way of financial reward to job seekers with this kind of training. The Transition Survey estimates show in fact that in terms of the effect on net earnings, training appears to have the greatest impact (for both males and females) on those with lower levels of educational attainment.

4. *Factors Influencing Youth Earnings*

Chapter VIII of the report contains an analysis of the impact of different factors on the level of current net earnings in the youth labour market. This assessment (which is presented in the form of a multivariate regression routine) describes the effect on earnings of influences such as education and training (referred to already,) duration in the labour market, occupation, etc., the results of which are set out in some detail in Chapter VIII.

An aspect of particular interest in this regard concerns the year in which the young persons in the survey target group left full-time education. The effects attributable to this variable, point to a progressive downward influence on current net earnings over time. The period concerned, it should be noted, (from the mid 1970s to the early 1980s) was one when labour market conditions deteriorated significantly, particularly in the later stages of the time span involved. A closer inspection of these results for individual sectors suggests that the trend referred to is most evident in areas such as building and construction and personal services in which there are sizeable numbers of unskilled workers. The validity of the findings is reaffirmed to some extent by the results for the public sector for which no effect of the kind described is evident, as indeed one might expect, given the standardised nature of employment and pay in this sector. Basically what the results seem to indicate is that workers who take up employment at the lower end of the occupational spectrum can suffer an initial disadvantage in earnings if they enter the labour market at a time of economic recession, an effect which seems to persist and to carry over into future current earnings to a significant degree. This emphasises the need for retraining programmes and other means

by which such individuals can be afforded a second chance in order to overcome the initial and apparently lasting disadvantages which they suffer on entry into the labour market.

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APPENDIX TABLES

Table A1.1 *The total population aged 15 to 24 years in 1981 and 1986 by single year of age, with associated net migration figures for the period 1981/86*

Age	1981			1986			Net Migration 1981/86		
	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons
	000								
15	34.4	33.1	67.6	36.1	34.1	70.2	+0.1	+0.1	+0.2
16	34.8	33.4	68.2	35.1	33.7	68.8	-0.1	-0.1	-0.2
17	34.2	32.8	67.0	34.2	32.3	66.5	-0.3	-0.2	-0.5
18	32.5	31.0	63.5	32.5	31.0	63.5	-1.7	-1.7	-3.4
19	30.9	29.4	60.3	32.0	30.1	62.0	-2.8	-2.6	-5.4
20	31.0	29.5	60.5	31.2	30.1	61.3	-3.1	-3.0	-6.1
21	29.1	28.1	57.2	30.5	29.7	60.2	-4.1	-3.7	-7.8
22	27.4	26.4	53.8	28.7	28.3	57.0	-5.3	-4.4	-9.8
23	26.7	26.0	52.7	27.4	27.6	55.0	-4.9	-3.3	-8.2
24	26.2	25.7	51.9	26.4	26.6	53.0	-4.3	-2.7	-7.0
Total	307.1	295.4	602.6	314.1	303.5	617.5	-26.5	-21.6	-48.1

Sources. Census of Population 1981 and 1986

Notes (1) The net migration figures for each age category have been obtained by calculating expected population figures for 1986 by applying mortality factors to be relevant 1981 age cohort and then comparing these results with the actual 1986 Census totals.

(2) Age in a net migration context relates to the end of the period (i.e. 1986)

Table A1.2 *Labour Force in 1986 classified by broad age groups and sector*

Sector	15 to 24 years			25 years and over			Total		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
	000								
Agriculture	17.0	1.6	18.7	136.0	12.9	148.8	153.0	14.5	167.5
Manufacturing	37.7	31.3	69.0	133.3	32.6	166.0	171.0	63.9	235.0
Building	12.4	0.6	13.0	57.8	1.6	59.3	70.2	2.2	72.3
Commerce	32.2	33.2	65.3	101.7	45.2	147.0	133.9	78.4	212.3
Other	33.9	54.9	88.8	179.4	125.6	305.0	213.3	180.5	393.8
Total at work	133.2	121.6	254.8	608.2	217.9	826.1	741.4	339.5	1080.9
Unemployed	55.7	31.6	87.3	118.0	22.2	140.1	173.7	53.8	227.4
Labour Force	188.8	153.3	342.1	726.3	240.0	966.3	915.1	393.3	1308.4

Source: 1986 Labour Force Survey

Table A2.1 *The Transition Survey grossing factors for different socio-economic subsectors*[1]

Age	Urban: Marital Status Single								
	Household Size ≤ 3		Age	Household Size 4, 5		Age	Household Size 6+	
	Males	Females		Males	Females		Males	Females
						15	59.39	66.89
15-15	64.83	109.38	15-16	74.07	106.95	16	52.49	37.24
			17	61.53	54.45	17	51.22	58.34
			18	55.79	74.77	18	46.85	52.50
19	59.39	237.63	19	43.93	45.02	19	45.68	40.64
20	66.29	186.39	20	38.30	39.38	20	51.90	31.89
21	59.00	140.40	21	43.93	51.05	21	45.49	40.74
22	69.40	203.31	22	41.21	42.78	22	34.69	30.82
23	87.97	97.23	23	54.24	43.66	23	44.52	48.61
24	64.83	137.29	24	47.34	47.06	24	45.88	32.38

Age	Rural: Marital Status Single								
	Household Size ≤ 3		Age	Household Size 4, 5		Age	Household Size 6+	
	Males	Females		Males	Females		Males	Females
						15	85.54	90.33
15-18	62.50	127.18	15-16	70.66	56.68	16	79.41	64.85
			17	64.15	68.06	17	55.70	63.38
			18	50.93	66.51	18	51.03	54.25
19	67.65	75.64	19	44.52	59.50	19	43.74	51.82
20	67.75	77.78	20	52.38	56.88	20	57.54	46.96
21	67.75	62.71	21	48.60	61.84	21	49.57	56.20
22	60.17	79.53	22	61.82	61.06	22	57.25	52.41
23	78.34	97.23	23	53.27	59.31	23	45.00	38.89
24	108.86	83.33	24	87.48	68.45	24	72.02	55.23

Age	Married			
	Urban		Rural	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
≤23	253.63	244.14	232.79	237.05
24	251.07	595.53	375.87	393.10

(1) These are the ratios of the 1981 Census population totals to the sample figures (incorporating the adjustment to convert to 1982 levels).

Table A3.1 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by level of educational attainment and cohort*

Educational Cohort	MALES					FEMALES					ALL PERSONS				
		Second Level					Second Level					Second Level			
	No Qualifications	First Cycle	Second Cycle	Third Level	Total	No Qualifications	First Cycle	Second Cycle	Third Level	Total	No Qualifications	First Cycle	Second Cycle	Third Cycle	Total
	000's														
1973 or earlier	8.8	5.4	0.0	0.0	14.1	9.9	2.2	0.0	0.0	12.1	18.6	7.6	0.0	0.0	26.2
1974	5.8	6.7	1.0	0.0	13.5	3.8	4.1	0.9	0.0	8.9	9.6	10.8	1.9	0.0	22.4
1975	5.6	9.3	3.0	0.0	17.9	4.6	5.2	5.0	0.0	14.8	10.2	14.5	8.0	0.0	32.7
1976	6.4	10.9	5.3	0.3	22.9	5.7	5.5	10.7	0.1	22.1	12.0	16.5	16.0	0.4	45.0
1977	5.8	11.2	6.3	0.8	24.2	5.4	6.8	10.6	0.4	23.2	11.3	18.0	17.0	1.2	47.4
1978	5.6	11.6	7.7	2.0	26.9	5.7	7.7	11.0	1.3	25.7	11.2	19.4	18.7	3.3	52.6
1979	6.2	12.9	7.4	1.4	27.9	5.5	7.3	12.3	1.3	26.4	11.7	20.3	19.7	2.7	54.3
1980	5.2	11.9	6.6	2.6	26.3	3.6	7.3	11.2	1.4	23.5	8.8	19.2	17.8	4.0	49.8
1981 or later	6.1	10.7	7.7	2.9	27.4	3.9	6.6	12.3	2.5	25.9	10.0	17.3	20.6	5.4	53.3
Total	55.3	90.3	45.1	10.0	201.3	43.2	52.8	74.6	7.0	182.5	103.5	143.5	119.7	17.0	383.8

Table A3.2 *Youth population in 1982 classified by single year of age and principal economic status*

Age	MALES					FEMALES					ALL PERSONS				
	At Work	Unemployed[1]	In (2) Education	Otherwise Inactive	Total	At Work	Unemployed[1]	In (2) Education	Otherwise Inactive	Total	At Work	Unemployed[1]	In (2) Education	Otherwise Inactive	Total
	(000's)														
15	2.1	2.2	29.0	0.0	33.3	1.4	1.2	29.4	0.2	32.2	3.5	3.4	58.4	0.2	65.5
16	6.9	3.5	23.4	0.2	34.0	4.3	1.7	26.9	0.7	33.6	11.3	5.2	50.3	0.8	67.6
17	11.2	5.1	15.9	0.4	32.6	8.8	2.4	20.9	0.4	32.5	19.9	7.5	36.8	0.8	65.1
18	16.0	6.4	8.3	0.6	31.3	14.4	3.6	10.8	0.5	29.3	30.4	10.0	19.1	1.0	60.6
19	19.3	3.9	5.0	0.4	28.6	18.1	2.6	5.1	2.9	28.7	37.4	6.5	10.1	3.2	57.3
20	20.7	3.9	4.2	0.1	28.9	17.9	2.4	3.5	3.0	26.8	38.6	6.2	7.7	3.2	55.7
21	21.6	3.5	3.4	0.3	28.7	18.3	1.9	2.2	3.8	26.2	39.8	5.4	5.6	4.1	54.9
22	21.7	3.7	2.4	0.2	28.0	15.8	2.7	1.0	5.0	24.5	37.6	6.3	3.4	5.0	52.5
23	20.6	2.6	1.1	0.6	24.9	15.9	1.2	0.7	7.3	25.1	36.5	3.9	1.8	7.9	50.0
24	20.3	3.1	1.1	0.4	24.9	17.8	0.9	0.3	5.6	24.6	38.1	4.0	1.4	6.0	49.5
TOTALS	160.5	37.9	93.9	3.0	295.2	132.8	20.4	100.8	29.3	283.5	293.2	58.3	194.6	32.3	578.7

(1) Including those seeking regular work for the first time.

(2) These estimates have been derived from the 1981 Census of Population.

Table A3.3 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by principal economic status and level of education*

Educational Level	Males				Females				All Persons			
	At Work	Unemploy.	Other	Total	At Work	Unemploy.	Other	Total	At Work	Unemploy.	Other	Total
	000											
Primary	6.9	5.6	1.1	13.5	4.1	3.5	4.4	12.0	11.0	9.2	5.4	25.5
Group Cert not completed	17.7	7.0	0.6	28.4	8.0	2.7	2.3	13.0	25.8	9.7	2.9	38.5
Inter Cert not completed	12.7	3.3	0.3	16.4	14.2	3.0	5.9	23.2	26.9	6.4	6.2	39.5
Group Cert completed	26.2	7.9	0.3	34.4	7.7	1.1	1.6	10.4	33.8	9.1	2.0	44.9
Inter Cert completed	48.0	7.8	0.5	56.4	31.6	3.8	6.9	42.3	79.5	11.7	7.4	98.7
Leaving Cert completed	39.6	5.3	0.3	45.1	61.1	5.5	7.9	24.6	100.6	10.8	8.2	119.7
Third Level completed	9.2	0.7	0.0	10.0	6.2	0.6	0.1	7.0	15.4	1.3	0.2	17.0
Total	160.4	37.8	3.0	201.3	132.8	20.4	29.3	182.5	293.1	58.2	32.3	383.8

Table A3.4 *Youth labour force in 1982 classified by sector, distinguishing those at work and unemployed*

Sector	MALES			FEMALES			ALL PERSONS		
	At Work	Unemployed	Labour Force	At Work	Unemployed	Labour Force	At Work	Unemployed	Labour Force
	000's								
Agriculture	24.2	0.7	24.9	2.0	0.1	2.1	26.2	0.7	26.9
Manufacturing	43.4	7.3	50.7	42.3	5.3	47.6	85.7	12.6	98.2
Building	22.5	5.2	27.6	1.4	0.1	1.5	23.8	5.3	29.1
Commerce, Finance	33.5	5.1	38.6	37.1	2.4	39.5	70.6	7.5	78.1
Transport, Communications	9.6	1.2	10.9	4.1	0.0	4.1	13.7	1.2	15.0
Public Admin., Defence	9.9	2.1	12.1	9.4	0.4	9.8	19.3	2.5	21.8
Education, Health	5.7	0.1	5.9	15.8	1.4	17.3	21.6	1.6	23.1
Other Professional Services	3.2	0.1	3.2	5.4	0.1	5.5	8.6	0.2	8.8
Other	8.0	1.7	9.7	14.9	2.1	17.0	22.9	3.8	26.7
Sector not known	0.5	0.6	1.1	0.4	0.7	1.1	0.8	1.3	2.2
Seeking first regular job	-	13.8	13.8	-	7.9	7.9	-	21.7	21.7
TOTAL	160.5	37.9	198.4	132.6	20.5	153.2	293.1	58.4	351.5

Table A3.5 *Youth labour force in 1982 classified by occupation, distinguishing those at work and unemployed*

Occupation	MALES			FEMALES			ALL PERSONS		
	At Work	Unemployed	Labour Force	At Work	Unemployed	Labour Force	At Work	Unemployed	Labour Force
	000's								
Agricultural	24.6	0.8	25.4	1.9	0.1	1.9	26.5	(0.9)	27.3
Electrical/ Engineering	32.7	2.9	35.6	7.6	0.4	8.0	40.4	3.3	43.7
Other Producers	22.7	3.4	26.1	18.1	3.2	21.2	40.8	6.6	47.4
Building etc. Workers	8.9	1.8	10.7	0.1	0.0	0.1	9.0	1.8	10.8
Labourers/ Unskilled	12.6	4.9	17.5	0.5	0.3	0.8	13.1	5.2	18.3
Transport/ Communication Workers	7.9	2.1	10.0	4.5	0.9	5.5	12.5	3.0	15.5
Clerical	14.2	1.3	15.5	50.8	1.2	52.0	65.0	2.4	67.4
Commercial/ Insurance etc. Workers	18.3	2.1	20.4	22.5	1.8	24.3	40.9	3.9	44.7
Professional/ Technical	9.8	0.1	9.8	11.1	0.6	11.7	20.8	0.7	21.5
Service Workers	5.3	1.2	6.5	14.6	2.4	17.1	19.9	3.6	23.6
Other	3.4	0.5	3.9	1.0	0.0	1.0	4.4	0.5	4.9
Occupation not known	0.0	3.0	3.0	0.0	1.8	1.8	0.0	4.8	4.8
Seeking First Regular Job	–	13.8	13.8	–	7.9	7.9	–	21.7	21.7
Total	160.5	37.9	198.4	132.6	20.5	153.2	293.1	58.4	351.5

Table A4.1 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by duration of search for first regular job and cohort*

Duration of search for first regular job	MALES						FEMALES						ALL PERSONS					
	Cohort						Cohort						Cohort					
	1973 or earlier	1974, 1975	1976, 1977	1978, 1979	1980 or later	All years	1973 or earlier	1974, 1975	1976, 1977	1978, 1979	1980 or later	All years	1973 or earlier	1974, 1975	1976, 1977	1978, 1979	1980 or later	All years
	%																	
Job arranged or no search required	49.3	47.4	51.7	49.1	51.5	50.0	52.0	45.3	48.6	44.5	49.9	48.2	50.5	46.5	47.8	46.8	50.7	48.2
1-4 weeks	15.7	14.9	12.9	16.1	18.0	15.5	16.6	19.0	18.3	20.7	16.8	18.6	16.1	16.6	15.6	18.4	17.4	17.0
5-13 weeks	17.6	17.8	16.4	18.8	15.8	17.2	22.1	16.3	21.5	19.5	19.4	19.7	19.6	17.1	18.9	19.1	17.5	18.4
14-26 weeks	7.5	10.5	7.2	8.9	8.5	8.8	5.8	8.7	7.2	7.6	8.7	7.8	6.7	9.7	7.2	8.3	8.6	8.2
27-52 weeks	3.6	6.4	6.9	4.4	5.2	5.5	0.0	8.1	6.8	6.5	4.4	5.9	2.0	7.1	6.9	5.4	4.8	5.7
53 weeks and over	6.2	3.1	4.7	2.9	1.0	3.2	3.5	2.7	2.5	1.3	0.7	1.8	5.0	2.9	3.7	2.1	0.9	2.5
Total (N, 000)	100.0 (13.8)	100.0 (30.7)	100.0 (46.3)	100.0 (52.6)	100.0 (42.2)	100.0 (185.7)	100.0 (11.3)	100.0 (23.0)	100.0 (44.3)	100.0 (50.5)	100.0 (40.4)	100.0 (169.8)	100.0 (25.1)	100.0 (53.7)	100.0 (90.8)	100.0 (103.1)	100.0 (82.8)	100.0 (355.5)
Average duration of search for first regular job (in weeks)	12.3	10.9	11.2	8.2	6.2	9.2	8.4	10.0	8.8	7.6	6.1	7.9	10.6	10.6	10.0	7.9	6.1	8.5

*Table relates only to those who held a first regular job

Table A4.2 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by duration of search for regular job and educational level*

Duration of search for first regular job	MALES					FEMALES					ALL PERSONS				
		Second Level					Second Level					Second Level			
	No Qualifications	First Cycle Completed	Second Cycle Completed	Third Level Completed	All Levels	No Qualifications	First Cycle Completed	Second Cycle Completed	Third Level Completed	All Levels	No Qualifications	First Cycle Completed	Second Cycle Completed	Third Level Completed	All Levels
	%														
Job arranged or no search required	55.7	52.0	37.5	59.0	50.0	47.1	49.9	44.2	32.1	48.2	51.6	51.2	41.7	48.3	48.2
1-4 weeks	11.5	17.1	17.7	12.0	15.5	18.6	17.3	19.9	15.6	18.6	14.8	17.2	19.1	13.4	17.0
5-13 weeks	12.4	17.2	23.8	12.6	17.2	17.8	17.5	20.4	42.9	19.7	14.9	17.3	21.7	24.8	18.4
14-26 weeks	5.9	7.5	13.0	12.0	8.5	7.7	7.8	8.1	8.3	7.8	6.7	7.5	9.9	9.7	8.2
27-52 weeks	8.8	3.4	6.3	3.6	5.5	5.3	5.5	6.1	2.7	5.9	7.0	4.6	6.2	3.2	5.7
53 weeks and over	6.0	2.6	1.6	0.8	3.2	3.5	1.1	1.4	0.5	1.8	4.8	2.1	1.5	0.7	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0*	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N. 000)	(42.5)	(83.8)	(41.9)	(9.4)	(185.6)	(43.0)	(50.3)	(70.3)	(6.2)	(169.8)	(91.4)	(136.1)	(112.2)	(15.7)	(355.4)
Average duration of search for first regular job (in weeks)	12.9	7.8	9.2	5.4	9.2	9.8	6.9	7.5	6.8	7.9	11.5	7.3	8.2	6.0	8.6

* Table relates only to those who held a first regular job.

Table A4.3[1] *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by average duration of search for first regular job and sector of first regular job*

Sector of First Regular Job	Males	Females	Total
	Average duration of search for first regular job (in weeks)		
Agriculture	3.3	2.8	3.3
Industry	11.6	10.1	10.9
Building, Construction	8.7	-	8.4
Commerce, Finance	8.9	6.7	7.7
Transport, Communications	9.2	6.0	8.1
Public Administration, Defence	18.5	6.3	12.3
Education, Health	17.1	9.1	11.1
Other Professional Services	4.2	7.1	6.1
Other[2]	7.8	7.3	7.5
All Sectors	9.2	7.9	8.7
(N, 000)	(185.7)	(169.8)	(355.5)

Notes: (1) This table relates only to those who held a first regular job.

(2) Includes sector not known.

Table A4.4 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by average duration of search for first regular job and occupation relating to this job*

Occupation of First Regular Job	Males	Females	Total
	Average duration of search for first regular job (in weeks)		
Agricultural workers	4.0	-	3.9
Electrical, electronic, engineering	8.9	12.3	9.4
Other producers, etc.	12.9	10.4	11.6
Building, etc., workers	15.3	-	14.8
Labourers and unskilled workers	15.1	-	14.9
Transport, communication workers	10.9	13.8	11.9
Clerical workers	8.9	5.8	6.6
Commerce, insurance workers	5.9	6.9	6.5
Professional, technical workers	6.0	11.5	9.2
Service workers	8.0	8.0	8.0
Other workers(2)	15.0	-	14.0
All Occupations	9.2	7.9	8.7
(N, 000)	(185.7)	(169.8)	(355.5)

Notes: (1) This table relates only to those who held a first regular job

(2) Includes occupation not known.

Table A4.5 *Youth population outside of education classified by main means of obtaining first regular job and level of educational attainment*

Main means of obtaining first regular job	MALES				FEMALES				ALL PERSONS				
	No Qualifications	Second Level: First Cycle Completed	Second Level: Second Cycle Completed	Third Level Completed	No Qualifications	Second Level: First Cycle Completed	Second Level: Second Cycle Completed	Third Level Completed	No Qualifications	Second Level: First Cycle Completed	Second Level: Second Cycle Completed	Third Level Completed	All Levels
	%												
National Manpower Service	2.9	5.5	5.4	1.0	3.8	4.7	5.3	3.4	3.3	5.2	5.3	2.0	4.6
Private Employment Agencies	0.0	0.1	0.7	0.0	0.3	1.3	2.3	0.9	0.1	0.6	1.7	0.4	0.8
Answering or Placing Advertisements	6.3	13.2	26.8	31.5	10.2	15.6	27.9	61.7	8.1	14.2	27.5	43.5	18.2
Calling in Person to Firms	23.8	23.2	14.0	8.2	33.1	23.5	13.4	1.1	28.2	23.3	13.6	5.4	20.7
Writing to/ Telephoning Firms	0.4	1.2	4.2	9.1	0.8	2.6	7.9	4.2	0.5	1.7	6.5	7.2	3.2
Personal Contact involving a Relative	23.3	17.6	12.3	6.6	23.1	15.2	10.5	3.4	23.2	16.8	11.1	5.3	18.1
Other Personal Contact	23.0	20.9	15.7	15.4	25.8	27.5	18.6	21.3	24.3	23.3	17.6	17.8	21.5
Entered Family Business	17.8	12.9	11.2	15.4	1.8	1.4	1.7	0.0	10.3	8.7	5.2	9.3	8.0
Other Means	2.6	5.4	9.8	12.7	1.2	7.8	12.4	3.9	1.9	6.3	11.4	9.2	6.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N, 000)	(48.1)	(85.5)	(41.7)	(9.4)	(42.7)	(49.4)	(70.1)	(6.2)	(90.8)	(134.9)	(111.8)	(15.7)	(353.2)

Note: This table relates only to those who held a first regular job.

Table A4.6 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by main means of obtaining first regular job and industrial sector*

Main Means of Obtaining First Regular Job	Industrial Sector									Total
	Agriculture	Industry	Building etc.	Commerce, Finance	Transport, Communications	Public Administration, Defence	Education, Health	Other Professional Services	Other	
	%									
National Manpower Service	0.4	5.4	5.8	4.8	3.8	3.8	4.6	6.1	4.4	4.6
Private Employment Agency	0.0	0.7	0.4	1.1	1.6	0.2	0.2	6.2	0.1	0.8
Answering/Placing Advertisements	3.3	13.7	6.6	19.1	28.8	48.8	40.4	21.9	16.5	18.2
Calling in Person to Firms	4.2	31.3	25.9	20.6	5.2	10.8	10.1	7.1	19.9	20.1
Write/'phone firms	0.4	2.6	0.8	3.9	4.1	3.2	10.1	7.5	1.2	3.2
Personal contact involving a relative	6.1	19.4	24.4	16.1	24.5	7.8	4.9	7.1	18.4	16.1
Other personal contact	8.2	20.8	26.7	25.3	16.6	5.6	20.2	21.0	27.9	21.5
Entered family business	75.8	0.7	4.3	3.0	1.0	0.3	0.7	1.6	5.6	8.0
Other	1.7	5.4	5.2	6.1	14.5	19.5	8.8	16.5	5.9	6.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N, 000)	(27.5)	(101.8)	(27.3)	(95.0)	(11.6)	(16.8)	(20.8)	(11.2)	(41.1)	(353.2)

Note: This table relates only to those who held a first regular job.

Table A4.7 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by main means of obtaining first regular job and occupation*

Main Means of Obtaining First Regular Job	Occupation											Total
	Agricultural workers	Electrical, electronic engineering	Other producers	Building etc. Workers	Unskilled workers	Transport workers	Clerical workers	Commerce, insurance etc. workers	Professional, technical workers	Services workers	Other workers	
	%											
National Manpower Service	1.0	5.7	5.5	10.0	3.0	4.1	6.9	4.0	1.8	3.1	0.0	4.6
Private Employment Agency	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.6	3.3	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.8
Answering/Placing Advertisements	3.6	18.8	9.2	9.3	7.8	15.6	28.8	16.0	44.6	18.9	32.4	18.2
Calling in Person to Firms	5.7	23.9	36.3	22.1	29.2	29.7	8.3	24.6	6.7	22.7	25.0	20.7
Write/'phone Firms	0.4	2.0	1.3	0.6	1.4	1.3	4.7	3.0	11.7	2.9	9.5	3.2
Personal contact involving a relative	6.3	18.3	18.5	24.6	23.2	21.8	15.0	15.2	5.7	19.7	8.8	16.1
Other personal contact	9.6	20.2	22.9	28.0	26.6	23.5	16.8	29.4	14.6	26.7	7.0	21.5
Entered family business	72.3	2.0	0.9	4.3	4.0	1.6	0.4	5.2	3.7	1.5	0.0	8.0
Other	1.2	8.1	5.2	2.1	4.5	1.9	15.8	2.5	10.7	4.3	17.3	5.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(N, 000)	(29.1)	(38.9)	(52.6)	(9.2)	(19.8)	(17.9)	(71.9)	(59.7)	(19.3)	(31.8)	(30.0)	(353.2)

Note: This table relates only to those who held a first regular job.

Table A5.1 *Average number of jobs held per person for those in the labour force in Spring 1982 classified by cohort and level of educational attainment*

Level of Educational Attainment	Males						Females						All Persons					
	Cohort						Cohort						Cohort					
	1973 or earlier	1974 1975	1976 1977	1978 1979	1980 or later	Total	1973 or earlier	1974 1975	1976 1977	1978 1979	1980 or later	Total	1973 or earlier	1974 1975	1976 1977	1978 1979	1980 or later	Total
	Average Number of Jobs per person																	
No Qualification	2.6	2.1	2.0	1.8	1.2	1.9	2.8	2.5	2.1	1.8	1.1	2.0	2.6	2.3	2.0	1.8	1.2	2.0
1st Cycle Completed	2.8	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.9	3.1	2.1	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	2.9	2.2	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.8
2nd Cycle Completed	-	3.0	2.1	1.8	1.3	1.8	-	2.6	2.1	1.7	1.4	1.8	-	2.8	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.8
3rd Level Completed	-	-	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.5	-	-	2.7	1.6	1.3	1.5	-	-	2.0	1.5	1.4	1.5
Total	2.6	2.3	2.0	1.7	1.3	1.9	2.9	2.4	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.8	2.7	2.3	2.1	1.7	1.3	1.8

(1) This table relates only to those who were either at work or unemployed (excluding job seekers) when the survey was conducted and covers all jobs, including those of of an incidental nature.

Table A5.2 *Youth population outside of education in 1982. Average duration of first regular job classified by cohort*

Cohort	MALES			FEMALES			PERSONS		
	Still in first regular job	Left first regular job	All those who had a first regular job	Still in first regular job	Left first regular job	All those who had a first regular job	Still in first regular job	Left first regular job	All those who had a first regular job
	Average duration of first regular job in weeks								
1973 or earlier	374. 6	149. 3	218. 4	307. 9	172. 0	195. 8	353. 3	160. 5	208. 2
1974, 1975	317. 1	138. 1	210. 7	294. 0	113. 5	173. 1	308. 4	126. 8	194. 6
1976, 1977	225. 4	95. 2	163. 1	220. 9	95. 9	147. 5	223. 4	95. 6	155. 5
1978, 1979	142. 5	59. 1	109. 9	140. 0	58. 9	104. 7	141. 3	59. 0	107. 3
1980 or later	53. 4	35. 5	49. 8	52. 2	32. 3	48. 5	52. 8	34. 0	49. 1
All Cohorts (N, 000)	162. 5 (106. 9)	95. 9 (79. 1)	134. 2 (186. 0)	141. 3 (89. 4)	92. 0 (80. 6)	117. 9 (169. 9)	152. 9 (196. 3)	93. 92 (159. 6)	126. 4 (355. 9)

(1) Table covers only those who actually had a first regular job.

(2) The figures in parentheses are estimates in absolute terms (000).

Table A5.3 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by sector of first regular job and educational level*

Broad categories of First Regular Job Occupation	MALES					FEMALES					PERSONS				
		Second Level					Second Level					Second Level			
	No qualifications	First Cycle completed	Second Cycle completed	Third Level completed	All Levels	No qualifications	First Cycle completed	Second Cycle completed	Third Level completed	All levels	No qualifications	First Cycle completed	Second Cycle completed	Third Level completed	All levels
	Percentage														
Agriculture etc.	22.1	13.3	8.3	13.7	14.4	-	-	-	-	1.3	12.6	8.9	3.3	8.2	8.2
Industrial/Building /Transport	41.3	52.9	29.3	18.9	42.8	47.4	25.6	8.7	-	23.4	44.0	42.7	16.2	12.6	31.5
Labourers/Unskilled	13.8	11.0	6.2	2.1	10.3	-	-	-	-	-	7.6	7.2	2.3	6.9	5.6
Clerical/Commercial	17.1	12.3	42.4	16.8	22.9	27.0	56.3	70.3	20.3	53.4	22.1	32.0	60.7	13.3	33.0
Other Workers	5.6	5.3	13.6	48.4	9.5	22.8	16.5	20.2	76.6	21.5	13.6	9.1	32.3	60.8	15.3
Total (N, 000)	100.0 (48.5)	100.0 (56.0)	100.0 (42.0)	100.0 (9.5)	100.0 (156.0)	100.0 (43.0)	100.0 (50.4)	100.0 (70.4)	100.0 (6.4)	100.0 (169.9)	100.0 (91.5)	100.0 (136.4)	100.0 (112.4)	100.0 (15.8)	100.0 (355.9)

Table includes only those whose held a first regular job.

Table A5.4 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by first regular job and educational level*

Broad Sector of First Regular Job	MALES					FEMALES					PERSONS				
		Second Level					Second Level					Second Level			
	No qualifications	First Cycle completed	Second Cycle completed	Third Level completed	All Levels	No qualifications	First Cycle completed	Second Cycle completed	Third Level completed	All Levels	No qualifications	First Cycle completed	Second Cycle completed	Third Level completed	All Levels
	Percentage														
Agriculture	21.0	12.4	5.4	12.8	13.7	-	-	-	-	1.2	12.1	8.5	3.3	7.6	7.7
Industry	28.0	28.3	28.3	25.5	27.6	48.4	32.1	19.2	10.4	38.1	37.6	24.8	21.8	19.8	28.8
Building, Construction	10.9	18.9	7.6	4.2	14.0	-	-	-	-	0.8	5.8	13.0	3.7	2.5	7.7
Commerce, Finance	23.5	23.1	28.4	8.5	23.7	23.7	34.1	35.1	4.7	30.8	23.6	27.2	32.6	7.6	27.1
Public Sector	4.1	5.8	10.7	22.3	7.3	4.9	5.0	22.4	65.6	14.3	4.1	5.4	19.2	34.9	10.5
Other Private Services	12.5	10.7	15.8	26.6	13.8	21.9	25.5	21.7	17.2	22.7	16.9	16.2	20.5	22.8	18.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
(1,000's)	(48.5)	(56.0)	(42.0)	(9.5)	(156.0)	(43.0)	(50.4)	(70.4)	(6.4)	(169.9)	(91.5)	(138.4)	(112.4)	(15.8)	(356.1)

This table covers only those who held a first regular job.

Table A5.5 *Proportion of youth population who lost their first regular job involuntarily, classified by duration of that job*

Duration of First Regular Job	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
4 weeks or less	19.9	21.8	21.0
5 to 13 weeks	30.2	20.7	26.0
14 to 26 weeks	42.4	21.4	30.3
27 to 52 weeks	28.1	22.2	25.2
53 to 104 weeks	27.9	16.0	21.9
105 to 156 weeks	34.4	16.5	25.0
157 to 260 weeks	31.6	20.8	26.8
More than 260 weeks	32.2	14.8	23.6
Total	31.3	19.3	25.3

Table A5.6 *Proportion of youth population who lost their first regular job involuntarily, classified by educational level*

Educational Level	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
No Qualifications	34.5	26.9	30.5
Second Level:			
1st cycle completed	34.7	22.6	30.0
2nd cycle completed	21.5	9.0	13.3
Third Level completed	-	-	17.1
Total	31.5	15.5	25.3

Table A5.7 *Proportion of youth population who lost their first regular job involuntarily, classified by sector*

Sector of first regular job	Males	Females	All Persons
		%	
Agriculture	14.6	-	15.8
Industry	34.3	30.2	32.1
Building etc.	55.9	-	56.4
Commerce etc	24.7	13.0	18.5
Public Sector	18.6	8.2	11.9
Other	25.3	15.5	19.9
Total	31.5	19.3	25.3

Table A5.8 *Proportion of youth population who lost their first regular job involuntarily, classified by occupation*

Occupation of First Regular Job	Males	Females	All Persons
		%	
Agriculture	17.9	-	18.2
Electronic/Engineering	42.9	-	40.7
Other Producers	33.0	30.0	31.2
Building etc workers	54.7	-	47.9
Labourers, Unskilled workers	46.9	-	46.8
Transport etc	34.5	51.8	39.9
clerical workers	19.2	12.6	14.5
Commerce, etc.	18.0	15.5	16.5
Professional, Technical	-	10.5	12.1
Service workers	21.1	16.4	17.4
Total	31.5	19.3	25.3

Table A6.1 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 who had completed training programmes, classified by nature and location of training*

Nature etc. of training	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
Solely on-the-job	24.9	12.1	17.9
On-the-job and course work	37.9	8.2	21.6
In educational institute	7.1	47.9	29.5
In other centre	30.0	31.8	31.0
Total (000)	100.0 (41.1)	100.0 (49.9)	100.0 (90.1)

Table A6.2 *Youth population outside of education in 1982. Persons who had completed training programmes classified by educational level*

Educational level	Males	Females	All Persons
	%		
No qualifications	16.8	9.4	12.8
Second Level:			
First cycle	58.4	27.0	41.4
Second cycle	21.9	62.4	44.1
Third level	2.4	1.2	1.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
('000)	(40.1)	(49.9)	(91.0)

Table A6.3 *Youth population who were at work in 1982 classified by training received and industrial sector.*

Sector of Current Job	Males				Females				Persons			
	Training in progress	Training completed	Others	Total (N)	Training in progress	Training completed	Others	Total (N)	Training in progress	Training completed	Others	Total (N)
	%											
Agriculture	0.4	16.4	81.2	100.0 (24.2)	2.6	14.4	83.0	100.0 (2.0)	0.6	18.1	81.3	100.0 (26.2)
Industry	23.6	23.5	53.0	100.0 (43.4)	7.7	24.8	67.5	100.0 (42.3)	15.7	24.1	60.1	100.0 (85.7)
Building Construction	40.5	24.7	34.8	100.0 (22.5)	4.0	53.7	42.3	100.0 (1.4)	38.4	26.4	35.2	100.0 (23.8)
Commerce, Finance	26.1	18.9	54.9	100.0 (20.9)	4.1	29.4	66.6	100.0 (37.0)	14.5	24.4	61.0	100.0 (70.6)
Public Sector	18.5	16.4	65.1	100.0 (15.6)	11.6	37.5	50.9	100.0 (25.2)	14.2	29.4	56.4	100.0 (40.8)
Other Services	29.1	20.4	50.6	100.0 (21.3)	22.2	36.0	41.8	100.0 (24.8)	25.4	28.8	45.8	100.0 (46.1)
Total (N)	23.2 (37.2)	20.8 (33.4)	56.0 (89.8)	100.0 (160.5)	10.0 (13.3)	30.7 (40.7)	59.3 (78.6)	100.0 (132.6)	17.2 (50.5)	25.3 (74.2)	57.5 (168.4)	100.0 (293.1)

Notes:

(1) This table relates only to those whose principal economic status was "at work" at the time of survey.

(2) The figures in parentheses are estimates in absolute terms (000).

(3) The training category "other" includes those who started a training programme but did not complete it.

Table A6.4 *Youth population who were at work in 1982 classified by training received and occupation*

Occupation	Males				Females				Persons			
	Training in progress	Training completed	Others[3]	Total (N)	Training in progress	Training completed	Others[3]	Total (N)	Training in progress	Training completed	Others[3]	Total (N)
	%											
Agricultural Workers	0.2	18.5	81.2	100.0 (24.6)	0.0	15.8	84.2	100.0 (1.9)	0.2	18.4	81.5	100.0 (26.4)
Electrical, Electronics, Engineering	47.7	32.7	19.6	100.0 (32.7)	5.4	15.1	79.5	100.0 (7.6)	39.7	29.4	31.0	100.0 (40.4)
Other Producers	29.3	28.8	41.9	100.0 (22.7)	12.5	14.0	73.6	100.0 (18.1)	21.9	22.2	55.9	100.0 (40.8)
Building etc., Workers	39.0	23.0	38.0	100.0 (8.9)	-	-	-	100.0 (0.1)	39.2	22.7	38.1	100.0 (9.0)
Unskilled Workers	1.7	4.4	93.9	100.0 (12.6)	-	-	-	100.0 (0.5)	2.1	4.5	93.4	100.0 (13.1)
Transport Communication Workers	1.8	12.7	85.5	100.0 (7.9)	0.0	25.2	74.8	100.0 (4.5)	1.1	17.2	81.6	100.0 (12.5)
Clerical Workers	9.7	11.2	79.1	100.0 (14.2)	3.4	50.0	46.6	100.0 (50.8)	4.8	41.5	53.7	100.0 (65.0
Commerce, Insurance Etc. Workers	23.5	17.4	59.1	100.0 (18.4)	5.7	14.1	80.3	100.0 (22.5)	13.7	15.8	70.8	100.0 (40.9)
Professional, Technical Workers	43.0	20.5	36.6	100.0 (9.8)	33.8	25.1	41.2	100.0 (11.1)	38.1	22.9	39.0	100.0 (20.8)
Service Workers	15.2	16.1	68.8	100.0 (5.3)	25.8	25.1	49.2	100.0 (14.6)	23.0	22.7	54.4	100.0 (19.9)
Other Workers	12.4	11.5	76.1	100.0 (3.4)				100.0 (1.0)	9.7	22.8	67.5	100.0 (4.4)
Total (N)	23.2 (37.2)	20.8 (33.4)	56.0 (89.8)	100.0 (160.5)	10.0 (13.3)	30.7 (40.7)	59.3 (78.6)	100.0 (132.6)	17.2 (50.5)	25.3 (74.2)	57.5 (168.4)	100.0 (293.1)

Notes:

(1) This table relates only to those whose principal economic status was "At Work" at the time of the survey.
(2) The figures in parentheses are estimates in absolute terms (000).
(3) The training category "other" includes those who started a training programme but did not complete it.

Table A6.5 *Youth population outside of education in 1982. Those who were in training or had acquired training, classified by sector of training*

Sector of training	Males		Females		Persons	
	Training in progress	Training completed	Training in progress	Training completed	Training in progress	Training completed
	'000					
General	0.4	1.1	0.2	1.2	0.6	2.3
Building and construction	5.1	4.1	0.1	0.1	5.2	4.1
Woodwork	5.0	3.9	0.0	0.6	5.0	4.5
Engineering	14.7	15.1	0.2	1.1	14.9	16.1
Textiles	0.2	5.0	1.1	2.7	1.3	3.2
Other industry	3.0	7.1	0.7	0.9	3.7	8.0
Clerical, administration	4.6	3.3	3.5	36.1	8.1	39.4
Distribution	5.1	4.1	1.7	1.0	6.8	5.1
Miscellaneous	1.4	1.9	6.6	6.3	8.0	8.2
Total	39.7	41.1	14.1	49.9	53.8	91.0

Table A6.6 *Youth population outside of education in 1982. Those who had completed training, classified by duration of training and sector of training*

Sector of training	Duration of training completed (weeks)					Total
	<4	5-9	10-26	27-52	53 or over	
	%					
General	4.8	32.4	34.1	19.1	9.6	100.0 (2.3)
Building and construction	0.0	7.9	14.8	15.3	62.0	100.0 (4.1)
Engineering	2.7	8.5	27.5	13.5	47.9	100.0 (16.1)
Woodwork	1.0	6.9	6.3	6.7	79.2	100.0 (4.4)
Textiles	2.0	36.5	44.3	1.2	16.1	100.0 (3.2)
Other industry	2.7	12.7	29.8	33.4	21.4	100.0 (7.9)
Clerical, administration	3.4	7.5	20.2	63.7	5.2	100.0 (39.3)
Distribution (incl. Transport)	4.0	12.0	10.0	8.0	66.0	100.0 (5.0)
Miscellaneous	4.1	1.6	17.1	11.6	65.6	100.0 (8.0)
Total (N)	3.1 (2.8)	9.4 (8.5)	21.7 (19.6)	36.1 (32.6)	29.7 (26.8)	100.0 (90.3)

Note: (1) The figures in parentheses are estimates in absolute terms ('000).

Table A6.7 *Youth population outside of education in 1982 classified by training received and principal economic status*

Principal Economic Status	Males				Females				All Persons			
	Training in progress	Training completed	Other	Total	Training in progress	Training completed	Other	Total	Training in progress	Training completed	Other	Total
	000											
At work	37.2	33.4	96.0	160.5	13.3	40.7	78.6	132.6	50.4	74.2	168.2	293.1
Unemployed	-	5.7	18.4	24.1	-	2.2	10.4	12.6	-	7.8	28.8	36.7
seeking first regular job	2.2	1.5	10.1	13.8	0.8	2.1	5.0	7.9	3.0	3.6	15.1	21.7
Other	-	0.5	2.5	3.0	-	4.9	24.4	29.3	-	5.4	26.8	32.3
Total	39.4	41.4	121.0	201.4	14.1	49.9	118.4	182.4	53.4	91.0	238.9	383.8

(1) The status category of first jobseekers includes those on full-time training or work experience programmes.

(2) The training category "other" includes those who commenced training but did not complete it.

The Transition Survey Questionnaire

1 = 0

MAIN SURVEY: YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND TRANSITION FROM EDUCATION TO WORKING LIFE

HOUSEHOLD DETAILS SHEET: Complete one sheet for each household AREA CODE (2 3 4) RESP. CODE (5 6 7)

8 = 0

1. List here all persons usually resident in the household to which the selected elector belongs

(1) Name	(2) Sex (circle) M	F	(3) Relationship to HOH	(4) Age last birthday	(5) In full-time education Yes	No
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2
	1	2			1	2

Interview all those aged 15-24 years who are not in full-time education

2. Did you obtain all of the required interviews at this address?
   Yes ..... 1 → How many was this? ( )
   Some, not all 2
   None 3

3 (a) How many interviews did you obtain? ( )

(b) If you did not obtain all the required interviews, why not? (Code all that apply)
   Address demolished 1
   Address non-existent 2
   Nobody in target group* now in household 3
   Relevant member away (e.g., in hospital) all survey period 4
   Relevant member (s) refused co-operation 5
   Relevant member (s) could not be contacted 6
   Other (specify) 7

* Aged 15-24 years, not in full-time education

4. Type of locality in which household is situated?
   (a) Rural 1
   Urban* 2
   (b) Name of Town: _____

* Situated in town of population 1,000 or more. See p. 6 of Instructions.

INTERVIEWER'S NAME: _____

80 = Blank

SURVEY OF YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND TRANSITION FROM EDUCATION TO WORKING LIFE

QUESTIONNAIRE - TO BE COMPLETED FOR EACH PERSON IN THE TARGET GROUP

(AGED 15-24, NOT IN FULL-TIME EDUCATION)

1 = 1

AREA CODE [ ][ ][ ] (2 3 4)

RESP. CODE [ ][ ][ ] (5 6 7)

PERSON NO. [ ] (8)

DATE Day [ ][ ] Month [ ][ ] (9 10 11)

I'd like to begin by getting some personal details about you.

1. Sex: Male 1
Female ..... 2 [ ] Sex

2. Date of birth: Day Month Year [ ][ ][ ][ ][ ][ ] D M Y

3. Marital status: Single 1
Married 2
Separated 3
Widowed ..... 4 [ ] M

4. Date of marriage: Day Month Year [ ][ ][ ][ ][ ][ ] D M Y

5. How many children do you have? [ ] Kids

6. (a) How many brothers and sisters have you (including those living elsewhere)? [ ][ ]

(b) How many of them are older than you? [ ][ ] Brs. & Sis. / Older

7. Nationality: Irish 1
British 2
Other EEC 3
Other ..... 4 [ ] Nat

8. What kind of school or college were you attending just prior to leaving full-time education?

1. Primary school 1
2. Secondary school 2
3. Community school 3
4. Comprehensive school 4
5. Vocational school 5
6. Secretarial etc. school/College 6
7. University or equivalent 7
8. Regional Technical College 8
9. Other 9
(specify _____)

[ ] Sch.

MAIN SURVEY

2

9. What was the highest educational level you attained in your full-time education? (circle one number below)

Primary level not completed	01	
Primary level completed	02	→ SKIP TO Q. 11 BELOW
Group level attended but not completed	03	
Intermediate level attended but not completed	04	
Group level completed	05	
Group level + pre-employment or commercial course completed	06	Hand respondent
Intermediate level completed	07	→ Card I and Complete
Intermediate level + pre-employment or commercial course completed	08	Q. 10. I below
Leaving Certificate or equivalent level attended but not completed	09	
Leaving Certificate or equivalent level completed	10	
Leaving Certificate or equivalent level + pre-employment or commercial course completed	11	Hand respondent → Card II and Complete Q. 10. II below
Third Level attended but not completed	12	
Third Level completed	13	→ Complete Q. 10. III below

10. What subjects did you take and what grades did you get in the highest certificate examinations which you took? (Answer one only of I, II or III. In sections I or II, indicate the subjects taken by circling the appropriate number and write in the grades obtained.)

I: Intermediate or Group Certificate (Codes 5-9) in Q. 9		II: Leaving Certificate (Codes 10-12 in Q. 9)				III: Third Level (Code 13 in Q. 9)
Subject	Grade	Subject	Level Ord. (Pass)	Level Higher (Hons.)	Grade	Name of Institution(s)?
Irish (higher) 01		Irish 01	1	2		
Irish (lower) 02		English 02	1	2		
Irish (Group) 03		French 03	1	2		
English (higher) 04		German 04	1	2		
English (lower) 05		Spanish 05	1	2		What was the title(s) of your degree(s)/diploma(s) etc.?
English (Group) 06		Latin 06	1	2		
Latin 07		Other languages 07	1	2		
French 08		History 08	1	2		
German 09		Geography 09	1	2		
Spanish 10		Maths 10	1	2		
Other languages 11		Applied maths 11	1	2		What were the main subjects?
Maths. (higher) 12		Physics 12	1	2		
Maths. (lower) 13		Chemistry 13	1	2		
Maths. (Group) 14		Physics and chemistry 14	1	2		
History 15		Biology 15	1	2		
Geography 16		Ag. science 16	1	2		
Science 17		Ag. econ. 17	1	2		
Commerce 18		Mechanics 18	1	2		
Commercial arithmetic 19		Home econ. 19	1	2		Was your highest degree/diploma at pass or honours (distinction) level?
Book-keeping 20		Accounting 20	1	2		
Shorthand 21		Business org. 21	1	2		Pass 1
Typewriting 22		Economics 22	1	2		Honours (distinction) 2
Music 23		Art 23	1	2		Does not apply 3
Art 24		Music 24	1	2		
Woodwork 25		Eng. workshop theory, practice 25				How long did you spend in Third Level education?
Metalwork 26		Tech. drawing 26				
Mechanical drawing 27		Building construction 27				☐ Years
Home economics 28						
Domestic science 29						
Cookery 30						
Needlework 31						
Laundry work and home management 32						
Rural science 33						

3 Card 2 1 x 2 Dup 2-8

11. Did you engage at any time in any part-time or vacation employment while still in full-time education?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

12 (a) Was this: Summer/vacation job(s) only 1
Part-time work in evenings or at week-ends 2
Both 3

(b) What type of work was it? _____

13 (a) As a preparation for working life, would you say the education you received was:
Very good 1
Good 2
Bad 3
Very Bad 4

(b) If bad or very bad, in what ways do you think the education you received could have been improved? (Probe) _____

TRAINING IN PROGRESS OUTSIDE OF THE SCHOOL OR HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

14. Are you receiving at present any training? (i.e., training or apprenticeship, which would enable one to exercise a particular job or profession, or which would assist one in following a particular job or profession)
Yes ..... 1 No ..... 2 (Skip to Q. 21)

15. Is this training taking place:
Solely on the job 1
Solely in an Educational Institution (e.g., Vocational School) 2
Solely in an AnCO Training Centre 3
Solely in another Training Centre 4
Combination of on-the-job training and course work 5

16. Describe the nature of the training and give the name of the institution (if any) at which the training is taking place.
(a) Full description of training _____
(b) Name of Institution _____

17 (a) Is training taking place as part of an apprenticeship scheme?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(b) If yes, is it a statutory AnCO apprenticeship? (i.e., do you have an AnCO Apprentice's Registration Card)
Yes ..... 1 No 2

18. When did you start this training? Day | Month | Year

19. How long does it take to complete this training? _____ weeks

20. Thinking now about the whole duration of the training from beginning to completion, about how many weeks will you spend on formal course work (as distinct from on-the-job training)?
_____ weeks

TRAINING PREVIOUSLY RECEIVED OUTSIDE OF THE SCHOOL OR HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

21. At any stage in the past did you receive any post-school or post-university training? (i.e., training, including on-the job training, which would enable one to exercise a particular job or profession, or which would assist one in following a particular job or profession)
Yes 1
No ..... 2 (If NO, skip to Q. 42)

4 Card 2

A. BASIC TRAINING

I'd first like to talk about your basic training and then consider any further or supplementary training you received.

22 (a) Did your basic training or apprenticeship take place:

- Solely on the job 1
- Solely in an Educational Institution (e.g., Vocational School) 2
- Solely in an AnCO Training Centre 3
- Solely in another Training Centre 4
- Combination of on-the-job training and course work 5

(b) (If codes 2 - 5 above) Was this training sponsored by your employer?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

23. Describe the basic training received and give the name of the institution (if any) which organised the training.
Description of Training _____
_____
Name of Institution _____
_____

24 (a) Was it part of an apprenticeship scheme?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(b) If yes, was it a statutory AnCO apprenticeship? (i.e., did you have an AnCO Apprentice's Registration Card?)
Yes ..... 1 No 2

25. When did you start this training? Day Month Year

26. How long does it take to complete this training? _____ weeks

27. Thinking now about the whole duration of the training from beginning to completion, about how many weeks did you spend on formal course work (as distinct from on-the-job training)?
_____ weeks

28. Did you complete this training? Yes 1
No 2

29. Did you receive any certificates or qualifications on completion of basic training?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

30. Titles or names of certificates or qualifications _____
_____
_____

31 (a) Was the work content of your first regular job directly related to the basic training you received?
Yes (wholly or partly) ..... 1 No, not at all 2

(b) If yes, was the basic training you received a formal requirement in order to obtain the job?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

B. FURTHER TRAINING OR OTHER TRAINING

32. Did you at any time receive training additional to your basic training?
Yes 1
No ..... 2 (If NO, skip to Q. 42)

33 (a) Did this training take place:

- Solely on the job 1
- Solely in an Educational Institution (e.g., Vocational School) 2
- Solely in an AnCO Training Centre 3
- Solely in another Training Centre 4
- Combination of on-the-job training and course work 5

(b) (If codes 2 - 5 above) Was this training sponsored by your employer?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

5 Card 2

34. Describe this further training and give the name of the institution (if any) which organised the training.
Description of Training _____
_____
Name of Institution _____
_____

35 (a) Was it part of an apprenticeship scheme?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(b) If yes, was it a statutory AnCO apprenticeship? (i.e., did you have an AnCO Apprentice's Registration Card?)
Yes ..... 1 No 2

Card 3
1 × 3
Dup 2-8

36. When did you start this training? Day Month Year

37. How long does it usually take someone to complete this training? ___ weeks

38. Thinking now about the whole duration of the further training from beginning to completion, about how many weeks did you spend on formal course work (as distinct from on-the-job training). ___ weeks

39. Did you complete this training? Yes ..... 1 No 2

40. Did you receive any certificates or qualifications on completion of this further training?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

41. Titles or names of certificates or qualifications _____
_____
_____

OTHER ASPECTS OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

42. Did you ever apply for a place on any AnCO Training Course?
Yes ..... 1 No ..... 2 (Skip to Q. 45)

43 (a) Were you successful in your application, i.e., were you offered a place on an AnCO Training Programme?
Yes 1
No 2
Have not heard yet 3

(b) Did you take up this offer?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

44. If you did not take up this offer, indicate why not. _____
_____

45 (a) (If respondent received any basic training) As a preparation for working life, would you say the training you received was:
Very good 1
Good 2
Poor 3
Very poor 4

(b) (If Poor or Very Poor) How could the training have been improved? (Probe)
_____
_____
_____

46. How do you view your employment prospects for the future? (Read out following five categories.)
Very good 1
Good 2
Fair 3
Poor 4
Very poor 5

8

Card 3

47 (a) If you (or your spouse) were to suffer the loss of a job or found it difficult to find a job, would you seriously consider moving to a different area?

Yes ..... 1 No ..... 2 [39]

(b) Would you consider moving to another country in these circumstances?

Yes ..... 1 No ..... 2 [40]

(c) At the moment, are you seriously thinking about going abroad to work?

Yes ..... 1 No ..... 2 [41]

DETAILS OF PARENTS

We have found that young people's views and circumstances vary according to their parents' situation. I'd therefore like to ask you a few questions about your parents.

48. Which of the following categories best describe your Father's current situation? (Show card III) [42]

Working for payment of profit 1
Unemployed, having lost or given up pervious job 2
Unable to work owing to permanent sickness or disability ... 3
Retired 4
Deceased 5
Other 6

49. Occupation of Father: (If not working or deceased, describe main life occupation) [43] [44] [45]

Title of job: (If farmer, state acreage farmed) _____

Main activities or duties: _____

50. Which of the following categories best describes your Mother's current situation? (Show card IV) [46]

Working for payment or profit 1
Unemployed, having lost or given up previous job 2
Unable to work, owing to permanent sickness or disability .. 3
Engaged on home duties 4
Deceased 5
Other 6

51. Occupation of Mother (If codes 1 or 2 at Q. 50)? [47] [48] [49]

Title of job: (If farmer, state acreage farmed) _____

Main activities or duties: _____

52. Are you living with your parents at the moment? [50]

Yes ..... 1 No 2

CURRENT STATUS, EMPLOYMENT SITUATION, ETC.

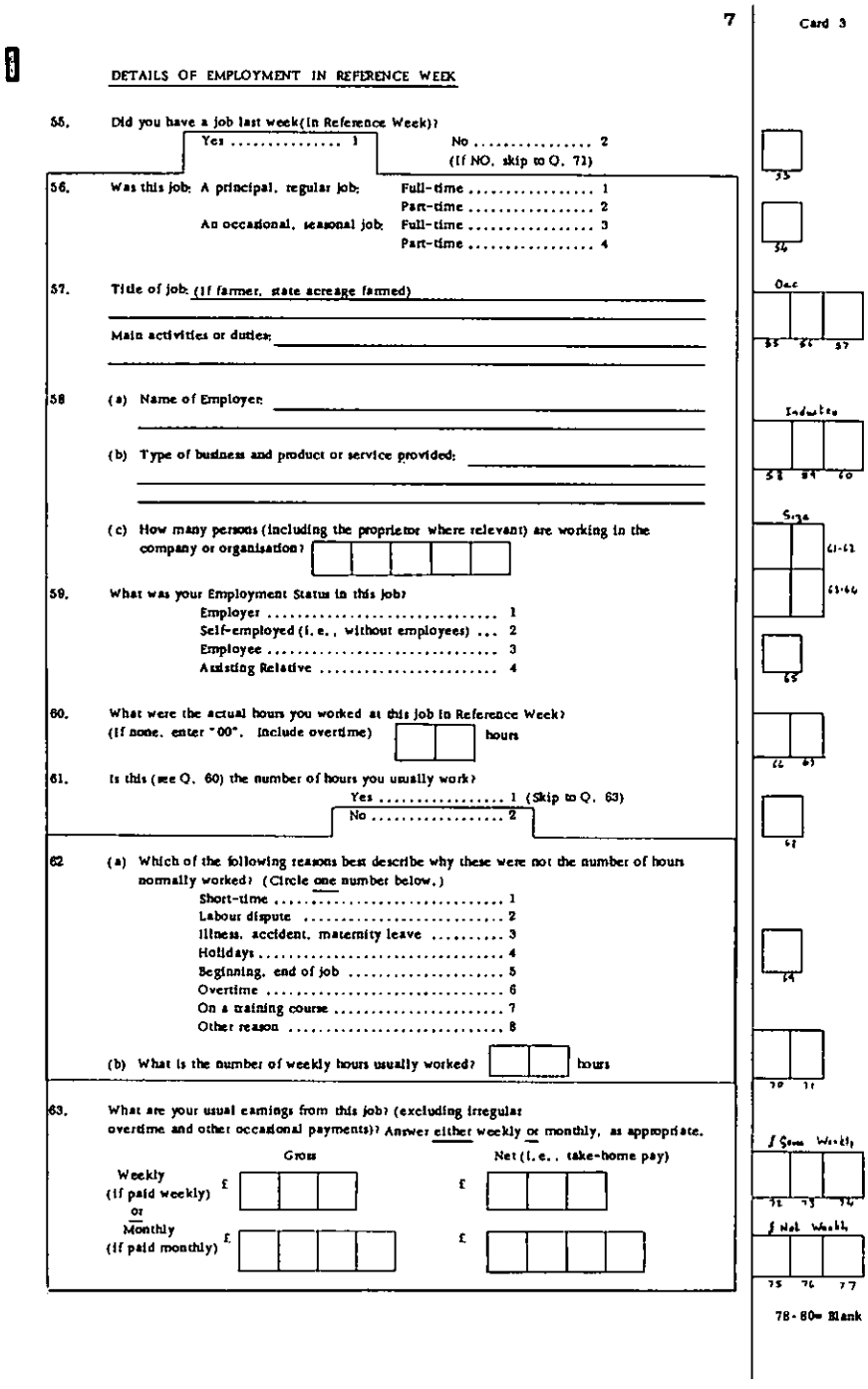
Now I'd like to ask about your own situation.

53. What is your present Main Economic Activity? (Show card V) [51]

Working for payment or profit 1
Looking for first regular job 2
Engaged on home duties 3
Unable to work owing to permanent sickness or disability .. 4
Unemployed, having lost or given up previous job 5
On full-time training course 6
On Work Experience Programme 7
Other (specify) 8

54. What is your Main Source of Sustenance? [52]

Own wage or salary (including those with regular income as an assisting relative in family business) 1
Dependent on parents (e.g., pocket money, irregular payments, etc.) 2
Unemployment Benefit, Unemployment Assistance 3
AnCO or CERT Training Allowance 4
Dependent on spouse 5
Other (specify) 6



7 Card 3

DETAILS OF EMPLOYMENT IN REFERENCE WEEK

55. Did you have a job last week (in Reference Week)?
Yes 1
No ..... 2 (If NO, skip to Q. 71)

56. Was this job: A principal, regular job: Full-time ..... 1; Part-time 2
An occasional, seasonal job: Full-time ..... 3; Part-time 4

57. Title of job: (If farmer, state acreage farmed)
Main activities or duties:

58 (a) Name of Employer:
(b) Type of business and product or service provided:
(c) How many persons (including the proprietor where relevant) are working in the company or organisation?

59. What was your Employment Status in this job?
Employer 1
Self-employed (i.e., without employees) ... 2
Employee 3
Assisting Relative 4

60. What were the actual hours you worked at this job in Reference Week? (If none, enter "00". Include overtime) hours

61. Is this (see Q. 60) the number of hours you usually work?
Yes ..... 1 (Skip to Q. 63)
No 2

62 (a) Which of the following reasons best describe why these were not the number of hours normally worked? (Circle one number below.)
Short-time 1
Labour dispute 2
Illness, accident, maternity leave 3
Holidays 4
Beginning, end of job 5
Overtime 6
On a training course 7
Other reason 8
(b) What is the number of weekly hours usually worked? hours

63. What are your usual earnings from this job? (excluding irregular overtime and other occasional payments)? Answer either weekly or monthly, as appropriate.

	Gross	Net (i.e., take-home pay)
Weekly (if paid weekly)	£	£
or Monthly (if paid monthly)	£	£

78-80= Blank

8

64. What was the MAIN method by which you found this job?
(Circle only one number below.) (Show card VI)

Through the National Manpower Service	01
Through private employment agency	02
By answering advertisements in newspapers, journals, etc.	03
By placing advertisements in newspapers, journals, etc.	04
By calling in person to firms	05
By writing to/telephoning firms	06
Personal contacts involving a relative	07
Other personal contact	08
Went into family business/farm	09
Through career guidance at school, university, etc.	10
Other means (specify _____)	11

Card 4
1 × 4
Dup 2 - 8

9 10

65. (a) What is the distance you travel to work (one way)?
(Write "N. A." if working at home, no fixed workplace, etc.) ☐☐ miles

Miles
11 12

(b) What is your normal travelling time to work (one way)?
(Write "N. A." if working at home, no fixed workplace, etc.) ☐☐ minutes

Mins.
13 14

66. Did you have a second job last week (in the reference week)?

Yes ..... 1 No ..... 2 (Skip to Q. 71)

15

16

67. Was this job: A regular job 1
An occasional, seasonal job 2

68. Title of job: (If farmer, state acreage farmed) _____

Main activities or duties: _____

Occ.
17 18 19

69. Type of business and product or service provided: _____

Industry
20 21 22

70. (a) What was your Employment Status in this job?

Employer	1
Self-employed (i.e., without employees)	2
Employee	3
Assisting Relative	4

23

(b) How many hours do you usually work each week at this second job?

Hours
24 25

9

Card 4

SEARCH FOR WORK

71. What is your present situation with regard to looking for work? (Show card VII)

- Looking for work now 1
- Intend to seek work but have not yet started 2
- Stopped looking for work because new job has been found 3
- Not looking for work 4

(If code 4 skip to Q. 76)

72. What type of work is this? Principal, regular job: Full-time ..... 1; Part-time ..... 2; Either 3
Occasional additional job: Full-time ..... 4; Part-time ..... 5; Either 6
As employer or self-employed 7

73. How long have you been seeking work? [ ][ ][ ] Number of weeks
(If less than one week write "999". If not yet started to look, "000")

74 (a) What methods are you using (will you use/did use) to seek work?
(Show card VIII - Code all that apply)

- Through the National Manpower Service 01
- Through private employment agency 02
- Answering advertisements in the newspapers, journals, etc. 03
- Placing advertisements in newspapers, journals, etc. 04
- Calling in person to firms 05
- Writing to/telephoning firms 06
- Personal contacts involving a relative 07
- Other personal contacts 08
- Going into family business/farm 09
- Other means of search 11

(b) What is the principal method? [ ][ ] (Code number from above list)

75. Are you available for work? Immediately ..... 1; Not immediately 2

76. *(Interviewer: Code (a) and (b) below by referring back to questions 55 and 71.)*

(a) Did respondent have a job last week (see Q.55)? *Yes ..... 1 (Skip to Q. 79)*; *No 2*

(b) Is respondent looking for work?

Is looking/has found (Codes 1 or 3 in Q. 71) ..... 1 (Skip to Q. 79)

Is not looking (Codes 2 or 4 in Q. 71) 2

(c) Do you want a regular job? Yes ..... 1; No ..... 2 (If NO, skip to Q. 79)

77. Which of the following reasons best describe why you are not seeking work? (Show card IX)

- In school or other training 1
- Ill health, physical disablement 2
- Cannot arrange child care 3
- Other family responsibilities 4
- Looked, but couldn't find work 5
- Believes no work available 6
- Other reasons (specify) 7

78. Why do you think you could not find work? (Circle one number)

- Lacks necessary education, skills, experience 1
- Employers think person too young 2
- Other reasons 3
- (Specify .....)

10

Card 4

TRANSITION FROM FULL-TIME EDUCATION TO FIRST REGULAR JOB AND EMPLOYMENT HISTORY

79. When did you leave full-time education (for the first time)? Month Year

80. In what country* did you reside at that time?
(* If abroad, state the country)

81. What was the MAIN method by which you found your first regular job?
(Show card X and circle only one number below.)

- Through the *National Manpower Service* 01
- Through private employment agency 02
- Answering advertisements in the newspapers, journals, etc. 03
- Placing advertisements in newspapers, journals, etc. 04
- Calling in *person* to *firms* 05
- Writing to/telephoning firms 06
- Personal contacts involving a relative 07
- Other personal contacts 08
- Went into *family business/farm* 09
- Through career guidance at school, university, etc. 10
- Other means of search 11

82 (a) Did you receive any assistance from the last school, college, university, etc., attended in seeking your first regular job?

- Yes 1
- No 2

(b) Did your school/college, university have a career guidance service?

- Yes 1
- No 2

83. Did you have a regular job (as distinct from a seasonal or occasional job) arranged before leaving full-time education?

- Yes ..... 1 (If YES, skip to Q. 86)
- No 2

84. If no regular job was arranged, how long did you spend actively looking for your first regular job, after leaving full-time education. (If no work search activities were engaged in, enter "000", do not leave blank.)

[ ][ ][ ] weeks

85. If you did not spend all of the period subsequent to leaving full-time education looking for a regular job, what was the other main activity engaged in? (Some code must be indicated in these circumstances.)

- In occasional, seasonal job 1
- Work Experience Programme 2
- *In full-time training* 3
- On home duties 4
- On holiday 5
- Ill, sick, etc. 6
- *Other activity* 7

(Specify _____)

76-80= Blank

11 Card 5, 1-5
Dup. 2-8
1

86. EMPLOYMENT HISTORY: FIRST JOB AFTER LEAVING FULL-TIME EDUCATION

(a) Date on which you commenced this job? Day Month Year

(b) Were you: Employer 1
Self-employed, without employees 2
Employee 3
Assisting relative 4

(c) Was this job: Full-time ..... 1 Part-time 2

(d) When you started this job, did you consider it:
Temporary or seasonal ..... 1 Permanent or regular 2

(e) What kind of work were you doing: (i) when you started and (ii) when you left? (Describe fully)
When you started _____ When you left _____

(f) What was your Employer's name: _____
What was his type of business (describe fully) _____

(g) What county (country, if abroad) were you living in when you had this job? _____

(h) Did you change residence to take up this job (even within a county)?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(i) What were your usual NET (take-home) earnings when you STARTED this job?
(Record either weekly or monthly as appropriate) £ Weekly £ Monthly

(j) Did you achieve advancement or promotion in this job?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(k) On what date did you leave this job? Day Month Year
(If still in this job, write "STILL THERE" and TERMINATE INTERVIEW)

(l) What was the main reason for leaving this job?
Redundancy, job loss 1
Domestic responsibilities 2
Returned to full-time education 3
Did not like job 4
Other reason 5
(Specify _____)

(m) After you left this job, did you ever get another job?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

IF NO TERMINATE INTERVIEW

If YES, on what date did your new job commence? Day Month Year

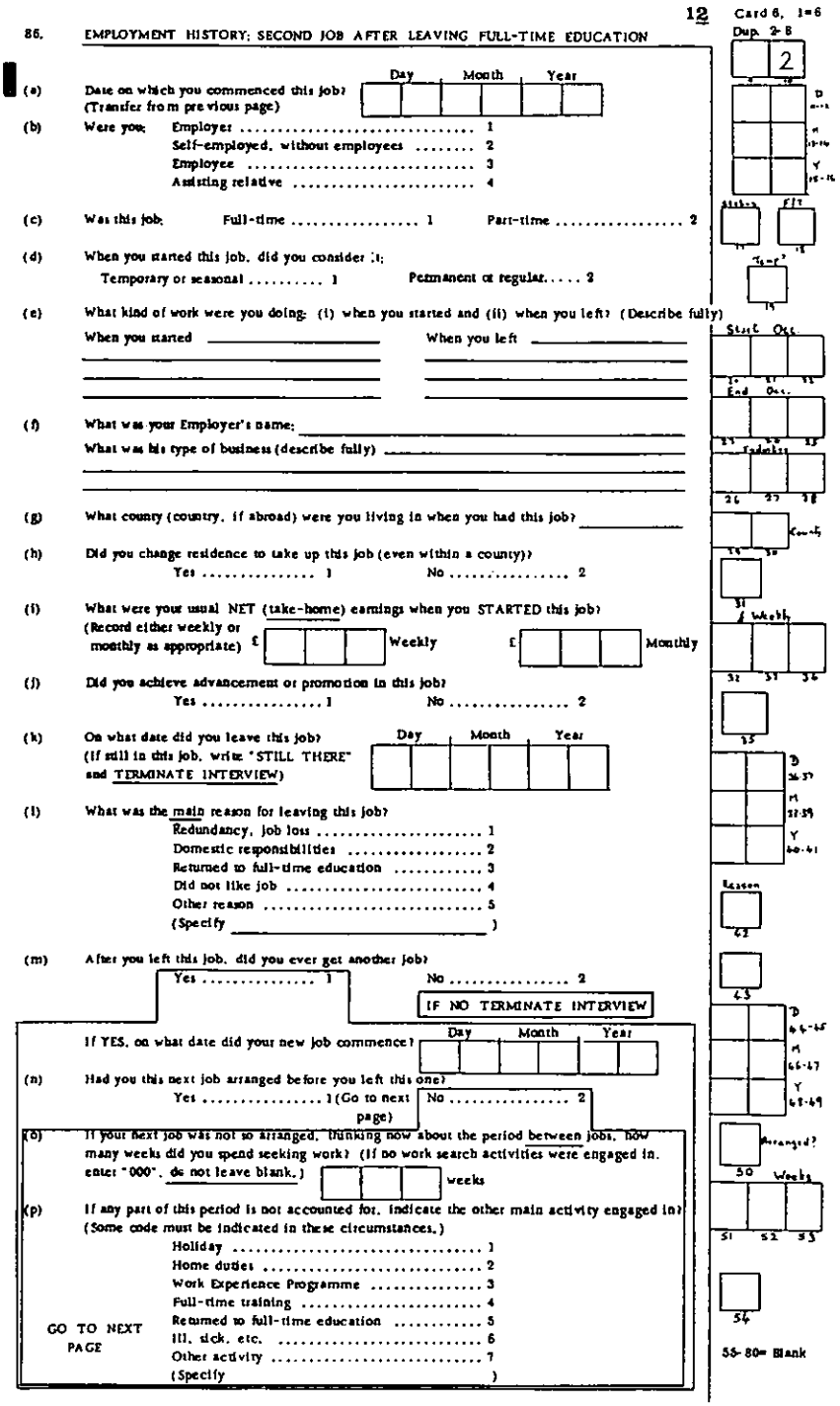
(n) Had you this next job arranged before you left this one?
Yes ..... 1 (Go to next page) No 2

(o) If your next job was not so arranged, thinking how about the period between jobs, how many weeks did you spend seeking work? (If no work search activities were engaged in, enter "000", do not leave blank.) weeks

(p) If any part of this period is not accounted for, indicate the other main activity engaged in? (Some code must be indicated in these circumstances.)
Holiday 1
Home duties 2
Work Experience Programme 3
Full-time training 4
Returned to full-time education 5
Ill, sick, etc. 6
Other activity 7
(Specify _____)

GO TO NEXT PAGE

55-80= Blank



12 Card 6, 1=6
Dup. 2-8
2

86. EMPLOYMENT HISTORY: SECOND JOB AFTER LEAVING FULL-TIME EDUCATION

(a) Date on which you commenced this job? (Transfer from previous page) Day Month Year

(b) Were you: Employer 1
Self-employed, without employees 2
Employee 3
Assisting relative 4

(c) Was this job: Full-time ..... 1 Part-time 2

(d) When you started this job, did you consider it:
Temporary or seasonal ..... 1 Permanent or regular 2

(e) What kind of work were you doing: (i) when you started and (ii) when you left? (Describe fully)
When you started _____ When you left _____

(f) What was your Employer's name: _____
What was his type of business (describe fully) _____

(g) What county (country, if abroad) were you living in when you had this job? _____

(h) Did you change residence to take up this job (even within a county)?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(i) What were your usual NET (take-home) earnings when you STARTED this job?
(Record either weekly or monthly as appropriate) £ Weekly £ Monthly

(j) Did you achieve advancement or promotion in this job?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(k) On what date did you leave this job? Day Month Year
(If still in this job, write "STILL THERE" and TERMINATE INTERVIEW)

(l) What was the main reason for leaving this job?
Redundancy, job loss 1
Domestic responsibilities 2
Returned to full-time education 3
Did not like job 4
Other reason 5
(Specify _____)

(m) After you left this job, did you ever get another job?
Yes ..... 1 No 2
IF NO TERMINATE INTERVIEW
If YES, on what date did your new job commence? Day Month Year

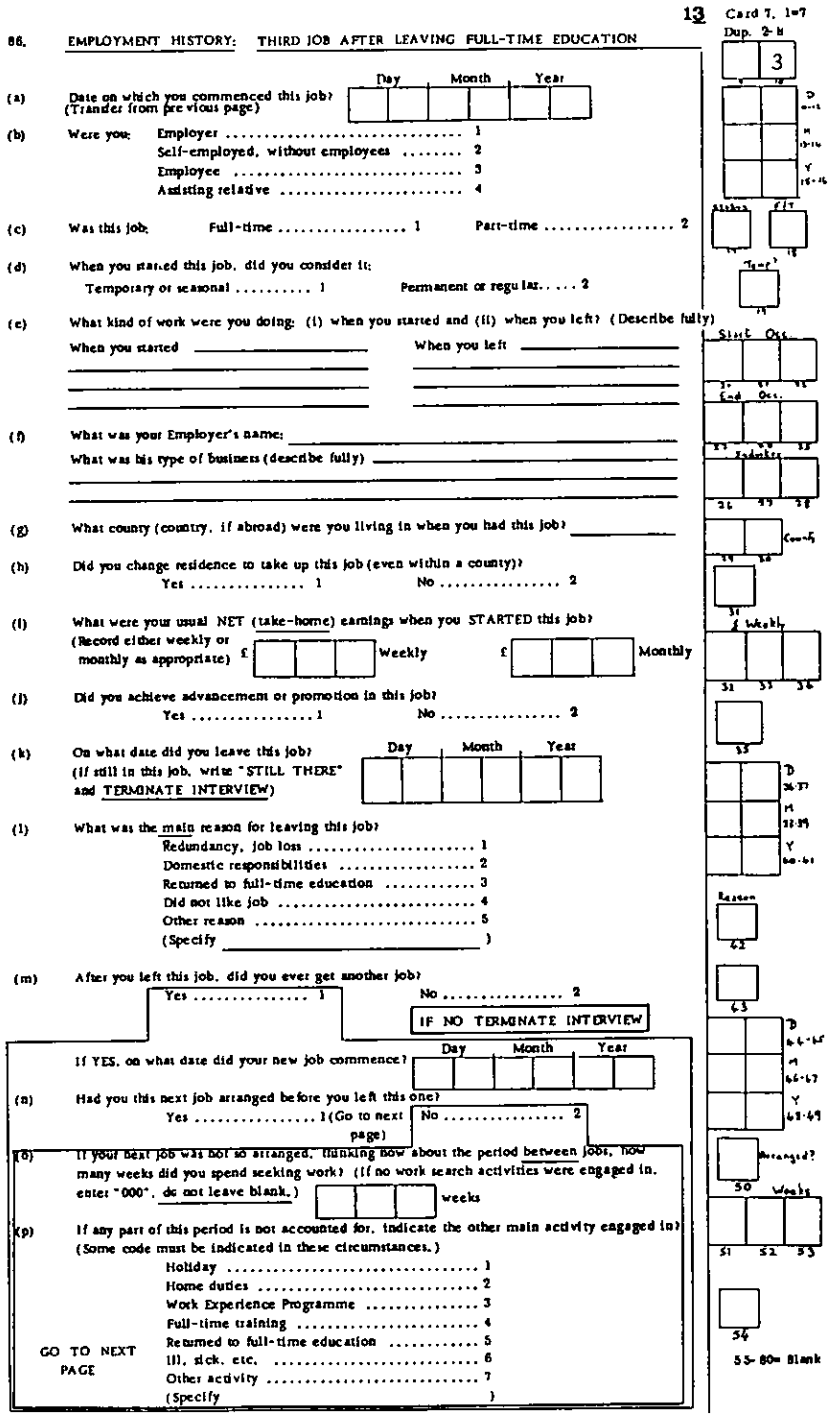
(n) Had you this next job arranged before you left this one?
Yes ..... 1 (Go to next page) No 2

(o) If your next job was not so arranged, thinking now about the period between jobs, how many weeks did you spend seeking work? (If no work search activities were engaged in, enter "000". do not leave blank.) weeks

(p) If any part of this period is not accounted for, indicate the other main activity engaged in? (Some code must be indicated in these circumstances.)
Holiday 1
Home duties 2
Work Experience Programme 3
Full-time training 4
Returned to full-time education 5
Ill, sick, etc. 6
Other activity 7
(Specify _____)

GO TO NEXT PAGE

55-80= Blank



13 Card 7, 1=7
Dup. 2-4
3
D
M
Y
Status
F/T
Temp?
Start Occ.
End Occ.
Industry
County
Usual NET weekly
Reason
Arranged?
Weeks
54
55-80= Blank

86. EMPLOYMENT HISTORY: THIRD JOB AFTER LEAVING FULL-TIME EDUCATION

(a) Date on which you commenced this job? (Transfer from previous page) — Day | Month | Year

(b) Were you: Employer ..... 1; Self-employed, without employees ..... 2; Employee ..... 3; Assisting relative 4

(c) Was this job: Full-time ..... 1 Part-time 2

(d) When you started this job, did you consider it: Temporary or seasonal ..... 1 Permanent or regular 2

(e) What kind of work were you doing: (i) when you started and (ii) when you left? (Describe fully)
When you started _____ When you left _____

(f) What was your Employer's name: _____
What was his type of business (describe fully) _____

(g) What county (country, if abroad) were you living in when you had this job? _____

(h) Did you change residence to take up this job (even within a county)? Yes ..... 1 No 2

(i) What were your usual NET (take-home) earnings when you STARTED this job? (Record either weekly or monthly as appropriate) £ _____ Weekly £ _____ Monthly

(j) Did you achieve advancement or promotion in this job? Yes ..... 1 No 2

(k) On what date did you leave this job? (If still in this job, write "STILL THERE" and TERMINATE INTERVIEW) — Day | Month | Year

(l) What was the main reason for leaving this job?
Redundancy, job loss 1
Domestic responsibilities 2
Returned to full-time education 3
Did not like job 4
Other reason 5
(Specify _____)

(m) After you left this job, did you ever get another job?
Yes ..... 1 No 2
IF NO TERMINATE INTERVIEW
If YES, on what date did your new job commence? Day | Month | Year

(n) Had you this next job arranged before you left this one?
Yes ..... 1 (Go to next page) No 2

(o) If your next job was not so arranged, thinking now about the period between jobs, how many weeks did you spend seeking work? (If no work search activities were engaged in, enter "000", do not leave blank.) _____ weeks

(p) If any part of this period is not accounted for, indicate the other main activity engaged in? (Some code must be indicated in these circumstances.)
Holiday 1
Home duties 2
Work Experience Programme 3
Full-time training 4
Returned to full-time education 5
Ill, sick, etc. 6
Other activity 7
(Specify _____)

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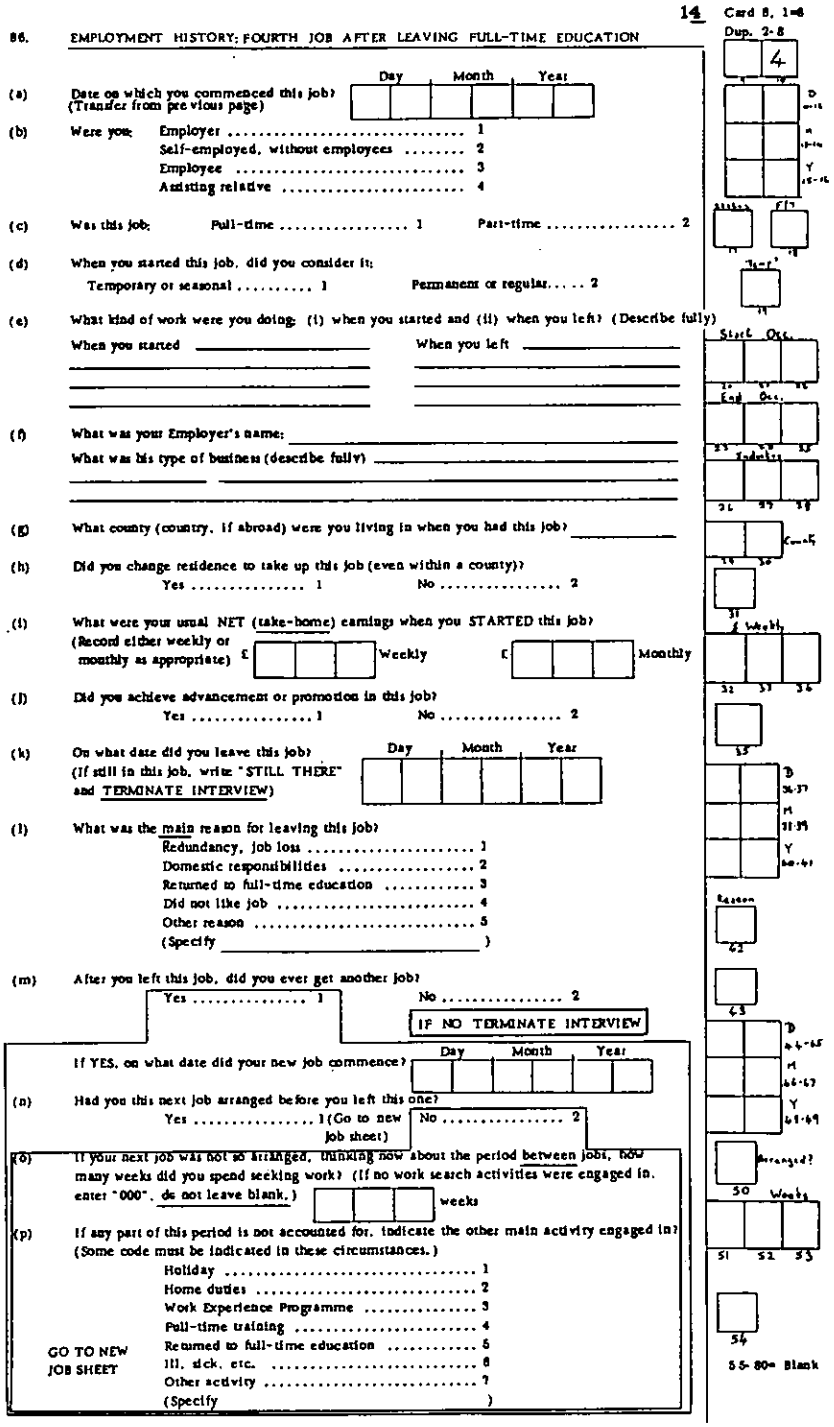

14 Card 8, 1-8
Dup. 2-8
4

86. EMPLOYMENT HISTORY: FOURTH JOB AFTER LEAVING FULL-TIME EDUCATION

(a) Date on which you commenced this job? (Transfer from previous page) Day Month Year

(b) Were you: Employer 1
Self-employed, without employees 2
Employee 3
Assisting relative 4

(c) Was this job: Full-time ..... 1 Part-time 2

(d) When you started this job, did you consider it:
Temporary or seasonal ..... 1 Permanent or regular 2

(e) What kind of work were you doing: (i) when you started and (ii) when you left? (Describe fully)
When you started _____ When you left _____

(f) What was your Employer's name: _____
What was his type of business (describe fully) _____

(g) What county (country, if abroad) were you living in when you had this job? _____

(h) Did you change residence to take up this job (even within a county)?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(i) What were your usual NET (take-home) earnings when you STARTED this job?
(Record either weekly or monthly as appropriate) £ Weekly £ Monthly

(j) Did you achieve advancement or promotion in this job?
Yes ..... 1 No 2

(k) On what date did you leave this job? Day Month Year
(If still in this job, write "STILL THERE" and TERMINATE INTERVIEW)

(l) What was the main reason for leaving this job?
Redundancy, job loss 1
Domestic responsibilities 2
Returned to full-time education 3
Did not like job 4
Other reason 5
(Specify _____)

(m) After you left this job, did you ever get another job?
Yes ..... 1 No 2
IF NO TERMINATE INTERVIEW

If YES, on what date did your new job commence? Day Month Year

(n) Had you this next job arranged before you left this one?
Yes ..... 1 (Go to new job sheet) No 2

(o) If your next job was not so arranged, thinking now about the period between jobs, how many weeks did you spend seeking work? (If no work search activities were engaged in, enter "000", do not leave blank.) weeks

(p) If any part of this period is not accounted for, indicate the other main activity engaged in? (Some code must be indicated in these circumstances.)
Holiday 1
Home duties 2
Work Experience Programme 3
Full-time training 4
Returned to full-time education 5
Ill, sick, etc. 6
Other activity 7
(Specify _____)

GO TO NEW JOB SHEET

55-80= Blank

APPENDIX B

Accuracy of the Survey Estimates

The manner in which the Transition Survey sample was generated (see Chapter II) clearly renders the derivation of sampling errors extremely difficult because of the need to take account of complex design effects. Such an exercise was not therefore attempted. However, it must be remembered that the use of the 1981 Census data (adjusted to 1982 levels) as a grossing and control mechanism ensures a reasonable degree of accuracy in the estimates presented. While this form of control obviously guarantees near complete accuracy for the variables involved in the actual grossing procedure (age, sex, marital status, etc.), the estimates relating to other variables, such as those concerned with the labour force or social status, while computed within the framework of these overall controls, are derived directly from the Transition Survey. It is of interest, therefore, to compare some of these estimates with corresponding data from other sources such as the Censuses of Population and Labour Force Surveys. This is done in Tables A and B which contain comparisons between selected Transition Survey aggregates and corresponding 1982 estimates derived from published CSO data. The latter have been obtained by calculating simple linear interpolations between the results from the 1981 Census and the 1983 Labour Force Survey.

The broad economic status classifications contained in Table A indicate a good consistency between the two sets of estimates when allowance is made for differences in coverage. The Transition Survey figure for those at work (293,000) is smaller than the corresponding CSO-based estimate by about 8,000, which is to be expected since the inquiry did not extend to institutions. However, the magnitudes of the two sets of unemployment figures are very close (at about 60,000), as indeed they should be, since one would not expect unemployment to be associated with institutional residency.

With regard to the sectoral estimates for those at work (Table B) one will notice good concordance between the two sets of data for the Building, Commerce and Transport sectors. The CSO-based figure for Manufacturing employment at 79,000 is rather lower (by some 7,000) than the corresponding Survey estimate. If, however, the former figure is adjusted to take account of the irregular manner in which industrial employment fell between 1981 and 1983 (by using the employment figures from the quarterly CSO Industrial Inquiry as a trend indicator), the comparison is greatly improved. Such an adjustment suggests an independent Manufacturing employment total of 83,000 for 1982 (see figure

Table A: Estimated youth population outside of education in Spring 1982, classified by principal economic status, based on CSO sources and Transition Survey estimates

Principal economic status	Estimates based on CSO figures[1]	Transition survey estimates
	'000	
At work	301	293
Seeking first regular job	23	22
Unemployed	39	37
Labour Force	363	352
Other	36	32
Total	400	384

Table B: Persons aged 15 to 24 years who were at work in Spring 1982, classified by sector. CSO sources and Transition Survey estimates

Sector	Estimates based on CSO figures[1]	Transition survey estimates
	'000	
Agriculture, etc.	21	26
Manufacturing	79 (83)	86
Building	24	24
Commerce, etc.	72	71
Transport, etc.	15	14
Public Admin. and Defence	23	19
Other	68	54
Total	301	293

Notes to Table 2.2 and 2.3: (1) The CSO based figures have been obtained by taking a simple linear interpolation between the 1981 Census and the 1983 Labour Force Survey figures for the various categories indicated. This does not provide an appropriate estimate in the case of Manufacturing Industry as the fall in employment between 1981 and 1983 did not occur uniformly over this period. The figure shown in parenthesis for this sector in Table 2.3 has been obtained by applying the employment trend derivable from the CSO Quarterly Industrial Inquiry to the base 1981 Census total.

in parentheses) compared with 86,000 from the Transition Survey. Thus for the Public Sector and Services area the Transition Survey estimates are noticeably smaller than the independent estimates. This is not unexpected since these areas involve significant numbers in employment who reside in institutions (e.g., defence forces, nursing activities, etc.). In summary, therefore, apart from the Agricultural sector for which the Transition Survey employment results appear somewhat high, the data can be said to provide a reasonably satisfactory representation in so far as the youth population and labour force is concerned.

APPENDIX C

Comparisons between certain Transition Survey data and estimates from the Annual Survey of Second-Level School Leavers

It is of interest to compare figures on the outflow from education derived from the Transition Survey with corresponding estimates obtained from the annual Department of Labour Survey of Second-Level School Leavers. The following table shows a classification of 1980-81 school leavers according to educational level completed taken from the latter source along with corresponding cohort information (1981 or later) from Appendix Table A.3.1 of this Report. The two time periods involved are not quite the same, but they both cover those who left the educational system in the summer of 1981 who account for the great majority in either group as defined.

Qualifications	*Dept. of Labour Survey of 1980/81 Leavers*	*Transition Survey, 1981 or later cohort*
No Qualifications	4,500	10,000
Lower Cycle completed	15,900	17,300
Higher Cycle completed	25,300	20,600
Total Second Level	45,700	47,900

The results are broadly similar but there are some differences. The Transition Survey estimates identified a much greater number of unqualified school leavers – some 10,000 as against about 4,500 as shown by the other source. Some of this difference would be attributable to the purely household based approach used in the Transition Survey which would have resulted in a somewhat wider coverage. For example, the Transition Survey would include those who left education at the primary stage and also some others (e.g., the handicapped) who would not be covered using a school-based approach.

The Department of Labour sample is first selected from school records and the selected individuals are then followed up with a view to obtaining personal interviews. This approach may also give rise to an understatement of dropouts who may tend to be the subject of less attention than those who complete various stages of the secondary curriculum.

The data from the Transition Survey indicated a somewhat smaller outflow from the higher cycle of second-level education — 21,000 — as against 25,000 obtained from the Department inquiry.

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