

From Education to Work

A DIFFICULT TRANSITION FOR YOUNG ADULTS
WITH LOW LEVELS OF EDUCATION



ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT



THE CANADIAN POLICY RESEARCH NETWORKS (CPRN)

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Also available in French under the title:

De l'école à la vie active

UNE TRANSITION DIFFICILE POUR LES JEUNES ADULTES PEU QUALIFIÉS

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Foreword

Educational attainment is becoming increasingly important, relative to other factors, in shaping young people's life chances. Research shows that the direct influence of factors such as social class, ethnicity and gender on economic and social success is declining. These factors remain important, but their impact is increasingly operating via their influence on access to, and success in, education. Changing economic and social conditions – information and communication technologies, globalisation of economic activity, greater personal responsibility and autonomy in all aspects of life – have given knowledge and skills an increasingly central role in the economic success of individuals and nations. In addition to the growing economic importance of human capital, the social returns on learning – in the form of enhanced personal well-being and greater social cohesion – are also significant.

The launch by the OECD's Education Committee of the Thematic Review of the Transition from Initial Education to Working Life in 1996 was motivated by the OECD countries' concerns about: youth unemployment and those at risk in the transition; the lengthening process of transition from education to work, possibly resulting from more difficult initial labour market entry; and whether the conditions of the transition were laying out the foundation for learning throughout life.

As one activity following the Thematic Review of Transition, the project on Young Adults with Low Levels of Education (YALLE) aims at digging deeper into the analysis of the transition for this disadvantaged group. Study after study demonstrates the greater vulnerability of adults with low levels of education with respect to employment stability and access to further learning opportunities. As the interrelationships between education, the economy and the well-being of nations become ever closer, ensuring that young people experience effective educational careers and successfully make the transition from initial education to working life have become major policy concerns. Rising skill demands in the OECD countries have made upper secondary diplomas a minimum for successfully entering the labour market and a basis for further participation in lifelong learning. Young people with lower qualifications run a higher risk of long-term unemployment or unstable or unfulfilling employment, which can have additional consequences such as social exclusion. Therefore, early school leaving has become one of the most important educational policy problems today.

From Education to Work: A Difficult Transition for Young Adults with Low Levels of Education addresses issues related to several of the goals that all transition policies should aim for. In particular, looking at the early labour market outcomes of young adults with low levels of education brings up a number of equity dimensions:

- Are young men and women facing the same risk of being marginalised in the knowledge economy due to insufficient initial education?
- Does family background play a role in making it more difficult to complete a recognised minimal level of initial education?
- Do migrants overcome the specific challenges they may face, given the potential cultural and language gaps with which they may arrive?

Adopting “a person aged 20-24 years, who has not successfully completed upper secondary school and who is not enrolled in education or in a work-study program” as the operational definition of a young adult with a low level of education, the present study covers 25 OECD countries and provides evidence that if the structure and outcomes of education systems seem clearly to have a impact on transition, its impact is combined with several important individual and social background variables.

This publication was prepared by Patrice de Broucker from the Canadian Policy Research Networks. In addition, the members of Network B (which examines education and socio-economic outcomes as part of the OECD’s Indicators of Education Systems programme, or INES) provided comments at meetings and on the initial drafts. Kenny Petersson from Statistics Sweden was responsible for the data collection and for assembling and managing the large database underlying the analysis. Jaco van Rijn from the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science contributed significantly to the early development of the project. The Indicators and Analysis Division of the OECD Directorate for Education, principally Jean-Luc Heller with editorial support from Kate Lancaster, contributed to the final version of the publication. All data were contributed either by the national statistical agencies or, in the case of several European countries, by Eurostat.

Financial support for the project was provided by several Canadian organisations: Alberta Human Resources and Employment, the Association of Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology of Ontario, Canadian Policy Research Networks and SNC-Lavalin Inc.

The report is published on the responsibility of the Secretary-General of the OECD.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1. Introduction	11
Transition policies and indicators: setting the stage	12
The economic and labour market context	14
Young adults with low levels of education: defining the population	16
The approach of this study	17
The data used in the study	18
Notes	19
References	20
Chapter 2. Young Adults with Low Levels of Education	21
How many are they?	22
Who are they?	27
Young men generally more likely to leave school early	27
Likelihood of arriving at adulthood with a low qualification related to family background	28
Notes	35
References	35
Chapter 3. Non-participation in the Labour Market	37
The impact of education level, gender, living with parents and immigration	38
Notes	42
Chapter 4. Young Adults with Low Levels of Education in Employment	43
General patterns of employment	44
Living with parents and employment	49
Is there a migrant gap?	51
Access to skilled jobs: does education matter?	53
Concentration of less educated young people by industry	60
Other characteristics of employment	62
Notes	65
References	66
Chapter 5. Unemployment Characteristics	67
Notes	72
References	72
Chapter 6. Conclusions	73
Annex A	77
Annex B. Data Tables	78
Annex C. Network B and this Publication	112
Annex D. ISO Codes Used in this Volume	114

List of tables

1.1. Labour market indicators (2002)	15
1.2. Characteristics of the YALLE group and comparison groups	17
1.3. How small is small: population thresholds for publication	19
2.1. Cluster of countries based on the distribution of 20-to-24-year-olds, by student status and educational attainment	25
4.1. Occupations by category.	53
4.2. Industry mapping for analysis.	60
A.1. Publication threshold and data source, by country	77
C2.1. Distribution of 20-to-24-year-olds, by educational situation (2002).	78
C2.2. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education (2002)	79
C2.3. Distribution of 20-to-24-year-olds, by educational situation	80
C2.4. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education, by gender (2002)	81
C2.5. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds and 25-to-29-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education, by gender (2002)	82
C2.6. Percentage of young people living with parents, by age group and gender (2002)	83
C2.7. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds living with parent(s), by gender and educational situation (2002).	84
C2.8. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds living with parents and whose parents have not attained upper secondary education, by educational situation (2002).	85
C2.9. Percentage of 20-to-24 year-olds not born in the country, by educational situation (2002)	86
C2.10. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not born in the country, by educational situation and gender (2002).	87
C3.1. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by gender and educational attainment (2002).	88
C3.2. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by gender, educational attainment and living status (2002)	89
C3.3. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by educational attainment and migrant status (2002).	89
C3.4. Percentage of those not in education with low levels of educational attainment, not in the labour force and who have never had a job, by age and gender (2002)	90
C4.1. Employment rates for 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, by level of educational attainment (2002)	91
C4.2. Employment rates for 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, by gender and level of educational attainment (2002)	92
C4.3. Employment rates for the YALLE group and comparison groups (2002)	93
C4.4. A measure of experience and education advantages in comparison with the YALLE group (2002)	94
C4.5. Comparative measures of experience and education advantages, by gender (2002).	95
C4.6. Employment rate of 20-to-24 year-olds not in education, by level of education and living status (2002)	96

C4.7. Employment rate of the YALLE group, by gender and living status (2002)	96
C4.8. Employment rates by age, educational attainment and migrant status (2002)	97
C4.9. Difference in employment rates, by age, educational attainment and migrant status (2002)	98
C4.10. Distribution of the YALLE group by occupation (2002)	99
C4.11. Percentage of the YALLE group and comparison groups in skilled occupation (2002)	100
C4.12. Benefits of further education for access to skilled occupations (2002)	101
C4.13. Benefits of further education for access to skilled occupations, by gender (2002)	102
C4.14. Proportion of young people in low skilled employment, by age group and educational attainment (2002)	103
C4.15. Proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education in low skilled employment, by gender (2002)	104
C4.16. Difference between males and females in the share of employment in low skilled occupations, by age group and educational attainment (2002) . . .	105
C4.17. Distribution of the YALLE group and total employment, by industry group (2002)	106
C4.18. Proportion of young people employed in upper-tier services, by age and educational attainment (2002)	107
C4.19. Proportion of young people employed with short job tenure (less than six months in the current job), by age and educational attainment (2002)	108
C4.20. Proportion of employment in limited duration jobs for selected groups not in education (2002)	109
C4.21. Proportion of part-time employment in total employment for selected groups not in education (2002)	109
C5.1. Unemployment-to-population ratios, by age and educational attainment (2002)	110
C5.2. Proportion of long-term unemployment (more than six months) among unemployed young people, by age and educational attainment (2002)	110
C5.3. Proportion of unemployed for employer-related reasons among unemployed young people, by age and educational attainment (2002)	111
C5.4. Proportion of unemployed young people who have never had a job, by age and educational attainment (2002)	111

List of figures

2.1. Distribution of 20-to-24 year-olds, by educational situation (2002)	22
2.2. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education (2002)	23
2.3. Proportion of the 20-to-24-year-olds in education and not in education with low levels of education, by country (2002)	24
2.4. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education, by gender (2002)	28

2.5. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds and 25-to-29-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education, by gender (2002)	29
2.6. Percentage of young people living with parents, by age group and gender (2002)	29
2.7. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds living with parent(s), by gender and education situation (2002)	30
2.8. Percentage of 20-to-24 year-olds living with parents and whose parents have not attained upper secondary education, by educational situation (2002)	32
2.9. Percentage of 20-to-24 year-olds not born in the country, by educational situation (2002)	33
2.10. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not born in the country, by educational situation and gender (2002)	34
3.1. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by gender and educational attainment (2002)	39
3.2. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by gender, educational attainment and living status (2002)	40
3.3. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by educational attainment and migrant status (2002)	41
3.4. Percentage of those not in education with low levels of educational attainment, not in the labour force and who have never had a job, by age and gender (2002)	41
4.1. Employment rates for 20-to-24 year-olds not in education, by level of educational attainment (2002)	45
4.2. Employment rates for 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, by gender and level of educational attainment (2002)	46
4.3. Employment rates for the YALLE group and comparison groups (2002)	47
4.4. A measure of experience and education advantages in comparison with the YALLE group (2002)	47
4.5. Comparative measures of experience and education advantages, by gender (2002)	48
4.6. Employment rate of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, by level of education and living status (2002)	50
4.7. Employment rate of the YALLE group, by gender and living status (2002)	50
4.8. Employment rates by age, educational attainment and migrant status (2002)	51
4.9. Difference in employment rates, by age, educational attainment and migrant status (2002)	52
4.10. Distribution of the YALLE group by occupation (2002)	54
4.11. Percentage of the YALLE group and comparison groups in skilled occupations (2002)	55
4.12. Benefits of further education for access to skilled occupations (2002)	55
4.13. Benefits of further education for access to skilled occupations, by gender (2002)	56
4.14. Proportion of young people in low skilled employment, by age group and educational attainment (2002)	57
4.15. Proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education in low skilled employment, by gender (2002)	58

4.16. Difference between males and females in the share of employment in low skilled occupations, by age group and educational attainment (2002) . . .	59
4.17. Distribution of the YALLE group and total employment, by industry group (2002)	61
4.18. Proportion of young people employed in upper-tier services, by age and educational attainment (2002)	62
4.19. Proportion of young people employed with short job tenure (less than six months in the current job), by age and educational attainment (2002)	63
4.20. Proportion of employment in limited duration jobs for selected groups not in education (2002)	64
4.21. Proportion of part-time employment in total employment for selected groups not in education (2002)	65
5.1. Unemployment-to-population ratios, by age and educational attainment (2002)	69
5.2. Proportion of long-term unemployment (more than six months) among unemployed young people, by age and educational attainment (2002)	70
5.3. Proportion of unemployed for employer-related reasons among unemployed young people, by age and educational attainment (2002)	71
5.4. Proportion of unemployed young people who have never had a job, by age and educational attainment (2002)	71

Chapter 1

Introduction

Transition policies and indicators: setting the stage

Educational attainment is becoming increasingly important, relative to other factors, in shaping young people's life chances. Research shows that the direct influence of factors such as social class, ethnicity and gender on economic and social success is declining. Although these factors remain important, their impact is increasingly felt through their influence on access to and success in education (OECD, 1998). Changing economic and social conditions – information and communication technologies, the globalisation of economic activity, greater personal responsibility and autonomy in all aspects of life – have given knowledge and skills an increasingly central role in the economic success of individuals and nations. In addition to the growing economic importance of human capital, the social returns to learning, in the form of enhanced personal well-being and greater social cohesion, are also significant (OECD, 2001).

The launch by the OECD's Education Committee of the Thematic Review of the Transition from Initial Education to Working Life¹ in 1996 was motivated by concerns among OECD countries regarding: youth unemployment and those at risk in the transition from education to working life; the lengthening process of this transition, possibly resulting from a more difficult initial entry to the labour market; and whether the conditions of this transition were establishing the foundations for learning throughout life. As one activity following the Thematic Review of Transition, the YALLE project offers a deeper analysis of this transition for a disadvantaged group. Study after study has demonstrated the greater vulnerability of adults with low levels of education with respect to employment opportunities, employment stability, earning a living and access to further learning opportunities.

The annual OECD publication *Education at a Glance* provides an extensive compendium of internationally comparable quantitative indicators which enable governments and all stakeholders to see their education systems and its outcomes in the light of other countries' performances. Together with OECD's country policy reviews, the indicators and analysis are designed to support and review efforts that governments are making toward policy reform. Introducing new transition indicators, *Education at a Glance 2002* stated:

As the interrelationships between education, the economy and the well-being of nations become ever closer, providing for effective educational careers of young people and for successful transitions from initial education to working life become major policy concerns. Rising skill demands in OECD countries have made upper secondary diplomas a minimum for successfully entering the labour market and a basis for further participation in lifelong learning. Young people with lower qualifications run a higher risk of long-term unemployment or unstable or unfulfilling employment, which can have additional consequences such as social exclusion (OECD, 2002).

Through the examination of transition systems in 14 countries, the Thematic Review identified key ingredients of successful transition systems:

- A healthy economy.
- Well-organised pathways connecting initial education with work and further study.

- Widespread opportunities to combine workplace experience with education.
- Tightly knit safety nets for those at risk.
- Good information and guidance; and
- Effective institutions and processes.

These show clearly how transitions from initial education to working life are influenced by a wide variety of contextual factors: economic conditions; the diversity of educational opportunities (including workplace experience) available to meet young people's varied abilities and occupational tastes; family background and social support; and research and information about the job market of the future.

All these factors and the key ingredients of successful transitions are at the intersection of multiple policy areas, *i.e.* education, economic, social, employment, communication and governance policies. Policy decision making in these areas is often dealt with in different government departments, if not even at different levels of government, and policy coherence is thus a challenge, especially when it is necessary to address the needs of specific groups facing difficulties in establishing their employability. As the Thematic Review highlighted, there is no single recipe for an effective transition system, and the OECD countries differ widely in their transition frameworks, as well as in their economic contexts, populations (both in terms of number and composition), geography and forms of government.

The final report of the Thematic Review of Transition (OECD, 2000) also defined seven basic goals for which all transition policies should aim:

1. High proportions of young people completing a full upper secondary education with a recognised qualification for either work, tertiary study or both.
2. High levels of knowledge and skill among young people at the end of the transition phase.
3. A low proportion of teenagers being both not in education and unemployed.
4. A high proportion of those young adults who have left education having a job.
5. Few young people remaining unemployed for lengthy periods after leaving education.
6. Stable and positive employment and educational histories in the years after leaving upper secondary education; and
7. An equitable distribution of outcomes by gender, social background and region.

The analysis carried out in the present study addresses issues related to several of these goals, in particular the first, fourth, fifth and seventh, and attempts to measure aspects of countries' performance in meeting these goals, through the provision of an extensive set of comparative indicators. The first basic goal points to a consensus which has now been firmly established within the OECD: rising skill demands in OECD countries have made completion of upper secondary education the minimum credentials required for successful labour market entry and a basis for further participation in lifelong learning. Young people with low qualifications are believed to run an increased risk of long term unemployment, as the Thematic Review demonstrated: in 13 out of the 14 participating countries, 20-to-24-year-olds without an upper secondary level of education represented an average of 22 per cent of the population in 1996, yet accounted for 30 per cent of the unemployed, and in older age groups the overrepresentation was likely to be even greater. Such young people also risk unstable or unfulfilling employment, with possible additional negative consequences such as social exclusion.

The economic and labour market context

National economic conditions and the resulting labour market situation vary over time. Although the worldwide progress of globalisation has made the national economies more and more interdependent, there are still important national factors at play that introduce differences across countries. As the youth labour market is not isolated from the economic and labour market fluctuations, and as this study rests on the analysis of indicators derived from a single, recent year of data (2002),² it is important to qualify at the outset the national labour market situations that serve as context for the observation of young people's transitions to working life. It is well documented that as a group young people are often most sensitive to labour market conditions: when the situation deteriorates, the rate of new hires slows down and then workers with less seniority are let go first. The extent to which young workers may suffer relative to others depends, from country to country, on how much they are relatively protected by the national institutional settings.

Table 1.1 provides a set of labour market indicators. The last column in this table is an assessment of national labour market conditions taking into account how the rate of employment growth in 2002 compares with the average growth in the 1990s, and how the unemployment rate in 2002 compares with the average unemployment rate for the 1990s and with a recent measure of structural unemployment.³ Seven countries can be considered as having had highly favourable labour market conditions in 2002 (indicated by ++ in the last column of the table): Australia, Canada, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain and the United Kingdom. Among them, Australia, Canada, Luxembourg and Spain combine a significant growth in employment (2.0 per cent, 2.2 per cent, 3.1 per cent and 2.0 per cent, respectively) with an unemployment rate significantly below the 1990s average and at the non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment (NAIRU) level (for Australia and Spain) or only slightly above (for Canada). In the other three countries, employment growth was not as fast (0.7 per cent for the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, and 1.4 per cent for Ireland), but their performance with respect to unemployment indicates that their economy is operating at potential (unemployment rate largely below the 1990s average and even below their estimated national NAIRU).

The Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland presented rather positive labour market situations in 2002, although generally more restrained than in the seven countries mentioned above. The Czech Republic showed significant employment growth while still presenting a rather high level of unemployment in absolute terms and in comparison with its average level during the 1990s. Denmark, France, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland improved their unemployment record – bringing it down in comparison with their 1990s average, even if it usually remained higher than their estimated NAIRU – although they nevertheless clearly had sluggish employment growth in 2002. In Italy, employment growth was higher than in these countries (1.5 per cent), but unemployment rate was still rather high (9.1 per cent), even if slightly below the 1990s average.

In Belgium, Finland, Hungary, Iceland and the United States, the labour market provided mixed signals in 2002 (data from 2001 is used for the United States). Employment growth was zero or slightly negative, while the level of unemployment remained somewhat low in comparison with earlier years and with its structural level.

Austria, Germany, Greece, Poland and the Slovak Republic experienced fairly adverse labour market conditions in 2002: employment decreased (except in the Slovak Republic, where it remained stable) and unemployment either remained at about the level experienced

Table 1.1. Labour market indicators (2002)

	Employment growth in 2002 ¹	Average employment growth 1990-2000 ¹	Unemployment rate in 2002 ²	Average unemployment rate 1990-2000 ²	NAIRU in 2001 ³	Labour market situation in 2002 ⁴
Australia	2.0	1.4	6.3	8.4	6.2	++
Austria	-0.4	0.4	5.3	5.1	4.9	-
Belgium	-0.2	0.5	7.3	8.3	7.2	+/-
Canada	2.2	1.3	7.7	9.3	6.9	++
Czech Republic ⁵	1.2	-0.4	7.3	5.7	-	+
Denmark	0.1	0.2	4.5	6.7	4.9	+
Finland	0.2	-0.7	9.1	11.7	8.6	+/-
France	0.4	0.6	8.9	10.9	9.3	+
Germany ⁶	-0.6	0.4	7.8	7.5	7.3	-
Greece	-0.1	0.6	10.0	9.6	9.8	-
Hungary ⁷	-0.2	-0.8	5.9	9.3	-	+/-
Iceland	-0.2	1.3	3.1	3.5	3.5	+/-
Ireland	1.4	3.8	4.2	11.3	6.4	++
Italy	1.5	-0.1	9.1	10.7	9.2	+
Luxembourg	3.1	3.4	2.0	1.9	-	++
Netherlands	0.7	2.1	2.5	5.5	4.0	++
Norway	0.2	1.1	4.0	4.7	3.6	+
Poland ⁷	-3.0	-0.8	19.9	13.2	-	-
Portugal	0.3	1.0	5.1	5.5	3.8	+
Slovak Republic ⁸	0.2	-0.1	18.6	14.0	-	-
Spain	2.0	1.7	11.4	14.8	11.5	++
Sweden	0.1	-0.8	4.0	6.1	-	+
Switzerland	0.6	0.3	2.3	2.9	1.8	+
United Kingdom	0.7	0.2	5.2	7.7	5.5	++
United States ⁹	0.0	1.4	4.8	5.6	5.1	+/-
Total OECD¹⁰	0.1	1.0	6.7	6.4	6.1	+/-

1. OECD Employment Outlook: 2003 Edition, Table 1.1.

2. OECD Employment Outlook: 2003 Edition, Table 1.2.

3. OECD Employment Outlook: 2003 Edition, Table 1.3. The structural rate of unemployment is the OECD's estimate of the non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment (NAIRU); estimates of the NAIRU provide a useful reference to judge economic conditions reflected in the unemployment rate.

4. Synthetic indicator based on comparing performance in 2002 with employment/unemployment performance in the 1990s and estimate of structural unemployment: ++ attributed if employment growth was high in comparison of the 1990s and unemployment low and at or below the NAIRU; + attributed if one of the indicators was slightly different; +/- attributed if the situation was mixed, with one indicator on the positive side and the other on the negative; - attributed if employment growth was slightly negative or below the 1990s' average and unemployment high; and - attributed if both indicators were different than the figures for the 1990s by a fairly large margin.

5. The average employment growth rate and unemployment rate have been calculated for 1993-2000.

6. The average employment growth rate and unemployment rate have been calculated by chaining the data for the whole of Germany to the corresponding data for western Germany prior to 1992.

7. The average employment growth rate and unemployment rate have been calculated for 1992-2000.

8. The average employment growth rate and unemployment rate have been calculated for 1994-2000.

9. Data refer to 2001, for employment growth and unemployment rate.

10. The average for 1990-2000 excluded the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and the Slovak Republic.

Source: OECD Employment Outlook: 2003 Edition.

during the 1990s (Austria, Germany, Greece) or increased (Poland and the Slovak Republic where the labour market attracted newly active population).

These differences in labour market conditions have to be taken into consideration as the early labour market outcomes of young people with low levels of education in 2002 are examined.

Young adults with low levels of education: defining the population

It is not easy to arrive at a clear definition of young adults with low levels of education, because such a group can be considered from several conceptual points of view (Dekkers *et al.*, 2000):

- Those leaving school before the minimum compulsory school-leaving age has been reached (a viewpoint associated with government).
- Those leaving education before attaining a diploma (a viewpoint associated with teachers).
- Those leaving education without being sufficiently qualified for the labour market (a viewpoint often held by employers); and
- Those not having achieved individual expectations in respect of educational level (a viewpoint that relates to young people's own perception).

In recent years, it has mainly been the labour market perspective that has held centre stage, asking whether schooling enables a successful career on the labour market. Rising skill demands in OECD countries have made completion of upper secondary education the minimum credentials required for successful labour market entry and a basis for further participation in lifelong learning. But this is not a denial of the view that schooling has other, broader objectives. Rather, this study considers there to be an association between a person's labour market situation and other aspects of fulfilment in life.

For the development of indicators and the analysis of the situation of young adults with low levels of education, an operational definition is needed. It is important to select an age group within which very few can still be attending school at the primary or secondary level. In the European Union's 2001 employment guidelines,⁴ member states were requested to develop measures aimed at halving by 2010 the number of 18-to-24-year-olds with only lower secondary level education and not in further education and training.⁵ The 2003 employment guidelines include the goal of achieving a European Union average rate of early school leavers of no more than 10 per cent according to the same definition of early school leavers as in 2001. This corresponds to the benchmark adopted by education ministers of the European Union countries in May 2003. The indicator on the rate of early school leavers is also used as a structural indicator for the follow-up of the European Union's Lisbon strategy and as an indicator in the area of social inclusion. But for the purpose of this study, it was considered that in many countries large numbers of young people aged 18 or 19 may still be enrolled in secondary school and that very early leavers may also return to school. The present study thus adopts the following as its operational definition of young adults with low levels of education, or the YALLE group:

A person aged 20 to 24 years, who has not successfully completed upper secondary school and who is not enrolled in education or in a work-study program.

Work-study programs are combinations of work and study periods where both aspects are parts of an integrated, formal education or training activity (examples include the dual system in Germany, *apprentissage* or *formation en alternance* in France and Belgium, internship or co-operative education in Canada, apprenticeships in Ireland and

youth training in the United Kingdom). Vocational education/training occurs not only in school settings, but also in working environments. Sometimes students or trainees are paid, sometimes not. There is a strong relationship between the job and the courses/training. For the purpose of this study, participants in work-study programs are considered in education and in employment.

The approach of this study

As the school-work transition is a process, it would be best observed over a time period rather than through a snap-shot. It would be ideally analysed with longitudinal data, or, alternatively, with data providing some control of time spent in a given situation. For example, the length of time spent in the labour market may, in itself, be the source of different outcomes. Young people who leave school early are likely to have spent longer time in the labour market than may have most graduates, a factor that may confound some of the comparisons, i.e. on the tenure of their job. But, at present, there are no internationally comparable longitudinal surveys available. Focus must therefore be placed on the variables available in cross-sectional, national labour force surveys and as this study is interested in the different (labour market) outcomes at various levels of education it will control as much as possible for the time spent in the labour market. The groups to be compared with the YALLE group should therefore differentiate between people with different levels of education and between young people in different age groups. Table 1.2 provides a description of the comparison groups that will be referred to in the analysis.

Table 1.2. **Characteristics of the YALLE group and comparison groups**

		15-to-19-year-olds	20-to-24-year-olds	25-to-29-year-olds
Not in education	Without upper secondary level of education	Same educational characteristics as the YALLE group	YALLE group	Same educational characteristics as the YALLE group More labour market experience than the YALLE group
		Less labour market experience than the YALLE group		
		This group is necessary to assess socio-economic background (parental characteristics)		
	With upper secondary or postsecondary non-tertiary level of education		More education than the YALLE group Less or comparable labour market experience than the YALLE group	More education than the YALLE group Labour market experience comparable to that of the YALLE group
	With tertiary level of education			More education than the YALLE group Less labour market experience than the YALLE group
In education	Attending secondary education	Comparison group to assess socio-economic background of early leavers 15-to-19-years-old		
	Attending post-secondary non-tertiary education or tertiary education			

Note: In countries where education is compulsory until age 17 or age 18, it is likely that young people will not have accumulated as long a labour market experience as in countries where they may leave school at 15 or 16.

In looking for appropriate comparison groups, this study attempts to control for time spent in the labour market (combining age and level of education) and for level of education. At a given age, the higher the level of education, the lower the time spent in the labour market. This is arguably an oversimplification, especially at a time when a large number of young people do engage simultaneously in studies and work, but this is the best that can be done with the available data.⁶

The data used in the study

All the data on the 25 countries considered in this study have been collected from national labour force surveys. Data were collected directly from national statistical offices under the responsibility of the OECD-INES Network B representatives.⁷ In the absence of data submission from a country itself, Network B obtained data from the Eurostat Labour Force Survey (see Annex A).

For several European Union countries, the data considered in the present study were not reported in the same way as they were for *Education at a Glance 2004*, and thus there may exist some discrepancies in figures between the two publications, mainly caused by different uses of the definition of the student population. In the YALLE data collection, a person is a student (“in education”) if he or she attended an education or training institution in the survey reference week or in the last four weeks prior to the survey.

For all the countries, the data reflect the situation in 2002, except for the United States, where 2002 data were not available at the time of data collection and have been replaced by 2001 data, and for Norway, where 2003 data came to replace the 2002 data, which were not formatted appropriately for this study.

As this study deals with well-defined subsets of the whole population, it is clear that in certain cases there are limitations due to small sample sizes. This study has adopted the countries’ and Eurostat’s recommendations with respect to their guidelines for publication (see Annex A).

Although these figures may present a constraint for the statistical analysis, they should also be looked at from a different perspective. The ratio of the publication threshold to the reference population indicates how small a sub-group may be in the reference population so that figures cannot be reported. Applied to the elected sub-population (young people aged 15 to 29 years, grouped in various sub-groups by age, education or gender), the publication thresholds provide an indication of how small is small, i.e. how small is the population sub-group for which the data cannot be reported in relation with a reference population, because the sub-group considered is likely smaller than the publication threshold. Table 1.3 helps explain such a perspective. It shows the ratios of the reporting threshold to two sub-populations of particular interest, i.e. 20-to-24-year-olds and the YALLE group. In no country is the reporting threshold higher than 5 per cent of the 20-to-24-year-old population and in most it is actually lower than 1 per cent. This means that any sub-group of this population that represents at least such a low percentage of the 20-to-24-year-olds can be reported on. In no country is the YALLE group such a small proportion of the 20-to-24-year-old population. Even fairly small sub-groups of the YALLE population itself can be reported on, in most countries, as the threshold ratio is the highest at 40.3 per cent in Norway and then above 10 per cent in only four other countries (Denmark, Iceland, Luxembourg and Switzerland). In 16 of the 25 countries this ratio is below 5 per cent. An example will provide an illustration: for Germany, estimates for a

Table 1.3. **How small is small: population thresholds for publication**

	YALLE population	Total 20-to-24-year-olds	Publication threshold	Ratio of the publication threshold to the YALLE population (%)	Ratio of the publication threshold to total 20-to-24-year-olds (%)
Australia	252 500	1 377 800	5 590	2.2	0.4
Austria	44 500	448 600	2 000	4.5	0.4
Belgium	96 600	642 400	2 500	2.6	0.4
Canada	226 600	2 076 300	1 500	0.7	0.1
Czech Republic	45 900	773 300	1 000	2.2	0.1
Denmark	34 300	286 700	3 500	10.2	1.2
Finland	32 000	316 700	2 500	7.8	0.8
France	531 200	3 656 000	3 500	0.7	0.1
Germany	657 700	4 634 700	5 000	0.8	0.1
Greece	119 600	670 100	2 500	2.1	0.4
Hungary	93 200	743 900	2 500	2.7	0.3
Iceland	6 300	20 500	1 000	16.0	4.9
Ireland	49 700	346 300	2 500	5.0	0.7
Italy	922 800	3 466 900	3 500	0.4	0.1
Luxembourg	4 800	25 200	500	10.3	2.0
Netherlands	145 400	964 900	4 500	3.1	0.5
Norway ¹	12 400	269 000	5 000	40.3	1.9
Poland	248 700	2 972 200	5 000	2.0	0.2
Portugal	391 400	802 500	7 500	1.9	0.9
Slovak Republic	25 600	463 200	2 500	9.8	0.5
Spain	924 400	3 034 800	5 000	0.5	0.2
Sweden	44 200	514 000	2 500	5.7	0.5
Switzerland	35 600	422 200	5 000	14.1	1.2
United Kingdom	272 600	3 407 700	10 000	3.7	0.3
United States ²	2 336 000	18 948 700	75 000	3.2	0.4
OECD total	7 554 100	51 284 400			

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

group of the population which is as small as 5 000 individuals can be reported; this represent a group as small as 0.1 per cent of its 20-to-24 year-olds and as small as 0.8 per cent of its YALLE population itself. This leaves room for much analysis of these populations at detailed level.

Notes

1. The Thematic Review included 14 OECD countries. Participating countries prepared background reports setting out national trends and issues against a common set of questions. Each country was visited by a team of expert reviewers, and these visits led to country notes. The key trends and conclusions that emerged from the Thematic Review were published in a synthetic report *From Initial Education to Working Life: Making Transitions Work* (OECD, 2000).
2. Throughout this study, data from 2002 are used, except for the United States and Norway, whose data are from 2001 and 2003, respectively.
3. The structural rate of unemployment is the OECD's estimate of the non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment (NAIRU); estimates of the NAIRU provide a useful reference to judge economic conditions reflected in the unemployment rate.
4. In this study, the "European Union" is used to refer to the 15 member countries before the enlargement in May 2004.

5. *The Employment Guidelines for 2001*, Official Journal of the European Communities, L 22/20, 24 January 2001, p. 5.
6. It is also appropriate to note, as it is done in Table 1.2, that, in countries where education is compulsory until age 17 (generally in the United States) or age 18 (Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands), it is likely that young people will not have accumulated as long a labour market experience by a given age as in countries where they may leave school at 15 or 16.
7. In the framework of OECD's Indicators of Education Systems programme (INES), Network B focuses on education and socio-economic outcomes, developing indicators on the links between education and the labour market.

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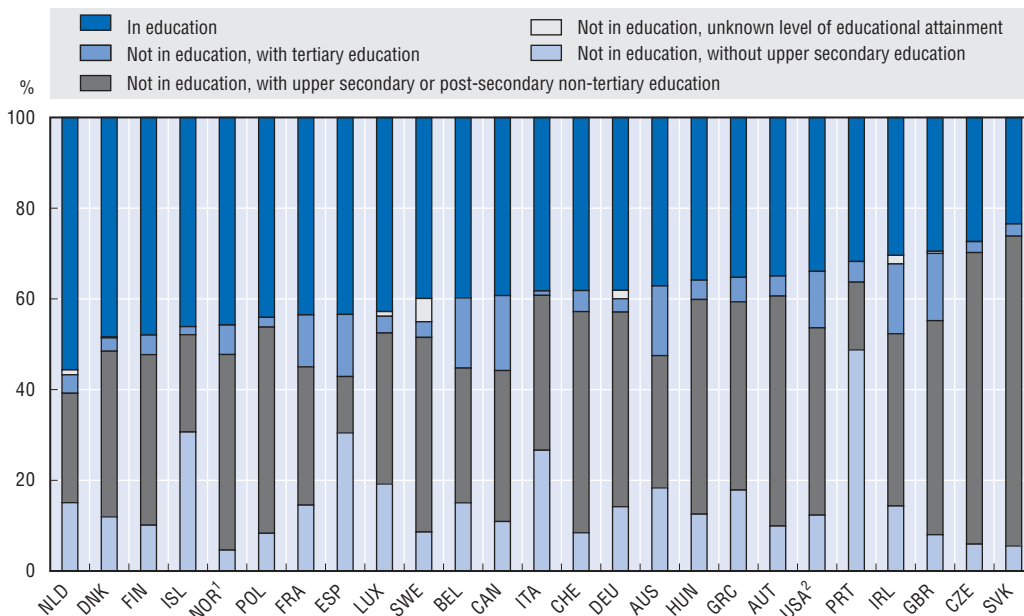
Chapter 2

Young Adults with Low Levels of Education

How many are they?

One of the most significant trends shown year after year in *Education at a Glance* is the universal rise of educational attainment in OECD countries. This global phenomenon can be attributed to young people remaining in the education system for a longer period of time,¹ as well as to the retirement of cohorts relatively less educated than the ones coming of adult age. Several years beyond compulsory education age, when young adults are between 20 and 24 years of age, 22 to 56 per cent of them are still working towards gaining educational credentials, most of them in a tertiary education institution (Figure 2.1). The diversity of national situations is large in this respect. Education participation in this age group is on the low side in the Czech Republic, Ireland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom – all with under one-third of their 20-to-24-year-olds still participating in education. At the other end of the spectrum, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, the Netherlands and Norway record a participation rate in education higher than 45 per cent. Participation in education in this age group does not seem to bear much of a relationship with the age at which compulsory education ends; this also shows a wide spread across countries, from 14 years in Greece, Italy and Portugal to 18 years in Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands.

Figure 2.1. **Distribution of 20-to-24 year-olds, by educational situation (2002)**



1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

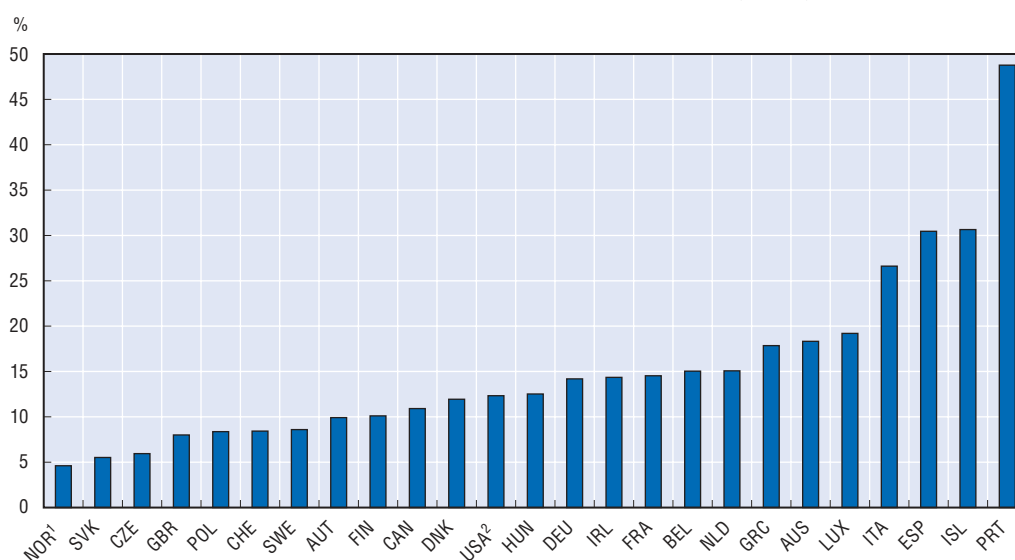
Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage in education among the 20-to-24-year-olds.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

However, the highs or lows of education participation do not directly translate into corresponding highs or lows for the proportion of young adults with low levels of education, the YALLE group. Clearly, in some countries, tertiary education is structured in such a way that a fairly large number of 20-to-24-year-olds may have already completed short tertiary (most often non-university) education programmes, while even a larger proportion do not pursue education beyond an upper secondary school graduation or a post-secondary non-tertiary education. In Australia, Belgium, Canada, France, Ireland, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States, graduates from some tertiary education institutions, and no longer in school, form 11 to 17 per cent of 20-to-24-year-old age group. Large proportions of young adults who do not engage into tertiary education but who hold high school or vocational credentials are found most often in countries where the education system provides credentials recognised by the labour market, either through apprenticeship, school-based vocational education or mixed pathways. Austria, the Czech Republic Germany, Hungary, Norway, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom are all countries in this situation, where 42 to 68 per cent of young adults have completed upper secondary education or post-secondary non-tertiary credentials and are no longer attending an education institution.

In the 25 OECD countries included in this study, a total of more than 7.5 million 20-to-24-year-olds are not in education and have not completed successfully upper secondary education (Table 1.3). As shown in Figure 2.2, they represent very different proportions in their respective countries, from a low of 4.6 per cent in Norway to 48.8 per cent in Portugal (391 400 individuals). If this population is at risk of not participating fully in the expanding knowledge economy, clearly the magnitude of the problem is not the same in all countries. In eight countries, less than 10 per cent of the 20-to-24-year-olds

Figure 2.2. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education (2002)**



1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education.

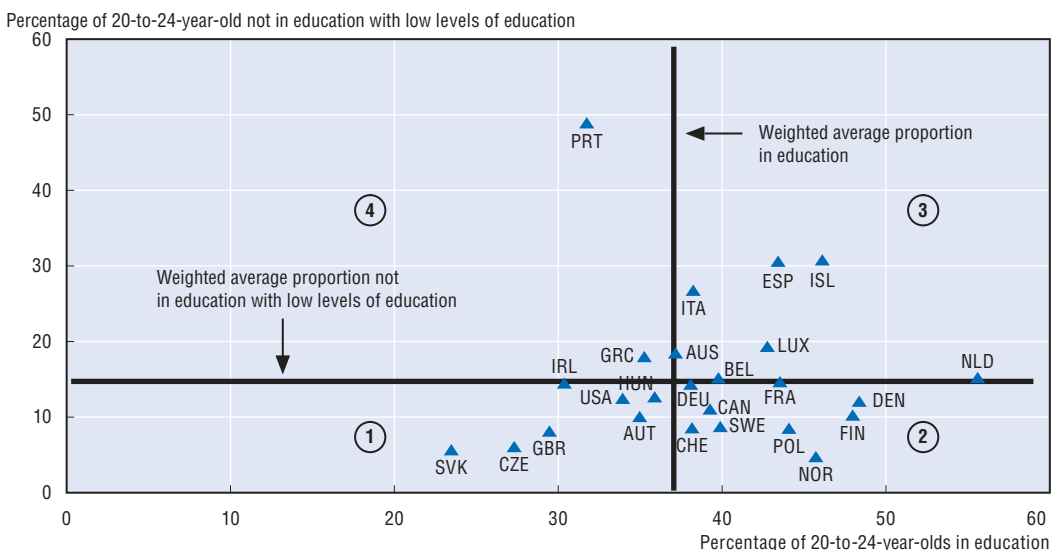
Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

have not attained upper secondary education and do not study any more: Norway (12 400), the Slovak Republic (25 600), Switzerland (35 600), Sweden (44 200), Austria (44 500), the Czech Republic (45 900), Poland (248 700), and the United Kingdom (272 600) may be found in this group. This proportion is contained below 15 per cent in Canada, Denmark, France, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Ireland and the United States.

In four countries (Iceland, Italy, Portugal and Spain), more than a quarter of the 20-to-24-year-olds (indeed, close to half in Portugal) are not pursuing any education, although they have not successfully completed upper secondary schooling.

The situation of countries with respect to the broader educational situation of the 20-to-24-year-olds can be mapped out (Figure 2.3) along four quadrants. Quadrant 1 shows that in some countries, the status of young adults is mixed, with relatively few young adults in education and of those not in education, relatively few have low levels of education. This situation characterises countries such as the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom, and to a lesser extent Austria, Hungary, Ireland and the United States. Quadrant 3 also shows a mixed picture, but one polarised in the opposite manner, with a relatively high level of participation in education among young adults, however among those not participating, a relatively high proportion have low levels of education. This characterises Iceland, Italy, Spain and Luxembourg, and to a lesser extent Australia, Belgium and the Netherlands. Quadrant 2 shows a third group of countries with more positive outcomes, with relatively high rates of participation in education and relatively low rates of non-students with low education levels. This characterises Canada, Denmark, Finland, Norway, Poland, Sweden and Switzerland, with France and Germany being more borderline. Quadrant 4 shows a situation where the proportion of non-students with low levels of education is fairly high, with a low percentage of young adults still studying towards educational credentials, mainly at tertiary level. This characterises Portugal and to a lesser extent Greece.

Figure 2.3. **Proportion of the 20-to-24-year-olds in education and not in education with low levels of education, by country (2002)**



Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

This approach may be further developed by running a cluster analysis on the full distribution of 20-to-24-year-olds by student status and educational attainment (Table 2.1), thus refining the typology using four dimensions. The clustering exercise brings up six fairly homogeneous groups of countries, along these four dimensions of the distribution. Table 2.1 provides a description of the main characteristics of the groups. Four countries remain independent of any group as they appear as outlier along at least one of the four dimensions:

Table 2.1. Cluster of countries based on the distribution of 20-to-24-year-olds, by student status and educational attainment

	Not in education, without upper secondary education	Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	Not in education, with tertiary education	In education	Main characteristics of the group of countries
Denmark	11.9	36.5	2.9	48.4	Highest proportion in education
Finland	10.1	37.6	4.3	48.0	Low proportion in the YALLE group
Norway ¹	4.6	43.1	6.5	45.7	High proportion not in education with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education
Poland	8.4	45.4	2.1	44.1	
Sweden	8.6	42.9	3.5	39.9	
<i>Country average</i>	8.7	41.1	3.9	45.2	
Austria	9.9	50.7	4.4	35.0	Low proportion in education.
Germany	14.2	42.9	2.9	38.1	High proportion not in education with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education.
Greece	17.9	41.5	5.4	35.3	Average proportion in the YALLE group
Hungary	12.5	47.3	4.3	35.9	
Switzerland	8.4	48.8	4.6	38.2	
<i>Country average</i>	12.6	46.2	4.3	36.5	
Australia	18.3	29.2	15.3	37.2	Moderate proportion in education.
Belgium	15.0	29.7	15.5	39.8	High proportion with tertiary education.
Canada	10.9	33.3	16.5	39.3	Fairly high proportion in the YALLE group.
France	14.5	30.5	11.4	43.5	Low proportion not in education with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education.
<i>Country average</i>	14.7	30.7	14.7	39.9	
Ireland	14.4	38.0	15.4	30.4	Low proportion in education.
United Kingdom	8.0	47.2	14.8	29.5	High proportion not in education with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education.
United States ²	12.3	41.3	12.4	33.9	Average proportion in the YALLE group.
<i>Country average</i>	11.6	42.2	14.2	31.3	High proportion with tertiary education.
Italy	26.6	34.2	1.0	38.2	High proportion in the YALLE group.
Luxembourg	19.2	33.3	3.7	42.8	Moderate proportion in education.
<i>Country average</i>	22.9	33.7	2.3	40.5	Low proportion out of education with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education.
Czech Republic	5.9	64.3	2.4	27.3	Very low proportion in the YALLE group.
Slovak Republic	5.5	68.3	2.7	23.5	Low proportion in education.
<i>Country average</i>	5.7	66.3	2.5	25.4	Highest proportion not in education with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education.
Netherlands	15.1	24.1	4.1	55.6	Countries not allocated to a group.
Iceland	30.6	21.5	1.8	46.1	
Spain	30.5	12.4	13.7	43.4	
Portugal	48.8	14.9	4.6	31.7	

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Data may not total 100 as in certain countries some persons not in education were not allocated by educational attainment.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

in the Netherlands, the proportion in education is particularly high (7 percentage points higher than the next highest, Denmark); in Portugal, the proportion of young adults without upper secondary education is by far higher than in any other countries; in Iceland and Spain, this proportion is high as well, though not quite to the same extent as in Portugal; and Spain has a large proportion of non-students with tertiary education – a sharp contrast with the situation in Iceland. Picturing the countries in such a way suggests that the structure of the education system may play a major role in understanding the situation of 20-to-24-year olds in different national settings as well as how young people may be drawn out of education by economic and labour market forces.

In some countries, the education system puts an emphasis on providing recognised labour market skills early, most often starting at the beginning of upper secondary education. This is done either through a mainly workplace-based apprenticeship system (as in Austria, Germany and Switzerland), through a mainly school-based vocational system (as in the Czech Republic, Finland, Hungary, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Sweden), or through a mix of these two approaches (as in Denmark and Norway). In all such countries where large numbers of young people move through the end of upper secondary school and eventually through an additional few years of post-secondary non-tertiary education, large proportions of 20-to-24-year-olds who are no longer in education hold such credentials which offer opportunities in skilled occupations in the labour market. Most often, a corollary of the presence of such an early structured vocational preparation is lower numbers of young people leaving the education system without any upper secondary diploma. Among this large group of countries, the cluster analysis helps in distinguishing three groups: 1) those countries (essentially the Scandinavian countries) where the tertiary education system is open and offers a variety of institutional options (university and non-university), with little access restrictions and often low or no tuition fees and where a relatively large proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds is still enrolled in education; 2) other countries (typically Austria, Germany and Switzerland) where access to universities is more selective and the non-university tertiary sector is relatively less developed, and in which, as a result, fewer young adults pursue education at the tertiary level; and 3) two Central European countries (the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic) where the tertiary sector is relatively limited and very large proportions (about two-thirds) of 20-to-24-year-olds graduate from upper secondary schools or short non-tertiary vocational schools.

Another group of countries – Australia, Belgium, Canada, France, Ireland, the United Kingdom and the United States – provide significant short-programme options in tertiary education, to the extent that about one in seven 20-to-24-year-olds not in education holds a tertiary diploma. This is substantially higher than in any other countries where no more than 5 per cent of young adults in the same age group have obtained a tertiary education diploma. This group of seven countries is, however, not quite so homogeneous in another respect: a different balance between those young adults who pursue education at the tertiary level and those who leave education after completing upper secondary schooling, rarely with a specific vocational orientation. In a first sub-group (Australia, Belgium, Canada and France), the proportion of the 20-to-24-year-old population still in education is on average 40 per cent, about 9 percentage points higher than in the second sub-group (Ireland, the United Kingdom and the United States), but lower than among Scandinavian countries and Poland (with an average of 45 per cent). On the other hand, in this second sub-group of countries, a higher proportion of young adults

leave education just upon completion of upper secondary school (about 42 per cent, 11 to 12 percentage points higher than in the first sub-group). In both sub-groups of countries, the proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education without upper secondary education (the YALLE group) is around the OECD average, from a low of 8 per cent in the United Kingdom to a high of 18 per cent in Australia.

Who are they?

What characterises the young people in the YALLE group? How do such factors as gender, family background and migrant status relate to early labour market outcomes? This study aims to document a number of equity dimensions, answering questions such as:

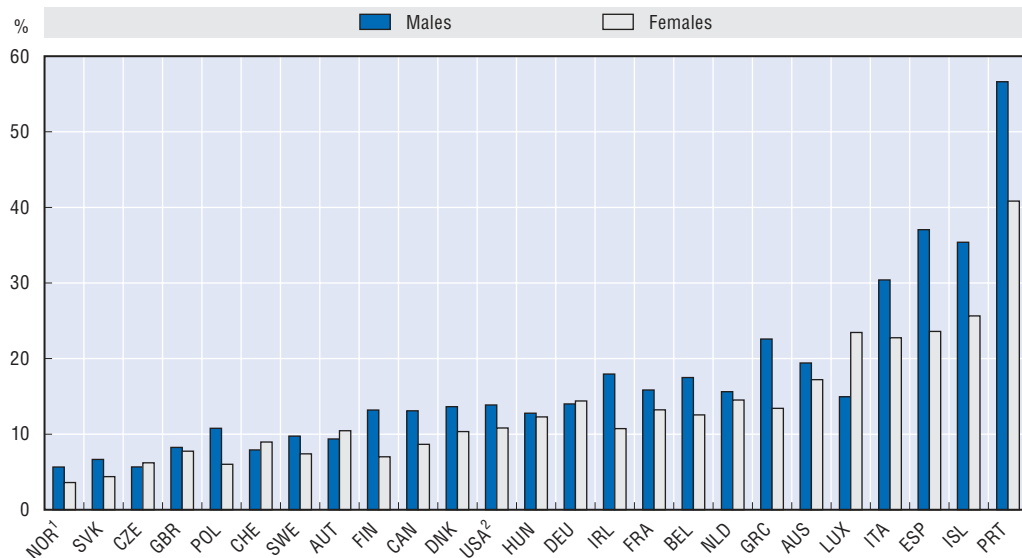
- Are young men and women facing the same risks of marginalisation in the knowledge economy due to insufficient initial education?
- Does family background play a role in making it possibly more difficult to complete a recognised minimal level of initial education?
- Do migrants overcome the specific challenges they may face considering the potential cultural and language gaps they may come with?

Young men generally more likely to leave school early

In almost all of the 25 countries, young men are in higher numbers non-students with low levels of education than young women. The few exceptions are countries such as Austria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Luxembourg and Switzerland, all countries where the education system intentionally brings preparation to employment as a stream within upper secondary school, a system that today may fit better male attitudes and possibly offer training more in what have traditionally been predominantly male jobs. However, only in Luxembourg is this pattern pronounced. On the other hand, the male disadvantage is often large both in countries with low and high magnitudes of early school leaving. In Canada, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Poland, Norway, the Slovak Republic and Spain, the proportion of young men with low levels of education is more than 50 per cent higher than that for women. In Norway and the Slovak Republic, the overall ratio is small and thus the magnitude of the male handicap remains rather low. Complementing this relative measure of the male disadvantage by considering the percentage point difference brings up a sizeable male disadvantage in few more countries where the overall incidence of low levels of education is already rather high, such as Belgium, Iceland, Italy and Portugal. This pattern echoes similar observations of different school performance in many domains between boys and girls.²

It is interesting to examine whether this is likely an enduring gender gap or whether such a gender difference could be expected to disappear as young adults get older. This study does not follow the same cohort over several years, but rather looks at the situation in 2002 for both the YALLE group and for the young adults five years older than the YALLE group at that time (25-to-29-year-olds), thus giving indications of progress or deterioration between the two groups. First, the likelihood of having a low level of education decreases from the older cohort to the younger YALLE cohort in 15 out of 25 countries for both men and women, and the decrease is larger in countries where the proportion was higher among the older cohort; in the other countries, the pattern is more mixed one: in Canada, Denmark, Norway and Sweden, the opposite actually shows up, with a modestly higher ratio of young people with low levels of education in the YALLE cohort.

Figure 2.4. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education, by gender (2002)**



1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

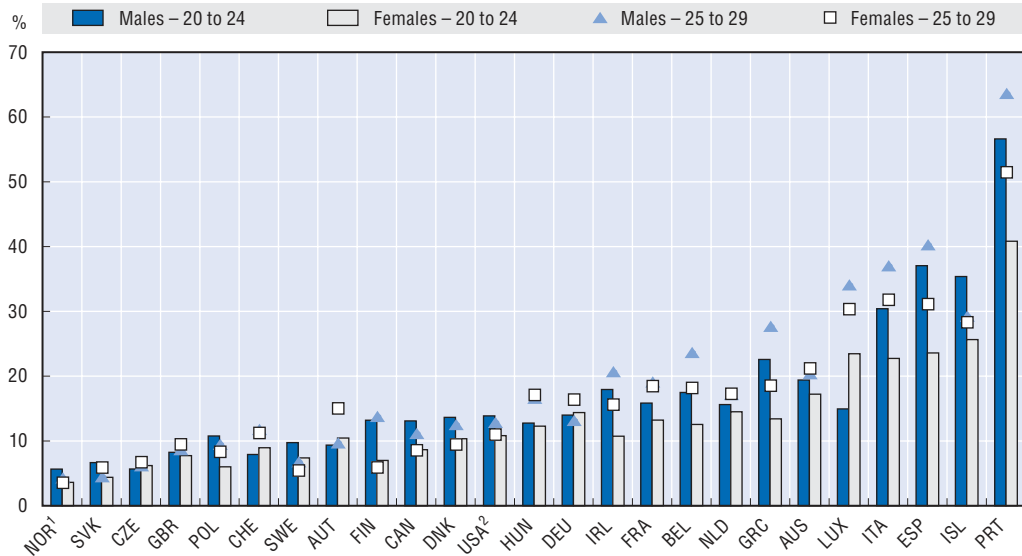
In five other countries (Germany, Iceland, Poland, the Slovak Republic and the United States), the decrease is only to the benefit of young women, while men experience an increase; the opposite happened in Finland, albeit only modestly. Second, as the decrease from the older cohort to YALLE cohort is most often higher for women than it is for men, the gender gap is generally larger among the 20-to-24-year-olds. This means that the relative situation of young men compared with that of young women tends to deteriorate, even if in most countries, the proportion of young people of both sexes with low levels of education tends to decrease.

Likelihood of arriving at adulthood with a low qualification related to family background

Achieving the recognised minimal level of education for today's world, *i.e.* successfully completing upper secondary school, appears more difficult for young people from a disadvantaged family background. This study uses parental education as a proxy indication of family socio-economic background.³ As the analysis is restricted to the population of young adults living with their parents (the only group of young people for whom the education of parents is known), it is important to assess first the proportion of the youth aged 15 to 29 years who live with parents.

Naturally, as young people get older and establish themselves as independent households, their likelihood of living in their parents' home diminishes. But this process is by no means a uniform one across countries. In all 15 countries covered for this indicator, at least 90 per cent of 15-to-19-year-olds live with parents, and the proportion is barely different between young men and young women – no more than a 5 percentage points with the likelihood of living with parents generally higher for young men.

Figure 2.5. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds and 25-to-29-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education, by gender (2002)**

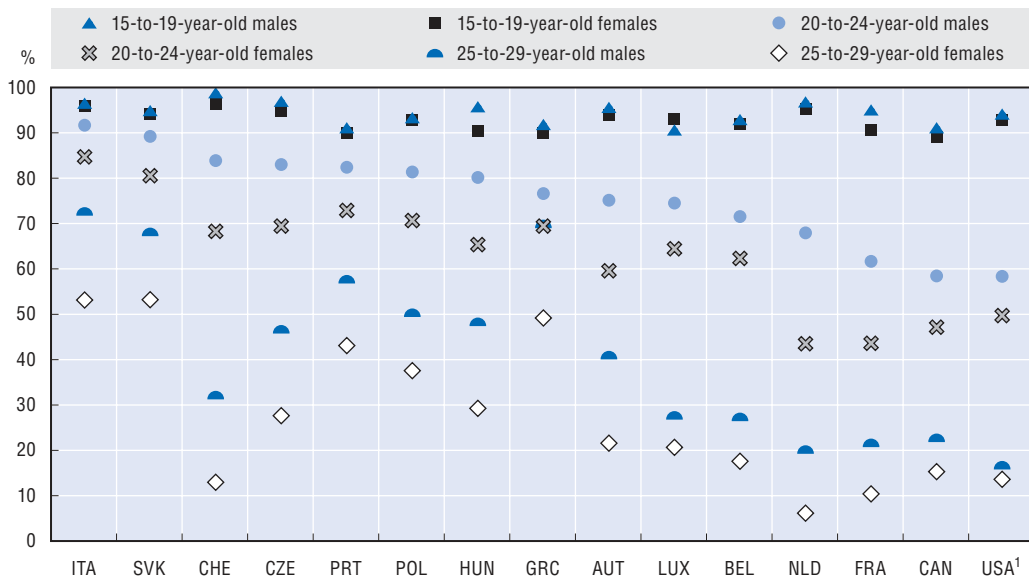


1. 2003 data.
2. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Figure 2.6. **Percentage of young people living with parents, by age group and gender (2002)**



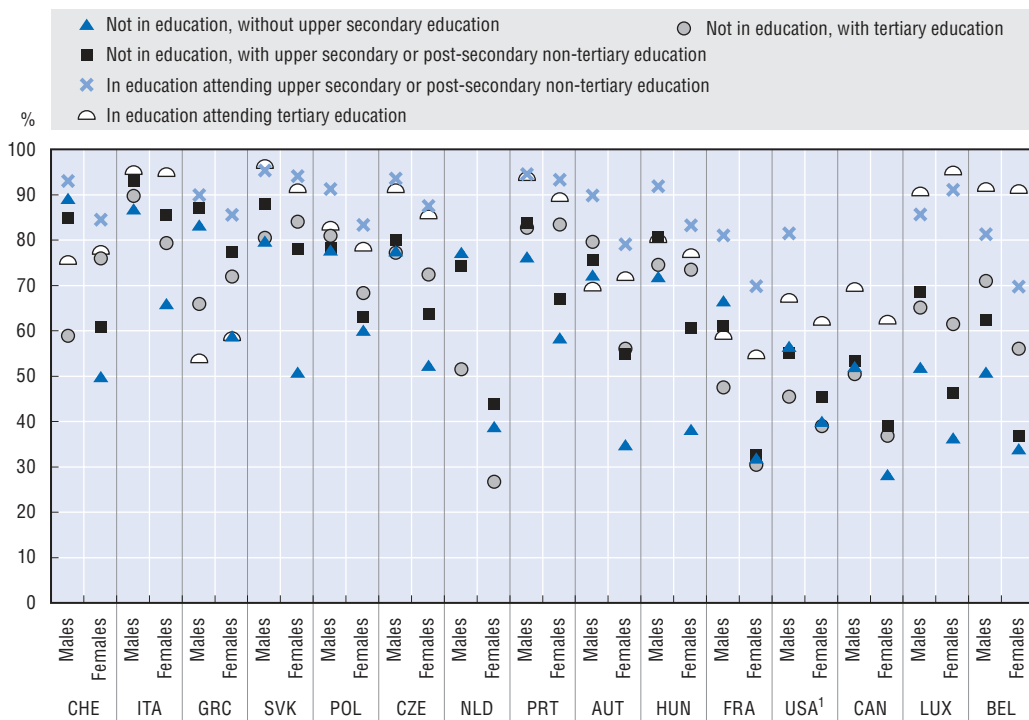
1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-old males living with parents.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Greater national and gender differentiation occurs as young people get five and ten years older. In Canada and the United States, more than 40 per cent of 20-to-24-year-old men and more than half of women the same age have left their parents' homes. In France and the Netherlands, while young women are more often independent of their parents than in North America (only 44 per cent live with parents), young men are less so (62 and 68 per cent, respectively). Still, in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland, more than 80 per cent of 20-to-24-year-old men live with parents; in these same countries the proportion of young women living with parents is 7 to 16 percentage points lower. Clearly, such differences between countries have to be kept in mind when trying to relate the young people's situation with their family background.

Figure 2.7. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds living with parent(s), by gender and education situation (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-old males not in education and without upper secondary education, living with parents.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

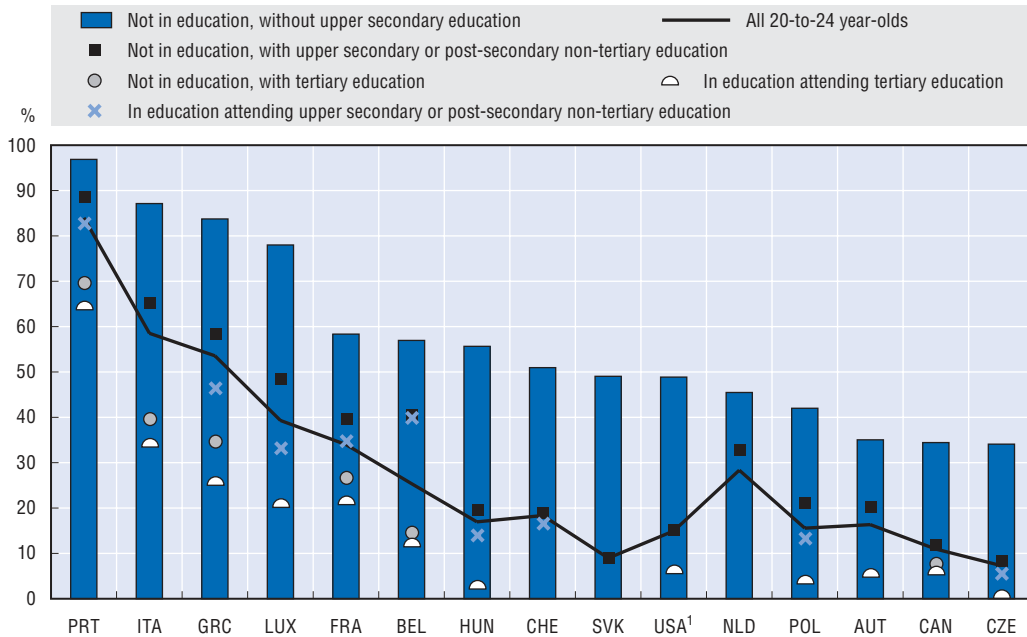
The situation with respect to education – whether a young person is still a student or a non-student, and differing levels of educational attainment – affects the likelihood of living with parents. As expected, students are generally more likely to live with parents as they usually have fewer means of financial independence.⁴ However, young adults attending institutions at tertiary level are often more likely to live away from home, in the place where their selected programmes are available. Generally, more than 80 per cent of students attending non-tertiary institutions live with parents while, in countries such as France and Greece, more than 40 per cent of tertiary students live away from their family homes;⁵ in Canada and the United States, this ratio is in the range of 30 to 38 per cent.

Among non-students, it may be expected that the higher the level of educational attainment, the higher the proportion of young adults living away from home, assuming that greater independence comes with likely increasing financial returns as attainment goes up. Such a pattern is not borne out by the available data in most countries, although it appears to be the pattern presented by the average situation for men and women, across the countries for which such data are available when comparing non-students with tertiary attainment to those with lower levels. It appears to be the case in only four of the groups of men or women not in education in France, the Netherlands, Switzerland and the United States, and, in these countries, only for men. In fact, the reverse pattern – where the non-students with higher attainments are more likely to live with parents than is the case of those with the lowest – is clearly more frequent, and can be observed for young women in 9 of the 15 countries for which data are available (see note 3) and for young men in only two (Austria and Belgium). In Austria, Belgium, Hungary, Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, Italy and the Slovak Republic, the YALLE group is the least likely group of 20-to-24-year-olds (both men and women) to live with parents, while in Canada, the Czech Republic, Greece and Switzerland, this applies just to women. But variations across countries remain quite large: for example, 89 per cent of 20-to-24-year-old non-student men without upper secondary education live with their parents in Switzerland, compared with only 51 per cent in Belgium, and 66 per cent of 20-to-24-year-old non-student women without upper secondary education live with their parents in Italy, compared with only 28 per cent in Canada. Two main explanations for this somewhat unexpected pattern are discernable. The first one appears aligned with the logic behind the comparison groups referred to earlier (Table 2.1): among all 20-to-24-year-olds, those who have left the education system early – most likely the case of those who have not graduated from upper secondary school – have had more time to establish themselves in the labour market and earn a living, be it a modest one, hence live independently of their parents. The second is that young women with no educational credentials are more likely than young men to get married or enter into a relationship that draws them away from the family home.⁶

Taking into consideration the differing likelihood across countries that young people live with their parents, the main question in relation to equity is whether or not young adults who have not successfully completed upper secondary school are more likely than other young adults – both students and non-students with higher educational attainments – to come from families where neither of the parents completed upper secondary education (proxy information for low socio-economic status). Figure 2.8 provides information as to whether 20-to-24-year-olds in various situations with respect to education attendance or attainment are more or less likely to come from families with less educated parents. Because the level of education of parents is only known when young people and their parents live in the same location, this comparison is limited to young adults living with parents.

The proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds living with parents who have no parent with upper secondary education (the line with hollow circles in Figure 2.8) is closely related to the distribution of educational attainment in their parents' generation.⁷ It is high in countries where the educational attainment of the older generation is relatively low (Greece, Italy and Portugal), and it is low in countries where the older generation is highly educated (Austria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Poland, the Slovak Republic and the United States). If the educational attainment or attendance of children were independent of that of their parents, it would be expected that young adults in any situation with respect to education would have parents themselves with low levels of education in the same proportion as

Figure 2.8. **Percentage of 20-to-24 year-olds living with parents and whose parents have not attained upper secondary education, by educational situation (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education and living with parents, where none of the parents have attained upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection. *Education at a Glance: 2004 Edition*, Table A2.2.

20-to-24-year-olds living with such parents. The degrees to which they differ are signs that parents' education bears an influence on their children's educational attainment. In all countries, the YALLE group is the most likely to be living with less educated parents, among the five sub-groups of 20-to-24-year-olds (by educational attainment for non-students and by level attended for students). In most countries, their relative disadvantage is fairly large: measured by the percentage point difference between the percentage for the YALLE group and the one for the whole 20-to-24-year-old population (on Figure 2.8, the difference between the top of the bars and the line with hollow circles), the disadvantage surpasses 30 percentage points in seven countries, i.e. (from greatest to least) in the Slovak Republic, Hungary, Luxembourg, the United States, Switzerland, Belgium and Greece. On the other hand, it is lower than 20 percentage points in only three countries: Austria, the Netherlands and Portugal. Considering the general magnitude of the YALLE group's disadvantage, the equity concern seems justified. It will be important to see whether this translates into similar disadvantages in early labour market outcomes, later in this study.

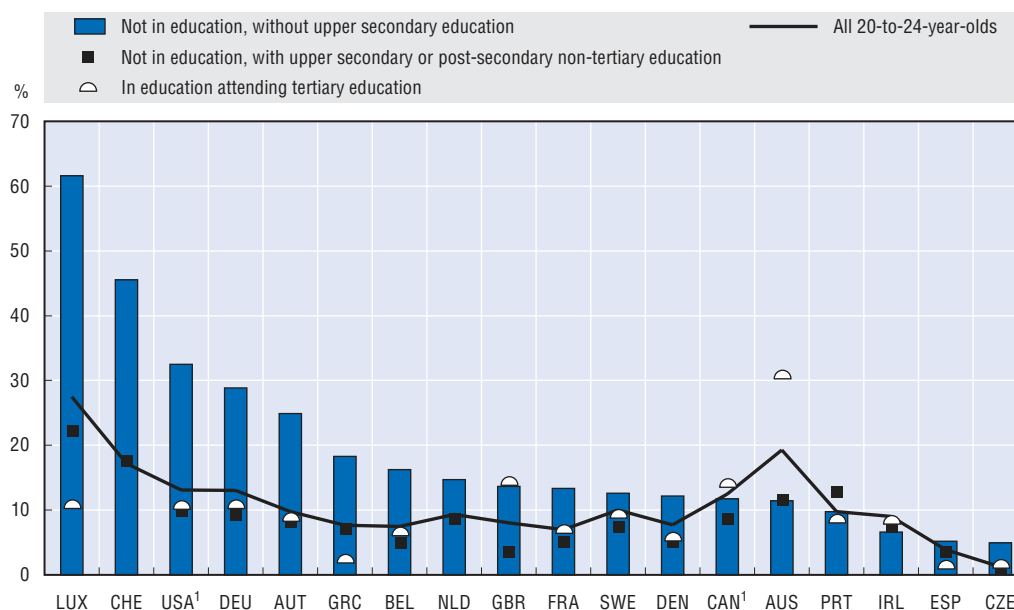
Another equity issue relates to the situation of migrants. In some countries, the immigrant population forms a sizeable part of the total population and, largely depending on their origin, may face specific challenges in adapting to new languages and cultures. The data collected allow some insight into this issue; it is possible to identify whether the young adults were born in the country of residence or in another country.⁸

The proportion of immigrants in the 20-to-24-year-old population shows large variations among countries, from a low of 1.3 per cent in the Czech Republic to a high of 28 per cent in Luxembourg. This ratio is higher than 10 per cent in seven countries;

in addition to Luxembourg and in decreasing magnitude of the ratio, these countries are Australia, Switzerland, the United States, Germany, Canada and Sweden.

In most countries, the immigrant population is at a significant disadvantage with respect to educational attainment. Figure 2.9 contrasts the percentage of foreign-born young people among the YALLE population with that percentage among the 20-to-24-year-old non-students who have attained upper secondary education or non-tertiary post-secondary education and among those who are studying towards tertiary education credentials. The higher relative concentration of immigrants among the non-students with no completed upper secondary education is quite striking in Austria, Belgium, Germany, Greece, Luxembourg, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States, a list that includes several countries in which the education system operates early streaming towards vocationally oriented programmes. Only in four countries, Australia, Canada, Ireland and Portugal, is being born out of the country not a disadvantage when the proportion of immigrants in the YALLE group is compared with that in the total 20-to-24-year-old population. These different patterns are likely to be related to the role and characteristics of the country's immigration policies, the pool of countries from which the immigrants come, and the potential cultural and language gap that may exist between immigrants and the prevailing culture and language in the established national education systems.

Figure 2.9. **Percentage of 20-to-24 year-olds not born in the country, by educational situation (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of all 20-to-24-year-olds without upper secondary education, not born in the country.

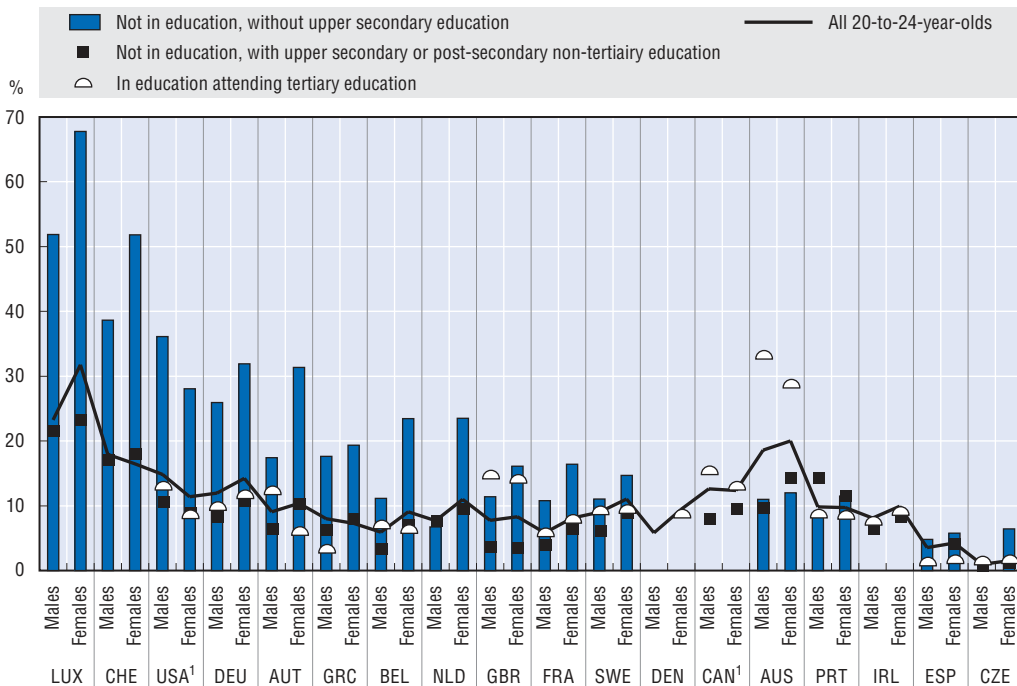
Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

It is worth noting that, in a few countries such as Australia, Canada, Ireland and the United Kingdom, there is a large foreign-born population of students at tertiary level as these countries are attracting foreign mobile students who come specifically for the purpose of study. Thus, the fact that a relatively high proportion of students in tertiary

education are foreign-born may not reflect greater access to tertiary studies for permanent resident, foreign-born young people. This suggests that the most relevant group with which to compare the YALLE group is that of upper secondary school and post-secondary non-tertiary graduates. Such a comparison shows clearly that, in all countries except Australia, Ireland and Portugal, there exist a significant disadvantage for immigrants: the proportion of immigrants among non-student 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education is higher than among the graduates of upper secondary school and post-secondary non-tertiary education. The disadvantage gap is often quite substantial, with a difference of more than 10 percentage points between these two groups in 8 of the 18 countries considered here.

While young men suffer generally a greater disadvantage in completing upper secondary education, this disadvantage is greater for women among immigrants (compare the pairs of blue bars for each country in Figure 2.10). This is the case in almost all countries for which the data allow such a detailed disaggregation, and the difference between the genders is sometimes large, as in Austria, Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Switzerland. In the United States, the balance is more favourable to young women by a small margin. These gender gaps are much larger than the ones found for the other groups of the same age.

Figure 2.10. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not born in the country, by educational situation and gender (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of all 20-to-24-year-olds without upper secondary education, not born in the country. Some data points are missing due to population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Notes

1. See Table C4.1b in *Education at Glance 2004* (OECD, 2004).
2. Recent evidence has been provided with the PISA 2003 results. See *Learning for Tomorrow's World – First Results from PISA 2003* (OECD, 2004).
3. Appropriate data are available through labour force surveys in countries where such surveys are based on household sampling and where young people, the subjects of the study, live with at least one of their parents. In such cases, a link can be established between the young people's situation and certain characteristics, including education level, of the parents present in the household's dwelling. Because of these specific survey requirements, analysis related to family background is limited to 15 of the 25 countries.
4. In labour force surveys, information is collected for all members of the household (those 15 or 16 years old and over) for whom the selected dwelling is the usual place of residence. Often, students living in university residence are still considered as living with parents. This may introduce some imprecision in various ratios that cannot be accounted for.
5. In France, students receive significant public assistance to rent their own apartment, which may, in part, explain the higher ratio of French students not living away in their parents' residences.
6. Although this point cannot be substantiated by data collected in the context of this YALLE analysis, it is certainly supported by Canadian labour force survey data and by other surveys that have shown the role of family-related reasons in explaining early school leaving behaviour for young women (see, for example, Bowlby and McMullen, 2002).
7. These ratios are aligned with the percentage of the population aged 45 to 54 years (a likely age range for parents of 20-to-24-year-olds) that has not attained at least upper secondary education (comparison is made with data from *Education at a Glance 2004* [OECD, 2004]). The only exceptions are for Poland and Belgium, for no identifiable reason.
8. The analysis related to migrants is pertinent – and statistically possible – only in countries where migrants are a significant proportion of the population groups being studied. Basic counts are significant in 18 of the 25 countries. However, some of these countries are dropped when the analysis goes into further detail.

References

- Bowlby, J. and K. McMullen (2002), *At a Crossroads – First Results for the 18-to-20-Year-Old Cohort of the Youth in Transition Survey*, Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, Ottawa.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2004), *Education at a Glance: 2004 Edition*, OECD, Paris.
- OECD (2004), *Learning for Tomorrow's World – First Results from PISA 2003*, OECD, Paris.

Chapter 3

Non-participation in the Labour Market

A relatively large proportion of young adults with low levels of education – mainly women – do not participate in the labour force. This chapter reviews the pattern of non-participation in the labour market, examining how it is affected by young adults' levels of education, gender, living arrangements and place of birth.

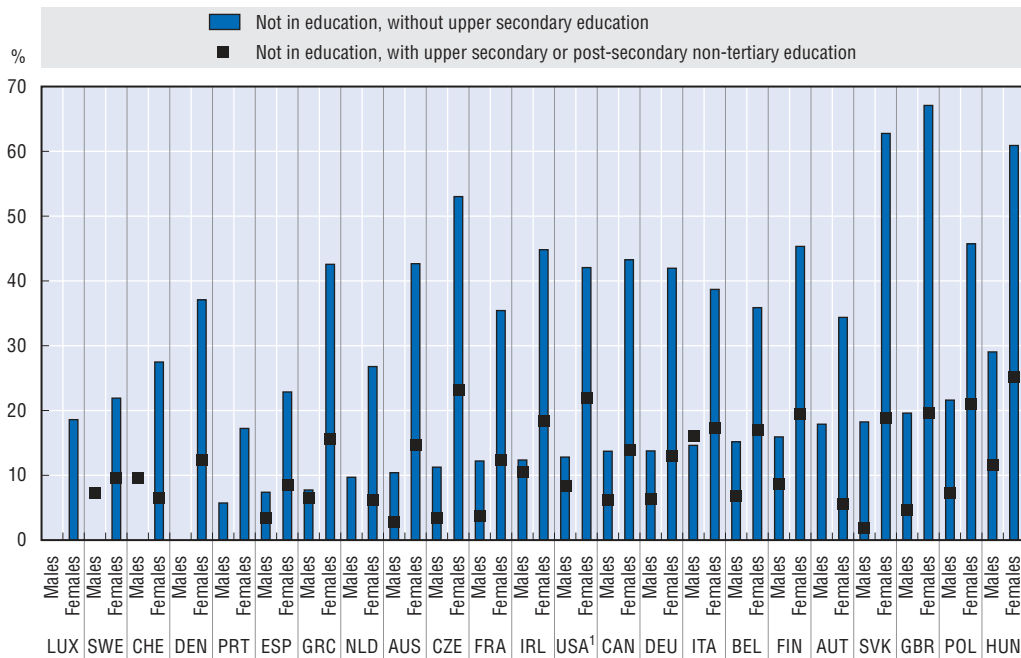
The impact of education level, gender, living with parents and immigration

Non-participation in the labour force is much higher among those not in education who have not completed upper secondary education than among those who have graduated or obtained post-secondary non-tertiary credentials. Clearly, obtaining a basic education eases access to jobs and the lack of it increases the risk of social marginalisation. In all countries, there is a large difference between the rate of women's participation in the labour force and that of men, with fewer men being non-participants. In the YALLE group, this difference in participation is much larger than that observed among upper secondary and non-tertiary graduates. In Denmark, Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland, the non-participation rate for young men with low levels of education is below 10 per cent.¹ In all other countries, this rate is still below 20 per cent, except in Hungary (29 per cent) and Poland (22 per cent). The same rate is almost never above 10 per cent among the young men who hold an upper secondary diploma or non-tertiary credentials.

It is not unexpected that the situation is different for young women, but the magnitude of the difference bears some attention, especially the situation of those without basic education as compared with that of those who have a minimal level. Among young women with basic credentials, the rate of non-participation is higher than 20 per cent in only the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and the United States. However, among young women without such a level of education, it is higher than 20 per cent in all but Luxembourg and Portugal, and in the majority of countries, the rate of non-participation of low-skilled women is above 40 per cent, even above 60 per cent in Hungary, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom. Early family formation, child-bearing and child-rearing certainly play a role, as these factors are likely to have more immediate impact on women's educational and early labour market careers. Such situations, however, may put some pressure on national social safety nets as these young women may have immediate financial needs and great difficulty in obtaining decent paying jobs once they become available for work.

Living with parents would seem a logical way of coping with a lack of resources associated with non-participation in the labour market. Figure 3.2 compares the rates of non-participation in the labour force for those not in education aged 20 to 24 years when they live with parents² with the rates for all those not in education,³ whether or not they live with parents, for the YALLE group and for those who have a secondary school or non-tertiary credentials. For young men, the two rates align almost perfectly, i.e. young men with low levels of education living with parents and those not living with parents present the same

Figure 3.1. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by gender and educational attainment (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-old males not in education and without upper secondary education, and who are not in the labour force. Some data points are missing due to population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

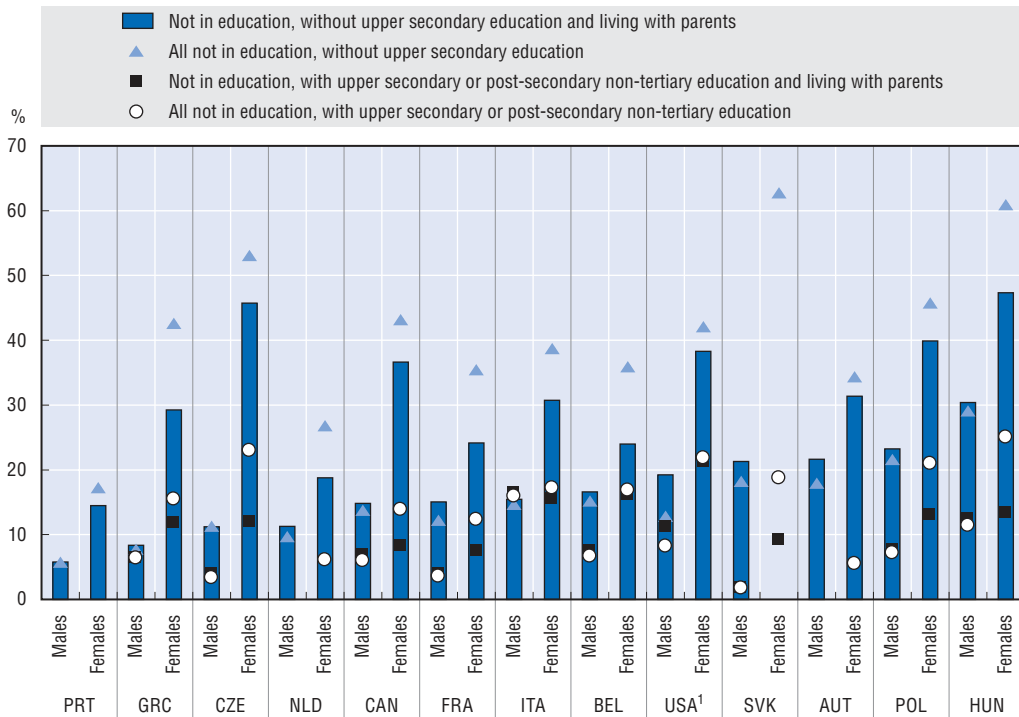
Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

labour market non-participation patterns. It is also the same alignment for those men with upper secondary and non-tertiary credentials. The only exception in both cases is the United States, where young men with low levels of education living with parents tend to have a higher rate of non-participation in the labour force (a difference of 6 percentage points).

Again, the pattern is somewhat different for women. Young women who live with parents have a lower non-participation rate than those who do not live with parents. It is likely that, leaving parental home, these young women have initiated some independent living arrangements on their own or with a partner, with or without child rearing responsibilities. Canadian data show that 20-to-24-year-old women with low levels of education are the most likely to be married or live with a partner (46 per cent) in comparison with young women with upper secondary school or higher (30 per cent). Staying with parents may provide the necessary resources when it is difficult for a young woman to find a place in the labour market. The availability of affordable day care for young children and the extent of the country's social security safety net (and how it compares with the going minimum wage) are all likely to be elements considered by these young women when establishing independent living arrangements away from parents.

Foreign-born young adults with low levels of education are more liable to be non-participants in the labour force (Figure 3.3). In Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, 35 to 50 per cent of such immigrants are not in the labour force. This is clearly much higher than for the same age group born in the country. In the five other countries for which data are available (Australia, Austria, Greece, Spain and the United States),

Figure 3.2. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by gender, educational attainment and living status (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-old males not in education and without upper secondary education, who are living with parents and who are not in the labour force. Some data points are missing due to population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

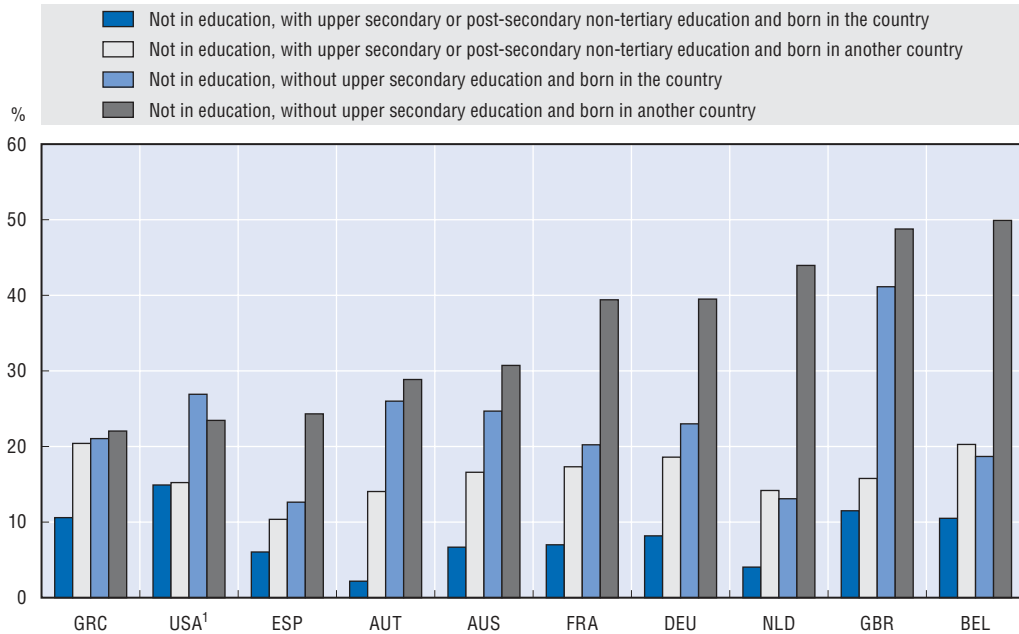
Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

the non-participation rates for immigrants are lower than 31 per cent and generally much closer to the rates for natives (in Spain, the difference is fairly large, but the rate for immigrants is still below 25 per cent). In all countries except Spain and the United Kingdom, more than four in five of these foreign-born non-labour-force participants with low levels of education are women. This may indicate that they face a greater challenge to entering the job market, but it also suggests a different approach to working life relative to the cultural backgrounds of immigrant women. The type of immigrants entering a country (those who are labour market-ready versus refugees, for example) may also explain in part the distribution of educational attainment among immigrants and may affect their labour market outcomes.

As this shows, non-participation in the labour force is a characteristic more prevalent among the young adults with low levels of education than among those with at least some minimal educational credentials, although such a situation may be a temporary one. Furthermore, young people with some prior labour market experience might eventually build on this experience when searching for a job. Those who have never had the opportunity to hold a job, however, may face an additional challenge if and when they need or would like to get a job. How many of these young adults are actually not in the labour force and also without any work experience?

Figure 3.4 provides evidence that in all countries less than 20 per cent of young men with no educational credentials and not in the labour force have never had a job and in most cases this figure is actually less than 10 per cent. For young women, however,

Figure 3.3. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by educational attainment and migrant status (2002)**

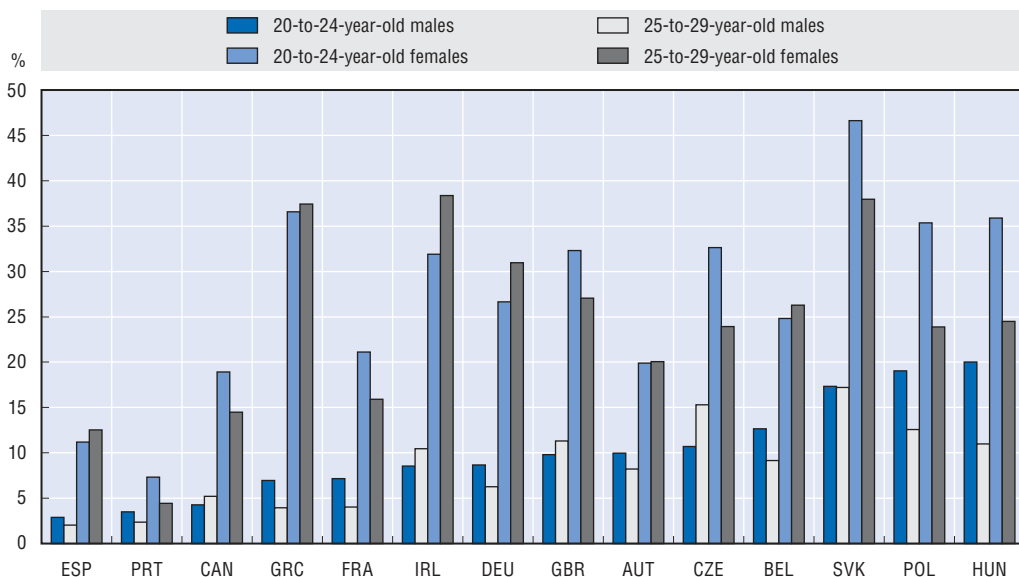


1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the percentage of 20-to-24-year-old not in education and without upper secondary education, who were born in another country and who are not in the labour force.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Figure 3.4. **Percentage of those not in education with low levels of educational attainment, not in the labour force and who have never had a job, by age and gender (2002)**



Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of 20-to-24 year-old men not in the labour force and not in education, without upper secondary education, who never had a job.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

the situation is quite different. While this percentage is almost as low as for women as for men in Spain and Portugal, it is often much higher, over 25 per cent, in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Poland, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom. In some countries, the proportion of young women with low levels of education who are not in the labour force and who have no work experience decreases as these women get older, which shows that late entry, even without educational credentials is possible. This is the case in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom. However, in countries such as Ireland and Germany, fewer 20-to-24-year-old women have no job experience than in the older age cohort, and the proportion is about the same in Austria, Belgium and Greece.

Notes

1. Although data are not fully reported on Figure 3.1 for Denmark, Luxembourg, Sweden and Switzerland because of low population estimates, they can nevertheless safely be associated with this group.
2. Appropriate data are available through labour force surveys in countries where such surveys are based on household sampling and where young people, the subjects of the study, live with at least one of their parents. In such cases, a link can be established between the young people's situation and certain characteristics, including education level, of the parents present in the household's dwelling. Because of these specific survey requirements, analysis related to family background is limited to 15 of the 25 countries.
3. This comparison is used to maximize use of the sample. A comparison with only those who do not live with parents would have brought the population considered – that of non-participants in the labour force – below the thresholds presented in Table 1.3 for several countries.

Chapter 4

Young Adults with Low Levels of Education in Employment

This chapter first gives a detailed review of the general employment patterns of the YALLE group in comparison with other groups in the same age range but with more education and with other groups who also lack education credentials but are slightly older, and it assesses the advantage that further education and/or experience may provide. It then examines whether living with parents or being born outside of the country may be linked to different employment outcomes. This chapter also examines the occupational characteristics of the jobs held by the YALLE group, especially with regards to access to skilled occupations, and considers the distribution of employment by industry, examining the conditions for accessing jobs in the upper-tier services where jobs offering greater training opportunities are more abundant. Finally, further characteristics of employment and the bearing low educational attainment has on them (short-tenure jobs, non-permanent jobs, part-time jobs) are reviewed.

General patterns of employment

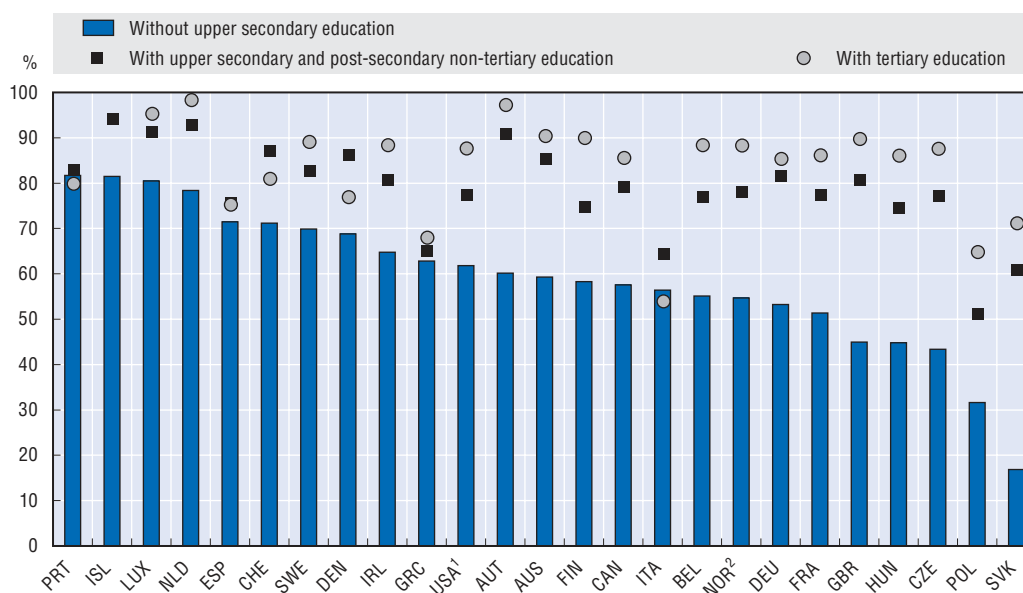
In all countries, except Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, young adults with low levels of education have a significantly lower employment rate¹ than other 20-to-24-year-old non-students who have gained educational credentials either at the upper secondary and non-tertiary level or at the tertiary level.

In fact, in most countries, a well-documented general pattern holds true for this specific age group: the higher the educational attainment, the higher the likelihood of being employed. In countries other than Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, the difference in the employment rate between the young adults with low levels of education and the upper secondary/non-tertiary ones is at least 11 percentage points (Luxembourg) and up to 44 percentage points (the Slovak Republic). On the low end are countries like Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Ireland, the Netherlands, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States, all with a difference smaller than 20 percentage points. In this group, the employment rate of young adults with low levels education is above 60 per cent, except for Finland and Poland. On the high end, starting from just above a difference of 20 percentage points, are all other countries, *i.e.* Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Norway and the United Kingdom. In this group of countries, only Austria passes the 60 per cent mark for the employment rate of its low educated young adults. The magnitude of the employment disadvantage varies greatly among OECD countries.

In Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, a different pattern is found: employment rates never differ by more than 8 percentage points among the three educational groups. The structures of the countries' labour markets and, specifically of the entry into first jobs, as well as the greater availability of less skilled jobs explain this different pattern.

It is interesting to note that the employment performance of the YALLE group is highly correlated with the relative size of the group in the young adult population: the larger the YALLE population, the lower its employment disadvantage (measured in comparison with the employment situation of those young adults with upper secondary and non-tertiary

Figure 4.1. **Employment rates for 20-to-24 year-olds not in education, by level of educational attainment (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

2. 2003 data.

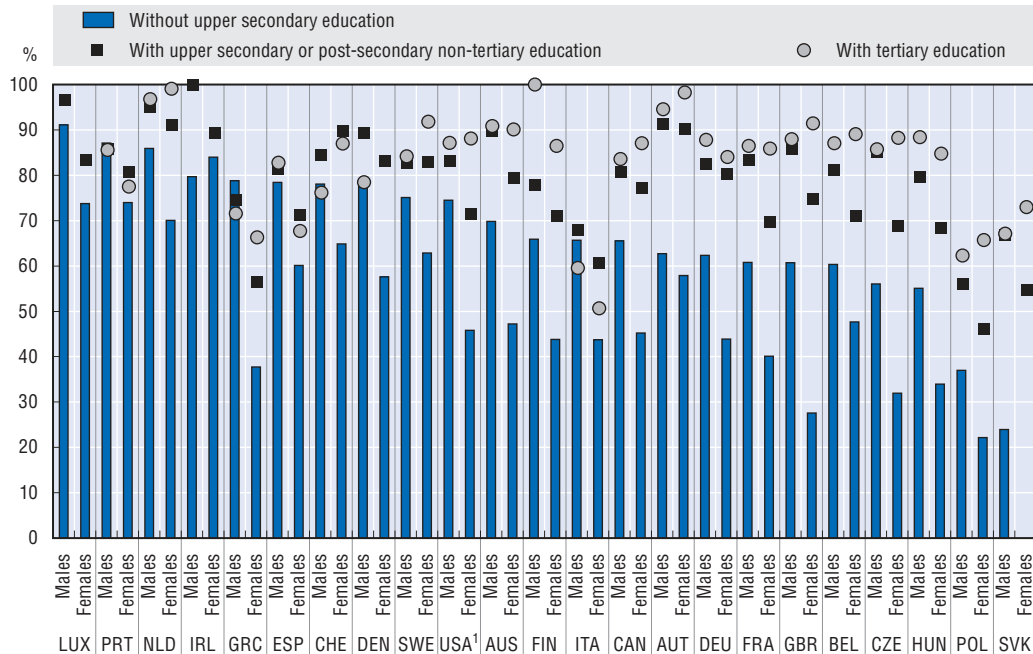
Countries are ranked in descending order of the employment rate of 20-to-24 year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

credentials).² In addition, based on the labour market indicators (Table 1.1), a relationship between labour market conditions and the employment situation of young adults can be discerned. In 8 of the 12 countries where the employment rate of the YALLE group was above 60 per cent, labour market conditions in 2002 were estimated as good or very good (mainly in comparison with the average conditions of the 1990s). It is surprising, however, that there is a relatively low employment rate for the same group in three other countries where labour market conditions were very good: in Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom, employment rates were 59 per cent, 58 per cent and 45 per cent, respectively, and yet in 2002 there was a large gap between the YALLE group and young adults with tangible educational credentials, who seem to have benefited from the good labour market conditions.

Reflecting in large part the difference noted in labour force participation,³ young men and women present large differences in employment rates, with men being generally more likely than women to be employed. The gender gap in the YALLE group surpasses 20 percentage points in 12 countries. These are (ranked in the order of decreasing magnitude): Greece (41 points), the United Kingdom (33), the United States (29), Ireland (26), the Czech Republic (24), Australia (23), Finland (22), Italy (22), Hungary (21), France (21), Canada (20) and Denmark (20). Such a gender gap is always considerably higher among young adults with low levels of education than among better educated young adults. The highest gender difference is 18 percentage points in Greece for young adults with upper secondary or non-tertiary credentials and in 12 countries the difference is less than 10 percentage points. This shows a clear educational advantage in accessing employment, with significant differences between men and women. The following indicators will attempt to measure this in a more systematic way.

Figure 4.2. **Employment rates for 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, by gender and level of educational attainment (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

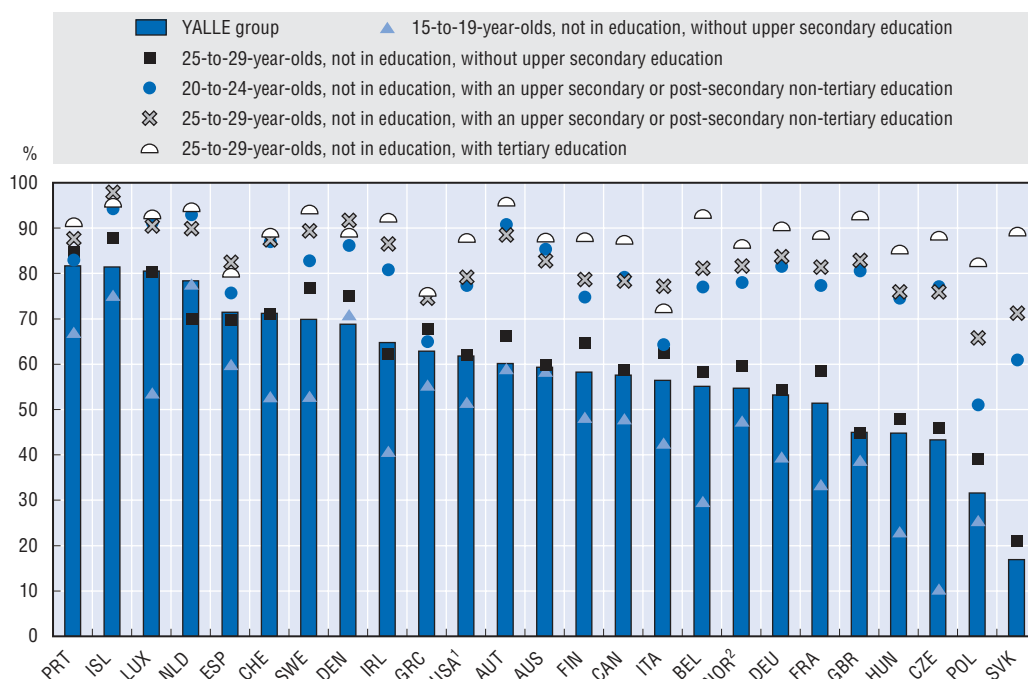
Countries are ranked in descending order of the employment rate of 20-to-24 year-old males not in education and without upper secondary education. Some data points are missing due to population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Figure 4.3 extends the comparison of employment rates to all comparison groups as they were defined in Table 1.2. In all countries, more educated young adults, whatever their age, have a higher chance of being employed. Younger non-students with low levels of education (the 15-to-19-year-olds) are captured in the national labour force surveys shortly after dropping out of secondary school. In most countries, their employment rate is lower than that of the YALLE group. Older (the 25-to-29-year-olds) non-students with low levels of education, however, in most countries exhibit only marginal differences from the YALLE group, suggesting that only limited employment gains can be expected from potentially longer experiences in the labour market if an individual does not have minimal educational credentials.

Using specific comparison groups, the relative benefits of either more education or additional experience in the labour force can be assessed. Taking the YALLE group as the main reference group, an education advantage can be measured as the difference in employment rate between the 20-to-24-year-olds with upper secondary or non-tertiary attainment and the YALLE group, the difference between the two groups being essentially one of educational attainment with generally limited scope for a significant difference in labour market experience.⁴ An experience advantage can be measured as the difference in employment rate between the 25-to-29-year-olds with low levels of education and the YALLE group, the difference between the two groups resting only on their likely different lengths of time in the labour market.⁵

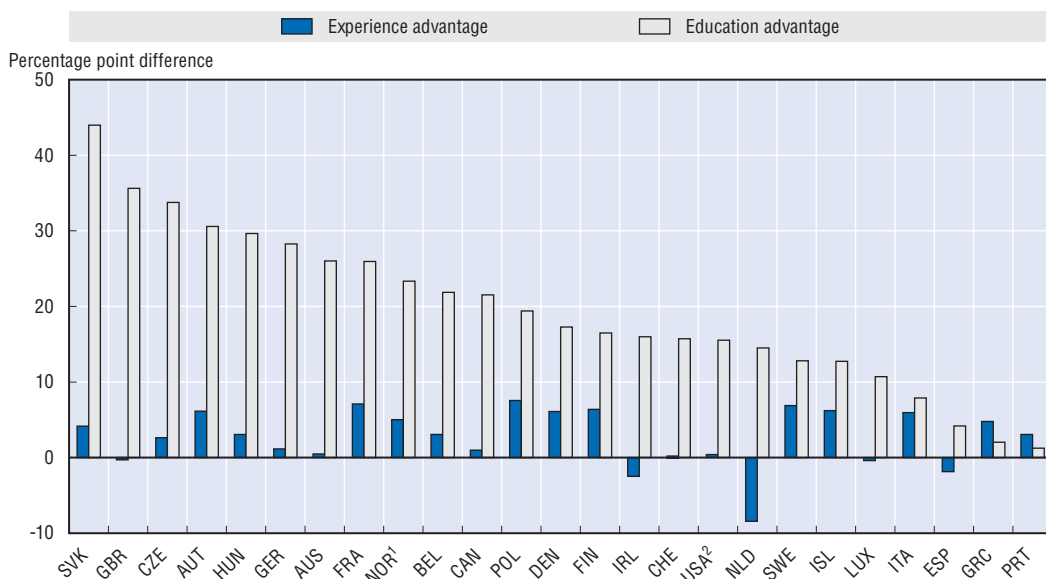
Looking first at the evidence for both sexes, there is strong evidence that education is the key ingredient in an early positive employment experience and that, in general, experience would only play a relatively marginal role in improving the YALLE group's

Figure 4.3. **Employment rates for the YALLE group and comparison groups (2002)**

1. 2001 data.
2. 2003 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the employment rate of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Figure 4.4. **A measure of experience and education advantages in comparison with the YALLE group (2002)**

1. 2003 data.
2. 2001 data.

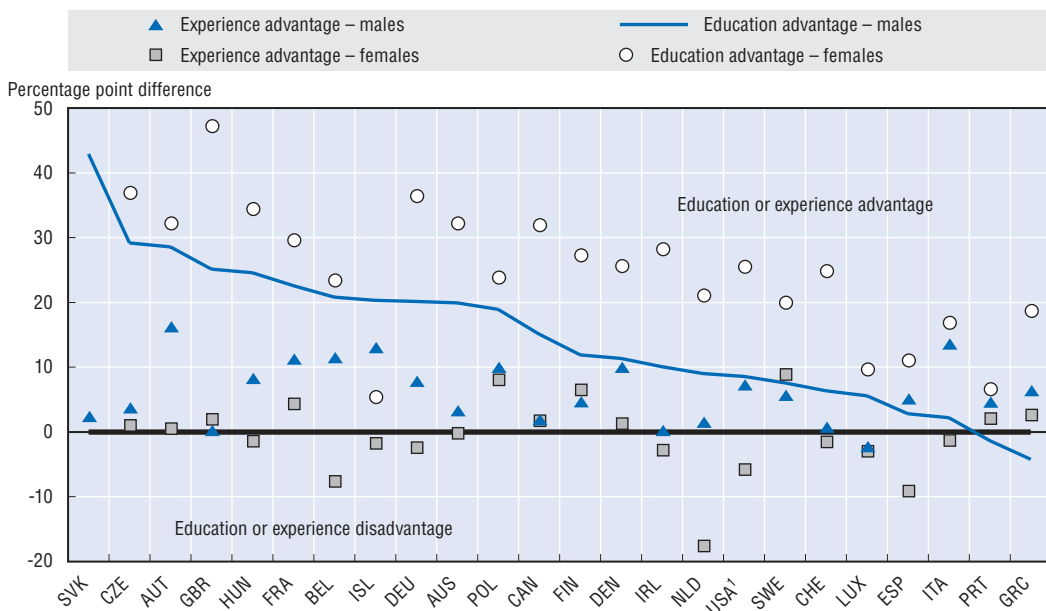
Countries are ranked in descending order of the difference in employment rate between 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, and 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

employment experience – at least in the quantitative terms measured here. An average of five more years that could potentially be spent acquiring more experience in the labour market would nowhere yield gains in employment rate of 8 percentage points or higher and would even be above 5 percentage points in only nine countries. On the other hand, the education advantage is generally large, even if quite different in magnitude among countries. It is the largest (more than 30 percentage points) in Austria, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom. In further seven countries, it amounts to more than 20 percentage points. It appears to be lower than 10 percentage points in Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, where the employment rate is not much different by level of educational attainment and where education and experience advantages are of about the same small magnitude.

The picture of gender differences in education and experience advantages provided in Figure 4.5 reveals an interesting pattern: in almost all countries, young women have much more to gain from higher educational attainment and significantly less to gain – and even occasionally more to lose – from a longer potential labour market experience than have men. As the labour market career of young women is generally more affected by family formation and possible childbearing, it is likely that young women accumulate less time in the labour force than do men over a similar period in young adulthood. This is certainly a part of the explanation for the lower – even often negative – effect of the experience advantage. Although women generally have lower employment rates than men at all levels of educational attainment, the rewards drawn from education in terms of employment are quantitatively much higher. This comes from the fact that women’s employment rates are

Figure 4.5. **Comparative measures of experience and education advantages, by gender (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the difference in employment rate between 20-to-24-year-old males not in education and with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education and 20-to-24-year-old males not in education and without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

more similar to those of men as the level of education rises; hence the gender gap in terms of employment rates is highest for those who have not completed upper secondary education. There are three likely explanations for this:

- Young women and men leave school before completing upper secondary education for different reasons: family-related reasons are more important for women, leading them more often to non-participation in the labour market, while labour market reasons are more prevalent among men, which lead them to searching for a job. This contributes to the gender gap in employment rate of the less educated young adults.
- Men leaving secondary school can get well-paid blue collar jobs, whereas pay for female-dominated jobs at relatively comparable skill levels are very low, leading to a stronger incentive for women to get additional skills through further initial education and, consequently, to become more employable. This reality is perceived and translated into action by a large number of young women who, in most countries are less likely to leave secondary school before graduation than are young men.
- Women more often aim for occupations with specific education requirements (such as nursing and teaching) and that lead to more or less guaranteed jobs at the end of the course of study.

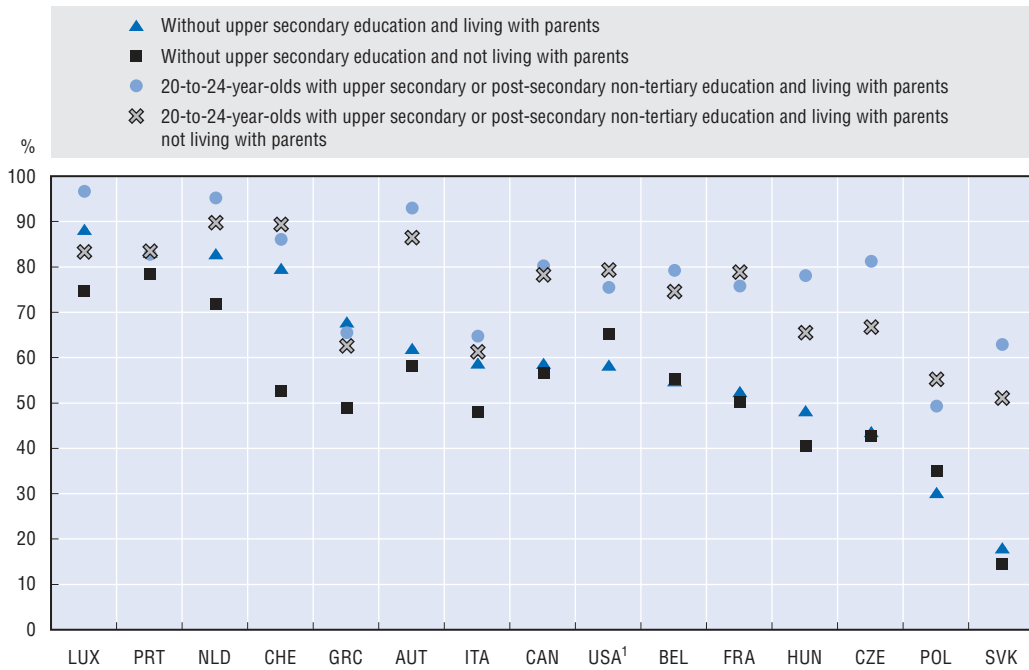
On average in the countries covered in this study, entering the labour market with upper secondary or non-tertiary education gives young women an increased advantage over that of young men of 13 percentage points, in comparison with the employment rate performance of the YALLE group. Again, around this average of 13 percentage points lie significant country differences. The increased advantage of women over that of men can be as high as 23 percentage points in Greece and 22 percentage points in the United Kingdom, above 15 percentage points in Canada, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Switzerland and the United States. It can also be much less dramatic, as in Belgium (a marginal 3 percentage points) and in Austria, France, Luxembourg and Poland, all with an increase of 7 percentage points or fewer.

Living with parents and employment

Are young adults (non-students) more likely to live with parents when they do not have a job? Getting an income from employment would seem the most likely step to financial independence from parents. It would then seem logical to find higher employment rates among those living away from their parents' household. In fact, this pattern holds true in only two countries, the United States and Poland (Figure 4.6). In all other countries, there is either no difference in employment rates whether an individual lives with parents or not, or even often a difference in the other direction – with young adults living with parents showing a higher rate of employment, as is the case in Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Switzerland (for the less educated only).

Although this pattern seems difficult to explain, it becomes clearer when looking at a disaggregation of the figures by gender (Figure 4.7). Young men and women with low levels of education present the opposite patterns: men show the expected pattern of a lower employment rate when living with parents while the reverse is true for young women. However, for both groups of women – those living with parents and those living independently – employment rates are at lower levels than those of men. The difference in employment rates for men can be quite large, as in the Czech Republic, France, Hungary, Poland and the United States, where it lies between a high of 21 percentage points and

Figure 4.6. **Employment rate of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, by level of education and living status (2002)**

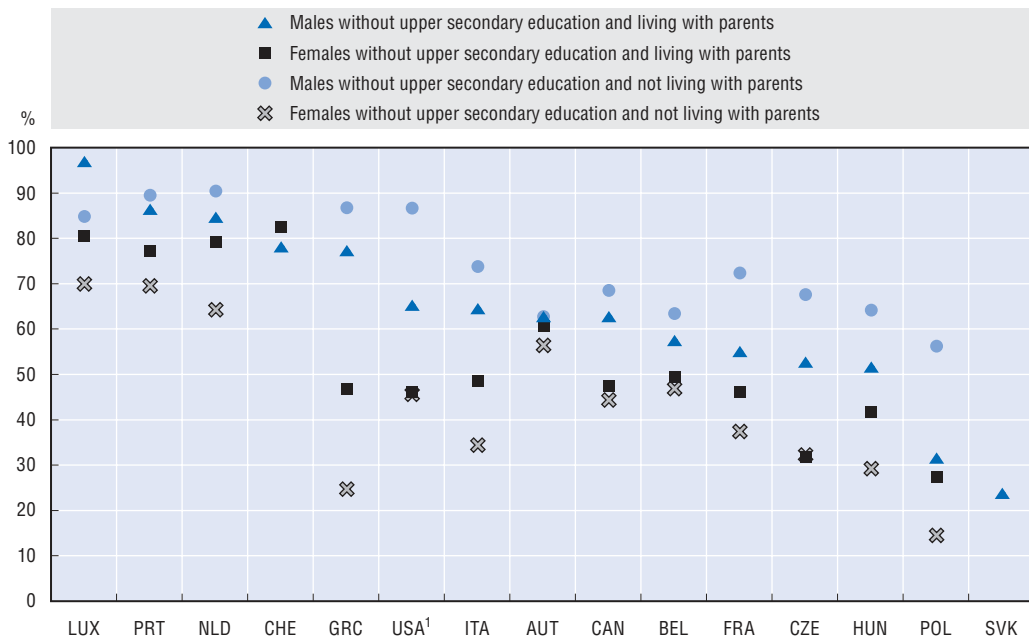


1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the employment rate of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education and living with parents.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Figure 4.7. **Employment rate of the YALLE group, by gender and living status (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the employment rate of 20-to-24 year-old men not in education, without upper secondary education and living with parents.

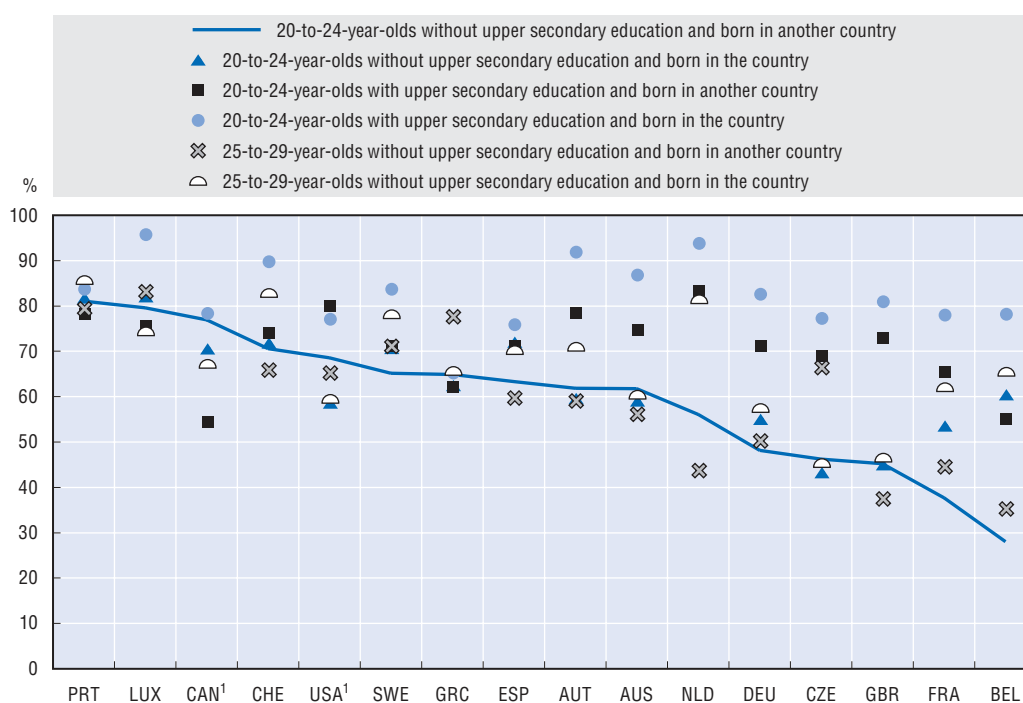
Source: OECD special YALLE data collection.

13 percentage points. Young women who do not have a job are more likely than young men to carry family responsibilities that may have hindered their ability to further their education and prevented them from working, while taking them away from their parents' home.

Is there a migrant gap?

Are foreign-born young adults at a disadvantage in the job market? The answer is generally yes, but with major nuances needed for some countries, as suggested by Figure 4.8. This figure compares, for foreign-born and national-born young adults, the employment rate for the YALLE group with that of young people of the same age and with more education (upper secondary or non-tertiary graduates), and with young adults five years older and with same low levels of education.

Figure 4.8. **Employment rates by age, educational attainment and migrant status (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the employment rate of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education and born in another country.

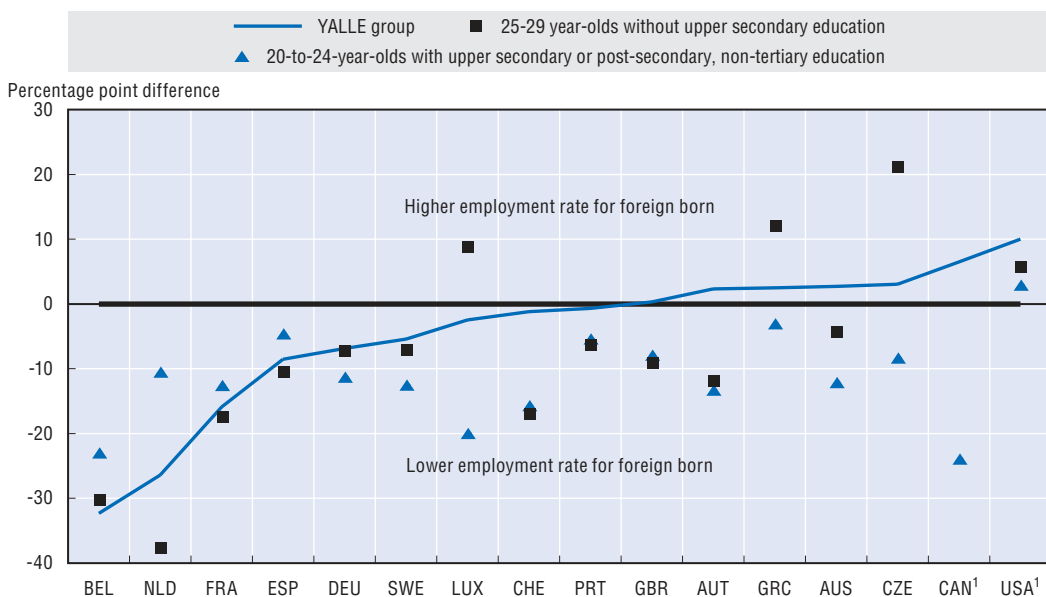
Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

The case of Belgium illustrates the typical pattern: immigrants with low levels of education have an employment rate of 28 per cent, while 60 per cent of native-born with same low levels of education have a job; this is the largest migrant disadvantage of all countries. Having graduated from upper secondary or tertiary education increases the employment rate significantly for both groups – to 55 per cent for the foreign-born and to 78 per cent for the native-born – and reduces the relative disadvantage of immigrants by close to 10 percentage points. Just adding some years of potential work experience without better education somewhat improves the situation, but not quite with the same magnitude: the employment rate of 25-to-29-year-olds with low levels of education moves up

to 35 per cent for immigrants and to 65 per cent for the native-born, with an only marginal reduction in the gap. This confirms clearly that gains to be expected from education are significantly larger than those expected from additional experience. Moreover, these relative gains seem to be larger for immigrants than for the native-born.

Figure 4.9 allows us to look at the migrant gap and how it changes from one group to another in a more systematic way. In six countries, the gap in employment rate for the YALLE group is actually in favour of foreign-born young adults, i.e. in Australia, Austria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Greece and the United States. However, the magnitude of this gap is really significant only in Canada (6 percentage points) and in the United States (10 percentage points). In all these countries, the migrant gap tends to reverse in favour of national-born with higher education – or in the case of the United States, to decrease – even if immigrants in most countries benefit from more education. Starting from large negative migrant gap for the YALLE group in France, the Netherlands and Spain, just as in Belgium, higher educational attainment does pull up the employment rate more for immigrants than for the native-born, thus reducing the gap. In these countries, longer potential involvement in the labour market, associated with older age, does not play a positive role in reducing the gap. In Germany, Luxembourg, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, all with limited negative migrant gaps for the YALLE group, higher education brings up the employment rate but not as much as for immigrants as for the native-born. In all these countries with sizeable foreign-born populations, education policies should ensure that special attention be paid to meet the migrant challenges as early as possible if schooling actually happens in the country (when migration is prior to completion of initial education) or as soon as young adults enter the country if schooling had occurred in the country of origin. In addition, the migrant population in most countries is diverse (especially in those where it forms a sizeable

Figure 4.9. **Difference in employment rates, by age, educational attainment and migrant status (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the difference in employment rate of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education and born in another country with the same group born in the country.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

proportion of the population), both in terms of national and cultural origin and of migrant categories (refugees, family reunion, economic/business). As the various groups of migrants are likely to have different characteristics as related to employability, a more detailed analysis could help shape policies to address properly the range of specific issues in a national context.

Access to skilled jobs: does education matter?

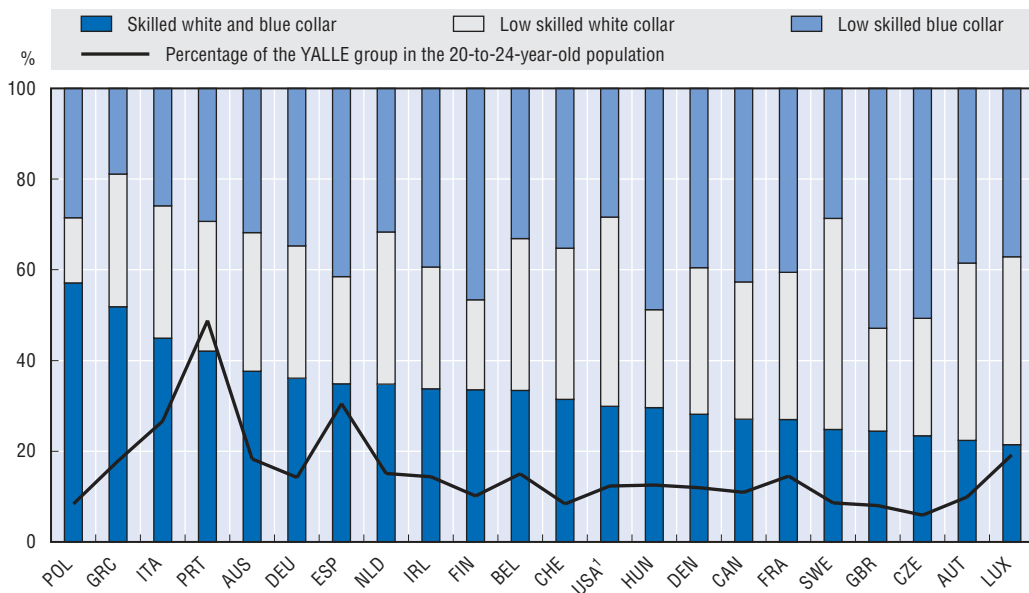
Access to employment is important, as is access to a skilled job, as the latter often implies benefits for the individual, the economy and society. Skills are at a high premium in today's knowledge economy and skilled individuals are rewarded in the labour market. Assuming that the ability to access a skilled job is one that may drive, at least in part, individual decisions about educational choices, this section looks at the relationship between educational attainment and access to skilled occupations. The occupations have been grouped into four categories (see Table 4.1): skilled white collar, skilled blue collar, low skilled white collar and low skilled blue collar.⁶

Table 4.1. **Occupations by category**

Occupational groups	Occupation – ISCO first digit	Occupation
Skilled white collar	1	Legislators, senior officials and managers
	2	Professionals
	3	Technicians and associate professionals
Low skilled white collar	4	Clerks
	5	Service workers and shop and market sales workers
Skilled blue collar	6	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers
	7	Craft and related trades workers
Low skilled blue collar	8	Plant and machine operators and assemblers
	9	Elementary occupations
Excluded from analysis	0	Armed forces
	0	Occupation not known

Source: International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO), International Labour Office, Switzerland.

In general, few young adults with low levels of education find a job in a skilled occupation. However, as the situation in this respect varies a great deal between countries, the proportion of YALLE individuals who find a skilled job is still higher than one-third (the average for OECD countries is 34 per cent) in half of the countries, even more than 40 per cent in Italy, Greece, Poland and Portugal (Figure 4.10). In the other countries, between 21 per cent (Luxembourg) and 31 per cent (Switzerland) of YALLE individuals hold a skilled job. This proportion does not seem to bear much of a relationship to either the proportion of the YALLE group in the whole 20-to-24-year-old population or the employment rate of the YALLE population. National situations may depend on a whole host of factors such as the proportion of skilled jobs in the economy, the proportion of skilled labour force and how closely these two figures match, either structurally or in specific labour market conditions, the unmet demand for skilled employees. It is difficult to draw conclusions from this initial picture of the distribution of employment by occupation. More insight is provided by a comparison of access to skilled occupations for different groups of young adults with various educational backgrounds.

Figure 4.10. **Distribution of the YALLE group by occupation (2002)**

1. 2001 data.

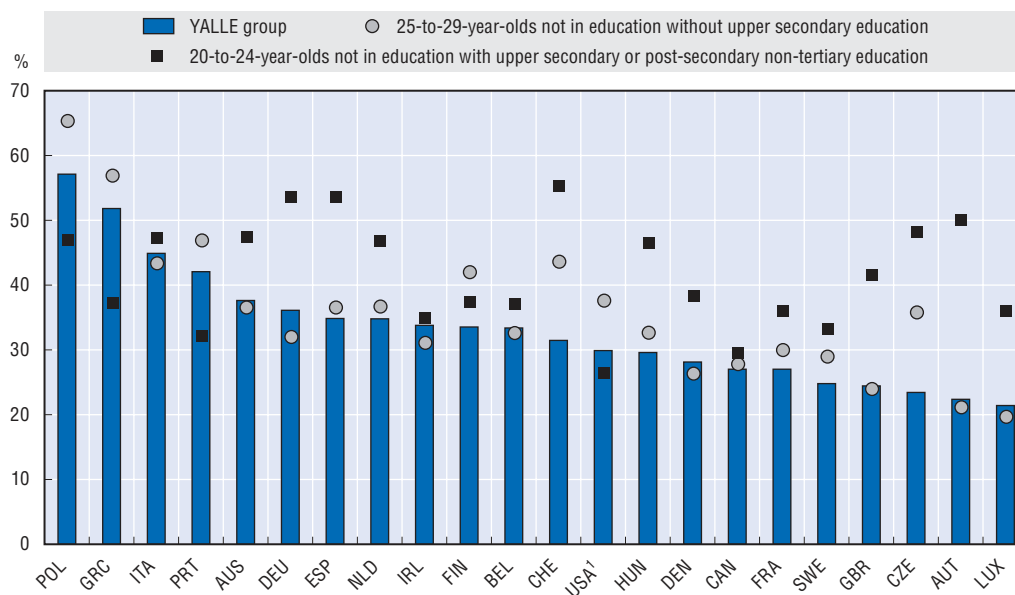
Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of employment of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education, in skilled occupations.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Figure 4.11 compares the YALLE group with 20-to-24-year-olds with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (education advantage) and with 25-to-29-year-olds with the same low levels of education as the YALLE group (potential experience advantage). In most countries, further education – whether it is just completion of upper secondary education or non-tertiary education beyond that level – offers significantly increased chances of accessing skilled occupations within a short time after leaving school. This is supposed to provide additional incentives to young adults to complete upper secondary education. However, in some countries, the incentives are simply not there. In Greece, Poland, Portugal and the United States, the likelihood of getting a skilled job actually appears to be better without completion of upper secondary education. In several other countries, such as Belgium, Canada, Finland, Ireland and Italy, the benefits of upper secondary education appear negligible (all less than 4 percentage points). In all other countries, the education advantage is at a minimum of 8 percentage points (Sweden) to reach almost 28 percentage points (Austria). In countries where the labour market does not clearly value the completion of upper secondary education in comparison with leaving earlier, policies to prevent dropping out face a stronger challenge. Policy makers may have to think hard about taking into account the relative degree of preparation for the labour market of young people in upper secondary schools. Hopes that access to skilled job would improve significantly with longer experience in the labour market are not well supported when the young adults have low levels of education: almost nowhere does access to skilled occupations for 25-to-29-year-olds improve with a magnitude comparable with the education advantage.

Figure 4.12 offers a more direct picture of the education advantage in accessing skilled occupations accruing to young adults when they have completed successfully upper secondary school or post-secondary non-tertiary education. It shows clear contrasts between countries where the advantage is large, i.e. the proportion of young adults holding

Figure 4.11. **Percentage of the YALLE group and comparison groups in skilled occupations (2002)**

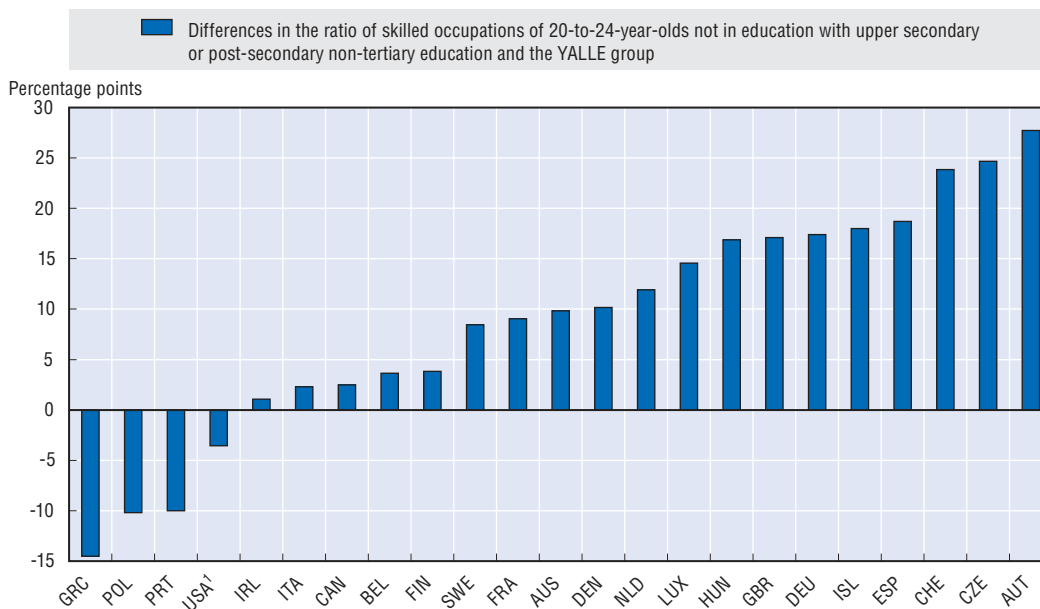


1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of employment of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education, in skilled occupations.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Figure 4.12. **Benefits of further education for access to skilled occupations (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

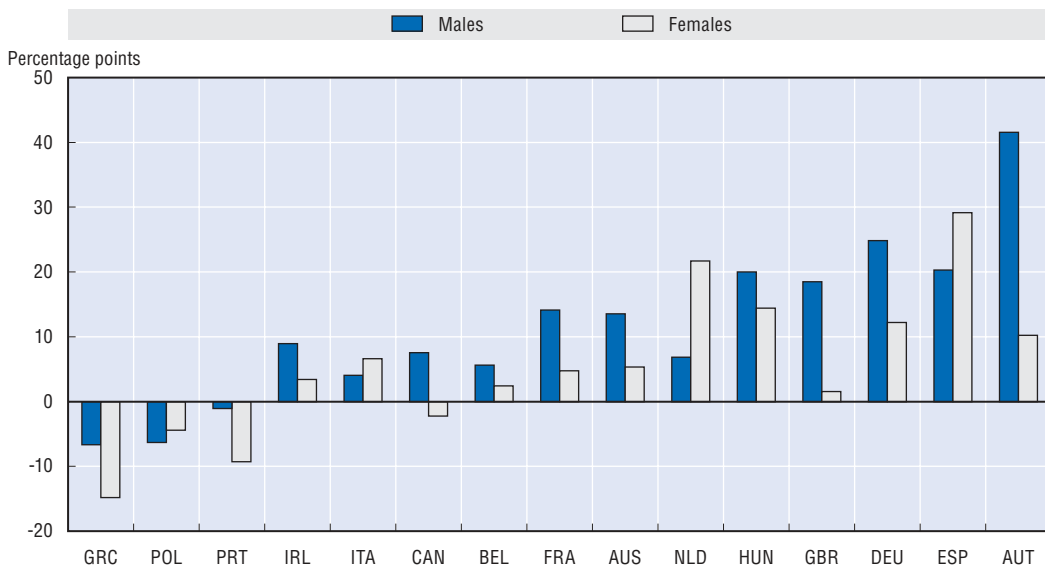
Countries are ranked in ascending order of the difference in the proportion of skilled occupations of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education and the YALLE group.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

skilled jobs when they have achieved that level of education is at least 15 percentage points higher than for those who have left school without successful completion of upper secondary education, and countries where such an advantage is small or even turns into a disadvantage. All these countries where the education advantage is large (Austria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom) have well-established (either dual system-type or school-based) vocational preparation providing credentials recognised by employers. In certain other countries, some moderate gains (between 8 and 15 percentage points) are still showing up, with more mix of the pathways represented. In the last group, gains in terms of access to skilled jobs are negligible or even negative, as highlighted above.

For countries where a split by gender is feasible (large enough samples and population considered), it is interesting to note that successful completion of upper secondary or non-tertiary education benefits more often and with a larger effect young men than young women in their access to skilled occupations. The difference is particularly large in countries with apprenticeship systems, such as Austria and Germany. Could it be that such vocational pathways favour more the skill development in traditionally male-dominated occupations? In other countries, young men may still have an advantage over women in obtaining some well-paid, often unionised, jobs despite fairly low formal qualifications. Only in the Netherlands and Spain, are young women gaining a significant advantage over men.

Figure 4.13. **Benefits of further education for access to skilled occupations, by gender (2002)**

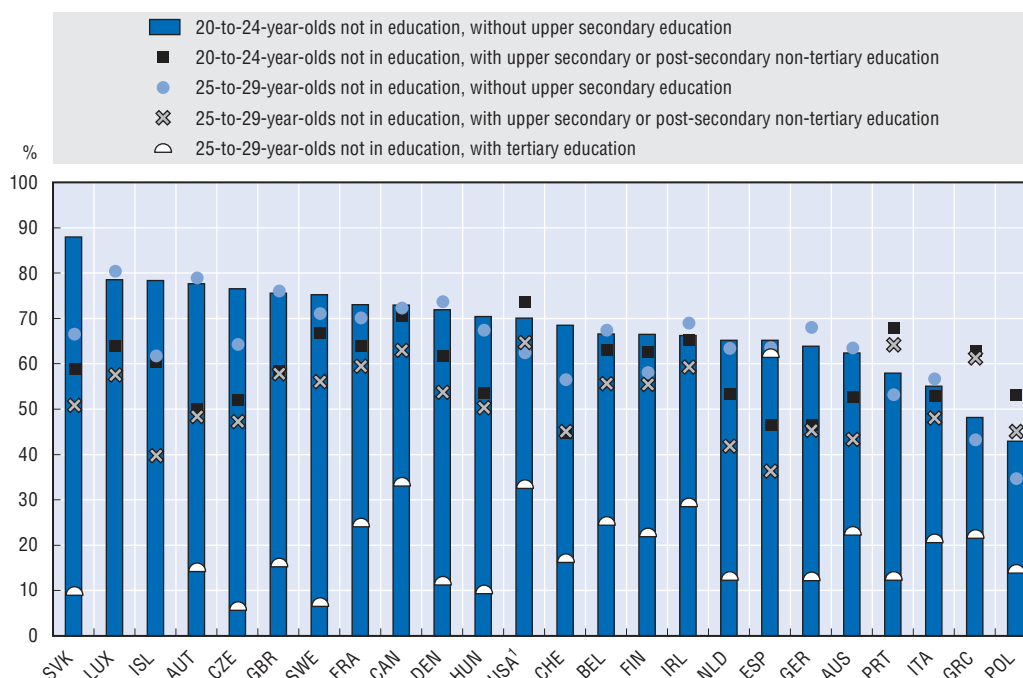


Countries are ranked in ascending order of the difference in the proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds in skilled occupations between 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education and those without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

The next set of indicators looks at the complementary picture and tries to analyse various aspects of the greater share of young adults with low levels of education in low skilled jobs. Figure 4.14 provides such a perspective by looking at the proportion of young adults, in different age groups and with different educational attainments, employed in low

Figure 4.14. **Proportion of young people in low skilled employment, by age group and educational attainment (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of employment of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education, in low skilled occupations.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

skilled occupations. A fairly close negative relationship between the level of education attained and the likelihood of working in a low skilled job could be expected. Indeed, such a pattern is found in most countries, even if, at any given level of education, there are quite different proportions of young adults holding low skilled jobs. The three data points (one for each level of education retained in this analysis) for each country for the 25-to-29-year-olds⁷ show only five exceptions to this expected relationship, i.e. Greece, Poland, Portugal, Spain and the United States. Except for Spain, in these countries, holding an upper secondary or a non-tertiary diploma does not improve access to skilled jobs, in comparison with not even having such credentials, but holding a tertiary diploma still reduces greatly the likelihood of landing a low skilled job, as is the case for 20-to-24-year-olds. In Spain, the issue is rather the difficulty young adults with tertiary education face in finding skilled jobs. Its growth of tertiary graduates in the last ten years is among the most rapid of the OECD countries,⁸ and its labour market does not seem to offer enough skilled jobs to the larger cohorts of young people coming out of postsecondary institutions.

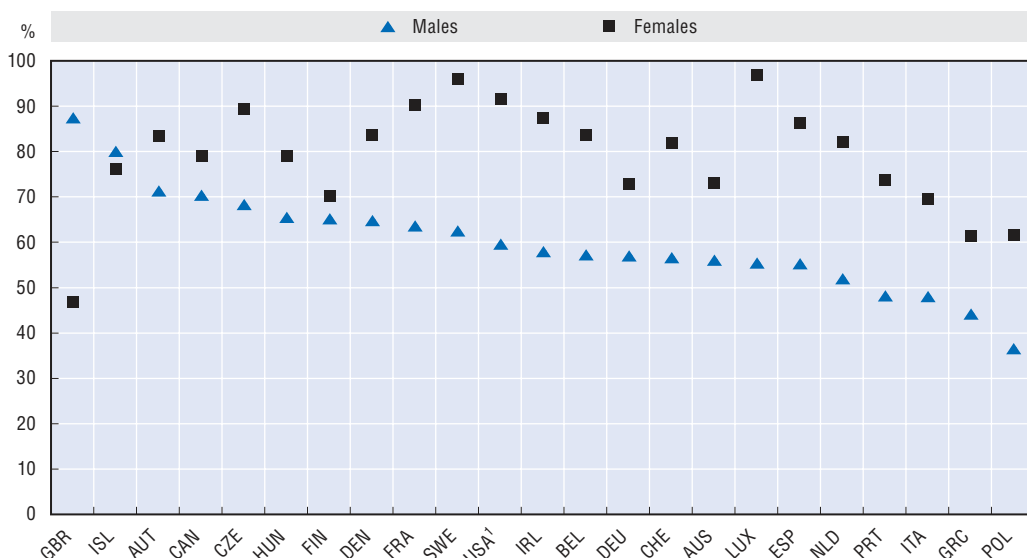
In almost all countries, the share of employment in low skilled occupation is largest among the 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education – the only exceptions being the ones commented on above. This situation rarely improves significantly as this group get older. In all countries, except in Spain, tertiary credentials provide the best chance of avoiding getting caught in low skilled jobs in early labour market experiences. However, in this last respect, there are wide inter-country variations. In Canada and the United States, about one-third of 25-to-29-year-old tertiary graduates find themselves in low skilled

occupations, the highest ratios of all countries except for Spain. These are also the two countries with the largest proportion of tertiary graduates in the working age population; hence, this is not due to a sudden surge of graduates coming out of universities and colleges during the last few years. Could this imply that there has developed an over-supply of tertiary graduates for the short-term absorption capacity of the labour market? As this study does not follow these young people beyond age 29, it cannot assess how long this possible under-utilisation of skills is likely to last.

Seven other countries show a proportion of the same population in low skilled employment in the range of 20 to 30 per cent: Australia, Belgium, France, Finland, Ireland, Italy and Greece. However, this proportion can also be as low as less than 10 per cent, as in the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and Sweden. This success in these two Central European countries may in part be related to the rather limited share of the population with tertiary credentials, but this would not be a factor in Sweden, where 33 per cent of the working age population holds a tertiary degree. Perhaps Sweden can be seen as producing the right number of tertiary graduates with the appropriate mix of talents between vocationally-oriented higher education (non-university tertiary education) and academic university-type programmes (university and advanced research programmes).

Is the situation different for young men and women in this respect? Figure 4.15 presents a gender comparison of the proportion of young adults with low levels of education in low skilled employment. It is striking to observe that, in all countries except the United Kingdom and, marginally, in Iceland, young women with low levels of education are much more likely to hold a low skilled job, when they are employed. This last point is quite important since fewer young women than men with low levels of education hold a job. The general picture shows that young women with low levels of education often form a smaller proportion of the women in the 20-to-24-year-old population than young men with low levels of education do

Figure 4.15. **Proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education in low skilled employment, by gender (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

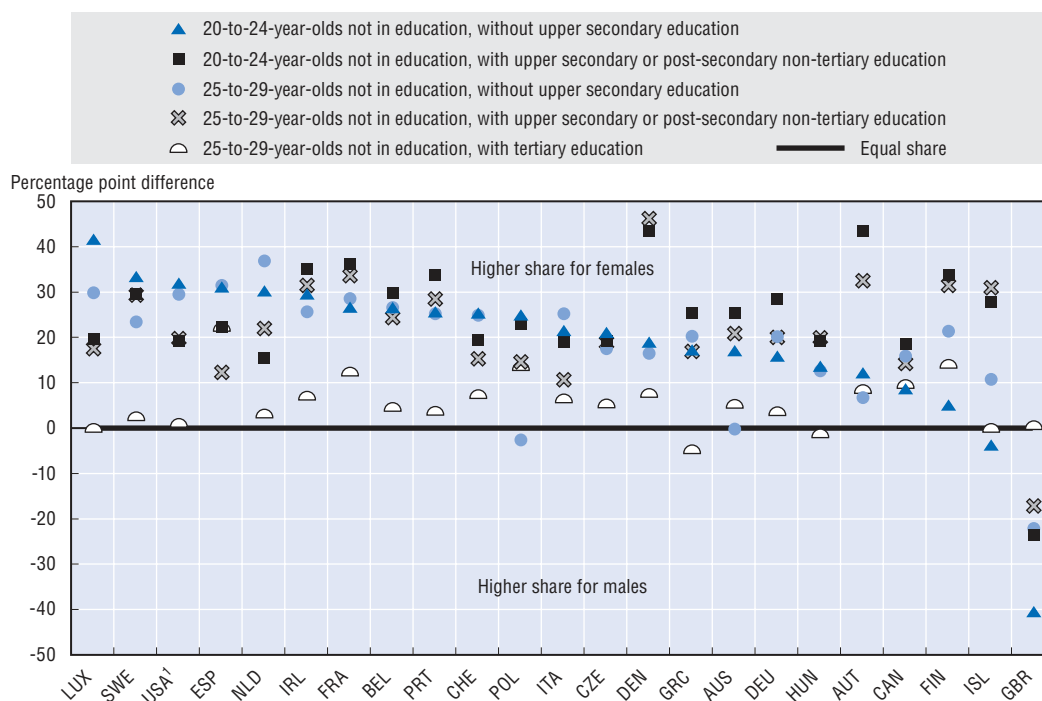
Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of employment of 20-to-24-year-old males not in education, without upper secondary education and in low skilled occupations.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

in their respective group; these young women are less often employed but, when they are employed, hold a low skilled job more often than men in a similar situation. Overall, in most countries, young women still hold the majority of the low skilled jobs held by 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education, while a significant proportion of young men with little education can still find decent paying jobs. This could be a powerful incentive to young women to pursue further education to escape the low skilled employment fate of the less educated. In 12 countries, more than four in five employed young women with low levels of education hold a low skilled job, while a similar concentration among young men is reflected only in the United Kingdom and Iceland. The specificity of the situation in this respect in the United Kingdom – fewer than 50 per cent of young women with low levels of education hold a low skilled job – is somewhat put in a different perspective by the fact that only 28 per cent of these young women have a job, compared to 61 per cent of the young men (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.16 provides more detailed evidence on the relative concentration of employment in low skilled occupations among women by extending the perspective to older young people and various levels of educational attainment. It is obvious that young women in both age groups and at any given level of educational attainment are more likely than young men to be employed in a low skilled occupation. When young women have not completed upper secondary education, the difference in the share of employment in low skilled occupations is generally about the same for both age groups: the relative position of less educated young men and women with respect to their share of employment in low-skilled occupations does not change when they get older. Still the disadvantage for women is much higher in some

Figure 4.16. **Difference between males and females in the share of employment in low skilled occupations, by age group and educational attainment (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the difference in share of low skilled occupations between 20-to-24-year-old females and males not in education, without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

countries; it stands above 20 percentage points in Belgium, France, Ireland, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States. While in almost all countries the share of employment in low skilled occupations decreases when young people leave school after completing upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, in some countries such an improvement benefit young men a lot more than young women. In Austria, Denmark, Finland, Germany and Iceland, credentials at that level seem to bring more labour market benefits to young men than young women. But the benefits of tertiary education are well shared by both genders. In almost all countries, the gender gap in terms of the share of employment in low skilled occupations comes below 10 percentage points. Higher skills bring relatively more gender equity in the workplace.

Concentration of less educated young people by industry

It is certainly less clear in which industry young people with less education might be found, since industries group workers not by their competencies but by the type of products or services their company delivers. However, accompanying the development of the knowledge economy, there is a general trend towards faster employment growth in the upper-tier services (Table 4.2).⁹ This is the group of industries in which workers generally benefit more from employer-supported training, and have on average better working conditions and higher pay, certainly desirable features to improve one's employability and work satisfaction.

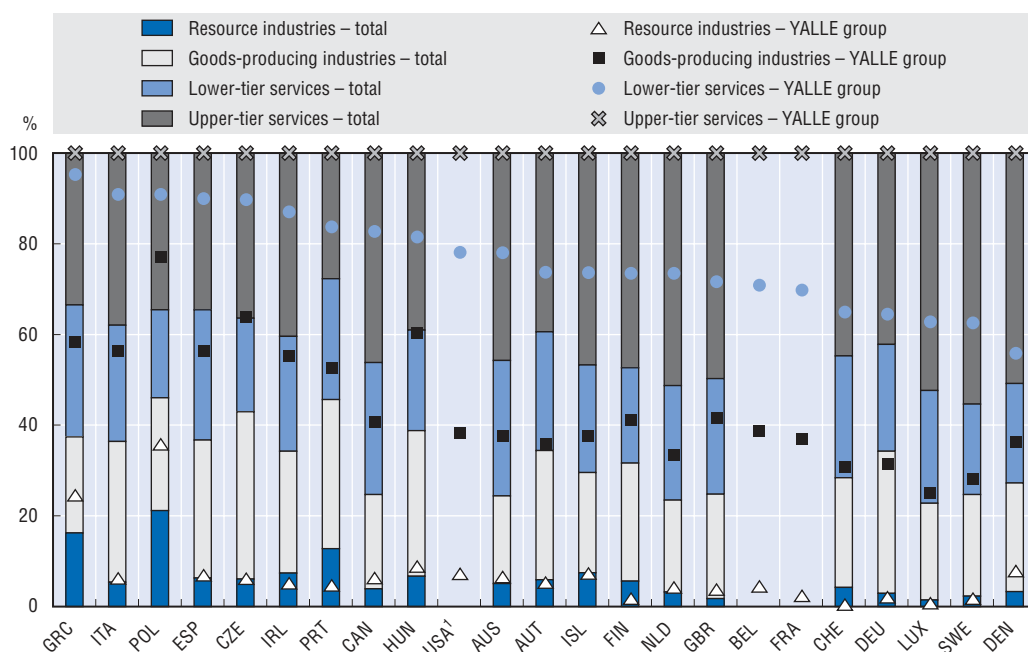
Figure 4.17 compares the distribution by industry of the YALLE group with that of the general population. This comparison is needed to understand the diversity of situation among countries. In all countries, while upper-tier services often provide a large share of jobs to young adults with low levels of education, they are still largely underrepresented in comparison with that sector's share of jobs in the economy. On the other hand,

Table 4.2. **Industry mapping for analysis**

Industry groups	Industry – ISIC level 1	Industry
Resource industries	A	Agriculture, hunting and forestry
	B	Fishing
	C	Mining and quarrying
Goods-producing industries	D	Manufacturing
	F	Construction
Upper-tier services	E	Electricity, gas and water supply
	I	Transport, storage and communications
	J	Financial intermediation
	K	Real estate, renting and business activities
	L	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security
	M	Education
Lower-tier services	N	Health and social work
	G	Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods
	H	Hotels and restaurants
	O	Other community, social and personal service activities
Excluded from analysis	P	Private households with employed persons
	Q	Extra-territorial organisations and bodies
		Industry not known

Source: International Standard Industrial Classification of all Economic Activities (ISIC), United Nations Statistics Division.

Figure 4.17. **Distribution of the YALLE group and total employment, by industry group (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

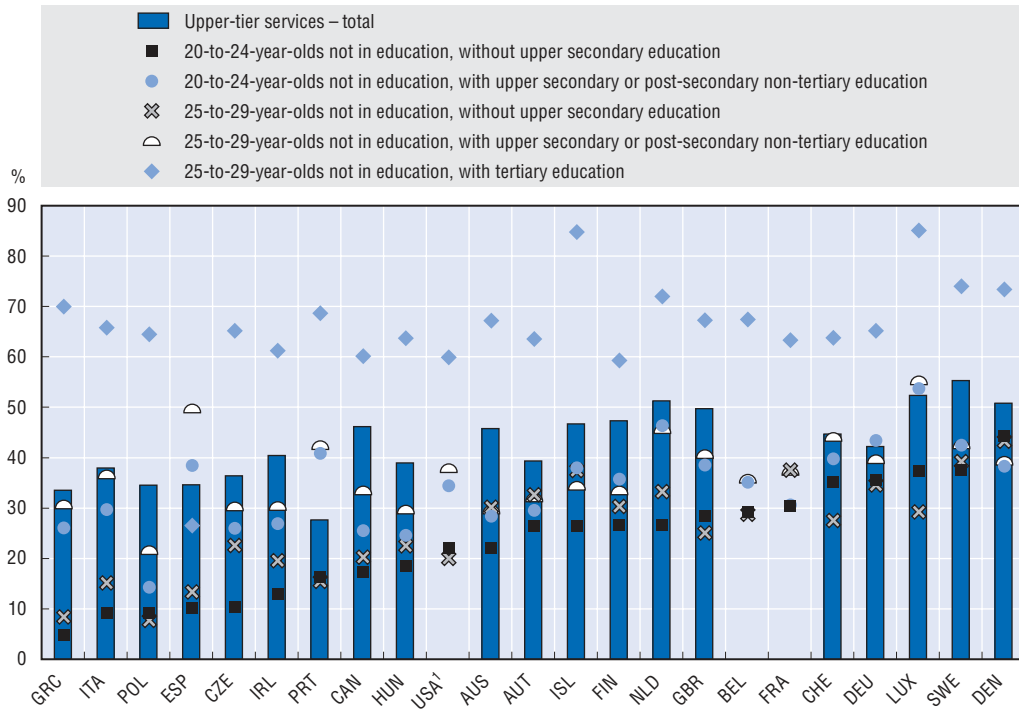
Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education and in upper-tier services.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection and OECD Labour Force Statistics database.

they are largely overrepresented in the employment figures of lower-tier services and goods-producing industries. In only three countries is the underrepresentation in upper-tier services lower than 10 percentage points, i.e. Denmark, Germany and Switzerland. If Denmark is among the countries where the global share of employment in upper-tier services is very high (more than 50 per cent), Germany and Switzerland are closer to the OECD average of around 42 per cent. In these countries, where employers generally demonstrate higher commitment to training,¹⁰ less qualified workers may expect to gain some of the skills they did not acquire in school. In all other countries, even in those where 20 to 40 per cent of young adults with low levels of education work in upper-tier services, their relative underrepresentation amounts to at least 13 percentage points (Austria) and most often shows up at more than 20 percentage points. This gap is highest in Canada at close to 30 percentage points, while 42 per cent of these young people find a job in lower-tier services – the highest proportion in OECD countries.

Obviously, the employment situation of the young adults with low levels of education by industry contrasts with that of other young people with more education. Employment in upper-tier services does not increase, or increases only marginally in some countries, when the 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education get a little older: about the same proportion of 25-to-29-year-olds find a job in upper-tier services. Young people with upper secondary or non-tertiary post-secondary education get a higher share of upper-tier service jobs, although only in a few countries do they get a higher share than that in total employment. In all countries, only young people with tertiary education manage to find most of their jobs in upper-tier services.

Figure 4.18. **Proportion of young people employed in upper-tier services, by age and educational attainment (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education and in upper-tier services.

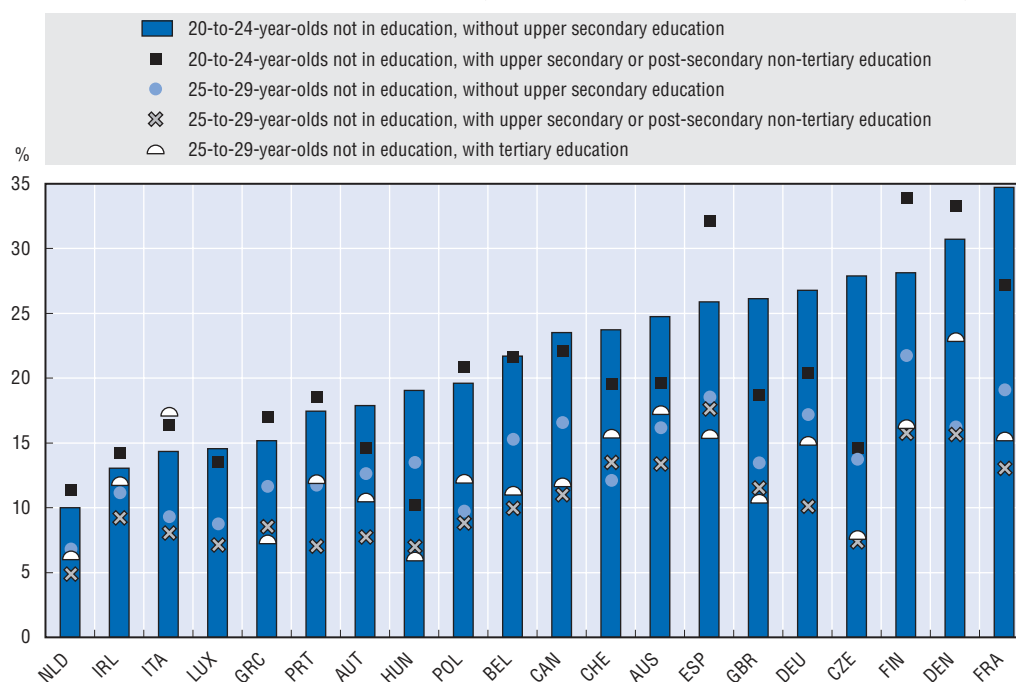
Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection and OECD Labour Force Statistics database.

Other characteristics of employment

Young adults with low levels of education tend to hold less stable jobs, more often jobs of limited duration, in contrast with permanent jobs, and also more often part-time employment.

It is natural that as young people have had shorter experience in the labour market and have a greater tendency to move from job to job searching for their own place in the labour market, they exhibit shorter tenure in their jobs. But is the job tenure experiences of young adults with low levels of education any worse than for other comparable groups? With 10 to 35 per cent of their jobs having tenures of shorter than six months, these young adults experience more job instability than other young adults with either a slightly longer experience in the labour market or higher levels of education. Nevertheless, differences are large among countries, between Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, where fewer than 15 per cent have been in their job less than six months, and France and Denmark where this is the case of more than 30 per cent. At this high end of the spectrum, the participation of such educationally disadvantaged young people in special labour market programmes aimed at raising their employability may create the appearance of higher instability, at least for the period these young people are in the programme. However, such programmes are supposed to offer long-term benefits. Indeed, the proportion of 25-to-29-year-olds with low levels of education and with short job tenure shows the largest declines in countries where the proportion of less educated 20-to-24-year-olds is the highest. Such a relatively positive outcome may in part be related to labour market programmes in place to assist this

Figure 4.19. **Proportion of young people employed with short job tenure (less than six months in the current job), by age and educational attainment (2002)**



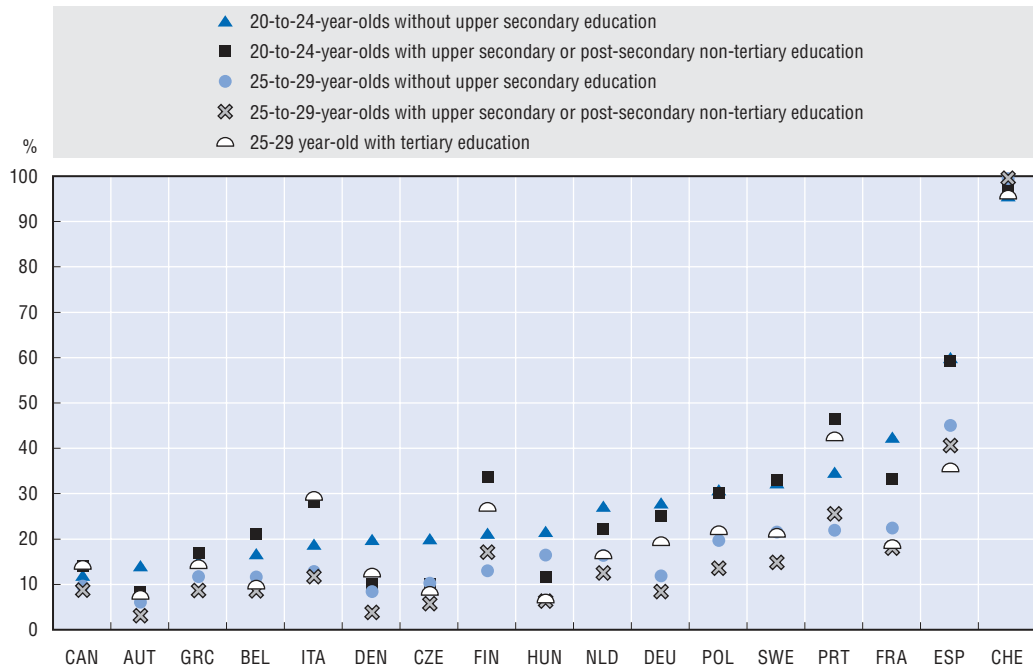
Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education and in short tenure job.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

population threatened of social marginalisation. In comparison, young adults with higher levels of education generally demonstrate more stability, with only 10 to 20 per cent in a job they have held for less than six months.

Access to a permanent job brings job stability, job security and other desirable benefits such as access to job-related training, and often higher pay and participation in the employer's benefit package. However, the extent of non-permanent employment may heavily depend on national labour market institutional structures. It could be expected, for example, that employment of limited duration would be more prevalent in countries where resorting to layoffs is more restricted through either legislation or collective agreements. Here, rather than comparing the extent of employment of limited duration across countries, it is more pertinent to look at whether young adults with low levels of education are relatively disadvantaged in comparison with other groups of young people within the same country. Figure 4.20 shows that the extent of such employment varies a great deal across countries and somewhat less between various groups of young people within countries. In countries such as Austria, Canada and Greece, permanent employment is clearly the dominant employment relation between employers and workers and there is, at least among young adults, little difference in the extent of such employment by level of education. In the other countries, differences are slightly more pronounced and there may be a difference in the range of 10 to 20 percentage points between the various educational groups. Two patterns can be identified: in most countries, it is difficult for 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education to obtain permanent jobs; these young people are more at a disadvantage in accessing the benefits of a permanent job.

Figure 4.20. **Proportion of employment in limited duration jobs for selected groups not in education (2002)**



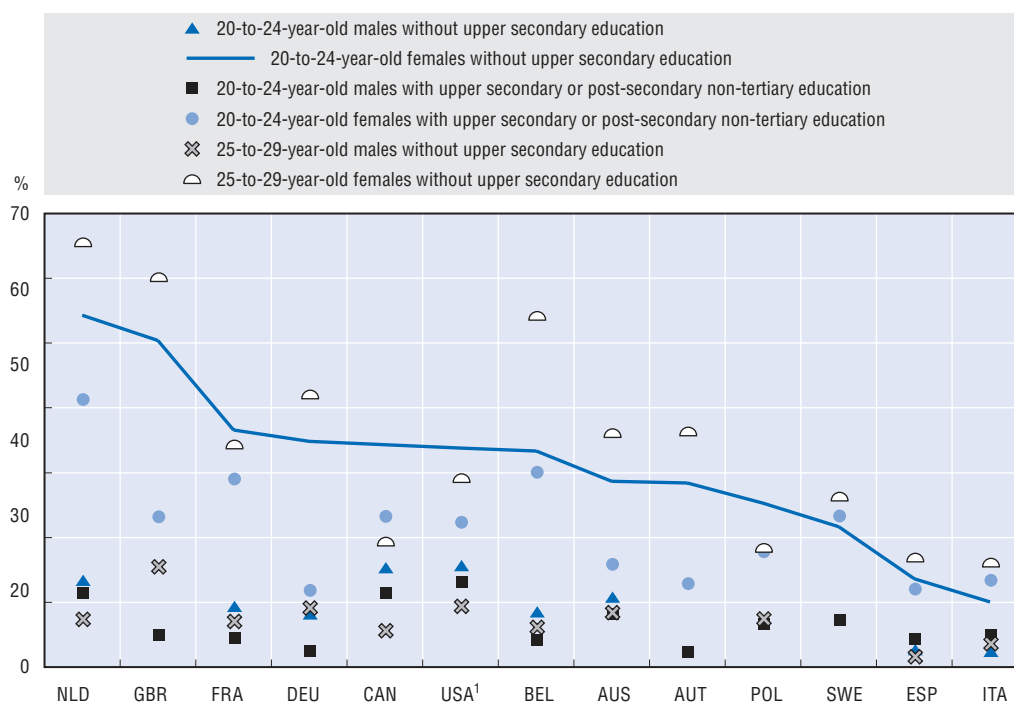
Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of employment in limited duration jobs for 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

In Finland, Italy and Portugal, 20-to-24-year-olds with upper secondary or non-tertiary post-secondary education and 25-to-29-year-olds with tertiary education are more likely to have a job of limited duration than young adults in the YALLE group.

Part-time employment cannot be systematically conceived as a lower standard of employment as it is also dependent on institutional settings and cultural factors. However, it is rarely a situation that offers similar benefits as in full-time jobs. In all countries, women more often have part-time employment than do men, especially in younger age groups, when it offers better possibilities to reconcile work and family formation. This is a pattern borne out in Figure 4.21. However, except in Italy, Spain and Sweden, where the incidence of part-time employment is relatively lower than in other countries, it seems that young women with low levels of education, often in both age groups (20-to-24-year-olds and 25-to-29-year-olds), more often obtain part-time jobs. This is especially the case with high ratios of part-time employment in Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. As for young men, the incidence of part-time employment is consistently lower than for women (highest in Canada and the United States, around 15 per cent) and does not show a regular pattern, or wide differences with respect to educational attainment and age.

Figure 4.21. **Proportion of part-time employment in total employment for selected groups not in education (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of part-time employment in total employment for 20-to-24-year-old females not in education, without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Notes

1. The employment rate is defined as the number of persons employed divided by the total population in the respective group considered.
2. The coefficient of correlation is -0.66 .
3. Although it is not quite a mirror image, unemployment does play a different role by gender.
4. The actual scope for labour market experience may differ across countries: it is likely to be more limited in countries where the end of compulsory schooling matches the regular completion of upper secondary education, but it could possibly be more extensive in countries where a student can drop out of secondary school at an age significantly younger than the normal age of secondary school completion. The analysis here is to be understood in consideration of such parameters.
5. The analysis here is not longitudinal, and it must be acknowledged that other influences may play a role in explaining the alleged differences in experience advantage, such as experiencing different labour market conditions at the times of leaving education and throughout the period up to 2002. This analysis uses cross-sectional evidence to draw some inferences as to what longitudinal evidence would provide.
6. Such a regrouping was made necessary to ensure adequate use of the sample, considering the other dimensions of the analysis to take into account. In some cases, skilled white and blue collars have to be regrouped to avoid the non-reporting for some countries.
7. This is the group for which there are significant data for most countries for the three levels of education.
8. See *Education at a Glance 2004* (OECD, 2004), Table A3.3.

9. See Table 4.2 for the grouping in four large industry groups from the International Standard Industrial Classification, Rev. 3. As for occupations, it is necessary to regroup industries to a smaller number of larger groups of industries to ensure adequate use of the sample, considering the other dimensions of the analysis to take into account.
10. See *Education at a Glance 2001* (OECD, 2001), Indicator C6.

References

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2001), *Education at a Glance: 2001 Edition*, OECD, Paris.

OECD (2004), *Education at a Glance: 2004 Edition*, OECD, Paris.

Chapter 5

Unemployment Characteristics

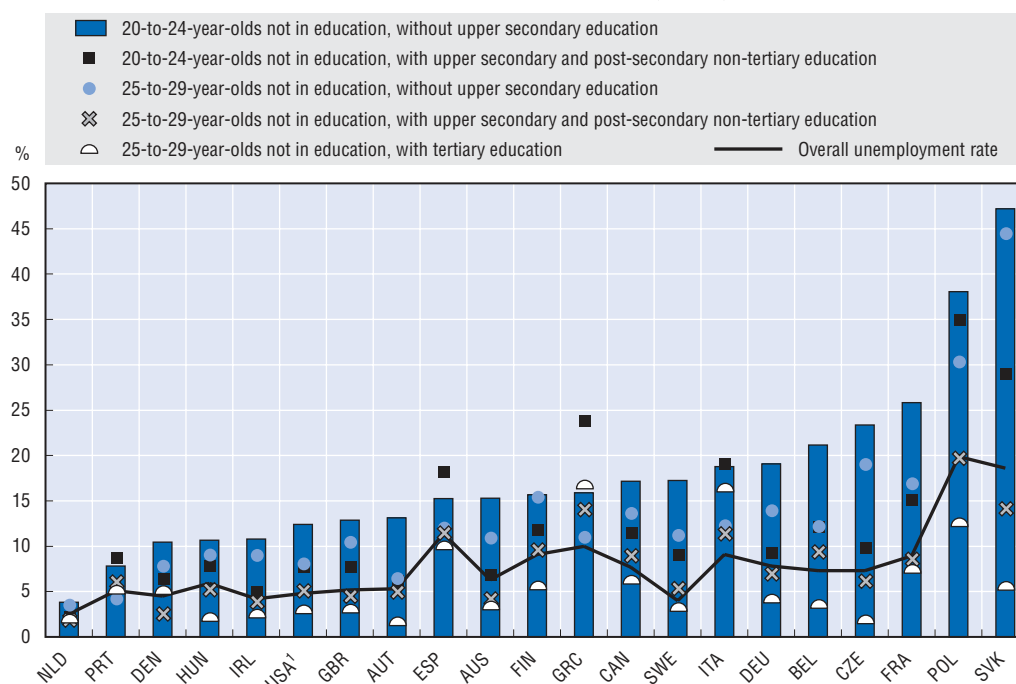
This study has shown that the YALLE group is more likely not to be in the labour force, and that fewer of these 20-to-24-year-olds were employed than 25-to-29-year-olds or more educated young people. This chapter considers whether it is more probable that young adults with a low level of education will face difficulties when they look for a first job, experience unemployment or longer periods of unemployment, and are more likely to find themselves unemployed when their employers reduce staff.

The unemployment rate¹ is the most common measure used to describe unemployment hardship in a given population. But, as this measure does not take into account the educational circumstances, it poses problems for international comparisons of youth unemployment.² Across countries, young people may be in various combinations of work and study that can be recorded in different ways: for example, young people in vocational training would be part of the labour force if they are formally in an apprenticeship program, but not if they were in a school-based vocational program. Hence, the unemployment rate may poorly reflect the unemployment hardship experience by a group of young people. For this reason, a new unemployment concept to represent unemployment among youth cohorts has taken precedence since the late 1990s: the ratio of unemployed and not in education to the total age cohort of reference.³ This concept is used in this chapter.

Figure 5.1 shows that unemployment is highest in almost all countries for young adults with low levels of education, in comparison with other groups of young adults with different educational attainment or slightly older. It is also significantly higher than the overall unemployment rate in 2002 (Table 1.1). This is actually the case for all groups represented in the chart, except for the 25-to-29-year-olds having left studies with tertiary education. The unemployment ratio for 20-to-24 year-olds with low levels of education is highly correlated with the overall unemployment rate across countries ($r = 0.88$), a clear indication that general labour market conditions have a strong bearing on the young people's own labour market experience. However, these young people cannot just rely on improved economic conditions to get into stable jobs. In Belgium, the Czech Republic, France, Poland and the Slovak Republic, from 20 to 47 per cent of 20-to-24-year-olds without upper secondary education are unemployed, a high level considering that, at least in Belgium, the Czech Republic and France, the labour market conditions are fairly good. In Australia, Canada, Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, Spain and Sweden, the unemployment-to-population ratio for the same group hovers between 15 and 20 per cent.

Having a higher level of education offers the best protection against the difficulty of finding a job, as the unemployment ratio is significantly lower for young adults with either tertiary education or upper secondary post-secondary non-tertiary education than for those with less than upper secondary education. The only exceptions are Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, where young people with upper secondary post-secondary non-tertiary education face the same difficulties or more. Gaining more labour market experience with age presumably helps to lower the difficulty of finding employment, but not as much as does

Figure 5.1. **Unemployment-to-population ratios, by age and educational attainment (2002)**



1. 2001 data.

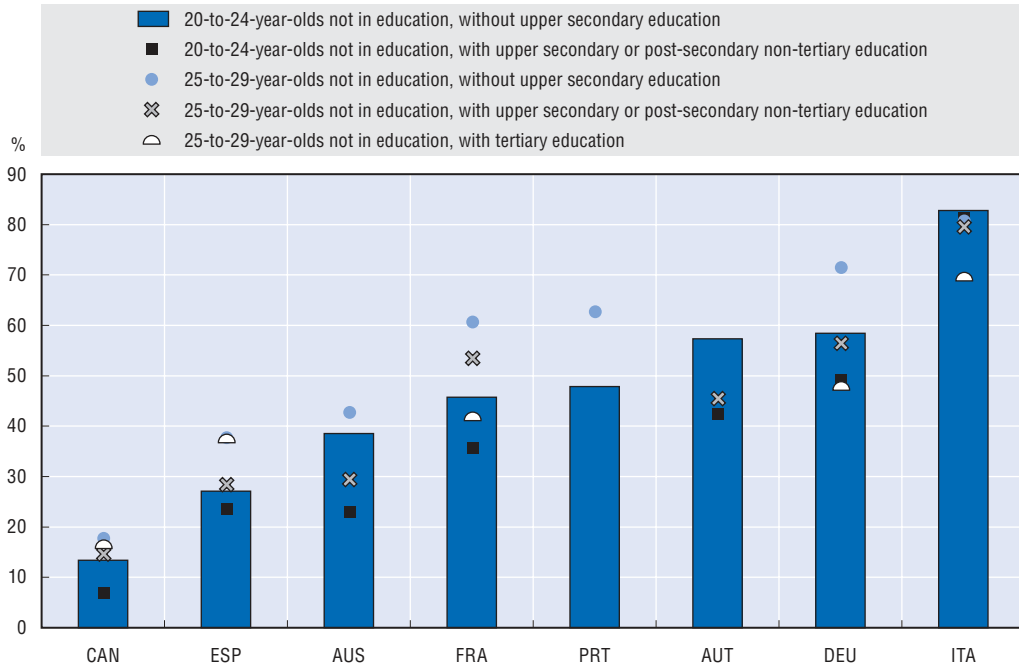
Countries are ranked in ascending order of the unemployment-to-population ratio for 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection and Table 1.1.

having more education. The unemployment ratios for 25-to-29-year-olds with a low level of education are just a few percentage points lower than those for the younger adults.

Long-term unemployment is rarely a major issue with young people who are often less demanding as to the nature of jobs and have lower wage expectations. However, they also lack experience and, if they do not have the skills demanded by the market, have fewer opportunities in increasingly knowledge-based economies. For the few countries for which there are significant data about the duration of unemployment, the wide differences in the proportion of young adults who have been unemployed for at least six months appear related to educational attainment. This is less of a concern in Canada, where there is much job mobility, especially among young people, but it is certainly a more important problem in several European countries where employment protection and other labour market characteristics make young people's access to jobs more difficult. The situation is particularly acute for all young adults in Italy, even if they hold a tertiary diploma. In Austria and Germany, where a strong premium is given to formal vocational qualifications, young people with low levels of education may suffer longer unemployment spells. In all countries with available data, the severity of unemployment does not improve as years pass: long-term unemployment is actually more serious for 25-to-29-year-olds without educational credentials. Although these young adults may find themselves less often unemployed than 20-to-24-year-olds, those who do become unemployed have a higher risk of remaining unemployed for a period longer than six months.

Figure 5.2. **Proportion of long-term unemployment (more than six months) among unemployed young people, by age and educational attainment (2002)**



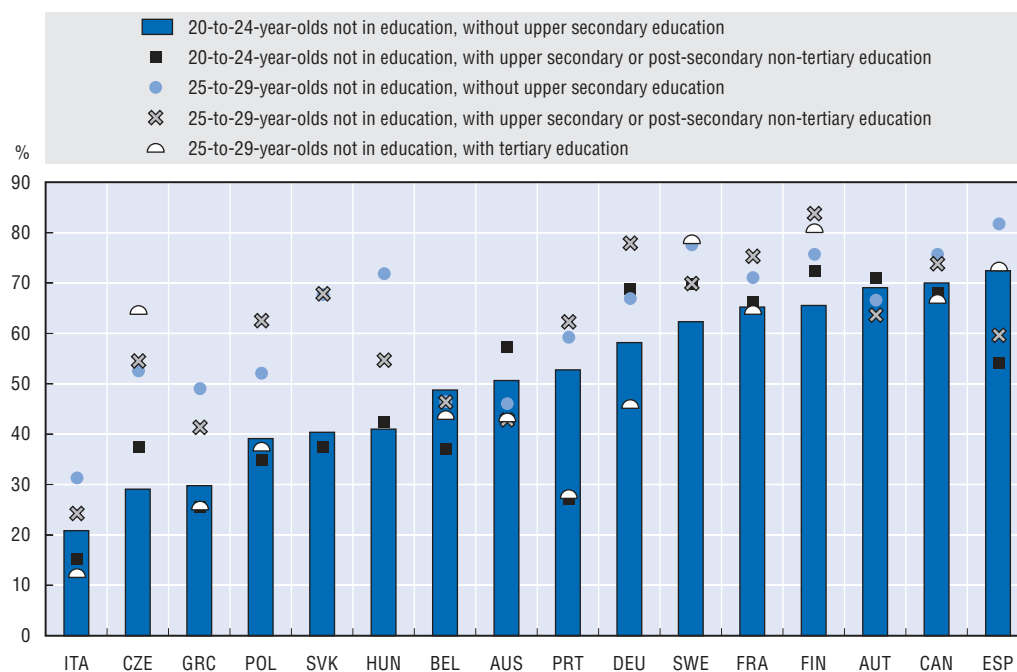
Note: The denominator of the ratio excludes unemployed for whom no duration of unemployment is recorded. Countries where more than a third of all unemployed are not classified by duration of unemployment are not retained for this analysis.

Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds unemployed and not in education, without upper secondary education and in long-term unemployment.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

There are several different reasons why individuals find themselves unemployed. The three most important reasons (by number of people affected) are: individual or collective layoffs for employer-related reasons such as economic difficulties, changes in product lines or production technologies, or workers' wrongdoing; leaving a job to find one with another employer; or looking for a first job – a reason more likely for young people than for older workers. Seen together, Figures 5.3 and 5.4 provide a complementary picture: the first presents the proportion of young adults who are unemployed because they have lost their job following a layoff; the second shows the proportion of young unemployed who are seeking their first employment. In 9 out of the 16 countries with available data, more than half of unemployed young adults with low levels of education were unemployed for employer-related reasons; these are all countries where even unskilled young adults can access the job market and get some work experience, so fewer of the young unemployed are looking for their first job. In the other countries, such as the Czech Republic, Greece, Italy, Poland and the Slovak Republic, the majority of unemployed 20-to-24-year-olds without upper secondary education are looking for their first employment and cannot offer potential employers positive labour market experience. Most often, as young adults get older, with or without higher educational credentials, they are less likely to be unemployed and looking for their first job.

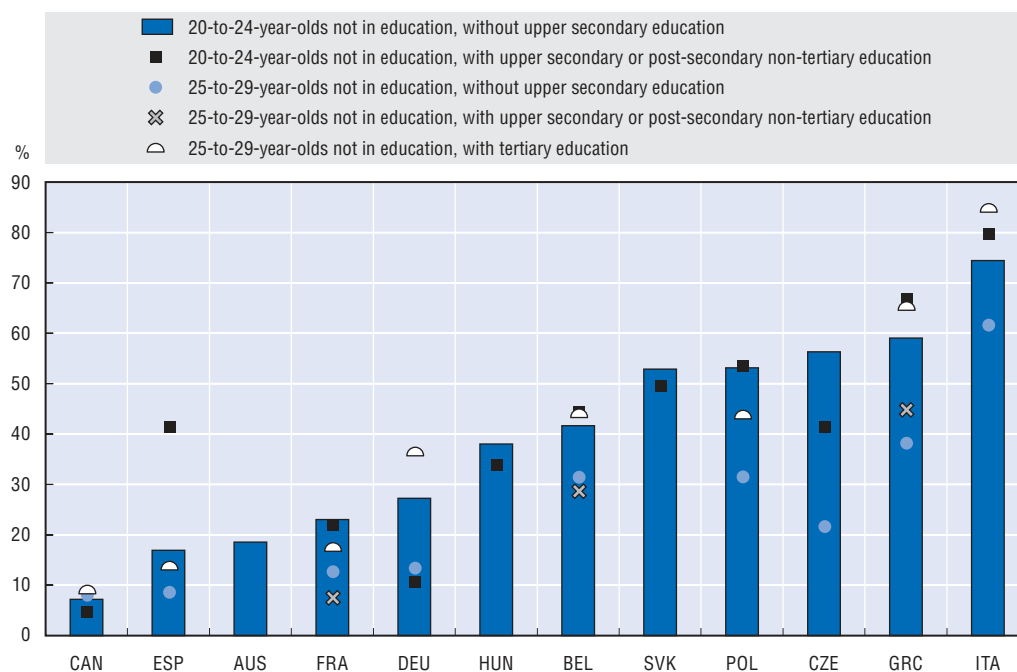
Figure 5.3. **Proportion of unemployed for employer-related reasons among unemployed young people, by age and educational attainment (2002)**



Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds unemployed and not in education, without upper secondary education and in long-term unemployment.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Figure 5.4. **Proportion of unemployed young people who have never had a job, by age and educational attainment (2002)**



Countries are ranked in ascending order of the proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds unemployed and not in education, without upper secondary education and in long-term unemployment.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Notes

1. The unemployment rate is calculated as the number of persons who are without work, actively seeking employment and currently available to start work, as a percentage of the labour force (sum of persons employed and unemployed).
2. For further details, see de Broucker et al. (OECD, 2000).
3. See *Education at a Glance 2004* (OECD, 2004), Indicator C4.

References

- De Broucker, P., M.H. Gensbittel and C. Mainguet (2000), "Educational determinants and other aspects of the transition process", in *The INES Compendium – Contributions from the INES Networks and Working Groups*, Fourth General Assembly of the OECD Education Indicators Programme, Tokyo, OECD, Paris.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2004), *Education at a Glance: 2004 Edition*, OECD, Paris.

Chapter 6

Conclusions

This study has presented a collection of variables that is richer than the usual data collections on the transition from education to work, and its comparison of the YALLE group to reference groups according to age and level of educational attainment offers significant new points of view on transition. Although this study has shown that there are differences across countries – due to specific characteristics of their educational systems, the organisation of their labour markets, their cultural characteristics, the role of the family in society, economic cycles and so forth – it is nevertheless possible both to draw clear general conclusions and to offer insights on several important policy issues.

First, what is the extent of young people with low levels of education entering the labour market and what is the importance of this phenomenon for individuals and societies, both in terms of immediate outcomes and a few years down the road? As the data have shown, a non-negligible – even large in several countries – group of young people are facing difficult transitions from education to work and in many countries they are at great risk of marginalisation. It should be noted that, almost paradoxically, the situation appears often more critical when the YALLE group is limited: in some countries, many seem to be in a situation where there is a certain balance between their own qualifications – even if low – and available employment, while in other countries those with fewer available options are all the more marginalised and stigmatised. Indeed, insufficient qualifications (defined in this study as less than the completion of the upper secondary level) appear to have serious consequences, even more so when only a limited population is affected. A low level of education becomes a greater handicap as a country's global level of qualification goes up and as post-secondary education in different forms spreads among its population. It must also be noted that, due to a number of economic, social and cultural mechanisms, low levels of education are often transmitted from one generation to the next, although in differing degrees from country to country.

Second, at how much of a disadvantage is the YALLE group? In terms of access to employment, quality of employment (stability and duration) or skill level of job, the YALLE group is clearly facing major challenges; this may be somewhat offset by job placement or training programmes in some countries. The YALLE group does face a greater risk of unemployment and the likelihood of being unemployed for longer or multiple periods of time than those with higher qualifications. In addition, young people with low levels of education do not necessarily benefit from positive turns in the economic cycle when they occur.

Third, what is the impact of time on the labour market prospects of the YALLE group? In an original way, this study has shown that experience in the labour market generally compensates very little for a low level of education. It is striking that for all the studied indicators and in the majority of the countries it has been shown that experience – a longer potential presence on the labour market – does not make up for an initial deficit of educational credentials. The consequences of this initial lack of education may thus be long lasting, only sometimes attenuated by specific programs and safety nets that gradually improve the relative situation of the young people with insufficient qualifications.

Fourth, is the evidence of benefits attributed to achieving higher levels of education equally shared among countries and could differences be related to specific characteristics of national education systems? On the one hand, higher or lower gains in employment rates cannot be clearly associated with specific known characteristics of national education systems, such as the presence of a strong apprenticeship system, the significance of vocational preparation through school-based or mixed models, or the dominance of a general education model. On the other hand, the different forms of well-structured and institutionalised vocational preparation, leading to credentials recognised by employers, appear effective in providing graduates of these programmes immediate opportunities to hold skilled jobs, both in comparison with those who do not complete upper secondary education within the same country and in comparison with the upper secondary graduates in countries with essentially general secondary education.

Fifth, what is the impact of a low level of education on those young people from groups already most fragile on the labour market for other economic, social or cultural reasons? This study has shown that women in the YALLE group – although usually fewer in number than men – face greater difficulties, in particular for access to employment, and that in the majority of countries the situation of immigrants is only worsened by a low level of education.

This study offers important policy insights, or at least policy directions to be explored, even if these must be adjusted to take into account national realities. It has been shown that experience is not enough to improve the situation of the YALLE group; thus, it is clear that in today's competitive knowledge economy neither "natural" mechanisms such as time nor current policies are enough to make up for the stigmatisation caused by a low level of education. Specific policy actions are needed to improve the situation, but these must be targeted more precisely than a simple adoption of age or qualification criteria. The YALLE group is itself heterogeneous and composed of sub-groups unequally underprivileged. Immigrant populations, for example, may experience disadvantages and there should thus be specific programmes for them. Likewise, some young women face particular challenges, especially in connection with their family conditions and specific national family or employment policies. Finally, programmes for re-qualification cannot disregard specific structures of national labour markets, including at the local level, nor the need for occupations and qualifications, which are felt even at the most micro level.

The situation of the YALLE group can be seen as part of a process that starts early – whether through low academic results or a failure to provide appropriate educational orientation in the course of schooling – and that can lead to young people dropping out of school. Early interventions, as soon as signs of difficulties are detected, are critical to avoid the cumulative development of handicaps that result in leaving school without any marketable qualifications. Evaluations of competencies at age 15 – carried out, for example, by the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) – reveal that large groups of young people perform at a low level in the major academic domains of reading, mathematics and science, which may prevent them from reaping even the minimal benefits of the knowledge society; in some countries, follow-up surveys are underway to assess what achievement threshold is necessary for a successful transition to work later on.

Finally, the data and general conclusions presented in this study suggest possibilities for further work, work that moves beyond the economic implications of an initial lack of training at the beginning of adult life and more deeply examining the ways in which low levels of education might be connected to other variables and other processes of marginalisation, as well as the impact of such interactions on social cohesion.

ANNEX A

Table A.1. **Publication threshold and data source, by country**

	Data source	Publication threshold
Australia	National	5 590
Austria	EU	2 000
Belgium	EU	2 500
Canada ¹	National	1 500
Czech Republic	EU	1 000
Denmark	EU	3 500
Finland	EU	2 500
France	EU	3 500
Germany	National	5 000
Greece	EU	2 500
Hungary	EU	2 500
Iceland	EU	1 000
Ireland	EU	2 500
Italy	National	3 500
Luxembourg	EU	500
Netherlands	EU	4 500
Norway	EU	5 000
Poland	EU	5 000
Portugal	EU	7 500
Slovak Republic	EU	2 500
Spain	National	5 000
Sweden	National	2 500
Switzerland	National	5 000
United Kingdom	National	10 000
United States	National	75 000

National = Labour force survey data provided directly by the country's national statistical office.

EU = Labour force survey data provided by Eurostat.

1. Data related to the situation of migrants come from the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics with a publication threshold of 13 000.

ANNEX B

Data Tables

Table C2.1. **Distribution of 20-to-24-year-olds, by educational situation (2002)**

	Not in education, without upper secondary education	Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	Not in education, with tertiary education	Not in education, unknown level of educational attainment	In education	Total
Australia	18.33	29.18	15.34	0.00	37.16	100.00
Austria	9.92	50.70	4.41	0.00	34.97	100.00
Belgium	15.04	29.71	15.48	0.00	39.78	100.00
Canada	10.91	33.29	16.53	0.00	39.26	100.00
Czech Republic	5.94	64.27	2.40	0.08	27.32	100.00
Denmark	11.95	36.51	2.94	0.23	48.37	100.00
Finland	10.10	37.59	4.33	0.00	47.97	100.00
France	14.53	30.49	11.44	0.00	43.53	100.00
Germany	14.19	42.89	2.94	1.90	38.08	100.00
Greece	17.85	41.49	5.41	0.00	35.25	100.00
Hungary	12.53	47.33	4.26	0.00	35.89	100.00
Iceland	30.64	21.47	1.77	0.00	46.11	100.00
Ireland	14.35	37.98	15.37	1.93	30.37	100.00
Italy	26.62	34.15	0.99	0.00	38.24	100.00
Luxembourg	19.20	33.29	3.68	1.06	42.76	100.00
Netherlands	15.07	24.11	4.07	1.15	55.60	100.00
Norway ¹	4.61	43.11	6.50	0.06	45.73	100.00
Poland	8.37	45.42	2.13	0.00	44.08	100.00
Portugal	48.77	14.93	4.56	0.00	31.74	100.00
Slovak Republic	5.52	68.31	2.69	0.00	23.47	100.00
Spain	30.46	12.42	13.70	0.00	43.42	100.00
Sweden	8.59	42.90	3.47	5.14	39.89	100.00
Switzerland	8.42	48.77	4.64	0.00	38.16	100.00
United Kingdom	8.00	47.20	14.82	0.51	29.46	100.00
United States ²	12.33	41.30	12.44	0.00	33.93	100.00
Total	14.73	38.35	9.58	0.30	37.05	100.00

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C2.2. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education (2002)

	Percentage	Population
Australia	18.3	252 525
Austria	9.9	44 498
Belgium	15.0	96 625
Canada	10.9	226 600
Czech Republic	5.9	45 947
Denmark	11.9	34 251
Finland	10.1	32 000
France	14.5	531 169
Germany	14.2	657 700
Greece	17.9	119 627
Hungary	12.5	93 179
Iceland	30.6	6 268
Ireland	14.4	49 696
Italy	26.6	922 813
Luxembourg	19.2	4 838
Netherlands	15.1	145 447
Norway ¹	4.6	12 415
Poland	8.4	248 728
Portugal	48.8	391 407
Slovak Republic	5.5	25 569
Spain	30.5	924 400
Sweden	8.6	44 174
Switzerland	8.4	35 565
United Kingdom	8.0	272 601
United States ²	12.3	2 336 028
Country mean and total	14.7	7 553 430

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C2.3. **Distribution of 20-to-24-year-olds, by educational situation (2002)**

	Not in education, without upper secondary education	Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	Not in education, with tertiary education	Not in education, unknown level of educational attainment	In education	Total
Australia	18.33	29.18	15.34	0.00	37.16	100.00
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Denmark	11.95	36.51	2.94	0.23	48.37	100.00
Finland	10.10	37.59	4.33	0.00	47.97	100.00
France	14.53	30.49	11.44	0.00	43.53	100.00
Germany	14.19	42.89	2.94	1.90	38.08	100.00
Greece	17.85	41.49	5.41	0.00	35.25	100.00
Hungary	12.53	47.33	4.26	0.00	35.89	100.00
Iceland	30.64	21.47	1.77	0.00	46.11	100.00
Ireland	14.35	37.98	15.37	1.93	30.37	100.00
Italy	26.62	34.15	0.99	0.00	38.24	100.00
Luxembourg	19.20	33.29	3.68	1.06	42.76	100.00
Netherlands	15.07	24.11	4.07	1.15	55.60	100.00
Norway ¹	4.61	43.11	6.50	0.06	45.73	100.00
Poland	8.37	45.42	2.13	0.00	44.08	100.00
Portugal	48.77	14.93	4.56	0.00	31.74	100.00
Slovak Republic	5.52	68.31	2.69	0.00	23.47	100.00
Spain	30.46	12.42	13.70	0.00	43.42	100.00
Sweden	8.59	42.90	3.47	5.14	39.89	100.00
Switzerland	8.42	48.77	4.64	0.00	38.16	100.00
United Kingdom	8.00	47.20	14.82	0.51	29.46	100.00
United States ²	12.33	41.30	12.44	0.00	33.93	100.00
Total	14.73	38.35	9.58	0.30	37.05	100.00

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C2.4. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education, by gender (2002)

	Males	Females
Australia	19.4	17.2
Austria	9.4	10.5
Belgium	17.5	12.5
Canada	13.1	8.7
Czech Republic	5.7	6.2
Denmark	13.6	10.3
Finland	13.2	7.0
France	15.8	13.2
Germany	14.0	14.4
Greece	22.6	13.4
Hungary	12.8	12.3
Iceland	35.4	25.6
Ireland	18.0	10.7
Italy	30.4	22.7
Luxembourg	15.0	23.5
Netherlands	15.6	14.5
Norway ¹	5.6	3.6
Poland	10.8	6.0
Portugal	56.6	40.8
Slovak Republic	6.7	4.4
Spain	37.0	23.6
Sweden	9.7	7.4
Switzerland	7.9	9.0
United Kingdom	8.2	7.7
United States ²	13.9	10.8
Country mean	16.6	12.8

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C2.5. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds and 25-to-29-year-olds not in education and without upper secondary education, by gender (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds			25-to-29-year-olds		
	20-to-24-year-old males	20-to-24-year-old females	20-to-24-year-old males and females	25-to-29-year-old males	25-to-29-year-old females	25-to-29-year-old males and females
Australia	19.4	17.2	18.3	20.4	21.2	20.8
Austria	9.4	10.5	9.9	9.7	15.0	12.4
Belgium	17.5	12.5	15.0	23.7	18.2	20.9
Canada	13.1	8.7	10.9	11.2	8.6	9.9
Czech Republic	5.7	6.2	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.4
Denmark	13.6	10.3	11.9	12.5	9.5	10.9
Finland	13.2	7.0	10.1	13.8	5.9	9.9
France	15.8	13.2	14.5	19.1	18.5	18.8
Germany	14.0	14.4	14.2	13.2	16.4	14.8
Greece	22.6	13.4	17.9	27.7	18.5	23.2
Hungary	12.8	12.3	12.5	16.6	17.1	16.8
Iceland	35.4	25.6	30.6	29.3	28.3	28.8
Ireland	18.0	10.7	14.4	20.7	15.6	18.2
Italy	30.4	22.7	26.6	37.0	31.8	34.4
Luxembourg	15.0	23.5	19.2	34.1	30.3	32.2
Netherlands	15.6	14.5	15.1	17.2	17.3	17.2
Norway ¹	5.6	3.6	4.6	4.3	3.5	3.9
Poland	10.8	6.0	8.4	9.5	8.3	8.9
Portugal	56.6	40.8	48.8	63.6	51.4	57.6
Slovak Republic	6.7	4.4	5.5	4.5	5.9	5.2
Spain	37.0	23.6	30.5	40.3	31.1	35.8
Sweden	9.7	7.4	8.6	6.8	5.4	6.1
Switzerland	7.9	9.0	8.4	11.8	11.2	11.5
United Kingdom	8.2	7.7	8.0	8.6	9.5	9.0
United States ²	13.9	10.8	12.3	12.9	11.0	11.9
Country mean	16.6	12.8	14.7	17.9	15.8	16.9

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

**Table C2.6. Percentage of young people living with parents,
by age group and gender (2002)**

	15-to-19-year-olds		20-to-24-year-olds		25-to-29-year-olds	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Austria	95.6	93.9	75.1	59.6	41.0	21.6
Belgium	92.9	91.8	71.5	62.3	27.4	17.6
Canada	91.1	89.0	58.4	47.1	22.7	15.3
Czech Republic	97.0	94.9	83.0	69.4	46.7	27.6
France	95.0	90.6	61.6	43.6	21.6	10.4
Greece	91.8	90.0	76.6	69.4	69.9	49.2
Hungary	95.8	90.5	80.2	65.3	48.3	29.2
Italy	96.5	95.9	91.7	84.7	72.7	53.1
Luxembourg	90.6	93.1	74.5	64.4	27.7	20.7
Netherlands	96.8	95.2	67.9	43.5	20.2	6.1
Poland	93.3	92.9	81.4	70.7	50.3	37.5
Portugal	91.1	89.9	82.4	72.9	57.7	43.1
Slovak Republic	94.9	94.0	89.2	80.5	68.1	53.2
Switzerland	98.8	96.3	83.9	68.3	32.2	12.9
United States ¹	94.1	92.8	58.3	49.7	16.7	13.6

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C2.7. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds living with parent(s), by gender and educational situation (2002)**

		Not in education, without upper secondary education	Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	Not in education, with tertiary education	In education attending upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	In education attending tertiary education
Austria	Males	72.2	75.6	79.5	89.8	69.7
	Females	34.8	54.8	56.0	79.0	72.0
Belgium	Males	50.9	62.4	70.9	81.2	91.7
	Females	34.0	36.8	56.0	69.7	91.2
Canada	Males	52.1	53.3	50.4	<i>m</i>	69.6
	Females	28.3	39.1	36.8	<i>m</i>	62.4
Czech Republic	Males	77.6	79.9	77.2	93.5	91.4
	Females	52.4	63.8	72.3	87.4	85.6
France	Males	66.6	61.1	47.5	80.9	59.0
	Females	31.9	32.5	30.4	69.7	54.8
Greece	Males	83.3	87.0	65.9	89.9	53.9
	Females	58.9	77.4	71.9	85.5	58.8
Hungary	Males	71.9	80.6	74.5	91.8	80.4
	Females	38.2	60.5	73.4	83.2	77.0
Italy	Males	86.8	92.9	89.7	<i>m</i>	95.4
	Females	65.9	85.4	79.3	<i>m</i>	94.9
Luxembourg	Males	51.9	68.5	65.1	85.6	90.7
	Females	36.4	46.3	61.5	91.0	95.3
Netherlands	Males	77.2	74.3	51.5	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>
	Females	38.8	43.8	26.7	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>
Poland	Males	77.8	78.3	80.9	91.2	83.1
	Females	60.1	63.0	68.3	83.3	78.5
Portugal	Males	76.3	83.6	82.6	94.5	94.1
	Females	58.4	67.0	83.4	93.2	89.4
Slovak Republic	Males	79.8	88.0	80.4	95.3	96.7
	Females	50.8	78.1	84.0	94.1	91.4
Switzerland	Males	89.1	84.9	58.9	93.0	75.5
	Females	49.9	60.9	75.9	84.5	77.7
United States ¹	Males	56.5	55.1	45.4	81.4	67.2
	Females	40.0	45.4	39.0	<i>c</i>	62.1
Country mean	Males	67.3	64.7	48.7	87.0	71.9
	Females	45.6	52.0	41.2	76.1	68.0

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

m indicates data not available.

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C2.8. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds living with parents and whose parents have not attained upper secondary education, by educational situation (2002)

	Not in education, without upper secondary education	Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	Not in education, with tertiary education	In education attending upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	In education attending tertiary education	All 20-to-24-year-olds
Austria	35.1	20.0	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	5.7	16.4
Belgium	56.9	40.4	14.6	39.8	12.4	25.4
Canada	34.5	11.8	7.7	<i>m</i>	6.2	11.0
Czech Republic	34.1	8.2	<i>c</i>	5.4	0.9	7.3
France	58.4	39.6	26.6	34.7	21.6	34.0
Greece	83.8	58.4	34.6	46.3	25.9	53.6
Hungary	55.7	19.5	<i>c</i>	14.0	3.1	16.9
Italy	87.1	65.1	39.6	<i>m</i>	34.3	58.5
Luxembourg	78.0	48.5	<i>c</i>	33.1	21.1	39.3
Netherlands	45.5	32.7	<i>c</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	28.4
Poland	42.0	21.1	<i>c</i>	13.2	4.2	15.6
Portugal	96.8	88.5	69.6	82.7	64.6	84.0
Slovak Republic	49.1	9.0	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	8.9
Switzerland	50.9	18.8	<i>c</i>	16.5	<i>c</i>	18.4
United States ¹	48.8	15.1	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	6.4	14.9
Country mean	62.1	25.2	11.8	26.1	12.3	24.7

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

m indicates data not available.

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection and *Education at a Glance: 2004 Edition*, Table A2.2.

Table C2.9. **Percentage of 20-to-24 year-olds not born in the country, by educational situation (2002)**

	Not in education, without upper secondary education	Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	In education attending tertiary education	All 20-to-24-year-olds
Australia	11.4	11.6	30.9	19.3
Austria	24.9	8.2	8.9	9.7
Belgium	16.2	4.8	6.7	7.5
Canada ¹	11.7	8.6	14.2	12.5
Czech Republic	5.0	0.9	1.6	1.3
Denmark	12.2	5.1	5.8	7.7
France	13.3	5.0	7.0	7.0
Germany	28.9	9.3	10.9	13.1
Greece	18.3	7.1	2.5	7.6
Ireland	6.6	7.3	8.5	9.0
Luxembourg	61.6	22.2	10.8	27.5
Netherlands	14.7	8.6	<i>c</i>	9.3
Portugal	9.8	12.8	8.7	9.8
Spain	5.2	3.5	1.6	3.9
Sweden	12.6	7.3	9.4	10.0
Switzerland	45.5	17.5	<i>c</i>	17.2
United Kingdom	13.6	3.5	14.4	8.0
United States ¹	32.5	9.8	10.7	13.1

Note: Ratios based on population excluding the category with "no information about country of birth".

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C2.10. **Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not born in the country, by educational situation and gender (2002)**

		Not in education, without upper secondary education	Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	In education attending tertiary education	All 20-to-24-year-olds
Australia	Males	11.0	9.6	33.3	18.6
	Females	12.0	14.2	28.8	20.0
Austria	Males	17.4	6.4	12.4	9.0
	Females	31.3	10.3	6.1	10.4
Belgium	Males	11.1	3.3	7.1	5.9
	Females	23.4	7.0	6.4	9.0
Canada ¹	Males	<i>c</i>	8.0	15.5	12.6
	Females	<i>c</i>	9.4	13.1	12.3
Czech Republic	Males	<i>c</i>	0.6	1.5	1.0
	Females	6.4	1.1	1.7	1.5
Denmark	Males	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	5.8
	Females	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	8.8	9.5
France	Males	10.8	4.0	5.9	5.8
	Females	16.4	6.3	8.0	8.1
Germany	Males	25.9	8.2	9.9	12.0
	Females	31.9	10.6	11.7	14.2
Greece	Males	17.6	6.2	3.3	8.0
	Females	19.4	7.9	<i>c</i>	7.3
Ireland	Males	<i>c</i>	6.4	7.7	8.1
	Females	<i>c</i>	8.2	9.1	9.9
Luxembourg	Males	51.9	21.5	<i>c</i>	23.2
	Females	67.8	23.2	<i>c</i>	31.8
Netherlands	Males	6.7	7.6	<i>c</i>	7.7
	Females	23.5	9.4	<i>c</i>	11.0
Portugal	Males	8.5	14.3	8.8	9.8
	Females	11.5	11.5	8.6	9.7
Spain	Males	4.8	<i>c</i>	1.4	3.6
	Females	5.8	4.1	1.7	4.2
Sweden	Males	11.1	6.1	9.2	9.0
	Females	14.7	8.8	9.5	11.0
Switzerland	Males	38.7	17.1	<i>c</i>	17.9
	Females	51.8	18.0	<i>c</i>	16.5
United Kingdom	Males	11.4	3.6	14.8	7.7
	Females	16.1	3.4	14.1	8.3
United States ¹	Males	36.1	10.6	13.1	14.8
	Females	28.0	8.9	8.6	11.4

Note: Ratios based on population excluding the category with “no information about country of birth”.
c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C3.1. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by gender and educational attainment (2002)

		Not in education, without upper secondary education	Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education
Australia	Males	10.4	2.7
	Females	42.7	14.7
Austria	Males	17.9	<i>c</i>
	Females	34.4	5.6
Belgium	Males	15.2	6.8
	Females	35.9	17.0
Canada	Males	13.7	6.1
	Females	43.3	13.9
Czech Republic	Males	11.3	3.4
	Females	53.0	23.1
Denmark	Males	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
	Females	37.1	12.4
Finland	Males	15.9	8.6
	Females	45.3	19.4
France	Males	12.2	3.6
	Females	35.4	12.4
Germany	Males	13.8	6.3
	Females	41.9	12.9
Greece	Males	7.7	6.4
	Females	42.6	15.6
Hungary	Males	29.0	11.5
	Females	60.9	25.1
Ireland	Males	12.4	10.5
	Females	44.8	18.4
Italy	Males	14.6	16.0
	Females	38.7	17.3
Luxembourg	Males	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
	Females	18.6	<i>c</i>
Netherlands	Males	9.7	<i>c</i>
	Females	26.8	6.2
Poland	Males	21.6	7.3
	Females	45.7	21.1
Portugal	Males	5.7	<i>c</i>
	Females	17.2	<i>c</i>
Slovak Republic	Males	18.2	1.9
	Females	62.7	18.9
Sweden	Males	<i>c</i>	7.3
	Females	21.9	9.5
Switzerland	Males	<i>c</i>	9.5
	Females	27.5	6.5
Spain	Males	7.4	3.4
	Females	22.9	8.5
United Kingdom	Males	19.6	4.6
	Females	67.1	19.6
United States ¹	Males	12.8	8.3
	Females	42.1	21.9

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C3.2. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by gender, educational attainment and living status (2002)

		Not in education, without upper secondary education		Not in education, with upper secondary education or post-secondary non-tertiary education	
		Living with parents	All	Living with parents	All
Austria	Males	21.6	17.9	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
	Females	31.4	34.4	<i>c</i>	5.6
Belgium	Males	16.6	15.2	7.6	6.8
	Females	24.0	35.9	16.3	17.0
Canada	Males	14.8	13.7	7.0	6.1
	Females	36.7	43.2	8.4	13.9
Czech Republic	Males	11.2	11.3	4.1	3.4
	Females	45.8	53.0	12.2	23.1
France	Males	15.0	12.2	4.0	3.6
	Females	24.2	35.4	7.6	12.4
Greece	Males	8.4	7.7	6.6	6.4
	Females	29.3	42.6	12.0	15.6
Hungary	Males	30.4	29.0	12.5	11.5
	Females	47.3	60.9	13.5	25.1
Italy	Males	15.4	14.6	16.6	16.0
	Females	30.7	38.7	15.6	17.3
Netherlands	Males	11.3	9.7	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
	Females	18.8	26.8	<i>c</i>	6.2
Poland	Males	23.2	21.6	7.8	7.3
	Females	39.9	45.7	13.2	21.1
Portugal	Males	5.8	5.7	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
	Females	14.5	17.2	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
Slovak Republic	Males	21.3	18.2	1.9	1.9
	Females	<i>c</i>	62.7	9.3	18.9
United States ¹	Males	19.2	12.8	11.3	8.3
	Females	38.3	42.1	21.3	21.9

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C3.3. Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education and not in the labour force, by educational attainment and migrant status (2002)

	Not in education, without upper secondary education		Not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	
	Born in another country	Born in the country	Born in another country	Born in the country
Australia	30.7	24.7	16.6	6.7
Austria	28.9	26.0	14.0	2.2
Belgium	49.9	18.7	20.3	10.5
France	39.4	20.2	17.3	7.0
Germany	39.5	23.0	18.6	8.2
Greece	22.0	21.1	20.4	10.6
Netherlands	44.0	13.1	14.2	4.1
Spain	24.3	12.7	10.3	6.0
United Kingdom	48.8	41.1	15.8	11.5
United States ¹	23.5	26.9	15.2	14.9

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C3.4. Percentage of those not in education with low levels of educational attainment, not in the labour force and who have never had a job, by age and gender (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds		25-to-29-year-olds	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Austria	10.0	19.9	8.2	20.0
Belgium	12.6	24.8	9.1	26.3
Canada	4.3	18.9	5.2	14.5
Czech Republic	10.7	32.6	15.3	23.9
France	7.1	21.1	4.0	15.9
Germany	8.6	26.6	6.3	31.0
Greece	7.0	36.6	4.0	37.4
Hungary	20.0	35.9	11.0	24.5
Ireland	8.5	31.9	10.5	38.4
Poland	19.1	35.4	12.6	23.9
Portugal	3.5	7.3	2.4	4.4
Slovak Republic	17.4	46.6	17.2	37.9
Spain	2.9	11.2	2.0	12.5
United Kingdom	9.8	32.3	11.3	27.0

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.1. Employment rates for 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, by level of educational attainment (2002)

	Without upper secondary education	With upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education	With tertiary education
Australia	59.3	85.4	90.3
Austria	60.1	90.7	97.2
Belgium	55.1	77.0	88.3
Canada	57.6	79.1	85.5
Czech Republic	43.3	77.1	87.6
Denmark	68.8	86.1	76.9
Finland	58.3	74.7	89.9
France	51.4	77.3	86.1
Germany	53.2	81.5	85.3
Greece	62.9	64.9	67.9
Hungary	44.8	74.5	86.0
Iceland	81.5	94.2	<i>c</i>
Ireland	64.7	80.7	88.3
Italy	56.4	64.3	53.9
Luxembourg	80.5	91.2	95.2
Netherlands	78.4	92.9	98.3
Norway ¹	54.7	78.0	88.2
Poland	31.6	51.0	64.8
Portugal	81.7	82.9	79.9
Slovak Republic	16.9	60.9	71.1
Spain	71.5	75.7	75.2
Sweden	69.9	82.7	89.0
Switzerland	71.2	86.9	80.9
United Kingdom	44.9	80.6	89.7
United States ²	61.8	77.3	87.6
Total	60.0	75.7	85.8

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.2. **Employment rates for 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, by gender and level of educational attainment (2002)**

		Without upper secondary education	With upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	With tertiary education
Australia	Males	69.8	89.8	90.8
	Females	47.2	79.4	90.1
Austria	Males	62.7	91.3	94.5
	Females	57.9	90.0	98.2
Belgium	Males	60.3	81.2	87.0
	Females	47.7	71.0	89.1
Canada	Males	65.5	80.6	83.6
	Females	45.2	77.1	87.0
Czech Republic	Males	56.0	85.2	85.7
	Females	31.9	68.8	88.2
Denmark	Males	77.8	89.2	78.4
	Females	57.6	83.2	<i>c</i>
Finland	Males	65.9	77.8	100.0
	Females	43.8	71.0	86.5
France	Males	60.8	83.4	86.5
	Females	40.1	69.7	85.8
Germany	Males	62.3	82.5	87.7
	Females	43.9	80.3	84.0
Greece	Males	78.8	74.6	71.5
	Females	37.7	56.3	66.3
Hungary	Males	55.1	79.7	88.4
	Females	34.0	68.3	84.7
Iceland	Males	79.7	100.0	<i>c</i>
	Females	84.0	89.4	<i>c</i>
Ireland	Males	74.3	84.4	86.6
	Females	48.7	76.9	89.4
Italy	Males	65.7	67.9	59.5
	Females	43.7	60.6	50.6
Luxembourg	Males	91.1	96.6	<i>c</i>
	Females	73.7	83.3	<i>c</i>
Netherlands	Males	85.9	94.9	96.7
	Females	70.0	91.1	99.0
Poland	Males	37.0	55.9	62.3
	Females	22.1	46.0	65.7
Portugal	Males	87.1	85.8	85.6
	Females	74.0	80.6	77.5
Slovak Republic	Males	23.9	66.8	67.1
	Females	<i>c</i>	54.6	72.9
Spain	Males	78.4	81.2	82.8
	Females	60.1	71.1	67.7
Sweden	Males	75.1	82.7	84.1
	Females	62.8	82.8	91.7
Switzerland	Males	78.0	84.4	76.1
	Females	64.9	89.7	87.0
United Kingdom	Males	60.7	85.8	87.9
	Females	27.6	74.7	91.4
United States ¹	Males	74.5	83.1	87.1
	Females	45.8	71.3	88.0
Total	Males	70.0	80.4	86.0
	Females	47.0	70.5	85.7

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.3. **Employment rates for the YALLE group and comparison groups (2002)**

YALLE group	15-to-19-year-olds, not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds, not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds, not in education, with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds, not in education, with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds, not in education, with tertiary education
Australia	59.3	58.4	59.8	85.4	87.9
Austria	60.1	59.0	66.3	90.7	95.8
Belgium	55.1	29.7	58.2	77.0	93.0
Canada	57.6	47.9	58.6	79.1	87.4
Czech Republic	43.3	10.4	46.0	77.1	88.3
Denmark	68.8	70.8	74.9	86.1	89.0
Finland	58.3	48.3	64.6	74.7	87.9
France	51.4	33.4	58.5	77.3	88.5
Germany	53.2	39.6	54.4	81.5	90.3
Greece	62.9	55.4	67.7	64.9	75.9
Hungary	44.8	23.0	47.9	74.5	85.2
Iceland	81.5	75.1	87.7	94.2	95.5
Ireland	64.7	40.7	62.3	80.7	92.3
Italy	56.4	42.5	62.3	64.3	72.3
Luxembourg	80.5	53.6	80.2	91.2	93.0
Netherlands	78.4	77.6	69.9	92.9	94.5
Norway ¹	54.7	47.5	59.7	78.0	86.4
Poland	31.6	25.5	39.1	51.0	82.5
Portugal	81.7	67.0	84.7	82.9	91.2
Slovak Republic	16.9	<i>c</i>	21.1	60.9	89.2
Spain	71.5	59.9	69.6	75.7	80.1
Sweden	69.9	52.9	76.8	82.7	94.1
Switzerland	71.2	52.8	71.1	86.9	88.9
United Kingdom	44.9	38.8	44.9	80.6	92.7
United States ²	61.8	51.6	62.1	77.3	87.8
Total	60.0	48.5	62.1	75.7	87.5

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.4. A measure of experience and education advantages in comparison with the YALLE group (2002)

	Experience advantage	Education advantage
Australia	0.5	26.0
Austria	6.1	30.6
Belgium	3.1	21.9
Canada	1.0	21.5
Czech Republic	2.6	33.8
Denmark	6.1	17.3
Finland	6.4	16.5
France	7.1	26.0
Germany	1.2	28.3
Greece	4.8	2.0
Hungary	3.1	29.6
Iceland	6.2	12.7
Ireland	-2.5	16.0
Italy	5.9	7.9
Luxembourg	-0.3	10.7
Netherlands	-8.4	14.5
Norway ¹	5.0	23.3
Poland	7.5	19.4
Portugal	3.1	1.3
Slovak Republic	4.2	44.0
Spain	-1.9	4.2
Sweden	6.9	12.8
Switzerland	-0.1	15.7
United Kingdom	-0.1	35.6
United States ²	0.3	15.5

1. 2003 data.

2. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.5. **Comparative measures of experience and education advantages, by gender (2002)**

	Males		Females	
	Experience advantage	Education advantage	Experience advantage	Education advantage
Australia	3.2	19.9	-0.2	32.2
Austria	16.2	28.6	0.5	32.2
Belgium	11.5	20.8	-7.7	23.3
Canada	1.9	15.1	1.7	31.9
Czech Republic	3.7	29.2	1.0	36.8
Denmark	9.9	11.4	1.3	25.6
Finland	4.7	11.9	6.5	27.2
France	11.3	22.6	4.3	29.6
Germany	7.8	20.2	-2.5	36.4
Greece	6.4	-4.2	2.6	18.6
Hungary	8.3	24.6	-1.5	34.4
Iceland	13.0	20.3	-1.8	5.4
Ireland	0.2	10.0	-2.8	28.2
Italy	13.5	2.2	-1.4	16.8
Luxembourg	-2.3	5.6	-3.0	9.6
Netherlands	1.5	9.0	-17.6	21.0
Poland	9.9	19.0	8.0	23.8
Portugal	4.6	-1.3	2.0	6.6
Slovak Republic	2.4	42.9	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
Spain	5.1	2.8	-9.2	11.0
Sweden	5.7	7.6	8.9	19.9
Switzerland	0.7	6.3	-1.6	24.8
United Kingdom	0.2	25.1	1.9	47.2
United States ¹	7.3	8.6	-5.8	25.5

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.6. **Employment rate of 20-to-24 year-olds not in education, by level of education and living status (2002)**

	YALLE group		20-to-24-year-olds with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	
	Living with parents	Not living with parents	Living with parents	Not living with parents
Austria	62.0	58.1	92.9	86.4
Belgium	54.8	55.3	79.2	74.5
Canada	58.7	56.7	80.2	78.2
Czech Republic	43.7	42.7	81.2	66.7
France	52.5	50.3	75.8	78.8
Greece	67.8	48.9	65.4	62.5
Hungary	48.3	40.5	78.1	65.5
Italy	58.8	48.0	64.7	61.3
Luxembourg	88.3	74.8	96.6	83.2
Netherlands	82.9	71.8	95.2	89.7
Poland	30.2	35.1	49.3	55.2
Portugal	83.2	78.3	82.7	83.4
Slovak Republic	18.0	14.4	62.9	51.0
Switzerland	79.7	52.6	86.1	89.3
United States ¹	58.4	65.1	75.4	79.3
Total	59.1	59.9	72.0	76.6

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.7. **Employment rate of the YALLE group, by gender and living status (2002)**

	Males		Females	
	Living with parents	Not living with parents	Living with parents	Not living with parents
Austria	62.7	62.7	60.7	56.4
Belgium	57.4	63.3	49.4	46.8
Canada	62.7	68.5	47.4	44.3
Czech Republic	52.7	67.6	31.7	32.2
France	55.0	72.3	46.0	37.4
Greece	77.2	86.7	46.8	24.7
Hungary	51.6	64.1	41.7	29.2
Italy	64.5	73.8	48.6	34.3
Luxembourg	96.9	84.8	80.4	69.9
Netherlands	84.6	90.4	79.2	64.2
Poland	31.5	56.2	27.2	14.5
Portugal	86.4	89.5	77.3	69.4
Slovak Republic	23.7	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
Switzerland	78.1	<i>c</i>	82.3	<i>c</i>
United States ¹	65.2	86.6	46.2	45.6
Total	64.1	80.7	49.6	43.5

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.8. **Employment rates by age, educational attainment and migrant status (2002)**

	20-to-24-year-olds without upper secondary education		20-to-24-year-olds with upper secondary education		25-to-29-year-olds without upper secondary education	
	Born in another country	Born in the country	Born in another country	Born in the country	Born in another country	Born in the country
Australia	61.7	59.0	74.6	86.8	56.1	60.4
Austria	61.9	59.6	78.5	91.8	59.1	70.9
Belgium	28.0	60.4	55.1	78.1	35.2	65.5
Canada ¹	76.9	70.5	54.3	78.3	<i>c</i>	67.2
Czech Republic	46.2	43.2	68.8	77.2	66.4	45.3
France	37.6	53.5	65.4	78.0	44.5	62.0
Germany	48.1	55.0	71.2	82.5	50.2	57.5
Greece	64.9	62.4	62.0	65.1	77.6	65.6
Luxembourg	79.6	82.0	75.6	95.7	83.1	74.3
Netherlands	56.0	82.5	83.3	93.8	43.7	81.4
Portugal	81.0	81.7	78.2	83.6	79.4	85.6
Spain	63.4	71.9	71.2	75.8	59.6	70.2
Sweden	65.2	70.6	71.1	83.6	71.0	78.1
Switzerland	70.6	71.8	74.0	89.7	65.8	82.8
United Kingdom	45.2	44.9	73.0	80.9	37.5	46.5
United States ¹	68.6	58.5	79.9	77.1	65.2	59.4
Total	62.4	61.9	76.5	78.9	59.5	64.7

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.9. **Difference in employment rates, by age, educational attainment and migrant status (2002)**

YALLE group	20-to-24-year-olds with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education			25-29 year-olds without upper secondary education					
	Born in another country	Born in the country	Difference	Born in another country	Born in the country	Difference	Born in another country	Born in the country	Difference
Australia	61.7	59.0	2.7	74.6	86.8	-12.2	56.1	60.4	-4.3
Austria	61.9	59.6	2.3	78.5	91.8	-13.3	59.1	70.9	-11.9
Belgium	28.0	60.4	-32.3	55.1	78.1	-23.0	35.2	65.5	-30.3
Canada ¹	76.9	70.5	6.5	54.3	78.3	-24.0	<i>c</i>	67.2	<i>c</i>
Czech Republic	46.2	43.2	3.0	68.8	77.2	-8.4	66.4	45.3	21.1
France	37.6	53.5	-15.9	65.4	78.0	-12.6	44.5	62.0	-17.5
Germany	48.1	55.0	-6.9	71.2	82.5	-11.3	50.2	57.5	-7.3
Greece	64.9	62.4	2.5	62.0	65.1	-3.1	77.6	65.6	11.9
Luxembourg	79.6	82.0	-2.5	75.6	95.7	-20.0	83.1	74.3	8.7
Netherlands	56.0	82.5	-26.4	83.3	93.8	-10.5	43.7	81.4	-37.7
Portugal	81.0	81.7	-0.7	78.2	83.6	-5.4	79.4	85.6	-6.3
Spain	63.4	71.9	-8.6	71.2	75.8	-4.7	59.6	70.2	-10.6
Sweden	65.2	70.6	-5.4	71.1	83.6	-12.5	71.0	78.1	-7.1
Switzerland	70.6	71.8	-1.2	74.0	89.7	-15.7	65.8	82.8	-17.0
United Kingdom	45.2	44.9	0.3	73.0	80.9	-7.9	37.5	46.5	-9.1
United States ¹	68.6	58.5	10.0	79.9	77.1	2.9	65.2	59.4	5.7
Total	62.4	61.9	0.6	76.5	78.9	-2.4	59.5	64.7	-5.1

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.10. **Distribution of the YALLE group by occupation (2002)**

	Skilled white and blue collar	Low skilled white collar	Low skilled blue collar	Total	Percentage of the YALLE group in the 20-to-24-year-old population
Australia	37.6	30.6	31.8	100.0	18.3
Austria	22.4	39.1	38.5	100.0	9.9
Belgium	33.4	33.5	33.1	100.0	15.0
Canada	27.0	30.3	42.7	100.0	10.9
Czech Republic	23.4	25.8	50.7	100.0	5.9
Denmark	28.1	32.3	39.6	100.0	11.9
Finland	33.5	19.9	46.6	100.0	10.1
France	27.0	32.5	40.5	100.0	14.5
Germany	36.1	29.1	34.8	100.0	14.2
Greece	51.8	29.3	18.9	100.0	17.9
Hungary	29.6	21.6	48.8	100.0	12.5
Ireland	33.8	26.8	39.4	100.0	14.4
Italy	44.9	29.2	25.9	100.0	26.6
Luxembourg	21.4	41.5	37.1	100.0	19.2
Netherlands	34.8	33.5	31.7	100.0	15.1
Poland	57.1	14.4	28.5	100.0	8.4
Portugal	42.1	28.6	29.3	100.0	48.8
Spain	34.8	23.7	41.5	100.0	30.5
Sweden	24.8	46.5	28.7	100.0	8.6
Switzerland	31.5	33.3	35.2	100.0	8.4
United Kingdom	24.4	22.7	52.9	100.0	8.0
United States ¹	29.9	41.7	28.4	100.0	12.3
Total	34.4	32.5	33.1	100.0	14.9

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.11. Percentage of the YALLE group and comparison groups in skilled occupation (2002)

	Percentage of population in skilled white and blue collar		
	YALLE group	20-to-24-year-olds not in education with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education without upper secondary education
Australia	37.6	47.5	36.5
Austria	22.4	50.1	21.1
Belgium	33.4	37.0	32.6
Canada	27.0	29.5	27.8
Czech Republic	23.4	48.1	35.8
Denmark	28.1	38.3	26.3
Finland	33.5	37.4	41.9
France	27.0	36.0	30.0
Germany	36.1	53.5	32.0
Greece	51.8	37.3	56.8
Hungary	29.6	46.5	32.6
Ireland	33.8	34.9	31.1
Italy	44.9	47.2	43.3
Luxembourg	21.4	36.0	19.7
Netherlands	34.8	46.7	36.7
Poland	57.1	46.9	65.3
Portugal	42.1	32.1	46.8
Spain	34.8	53.6	36.5
Sweden	24.8	33.2	28.9
Switzerland	31.5	55.3	43.6
United Kingdom	24.4	41.5	24.0
United States ¹	29.9	26.4	37.6
Total	34.4	36.7	38.0

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.12. **Benefits of further education for access to skilled occupations (2002)**

	Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education in skilled occupations	Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education in skilled occupations	Difference
Australia	37.6	47.5	9.8
Austria	22.4	50.1	27.7
Belgium	33.4	37.0	3.6
Canada	27.0	29.5	2.5
Czech Republic	23.4	48.1	24.7
Denmark	28.1	38.3	10.2
Finland	33.5	37.4	3.8
France	27.0	36.0	9.0
Germany	36.1	53.5	17.4
Greece	51.8	37.3	-14.5
Hungary	29.6	46.5	16.9
Iceland	21.6	39.6	18.0
Ireland	33.8	34.9	1.1
Italy	44.9	47.2	2.3
Luxembourg	21.4	36.0	14.6
Netherlands	34.8	46.7	11.9
Poland	57.1	46.9	-10.2
Portugal	42.1	32.1	-10.0
Spain	34.8	53.6	18.7
Sweden	24.8	33.2	8.4
Switzerland	31.5	55.3	23.8
United Kingdom	24.4	41.5	17.1
United States ¹	29.9	26.4	-3.6
Total	34.4	36.7	2.3

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.13. **Benefits of further education for access to skilled occupations, by gender (2002)**

	Males			Females		
	Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education in skilled occupations	Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education in skilled occupations	Difference	Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education in skilled occupations	Percentage of 20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education in skilled occupations	Difference
Australia	43.9	57.5	13.5	26.9	32.2	5.3
Austria	28.7	70.3	41.6	16.5	26.8	10.2
Belgium	42.8	48.4	5.6	16.2	18.7	2.4
Canada	29.7	37.2	7.5	21.1	18.8	-2.2
France	36.4	50.6	14.1	9.8	14.5	4.8
Germany	43.0	67.9	24.9	27.2	39.4	12.2
Greece	55.8	49.2	-6.7	38.7	23.8	-14.8
Hungary	34.6	54.6	20.0	21.0	35.4	14.4
Ireland	42.1	51.1	8.9	12.6	16.0	3.4
Italy	52.0	56.1	4.0	30.6	37.2	6.6
Netherlands	48.1	55.0	6.9	17.9	39.5	21.7
Poland	63.5	57.1	-6.3	38.5	34.2	-4.3
Portugal	51.9	50.8	-1.1	26.2	16.9	-9.3
Spain	44.8	65.1	20.3	13.7	42.9	29.2
United Kingdom	12.6	31.1	18.5	53.1	54.6	1.5
Total	42.8	44.9	2.1	18.4	26.9	8.5

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.14. **Proportion of young people in low skilled employment, by age group and educational attainment (2002)**

	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with tertiary education
Australia	62.4	52.5	63.5	43.3	23.1
Austria	77.6	49.9	78.9	48.3	15.1
Belgium	66.6	63.0	67.4	55.6	25.3
Canada	73.0	70.5	72.2	62.9	34.0
Czech Republic	76.6	51.9	64.2	47.2	6.6
Denmark	71.9	61.7	73.7	53.6	12.1
Finland	66.5	62.6	58.1	55.4	22.8
France	73.0	64.0	70.0	59.4	24.9
Germany	63.9	46.5	68.0	45.3	13.1
Greece	48.2	62.7	43.2	61.2	22.4
Hungary	70.4	53.5	67.4	50.3	10.2
Iceland	78.4	60.4	61.7	39.7	<i>c</i>
Ireland	66.2	65.1	68.9	59.2	29.4
Italy	55.1	52.8	56.7	48.0	21.4
Luxembourg	78.6	64.0	80.3	57.5	<i>c</i>
Netherlands	65.2	53.3	63.3	41.8	13.2
Poland	42.9	53.1	34.7	45.0	14.7
Portugal	57.9	67.9	53.2	64.2	13.2
Slovak Republic	88.0	58.9	66.5	50.8	9.8
Spain	65.2	46.4	63.5	36.3	62.3
Sweden	75.2	66.8	71.1	56.0	7.4
Switzerland	68.5	44.7	56.4	45.0	17.1
United Kingdom	75.6	58.5	76.0	57.7	16.1
United States ¹	70.1	73.6	62.4	64.6	33.4
Total	65.6	63.3	62.0	55.0	28.0

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.15. Proportion of 20-to-24-year-olds with low levels of education in low skilled employment, by gender (2002)

	Males	Females
Australia	56.1	73.1
Austria	71.3	83.5
Belgium	57.2	83.8
Canada	70.3	78.9
Czech Republic	68.3	89.4
Denmark	64.8	83.7
Finland	65.1	70.2
France	63.6	90.2
Germany	57.0	72.8
Greece	44.2	61.3
Hungary	65.4	79.0
Iceland	80.0	76.2
Ireland	57.9	87.4
Italy	48.0	69.4
Luxembourg	55.4	96.9
Netherlands	51.9	82.1
Poland	36.5	61.5
Portugal	48.1	73.8
Spain	55.2	86.3
Sweden	62.5	95.9
Switzerland	56.5	81.9
United Kingdom	87.4	46.9
United States ¹	59.6	91.5
Total	57.2	81.6

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.16. Difference between males and females in the share of employment in low skilled occupations, by age group and educational attainment (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with tertiary education
Australia	17.1	25.3	-0.2	20.8	5.3
Austria	12.1	43.5	6.7	32.4	8.6
Belgium	26.5	29.7	26.5	24.3	4.6
Canada	8.6	18.4	15.8	14.2	9.7
Czech Republic	21.1	19.2	17.4	18.9	5.4
Denmark	18.9	43.4	16.5	46.1	7.7
Finland	5.1	33.6	21.3	31.5	14.1
France	26.7	36.0	28.5	33.6	12.4
Germany	15.9	28.5	20.2	20.0	3.6
Greece	17.2	25.4	20.2	16.9	-4.7
Hungary	13.6	19.2	12.6	19.9	-1.2
Iceland	-3.8	27.9	10.7	30.9	0.0
Ireland	29.5	35.1	25.6	31.5	7.1
Italy	21.5	18.9	25.2	10.7	6.5
Luxembourg	41.6	19.5	29.8	17.5	0.0
Netherlands	30.2	15.4	36.8	21.9	3.2
Poland	24.9	23.0	-2.7	14.6	13.6
Portugal	25.6	33.8	25.2	28.4	3.8
Spain	31.1	22.2	31.5	12.2	22.2
Sweden	33.4	29.6	23.4	29.3	2.6
Switzerland	25.3	19.4	24.9	15.3	7.4
United Kingdom	-40.5	-23.5	-22.2	-17.2	0.6
United States ¹	32.0	19.3	29.4	19.7	1.1
Total	24.5	18.1	24.0	16.2	4.1

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.17. **Distribution of the YALLE group and total employment by industry group (2002)**

	Resource industries – YALLE group	Goods-producing industries – YALLE group	Lower-tier services – YALLE group	Upper-tier services – YALLE group	Resource industries – Total	Goods-producing industries – Total	Lower-tier services – Total	Upper-tier services – Total	Total
Australia	6.6	31.1	40.3	22.0	5.1	19.4	29.8	45.7	100.0
Austria	5.3	30.5	37.8	26.4	5.9	28.5	26.2	39.4	100.0
Belgium	4.4	34.1	32.3	29.2	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>
Canada	6.3	34.4	42.0	17.3	3.9	20.8	29.1	46.2	100.0
Czech Republic	6.1	57.6	25.9	10.4	6.1	36.9	20.6	36.4	100.0
Denmark	7.9	28.3	19.6	44.2	3.3	23.9	22.0	50.8	100.0
Finland	1.8	39.2	32.5	26.5	5.6	26.1	21.0	47.3	100.0
France	2.4	34.5	32.9	30.3	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>
Germany	2.1	29.3	33.1	35.5	2.9	31.3	23.6	42.2	100.0
Greece	24.5	33.7	36.9	4.8	16.3	21.1	29.1	33.5	100.0
Hungary	8.9	51.4	21.2	18.5	6.7	32.1	22.2	39.0	100.0
Iceland	7.3	30.2	36.1	26.4	7.5	22.1	23.7	46.7	100.0
Ireland	5.1	50.0	31.8	13.0	7.4	26.8	25.4	40.4	100.0
Italy	6.2	50.2	34.5	9.1	5.4	31.1	25.6	38.0	100.0
Luxembourg	0.8	24.2	37.8	37.2	1.5	21.3	24.9	52.3	100.0
Netherlands	4.2	29.3	39.9	26.6	3.2	20.2	25.3	51.3	100.0
Poland	35.8	41.2	13.9	9.1	21.2	24.9	19.4	34.5	100.0
Portugal	4.7	48.0	31.0	16.3	12.8	32.9	26.6	27.7	100.0
Spain	6.9	49.4	33.6	10.0	6.3	30.4	28.7	34.6	100.0
Sweden	1.7	26.3	34.5	37.5	2.3	22.4	20.0	55.3	100.0
Switzerland	0.5	30.2	34.2	35.1	4.2	24.2	26.8	44.7	100.0
United Kingdom	3.7	37.9	29.9	28.4	1.8	23.0	25.4	49.8	100.0
United States ¹	7.2	31.1	39.7	22.0	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>
Total	6.6	38.2	35.3	19.8	5.8	26.9	25.1	42.3	100.0

m indicates data not available.

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection and OECD Labour Force Statistics database.

Table C4.18. **Proportion of young people employed in upper-tier services, by age and educational attainment (2002)**

	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with tertiary education	Percentage of total employment in upper-tier services
Australia	22.0	28.3	30.2	29.6	67.2	45.7
Austria	26.4	29.5	32.6	32.1	63.5	39.4
Belgium	29.2	35.1	28.7	35.8	67.4	<i>m</i>
Canada	17.3	25.5	20.2	33.5	60.1	46.2
Czech Republic	10.4	26.0	22.6	30.3	65.1	36.4
Denmark	44.2	38.3	43.2	39.3	73.4	50.8
Finland	26.5	35.7	30.3	33.5	59.2	47.3
France	30.3	30.6	37.5	37.3	63.3	<i>m</i>
Germany	35.5	43.4	34.6	39.6	65.2	42.2
Greece	4.8	26.0	8.4	30.6	69.9	33.5
Hungary	18.5	24.5	22.4	29.7	63.6	39.0
Iceland	26.4	38.0	37.4	34.4	84.7	46.7
Ireland	13.0	26.9	19.5	30.3	61.2	40.4
Italy	9.1	29.7	15.1	36.6	65.8	38.0
Luxembourg	37.2	53.7	29.2	55.3	85.0	52.3
Netherlands	26.6	46.3	33.3	45.6	72.0	51.3
Poland	9.1	14.3	7.6	21.6	64.5	34.5
Portugal	16.3	40.8	15.4	42.5	68.6	27.7
Spain	10.0	38.4	13.3	49.7	26.5	34.6
Sweden	37.5	42.5	39.2	42.6	74.0	55.3
Switzerland	35.1	39.7	27.5	44.1	63.7	44.7
United Kingdom	28.4	38.5	25.0	40.7	67.2	49.8
United States ¹	22.0	34.4	20.0	37.8	59.9	<i>m</i>
Total	19.8	33.6	21.0	36.8	61.2	42.3

m = indicates data not available.

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection and OECD Labour Force Statistics database.

Table C4.19. Proportion of young people employed with short job tenure (less than six months in the current job), by age and educational attainment (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with tertiary education
Australia	24.8	19.6	16.2	13.4	17.5
Austria	17.9	14.6	12.6	7.7	10.8
Belgium	21.7	21.6	15.3	9.9	11.3
Canada	23.5	22.1	16.6	11.0	11.9
Czech Republic	27.9	14.6	13.7	7.3	7.9
Denmark	30.7	33.3	16.2	15.6	23.2
Finland	28.1	33.9	21.7	15.7	16.4
France	34.7	27.2	19.1	13.0	15.5
Germany	26.8	20.4	17.2	10.1	15.1
Greece	15.2	17.0	11.6	8.5	7.5
Hungary	19.0	10.2	13.5	7.0	6.2
Ireland	13.0	14.2	11.1	9.2	12.0
Italy	14.3	16.4	9.3	8.0	17.4
Luxembourg	14.6	13.5	8.7	7.1	c
Netherlands	10.0	11.4	6.8	4.9	6.3
Poland	19.6	20.8	9.7	8.8	12.2
Portugal	17.4	18.5	11.7	7.0	12.2
Spain	25.9	32.1	18.5	17.6	15.7
Switzerland	23.7	19.5	12.1	13.5	15.7
United Kingdom	26.1	18.7	13.4	11.5	10.7
Total	22.5	20.0	14.2	10.5	13.4

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.20. Proportion of employment in limited duration jobs for selected groups not in education (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-29 year-old with tertiary education
Austria	14.1	8.4	6.1	3.1	7.7
Belgium	16.7	21.0	11.6	8.6	9.9
Canada	12.0	14.0	9.6	8.7	14.3
Czech Republic	20.1	10.2	10.2	5.7	8.5
Denmark	19.9	10.1	8.4	3.8	12.6
Finland	21.3	33.6	12.9	17.1	27.1
France	42.4	33.3	22.4	18.0	18.9
Germany	28.0	25.1	11.9	8.4	19.5
Greece	15.1	17.0	11.7	8.6	14.4
Hungary	21.6	11.6	16.5	6.3	6.8
Italy	18.8	28.0	12.8	11.7	29.5
Netherlands	27.2	22.1	16.3	12.5	16.6
Poland	30.8	30.2	19.7	13.6	21.9
Portugal	34.7	46.4	21.9	25.5	42.6
Spain	60.0	59.1	45.0	40.6	35.8
Sweden	32.3	32.9	21.5	14.8	21.3
Switzerland	95.6	97.0	99.4	99.5	95.9
Total	35.1	27.5	23.1	15.4	21.4

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C4.21. Proportion of part-time employment in total employment for selected groups not in education (2002)

	20-to-24-year-old males without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-old females without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-old males with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	20-to-24-year-old females with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-old males without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-old females without upper secondary education
Australia	10.8	28.7	8.2	15.8	8.4	36.1
Austria	<i>c</i>	28.4	2.3	12.9	<i>c</i>	36.3
Belgium	8.5	33.4	4.1	30.0	6.1	54.2
Canada	15.3	34.3	11.3	23.2	5.6	19.3
France	9.3	36.6	4.4	29.0	7.0	34.3
Germany	8.2	34.9	2.4	11.8	9.1	42.0
Italy	2.4	10.0	4.9	13.4	3.6	16.1
Netherlands	13.3	54.3	11.4	41.3	7.3	65.5
Poland	<i>c</i>	25.3	6.6	17.8	7.4	18.4
Spain	2.6	13.6	4.4	12.0	1.5	16.8
Sweden	<i>c</i>	21.7	7.3	23.3	<i>c</i>	26.3
United Kingdom	<i>c</i>	50.4	5.0	23.2	15.4	60.2
United States ¹	15.6	33.8	13.1	22.3	9.3	29.1
Total	9.0	26.0	8.2	19.3	5.8	26.3

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C5.1. Unemployment-to-population ratios, by age and educational attainment (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with tertiary education	Overall unemployment rate
Australia	15.3	6.8	10.9	4.2	3.4	6.3
Austria	13.1	6.1	6.4	4.9	1.7	5.3
Belgium	21.1	12.0	12.1	9.4	3.6	7.3
Canada	17.2	11.4	13.6	8.9	6.3	7.7
Czech Republic	23.4	9.8	19.0	6.1	1.9	7.3
Denmark	10.4	6.4	7.8	2.5	5.1	4.5
Finland	15.7	11.8	15.4	9.6	5.6	9.1
France	25.8	15.1	16.9	8.5	7.5	8.9
Germany	19.1	9.2	13.9	6.9	4.2	7.8
Greece	15.9	23.8	11.0	14.0	16.8	10
Hungary	10.7	7.8	9.0	5.2	2.2	5.9
Ireland	10.8	4.9	9.0	3.8	2.6	4.2
Italy	18.8	19.1	12.2	11.3	16.5	9.1
Netherlands	3.8	2.2	3.5	1.8	2.0	2.5
Poland	38.1	34.9	30.3	19.7	12.6	19.9
Portugal	7.8	8.7	4.1	6.0	5.2	5.1
Slovak Republic	47.2	29.0	44.5	14.1	5.6	18.6
Spain	15.3	18.1	12.0	11.4	10.1	11.4
Sweden	17.3	9.0	11.2	5.3	3.3	4
United Kingdom	12.9	7.7	10.4	4.5	3.1	5.2
United States ¹	12.4	7.7	8.0	5.0	3.0	4.8
Total	16.1	11.7	11.5	7.8	5.1	6.7

1. 2001 data.

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection and Table 1.1.

Table C5.2. Proportion of long-term unemployment (more than six months) among unemployed young people, by age and educational attainment (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with tertiary education
Australia	38.5	23.0	42.7	29.4	<i>c</i>
Austria	57.4	42.3	<i>c</i>	45.5	<i>c</i>
Canada	13.4	6.9	17.7	14.6	16.5
France	45.8	35.5	60.6	53.5	41.9
Germany	58.4	49.2	71.4	56.4	48.0
Italy	82.8	81.3	80.7	79.5	69.6
Portugal	47.8	<i>c</i>	62.7	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
Spain	27.1	23.6	37.7	28.3	37.5
Total	51.6	45.7	60.2	51.4	40.7

Note: "Total unemployed" excludes unemployed for whom no duration of unemployment is recorded. Countries where more than a third of all unemployed are not classified by duration of unemployment are not retained for this analysis. *c* indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C5.3. Proportion of unemployed for employer-related reasons among unemployed young people, by age and educational attainment (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with tertiary education
Australia	50.7	57.3	46.0	42.8	43.3
Austria	69.1	71.1	66.5	63.6	<i>c</i>
Belgium	48.8	37.0	46.4	46.3	43.7
Canada	70.0	68.0	75.7	73.7	66.8
Czech Republic	29.1	37.4	52.5	54.4	64.6
Finland	65.5	72.3	75.7	83.7	80.9
France	65.3	66.2	71.0	75.2	64.6
Germany	58.1	68.7	66.9	77.9	45.9
Greece	29.8	25.5	49.0	41.3	25.8
Hungary	41.0	42.4	71.8	54.7	<i>c</i>
Italy	20.8	15.2	31.3	24.2	12.4
Poland	39.1	34.8	52.1	62.5	37.5
Portugal	52.8	27.2	59.2	62.2	28.1
Slovak Republic	40.3	37.4	67.6	67.8	<i>c</i>
Spain	72.4	54.1	81.7	59.6	73.2
Sweden	62.4	69.8	77.5	69.8	78.6
Total	49.7	43.7	58.3	58.3	48.5

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

Table C5.4. Proportion of unemployed young people who have never had a job, by age and educational attainment (2002)

	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	20-to-24-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, without upper secondary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education	25-to-29-year-olds not in education, with tertiary education
Australia	18.6	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
Belgium	41.7	44.2	31.4	28.6	44.0
Canada	7.2	4.6	8.0	<i>c</i>	9.1
Czech Republic	56.3	41.3	21.6		<i>c</i>
France	23.1	22.0	12.6	7.5	17.5
Germany	27.2	10.6	13.4	<i>c</i>	36.5
Greece	59.1	66.7	38.2	44.7	65.3
Hungary	38.0	33.7	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
Italy	74.4	79.8	61.6	<i>c</i>	84.8
Poland	53.2	53.4	31.5	<i>c</i>	43.8
Slovak Republic	52.9	49.5	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>
Spain	17.0	41.4	8.5	<i>c</i>	13.8
Total	37.9	42.2	26.3	22.6	34.1

c indicates population estimates below publication threshold (small sample size).

Source: OECD INES-Network B, special YALLE data collection.

ANNEX C

Network B and this Publication

As part of the OECD's Indicators of Education Systems programme (INES), Network B examines education and socio-economic outcomes. The following Network B country representatives and experts took part in the preparatory work leading to the publication of this volume.

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ANNEX D

ISO Codes Used in this Volume

AUS	Australia
AUT	Austria
BEL	Belgium
CAN	Canada
CZE	Czech Republic
DNK	Denmark
FIN	Finland
FRA	France
DEU	Germany
GRC	Greece
HUN	Hungary
ISL	Iceland
IRL	Ireland
ITA	Italy
LUX	Luxembourg
NLD	Netherlands
NOR	Norway
POL	Poland
PRT	Portugal
ESP	Spain
SVK	Slovak Republic
SWE	Sweden
CHE	Switzerland
GBR	United Kingdom
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OECD PUBLICATIONS, 2, rue André-Pascal, 75775 PARIS CEDEX 16
PRINTED IN FRANCE
(91 2005 01 1 P) ISBN 92-64-00918-3 – No. 54053 2005