



Labour Market Dynamics
Research Programme

Innovative research in employment

**Pathways to Employment: A Study of the
Employment-Related Behaviour of Young People
in New Zealand**

Research Report No. 1/2005

Ann Dupuis, Kerr Inkson and Eva McLaren

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Labour Market Dynamics Research Programme
Massey University
Private Bag 102 904
North Shore Mail Centre
AUCKLAND
<http://lmd.massey.ac.nz>

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INTRODUCTION

Paid employment is a key determinant in the life chances of individuals and the well-being of households and communities. Traditionally, the transition to employment for males at least, was seen in terms of a linear progression from school to work and the pursuit of a career via standard work. Since the 1980s however, customary conceptions of the nature of paid work and life-time careers have altered, at times dramatically. Paid work has become more precarious and uncertain, with access to employment reflecting a number of factors including: national and international policies concerning employment and economic development; national, regional and local labour supply and demand characteristics; and individual and household decisions about employment and investments in training and education. Similarly, pathways into employment have become increasingly diverse, with significant cohort, ethnic and regional variations.

The 'Pathways to Sustainable Employment' (PASE) project is a five year, FRST funded project which examines the impact of the increasing variability of employment pathways on workers and employers. Over the life of the research a range of methodologies are being used to examine the way in which individuals understand and negotiate access to employment, and how employers obtain and manage labour, in an increasingly dynamic labour market. It is intended that the research highlights both labour market strategies (long term planning with some autonomy) and tactics (contingent responses to opportunities within constraints), which will allow for the development of a greater understanding of micro-level behaviours (individuals, families/households, employers) and macro-level institutions and systems (education/training, labour market, policy). The key questions explored in the research centre on: the contribution of training and education to various employment outcomes and trajectories; the acquisition of skills; mobility and search techniques; the approach and behaviour of employers; the influence of social networks; and the planning and aspirations of individuals. Ultimately, the research will identify the opportunities and constraints experienced by individuals, employers and communities in a changing labour market.

The overarching aims of the project are to:

- explore the various ways in which 15-34 year olds understand pathways into employment and negotiate their own employment pathways;
- provide the research information through which tangible, relevant and user-oriented initiatives are generated both for the communities concerned and those agencies that have a policy responsibility in the area of employment;
- provide information on best strategies for achieving the economic goals of sustainable employment for younger people, through the meaningful participation in paid work leading to independent adulthood; and
- establish the extent to which there is an alignment between labour supply and demand, in relation to people within the chosen age cohorts.

The project has two major components. Objective 1 investigates supply-side employment issues, in particular the way in which younger people (15-34 year olds) understand and negotiate access to employment. Objective 2 has a demand-side focus concentrating on

the strategies and expectations of employers in organising labour supply. This report is the first in a series of publications from the PASE project. It provides an overview of results of the first survey undertaken for Objective 1. The purpose of this survey was to gather base-line employment and other data from 966 participants aged between 15 and 34 years domiciled in four regional areas in New Zealand. It is intended that the future research components of Objective 1 will build on the results of this survey.

This report is structured as follows. The next section provides a brief comment on the methodology used for this part of the project. This is followed by a description of the demographic and other characteristics of our sample of 966 participants. The next two sections are organised around the idea of 'main activity'. Because of the heterogeneity of the sample it was decided that participants should be categorised according to what they perceived as their 'main activity' from a list of activities offered (self-employed, in part-time employment, in full-time employment, a student, at home caring for children and/or others, unemployed, on a sickness or invalid's benefit or other). The first of the sections on main activity describes the concept, while the second section provides an overview of characteristics, attitudes and activities of the participants within the sub-groups based on their main activity. The next three sections each explore a major aspect drawn from the data gathered for this part of the project: employment experiences and understandings; employment histories and employment mobility; and the concept of social capital.

METHODOLOGY

Data for the first survey of 966 participants was collected using two different approaches. First, a Computer Aided Telephone Interview (CATI) survey of a stratified sample of 866 people aged from 15 to 34 years was undertaken. The CATI survey for the first stage of Objective 1 was conducted by a professional Auckland-based research company. Prospective participants were initially contacted by random digit dialing in four selected geographical areas of New Zealand, and those meeting the study parameters (i.e. aged between 15 and 34) were invited to participate. All interviews were completed in June and July 2004.

Conducted separately, and using the same interview schedule, was a complementary piece of research, in which a further 100 Maori participants were surveyed. The sample chosen for the specific Maori component of this part of the research was drawn from an existing longitudinal study of Maori households: 'The Best Outcomes for Maori: Te Hoe Nuku Roa', being undertaken by the School of Maori Studies at Massey University (see Fitzgerald and Durie, 2000¹). The larger study from which our smaller sample was selected involves a representative stratified random sample of 650 Maori households, including some 2,000 Maori individuals, recruited from the Manawatu-Wanganui, Gisborne-East Coast, Auckland and Wellington regions. The sample of 100 Maori individuals for this project was randomly selected from across each regional cohort of 15 - 34 year olds. Initial contact and the subsequent interviews were conducted by trained Maori telephone interviewers. The results of these two surveys were collated and for the purposes of this report have been analysed as for one sample.

At the end of the telephone interviews, participants were asked whether they would like to take part in more in-depth interviews at a later stage and a follow-up interview in 2-years time. Of the 966 participants, 923 (95 percent) indicated their willingness to participate in the qualitative phase of the study and 809 (83.7 percent) agreed to take part in another telephone interview in 2-years time. These response rates show that we are dealing with a topic of real interest to participants. In these interviews we will be seeking to elicit participants' underlying conceptualisations of the world of work and employment.

The Survey Instrument

The questionnaire generated for this part of the research project provides answers for up to 130 questions, many of which include multiple pieces of information and some being open-ended. It is therefore, a large and complex database. While the major focus was on 'pathways into employment' the specific sets of questions asked of each participant depended on their employment status (the status participants considered their 'main

¹ Fitzgerald, E. and Durie, M. (2000) *Assessing and Addressing Maori Outcomes: Preliminary Findings from Te Hoe Nuku Roa Māori Household Research*, New Zealand Population Review 26 (1) 115-121

activity'), that is whether the participant was primarily a student, employed, self-employed, unemployed, at home caring for children and so on. For each participant currently in paid work a wide range of information was obtained about their present main employment. For each participant who had ever been employed but were not currently employed, information was gathered about their first and last jobs where applicable. The usual range of demographic questions was also asked.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Age

Given the general focus on ‘pathways into employment’, and mindful of the concerns highlighted in the Department of Labour’s briefing to the incoming government in September 2002 of the need to ensure the successful transition of young people from school to work (Maharey, 2002), from the outset it was decided to restrict participants in the CATI sample to younger people, between the ages of 15 and 34. Moreover, data from these age ranges were intended to:

- supplement the policy and research interest in education to work transitions, especially by the Ministry of Education and Career Services/SkillNZ;
- provide an integrated approach to the increasing variability of pathways which do not simply encompass a single transition or marker; and
- allow us to establish parallels and comparisons with two major British research programmes with which the LMD team is connected - the Young Adults Employment Trajectories research (University of Bristol), in terms of the age groups covered and the Employed British Workforce (University of Leicester) research, in terms of the longitudinal aspect.

In all, data were collected for 966 participants aged from 15 to 34 years. Given the supposition that people across this relatively wide age band would likely be at different stages in their educational and working lives, the sample was further broken down into four age cohorts: 15-19 years, 20-24 years, 25-29 years, 30-34 years. The proportion of participants in each of these age cohorts is indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: Age

	No.	%
15-19	314	32.5
20-24	212	22.0
25-29	183	18.9
30-34	257	26.6
Total	966	100.0

It is likely that the proportions from each age cohort in our sample are an artefact of our methodology, and reflect the greater probability that people in the 15-19 and 30-34 age groups would be at home at times when the CATI survey was conducted.

Gender

While the intention was for the sample to be evenly divided in terms of gender, as Table 2 shows, the final outcome was that more females than males made up the sample. This imbalance no doubt reflects the fact that females tend to answer the telephone more frequently and co-operate more willingly with surveys than males.

Table 2: Gender

	15-34			
	Sample		National Population (estimated 2004) ²	
	No.	%	No.	%
Male	405	41.9	564,030	49.8
Female	561	58.1	568,550	50.2
Total	966	100.0	1,132,580	100.0

Geographical Location

Participants were drawn from one of four regions: Auckland, Wellington, Manawatu-Wanganui and Gisborne-East Coast. These regions were selected in order to ensure compatibility with the Te Hoe Nuku Roa Programme. The proportion of participants coming from each area was intended to reflect the proportion of the general population in each of these locations. Thus the sample of 966 participants comprised 557 (57.7 percent) from the Auckland Region, 220 (22.8 percent) from Wellington, 146 (15.1 percent) from Manawatu-Wanganui and 43 (4.5 percent) from Gisborne-East Coast (see Figure 1 and Table 3).

Table 3: Regional Location of Participants

Region	No.	%
Auckland	557	57.7
Wellington	220	22.8
Manawatu-Wanganui	146	15.1
Gisborne-East Coast	43	4.5
Total	966	100.1

² Source: Statistics New Zealand: National Population Estimates: March 2005 quarter

Ethnicity

The problem of how best to define and record ethnicity, particularly in a context like New Zealand, where significant proportions of the population can lay claim to multiple ethnicities has been long recognised. Unfortunately to date, much New Zealand research has tended either to lump together disparate groups of people so masking significant ethnic differences among groups, or privilege one ethnicity over another in cases where people report multiple ethnicities. As a guide for the PASE programme, we consulted with Statistics New Zealand, whose review of the classification of ethnicity used in official statistics, begun in 2000, was completed in June 2004 (Statistics New Zealand, 2004)³. After Statistics New Zealand undertake a consultation process their next step is to develop a plan for the implementation of recommendations. Unfortunately by the time such a plan is implemented the PASE research will be well advanced. We have therefore had to make decisions on the ethnicity classification for our research based on Statistics New Zealand recommendations without knowing the final outcome of their decisions.

The review (2004: 13-14) recommended that the standard output for ethnicity data, if it is not based on multiple responses, will be to have single and combined data. The single/combination output proposed (at level 1) places each person in a mutually exclusive category so each person is allocated to a single category based on whether one or more ethnicities have been reported. So, for example, a person who has given only Maori as their ethnic group will be included in the Maori only category. If a person gave Maori and a Pacific Peoples ethnic group in their response, they would be included in the 'Maori/Pacific Peoples' category. Consequently, Statistics New Zealand has recommended the following:

Single ethnic group: European, Maori, Pacific Peoples, Asian, MELAA (Middle Eastern, Latin American and African) and Miscellaneous (previously referred to as 'other'). If a person gives two or more responses that fall into the same category, for example, Samoan and Tongan, they will be counted once as 'Pacific Peoples'.

Two Ethnic Groups: Maori/European, Pacific Peoples/European, Maori/Pacific Peoples, Asian, European etc.

From the initial analysis of our existing data set of 966 participants, it became evident that the 'Asian' category proposed by Statistics New Zealand was too broad to capture the diversity of Asian ethnicities included in our sample. Consequently, we divided the Asian category into two. In our work participants from Indian, Pakistan and Sri Lanka comprise the category 'South Asian' and those from such countries as China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaysia, Japan etc were recoded as 'East Asian'.

Statistics New Zealand has also proposed to continue with the descriptor 'New Zealand European' for the largest ethnic group of New Zealand's population. The two reasons

³ Statistics New Zealand (2004). *Report of the Review of the Measurement of Ethnicity* June 2004. Retrieved from www.stats.govt.nz.

given were the objections to the use of the term ‘Pakeha’ and that ‘no other suitable term that would be universally acceptable to replace this descriptor [had been] identified from the consultation process’ (2004:11). We prefer to use the term Pakeha/NZ European.

Table 4 shows the ethnic breakdown of the 966 participants in the CATI sample according to the classification system outlined above.

Table 4: Ethnicity

	No.	%
Pakeha/NZ European only	536	55.5
Maori only	131	13.6
Pacific Peoples only	80	8.3
East Asian only	66	6.8
South Asian only	52	5.4
MELAA	19	2.0
miscellaneous	11	1.1
Maori/Pakeha	45	4.7
Pacific Peoples/Pakeha	14	1.4
Maori/Pacific Peoples	8	0.8
Pakeha/Maori/Pacific Peoples	3	0.3
refused	1	.01
Total	966	100.0

Place of Birth

Approximately three quarters of the sample (721 participants or 74.6 percent), were born in New Zealand (see Table 5). As a percentage of the entire sample 9.8 percent of participants were born in an Asian country, 5.9 percent were born in a Pacific nation other than Australia, 4.1 percent were born in Europe (including the United Kingdom) and 2.3 percent born in an African country.

Table 5: Place of Birth

	No.	%
New Zealand	721	74.6
Overseas	242	25.1
Missing data	3	.3
Total	966	100.0

Table 6 shows the country or continent of birth of the 239 research participants born overseas. Approximately 40 percent of the overseas-born were born in an Asian country, 23.8 percent were born in a Pacific nation other than Australia, 16.7 percent were born in Europe (including the United Kingdom) and 9.2 percent were born in an African country.

Table 6: Place of Birth for Overseas Born

	No.	%
Asia	95	39.7
Other Pacific nations	57	23.8
Europe/UK	40	16.7
Australia	17	7.1
North America	7	2.9
South America	1	.4
Africa	22	9.2
Total	239	100.0

Information regarding length of residence in New Zealand was obtained from 235 of the 239 participants born overseas. Some 23.4 percent of these 235 respondents were relative newcomers to New Zealand in that they had lived in this country for two years or less. A further quarter of the sample (25.1 percent) had resided in New Zealand for between 3 and 5 years. Forty-five participants, or 19.1 percent of the overseas born, had lived in New Zealand for between 6 to 9 years, while almost one third (32.3 percent) had been in New Zealand for ten or more years.

Table 7: Length of Residence in NZ for Overseas-Born

	No.	%
2 years and less	55	23.4
3 years to 5 years	59	25.1
6 years to 9 years	45	19.1
10 years and over	76	32.3
Total	235	100.0

Highest Qualifications

Data on highest qualifications were gathered for 960 of the sample. These are shown in Table 8 below. It is worth noting the differences in highest educational qualification between our sample and the total New Zealand population. In general terms it can be said that our sample had higher qualifications than the general population. As Table 8 indicates, 36.8 percent of the PASE sample has a post-secondary school qualification, a figure similar to the total population. However, 20.9 percent of the sample has a bachelor's qualification or higher and 13.2 percent of the total population fall into this category. Conversely only 12.6 percent of our sample has no qualifications, whereas 19.7 percent of the total population has no qualifications. Moreover, the fact that our sample is made up of 15-34 year olds, a considerable proportion of whom are still studying, the 'picture' of highest qualification presented in Table 8 will change considerably in the coming years. A change of a similar magnitude for the total population will not occur.

Table 8: Highest Qualification

Highest Qualification	No.	%	% Total pop. ⁴
No qualifications	121	12.6	19.7
SC (or *NC Level 1)	149	15.5	13.1
Sixth Form Certificate (or *NC Level 2)/ UE/ NZ **HSC or ***HLC/Bursary/Scholarship	323	33.6	23.8
Total School	472	49.1	36.9
Trade certificate/ diploma/teaching diplomas	153	15.9	23.5
Bachelors degree	162	16.9	10.6
Postgraduate qualification	38	4.0	2.6
Total tertiary qualification	353	36.8	36.7
Other (includes post school qualifications not specified in HLFS)	14	1.5	5.4
Total	960	100.0	

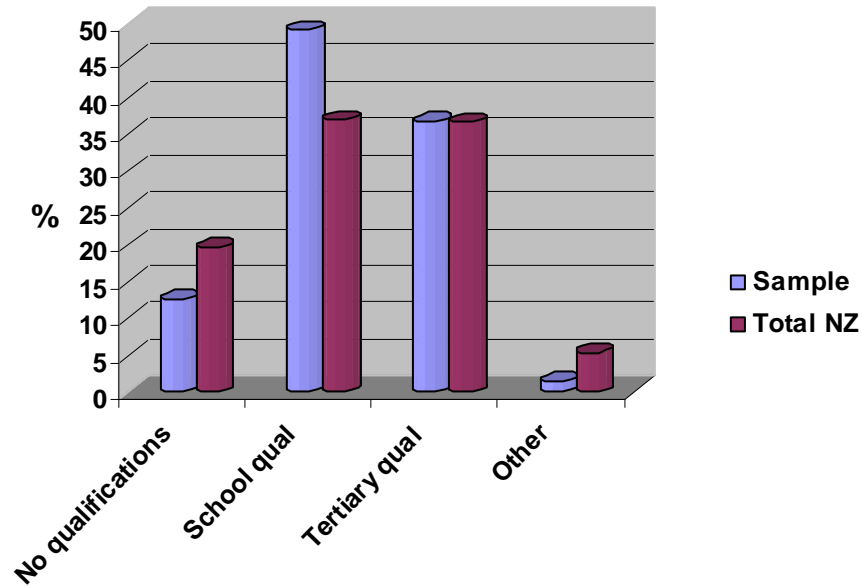
*NC = National Certificate

**HSC = Higher School Certificate

***HLC = Higher Leaving Certificate

⁴ Statistics New Zealand (2005) Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS), National Population Estimates: March 2005 Quarter

Figure 1: Highest Qualification: Sample and NZ Population



Marital Status

Data on marital status were recorded for 965 research participants in the PASE sample. As might be expected given the age of the sample, 64.7 percent described themselves as single. Just over one fifth of the sample was married and a further 13.2 percent were in a de facto relationship or living with a partner. Only 7 people in the sample were divorced. The data on marital status are provided in Table 9.

Table 9: Marital Status

	No.	%
Single	624	64.7
Legally married	195	20.2
De facto/ living with partner	127	13.2
Separated	12	1.2
Divorced	7	.7
Total	965	100.0

Participants were also asked who lived in their household. Just over one third (34 percent) said they lived with their legal husband or wife, their de facto or partner, or boyfriend or girlfriend. Just over 45 percent lived with their parents and only 4.6 percent of participants reported living alone

Income

More than two thirds of participants reported their main source of income as coming from wages and salaries, 17.8 percent cited family or whanau support as their main source of income and 11.5 percent were receiving a WINZ benefit. The main sources of income for all participants are included in Table 10.

Table 10: Main Source of Income

	No.	%
Wages/salaries	647	67.0
Family/whanau support	172	17.8
WINZ benefit	111	11.5
Other	20	2.1
Student allowance	10	1.0
Student loan	6	.6
Total	966	100.0

Student Loans

Much publicity and debate has gone on around the issue of student loans with frequent reference to student loans being the impetus for young people to relocate overseas or for them to defer starting a family or contemplating taking out a mortgage for home ownership until their debt had been repaid. The implications for our participants of having a student loan is a topic that will be explored further in the later stage of qualitative work. For this stage of the study we went no further than to ascertain that 284 participants, or 29.4 percent of our sample, had a student loan.

MAIN ACTIVITY

The key variable around which the CATI questionnaire was structured was what we termed ‘main activity’. We used this term as it offered us a way of understanding the complexity and range of paid and non-paid work activities engaged in by our participants. It also allowed us to find out about the other paid and non-paid work activities they might be engaged in currently or had been engaged in previously, apart from what they considered as their main activity.

Early in the questionnaire we asked all participants the same filter question which was worded as follows:

“The aim of the research is to find out how younger people go into and out of work and what their work experiences have been. We also understand that for many younger people like students, mothers or the unemployed, paid work plays only a small role, or no role, at all in their lives. Thinking about your life I am going to read out a list of paid work and non-paid work activities. When I come to the end of the list, I want you to tell me which one of them is your main activity. Are you: self-employed, in part-time employment, in full-time employment, a student, at home caring for children and/or others, unemployed, on a sick or invalid benefit or other?”

(Part-time employment was defined as working for an employer for less than 30 hours a week in one main activity and full-time employment was work for an employer for 30 hours or more a week in one main activity.)

Participants were then channelled to a series of questions depending on the response to this initial filter question. For example, if a participant reported her main activity as being at home caring for children she was asked a series of questions about that activity and any other activities, such as paid work and study, she might be undertaking concurrently. Assuming the participant was not in paid employment she was then asked a series of questions about her first and last jobs (assuming she had been in paid employment), general demographic questions and questions about future plans. Similarly if a male participant responded that he was in full-time work he was asked questions about his current job, his first job, any study he might be doing, the demographic questions and those to do with aspirations. Thus for every employed participant we obtained information about that employment and if these participants had had two or more jobs we also gathered data on the first job. If participants were not currently in paid employment but had been previously employed data was obtained on their previous employment and if they had two or more jobs data were also collected for their first job.

Participants in paid employment

Of the sample of 966 people, 659 participants, or 68.2 percent of the sample were in some form of paid employment. However, only 498 participants, or 51.6 percent of the

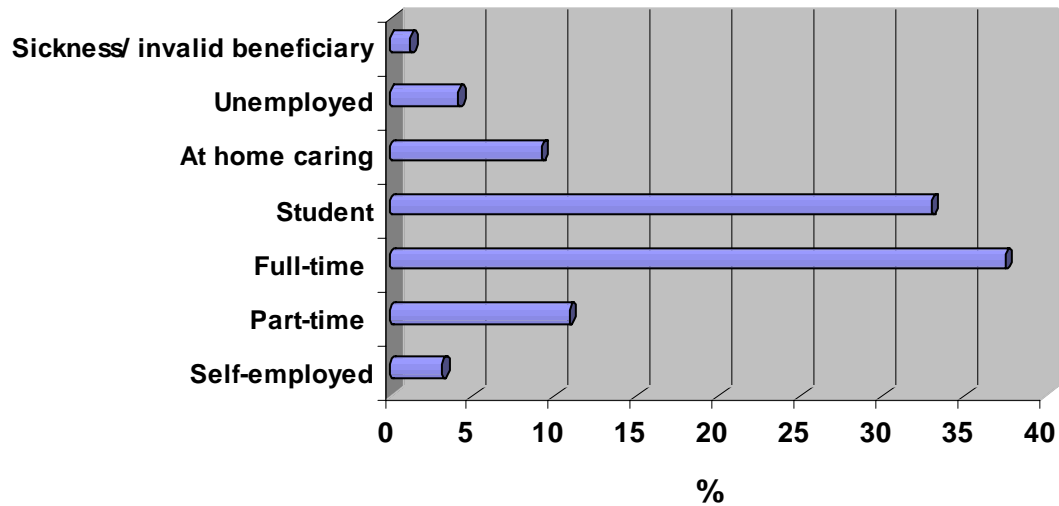
sample, reported their main activity as paid employment: i.e. those 31 participants who were self-employed (3.2 percent of the sample), the 362 participants in full-time employment (37.5 percent of the sample) and the 105 participants in part-time employment (10.9 percent of the sample). Included in those who were employed were 137 who were also students.

The two largest categories of responses came from those in full-time employment (37.5 percent) and students (33.0 percent). Together these respondents comprise 70.5 per cent of the sample. Some 149 participants reported their main activity as neither in paid work nor as a student. Eighty-nine participants (9.2 percent) were at home caring for others, 40 participants (4.1 percent) were unemployed, 12 participants (1.2 percent) were on a sickness or invalid's benefit and 8 (0.8 percent) reported doing 'something else' as their main activity (see Table 11 below).

Table 11: Main Activity

	No.	%
Self-employed	31	3.2
In part-time employment	105	10.9
In full-time employment	362	37.5
Student	319	33.0
At home caring for children/others	89	9.2
Unemployed	40	4.1
Sickness or invalid beneficiary	12	1.2
Other	8	0.8
Total	966	100.0

Figure 2: Main Activity



The groups

The self-employed

Thirty one participants described themselves as self-employed. While this group is small, it is nevertheless interesting to discuss the characteristics of these participants as self-employment for a younger person is still relatively unusual. As might be expected the majority of the self-employed were in the two older age cohorts, 80.7 percent in all, with 45.2 percent in the 30-34 age group. The two smaller regions had lower percentages of self-employed than might be expected from their representation in the sample overall and Wellington a higher percentage than might be expected. Only one of the self-employed was overseas born and this person had been in New Zealand for 10 years or more. The ethnic break down of the self-employed is shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Ethnicity of Self-employed

	No.	%
Pakeha/European only	24	77.4
Maori only	2	6.5
Maori/Pakeha	2	6.5
South Asian only	2	6.5
Pacific peoples only	1	3.2
Total	31	100.0

When asked to clarify the nature of their self-employment the participants gave the responses shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Self-employment Status

	No.	%
A self-employed contractor	20	58.8
Combination of self-employment & employment	6	17.6
An employer	5	14.7
In a partnership	2	5.9
Other	1	2.9
Total	34	100.0

Of the five employers in the sample, four could be described as small business holders. These participants employed one, three, four and six employees respectively. However one participant employed 65 employees. Of the 31 who were self-employed, eight participants said they had family members working with them.

The self-employed were also asked why they chose to become self-employed. Table 14 below shows the range of responses provided (multiple responses were noted for this question). The most frequently proffered reasons for choosing self-employment were autonomy, the suitability of an occupation and financial reasons.

Table 14: Reasons for Choosing Self-employment

	No	%
Autonomy/freedom/own boss	11	22.9
Suits occupation	10	20.8
Financial reasons	9	18.8
Flexibility	7	14.6
Family reasons	3	6.3
Lifestyle	3	6.3
Enjoyment/preference	2	4.2
Other	3	6.3
Total	48	100.0

Reported incomes for this sub-group differ markedly from income levels for the sample overall, likely reflecting the age and nature of employment of this sub-group. All participants answered the question on annual gross income (see Table 15). Nine of the 31 self-employed participants (29 percent) had a student loan.

Table 15: Self-Employed Incomes

	No.	%
Less than \$10,000	1	3.2
Between \$10,000 and \$19,999	1	3.2
Between \$20,000 and \$29,999	4	12.9
Between \$30,000 and \$39,999	6	19.4
Between \$40,000 and \$49,999	4	12.9
Between \$50,000 and \$59,999	4	12.9
More than \$60,000	11	35.5
Total	31	100.0

Part-time Employment

As previously noted, 105 respondents (10.9 percent of the sample) reported their main activity as part-time employment. Of these 72 participants in this subgroup 39 (54.2 percent) were female and 33 (45.8 percent) male. The ages are shown in Table 16.

Table 16: Part-time Employment by Age

	No.	%
15-19	41	39.0
20-24	19	18.1
25-29	12	11.4
30-34	33	31.4
Total	105	99.9

Table 17 shows the ethnic breakdown of the sub-group who reported their main activity as part-time employment.

Table 17: Ethnicity by Part-time Employment

	No.	%
Pakeha/NZ European only	64	61.0
Maori only	15	14.3
South Asian only	11	10.5
East Asian only	8	7.6
Pacific Peoples only	2	1.9
Pacific Peoples/Pakeha	2	1.9
Maori/Pakeha	1	1.0
Maori/Pacific Peoples	1	1.0
Pakeha/Maori/Pacific Peoples	1	1.0
Total	105	100.0

Eighty participants, or 76.2 percent of this sub-group, were born in New Zealand. This is about the same proportion of New Zealand born as for the sample as a whole (74.6 percent).

The single most commonly reported individual occupation for part-time workers was salesperson/ demonstrator, which was the current occupation of 28 participants or 26.7 percent of this sub-group. A further 13 of these part-time workers (12.4 percent) were employed in housekeeping or restaurant services.

The occupational groups for those reporting part-time work as their main activity are set out in Table 18.

Table 18: Occupational Group of Part-time Workers.

	No.	%
Legislators/admin/manager	3	2.9
Professionals	14	13.3
Technicians & associated professionals	7	6.7
Clerks	14	13.3
Service and sales	51	48.6
Trades	4	3.8
Plant and machine operators	3	2.9
Elementary occupations	6	5.7
Missing data	3	2.9
Total	105	100.0

Of the part-time workers 64 (61 percent) had permanent part-time employment and 41 (39 percent) temporary part-time employment. Of the 41 participants in temporary part-time employment 24 (58.5 percent) were in casual employment, 14 (34.1 percent) had a fixed term contract, one had temporary agency employment and two were in seasonal work. Slightly over half those working part-time (54.3 percent) said they would prefer to work full-time “if the right sort of job came along”. Just on one-quarter of these participants (25.7 percent) had a student loan.

As Table 19 below indicates the three most common responses given to the question on participants’ reasons for working part-time were: financial reasons (37.5 percent); the need to fulfill childcare obligations (19.5 percent); and study (13.3 percent).

Table 19: Reasons for Working Part-time

	No.	%
Financial reasons (for example: to earn money while studying, extra money, supplement student allowance)	48	37.5
Child care prevents full-time work	25	19.5
Study	17	13.3
Lack of full-time/permanent jobs	5	3.9
To help family/whanau	4	3.1
Fits with employer requirements	4	3.1
Way into a permanent job	4	3.1
Aspects of the job itself	4	3.1
To gain work experience	4	3.1
Preference for part-time work	4	3.1
Fits with social life	2	1.6
Something to do	2	1.6
Other	4	3.1
No reason given	1	0.8
Total	128	100.0

Full-time Employment

The 362 full-time employed made up the largest single category in our sample (37.5 percent). Of these, 192 participants (53 percent) are female and 170 (47 percent) male. In terms of age cohorts, 28 participants or 7.7 percent were in the 15-19 age group, 87 (24 percent) were aged between 20-24, 110 (30.4 percent) were aged between 25-29 and 137 (37.8 percent) between 30-34 (see Table 20).

Table 20: Full-time Employment by Age

	No.	%	% of cohort
15-19	28	7.7	9
20-24	87	24.0	41
25-29	110	30.4	60
30-34	137	37.8	53
Total	362	100.0	

The percentage of participants in full-time employment increased from 9 percent in the 15-19 age group to 41 percent for the 20-24 year old age group, 60 percent for the 25-29 year olds before falling back to 53 percent for those participants aged between 30 and 34- presumably as family commitments increase.

Table 21 shows the ethnic breakdown of the sub-group who reported their main activity as full-time employment.

Table 21: Full-time Employment by Ethnicity

	No.	%
Pakeha/NZ European only	227	62.7
Maori only	47	13.0
Pacific Peoples only	33	9.1
Maori/Pakeha	15	4.1
South Asian only	14	3.9
East Asian only	11	3.0
Pacific Peoples/Pakeha	6	1.7
Maori/Pacific Peoples	2	.6
MELAA	2	.6
Miscellaneous (incl. Australians, Canadians and Americans)	5	1.4
Total	362	100.0

In all, 281 participants, or 77.6 percent of this sub-group, were born in New Zealand. Data on place of birth were collected for 79 of the 80 participants in full-time work who were overseas born, of whom 31.6 percent were from an ‘Asian’ country, 26.6 percent were from Europe and/or the United Kingdom and 24.1 percent from a Pacific nation (other than Australia).

The occupational groups for those reporting full-time work as their main activity are set out in Table 22.

Table 22: Occupational Group⁵ of Full-time Workers

	No.	%
Legislators/admin/manager	35	9.7
Professionals	68	18.8
Technicians & associated professionals	52	14.4
Clerks	52	14.4
Service and sales	76	21.0
Agriculture and fisheries	6	1.7
Trades	46	12.7
Plant and machine operators	19	5.2
Elementary occupations	6	1.7
Missing data	2	.6
Total	362	100.2

Of the full-time workers 340 (93.9 percent) had permanent employment and 22 (6.1 percent) temporary full-time employment. Of the 22 participants in temporary full-time employment 5 were in casual employment, 11 had a fixed term contract, one had temporary agency employment and seven were in seasonal work. The vast majority of these workers (97 percent) preferred permanent to temporary work. Of this group 100 participants (27.6 percent) had a student loan.

Students

Age

The main activity of 319 participants, 33 percent of the sample, was stated, through the filter question as “student”. Some others identified as employed, etc., also indicated that they were also studying, but this was not their main activity. This section covers only those identifying student as their main activity. Their breakdown in relation to the four age categories is shown in Table 23.

⁵ Statistics New Zealand: New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations, 1999.

Table 23: Students: Age Groups

Age group	Total in sample	Total students	% students
15-19	314	219	69
20-24	212	66	21
25-29	183	20	6
30-34	257	14	4
Total	966	319	100

Thus, students were, as expected, concentrated in the lower age-groups.

Courses of Study and Qualifications Sought

Students were asked, “Where are you studying? For example, at school, at university or at a polytech?” Answers are shown in Table 24.

Table 24: Students Place of Study

Place	No.	%
School	156	49
University	110	34
Polytechnic	29	9
Private provider	13	4
College of Education	9	3
Other	2	1
Total	319	100

Again, there is a major focus in the study on school students, mainly those in the 15-19 age-groups, 50 percent of whom identified as school students. The telephone survey methodology again may have favoured this group.

Students were asked “What qualification are you studying for?” Answers are shown in Table 25.

Table 25: Students: Qualification Being Studied for

Qualification	No.	%
NCEA level 1	46	14
NCEA level 2	48	15
NCEA level 3	47	15
NCEA level 4/Bursary	9	3
Scholarship	3	1
Trade certificate	12	4
Polytechnic diploma	19	6
Bachelor's degree	110	34
Postgraduate qualification	9	3
No qualification	8	3
Other	8	3
Total	319	101

This shows a wide distribution of qualifications at different levels, relating almost perfectly to the place of study, e.g. nearly all NCEA being completed at school and nearly all degrees at a university or polytechnic. The fact that of those completing recognised tertiary qualifications (150) only 31 (20.6 percent) were studying for trade certificate or diploma qualifications is probably a reflection of the fashion in recent years for degree qualifications.

Part-Time Study

Students studying for tertiary qualifications were asked whether they were studying full-time or part-time. Of the 158 participants who answered this question, 91 percent (143) classed themselves as full-time in the category.

Motivation to Study

Students were asked, “What are the reasons you chose to go on to tertiary education?” Answers are shown in Table 26.

Table 26: What Were The Main Reasons You Chose To Go Into Tertiary Education?

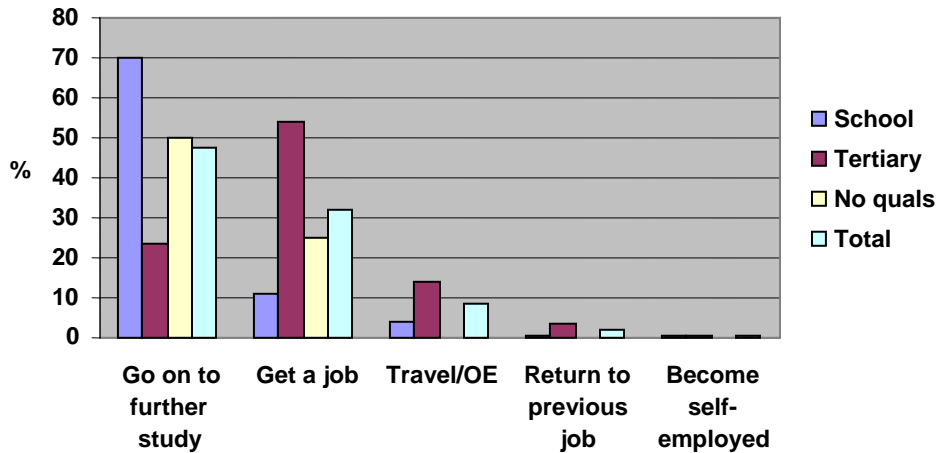
	No. (n=158)	%
To get a qualification for a job/career	100	42.7
To get a qualification that might be generally useful for future employment	53	22.6
To study in an area of particular interest to me	28	12.0
To develop or fulfill myself as a person	14	6.0
Because it was expected of me – the normal thing to do	11	4.7
Boredom	6	2.6
To help me change to a different sort of job	6	2.6
Couldn't think of anything else to do	4	1.7
To gain knowledge	4	1.7
To get away from home	1	.4
Enjoyment	1	.4
Don't know	6	2.6
Total	234	100

These answers suggest a fairly “vocational” approach to education, with nearly two-thirds of the responses focusing on the qualification and the relationship, specific or general, of that qualification to a job or career. Only a minority of participants focused on “intrinsic” aspects of their education or on personal development.

Intentions Following Study

Students were asked “What do you intend to do after you’ve completed your current qualification?” Answers are shown in Table 50 in Appendix one and Figure 3.

Figure 3: Intentions after Completion of Qualifications

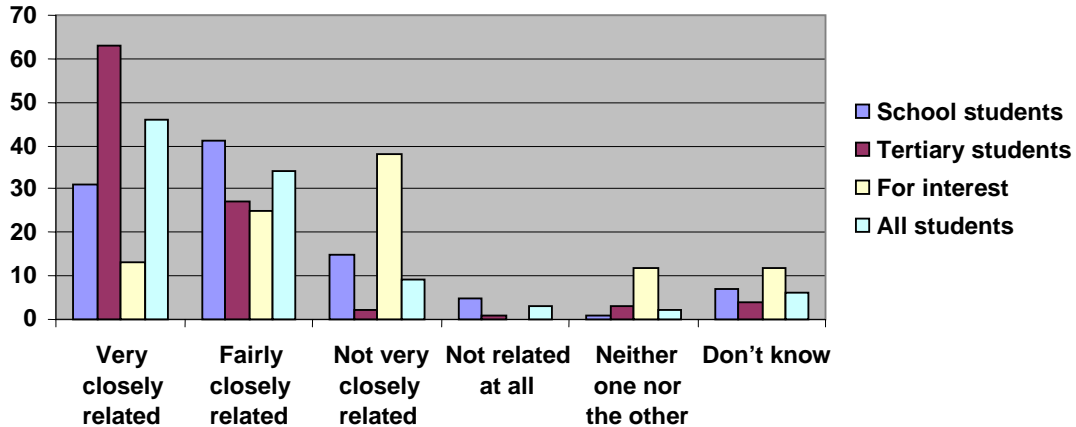


Thus, the norm is for school students to seek to move on to further study, while tertiary students are more likely to seek a job. The 13 percent of tertiary students who seek to travel on completion of their qualification is significant, and bears out recent speculation that the age of OE is reducing, possibly because of pressure to escape or pay off student loans. At the same time, in relation to recent “scare” stories about the “brain drain”, the proportion is relatively modest.

Relationship of Study to Employment Expectations

Students were asked, “How closely related do you think your current course of study will be to your future employment?” Answers are shown in Table 51 in Appendix One and in the figure below.

Figure 4: Relationship of Study to Employment



These data suggest that notwithstanding the non-linear tendencies of today’s careers, most participants anticipated a relatively close association between their current qualification and their future work. Also, tertiary students, whose courses of study had presumably become more specialised, were twice as likely as school students to believe that their courses of study were “very closely related” to their future employment. Following up the same students after two years to obtain fresh estimates will be of considerable interest.

Perceived Benefits of Study

Students were asked the open-ended question, “What are the benefits you get from your studies?” Answers were content-analysed and coded in categories. The results are shown in Table 27.

Table 27: Students: Perceived Benefits of Study

Benefit	School students (n=154)		Tertiary students (n = 145)		Private training students (n=13)		All students (n=312)	
	No. of responses	% of students	No. of responses	% of students	No. of responses	% of students	No. of responses	% of students
Education, knowledge	56	36	65	45	5	39	126	40
Qualification	36	23	27	19	2	15	65	21
Employment-related benefits	19	12	32	22	4	31	55	18
Longer-term benefits	29	19	12	8	-	-	41	13
Skills	11	7	23	16	5	39	39	13
Social aspect	11	7	23	16	-	-	34	11
Enjoyment	7	5	15	10	2	15	24	8
Self-development	9	6	14	10	-	-	23	7
Lifestyle benefits	3	2	5	3	1	8	9	3
Something to do	1	0	3	1	-	-	4	1
Student allowance	0	0	2	1	1	8	3	1
Nothing, not much	4	3	2	1	-	-	6	2
Not sure, don't know	18	12	4	3	-	-	22	7
Other	1	0	3	2	-	-	4	1
Total responses	205		230		20			455

NB: Some students were coded for more than one category.

These results again suggest a range of benefits, ranging from the abstract (e.g. education) to the specific (employment-related). Here, there were considerable differences between school and tertiary students, with tertiary students focusing on the idea of educational development and skills acquisition, and school students putting relatively more emphasis on qualifications and long-term benefits. Tertiary students also emphasised the developmental, social and enjoyment aspects of education more, while school students were more likely to be unable to name any benefits from study. Overall, tertiary students named 1.53 benefits per participant, compared with only 1.15 for school students. It is hard to escape the conclusion that overall tertiary students felt they were gaining more from their study than school students.

At home caring for children/others

As might be expected the characteristics of age, gender and ethnicity of the subgroup who reported their main activity as ‘caring for children or others’ differed markedly from the overall sample. Of the 89 participants in this subgroup, 87 were female. All but one participant in this category were at home caring for a child or children.

As might be expected too the proportion of participants in this category increased with age. As Table 28 shows, nearly half (48.3 percent) of the participants in this category were aged between 30 to 34 with a further 29.2 percent aged between 25 to 29. Only three participants in the youngest age cohort reported ‘caring’ as their main activity.

Table 28: Age of ‘Carers’

	No.	%	% overall sample
15-19	3	3.4	32.51
20-24	17	19.1	21.95
25-29	26	29.2	18.94
30-34	43	48.3	26.60
Total	89	100.0	100.0

In terms of ethnicity, as Table 29 demonstrates, there are differences between rates of caring for children in the 15 – 34 year old population. For example, compared with the sample as a whole, a greater proportion of Maori participants (15.3 percent) were caring for children than the proportion of Pakeha (8.2 percent).

Table 29: Ethnicity of Carers

	No. of Carers	% within ethnicity
Pakeha/NZ European only	44	8.2
Maori only	20	15.3
Pacific Peoples only	9	11.2
East Asian only	1	1.5
South Asian only	2	3.8
MELAA	1	5.2
Maori/Pakeha	8	17.8
Pacific Peoples/Pakeha	3	21.4
Maori/Pacific Peoples	1	12.5
Total	89	

The effect on paid work activities of caring for children was considerable as Table 30 below demonstrates. When asked if caring for children had had an effect on their working

lives, participants endorsed the alternatives as shown in Table 30. Noting that participants gave multiple responses the data show that 79.8 percent of participants had stopped work altogether, 73.8 percent worked only certain times of the day and 63.1 percent worked fewer hours because of their caring responsibilities.

Table 30: Effects on Paid Work Activities of Caring for Children

	No. of responses	% of carers
Stop work altogether	67	79.8
Only work at certain times of the day	62	73.8
Work fewer hours	53	63.1
Choose a particular type of work	34	40.5
Miss out on promotion/career opportunities	32	38.1
Total	248	

Just over one quarter of participants in this category (25.8 percent) were also in paid work. Ten were clerks, seven were in professional occupations, seven in sales and services and one was in the category technician and associated professional. Of the 24 participants who responded to the question on job tenure, two thirds said their employment was permanent and one third said it was temporary. Of the temporary employees three had casual employment, three were on fixed term contracts and two were in temporary agency employment. Just over three quarters (76 percent) of these 24 participants claimed they preferred permanent over temporary work. Nearly one third of this group (30.3 percent) had a student loan.

Of this subgroup, 70 participants (78.7 percent), were born in New Zealand. Of the 19 born overseas 9 came from Pacific nations, and the rest from Australia (2), Asia (2), Europe/UK (2), North America (1) and Africa (1). The highest qualifications of the subgroup of carers are set out in Table 32. The comparison with sample overall shows only minor differences.

Table 31: Highest Qualifications

Highest Qualification	No. carers	% carers	% sample overall
No qualifications	12	13.6	12.6
SC (or *NC Level 1)	13	14.8	15.5
Sixth Form Certificate (or *NC Level 2)	17	19.3	16.0
UE	3	3.4	1.7
NZ **HSC or ***HLC	4	4.5	2.4
Bursary or equivalent	8	9.1	13.4
Scholarship	0	0	.1
Trade certificate	3	3.4	5.8
Polytechnic diploma	12	13.6	10.1
Bachelors degree	12	13.6	16.9
Postgraduate qualification	3	3.4	4.0
Other	1	1.1	1.5
Total	88	99.8	100.0

*NC = National Certificate

**HSC = Higher School Certificate

***HLC = Higher Leaving Certificate

Unemployed

Forty participants, or 4.1 percent of the sample, were unemployed. Nearly one third of the unemployed in the sample had never been in paid employment. The proportion of unemployed from each region was similar to the proportion of participants in each region of the sample overall. Fifty five percent of the unemployed were female and 45 percent male compared with 58.1 percent and 41.9 percent overall. The unemployed differed most markedly from the overall sample with respect to age. Forty percent of the unemployed were in the 15 – 19 age cohort and a further 32.5 percent in the 20-24 age cohort. The figures for the sample overall were 32.5 percent and 21.9 percent respectively. While 18.9 percent of the overall sample were in the 25-29 age group only one participant (2.5 percent) of the unemployed fell into this age cohort. Overall, the incidence of unemployment in the two younger age groups was over double that in the two older groups.

The ethnic profile of the unemployed in the sample also differed from the makeup of the sample overall. While 55.5 percent of the sample were Pakeha or New Zealand European, only 25 percent of the unemployed were Pakeha. As Table 32 shows the proportion of Maori, Pacific People, East Asians and Maori/Pakeha were over-represented in the unemployed compared with the sample overall.

Table 32: Ethnicity of Unemployed

	No.	%	% total sample
Pakeha/NZ European only	10	25.0	55.5
Maori only	11	27.5	13.6
Pacific Peoples only	8	20.0	8.3
East Asian only	4	10.0	6.8
South Asian only	2	5.0	5.4
miscellaneous	1	2.5	1.1
Maori/Pakeha	4	10.0	4.7
Total	40	100.0	

Of those who had previously been employed, 60 percent had been unemployed for less than six months. Only 16 percent had been unemployed for two or more years. Forty percent had had only one period of unemployment and 73.3 percent had had three or fewer periods of unemployment. In response to the question of how long overall they had been unemployed 44.4 percent of respondents had been unemployed for 4 or more years and the same percentage for two years or less. Only 65 percent of the unemployed said they were currently looking for work. Some 22.5 percent of the unemployed in the sample were studying.

Nine participants (22.5 percent) who reported their main activity as unemployed were also engaged in some form of study. One was studying for interest, three were studying at the NCEA level, two were studying for a polytechnic diploma, two for a bachelors degree and one for a postgraduate qualification. Of the 40 participants who were unemployed 12 (30 percent) had a student loan.

On a sickness or disability benefit

Twelve participants (1.2 percent of the entire sample) were receiving a sickness or disabilities benefit. While the numbers in this category are small it is still worth reporting the length of time these participants had been on a benefit. Four had been on the benefit for less than 6 months, two, for between 6 months and less than 2 years, two for more than two years but less than 3 years, one for between 3 and 4 years and 3 for over 5 years. All participants on these benefits reported that they would be able to look for work at some time in the future.

EMPLOYMENT

A major part of the questionnaire concerned participants' experiences of employment. This is divided up in four sections, concerning

- Nature of employment experiences
- Employment choice and satisfaction
- Relation of employment to education and training
- Perceived security and future prospects in employment.

Nature of Employment Experiences

A sequence of questions was asked relating to specific employment that participants currently had, or had had in the past. All those in current employment, including self-employed people, part-timers, and students or caregivers working in their spare time, were asked these questions about this employment, i.e. *current job*. All those not in employment at present were asked if they had had any paid employment since the age of 15, and were then asked the same questions about the *last job* they had had. All those who had had at least one job before their present job were asked the questions about the *first job* they had had after finishing their full-time education. Therefore we are able to compare experiences in *first job* and *last or current job* for most participants.

Industry

Table 33: First Job, Last Job, Current Job: Industries

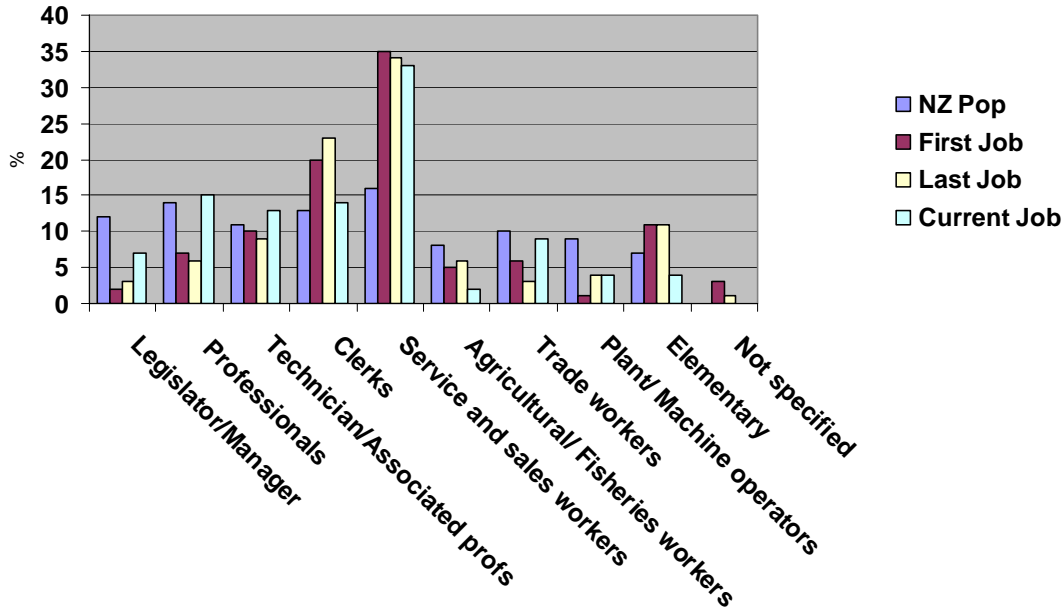
Industry	First job		Last job		Current job	
	No	%	No.	%	No.	%
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	47	6	15	7	23	3
Manufacturing	54	7	14	7	53	8
Electricity, gas and water supply	7	1	4	2	9	1
Construction	31	4	9	4	48	7
Wholesale trade	13	2	3	1	19	3
Retail trade	173	23	46	23	111	17
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	97	13	25	12	70	11
Transport and storage	20	3	6	3	19	3
Communication services	21	3	12	6	28	4
Finance and insurance	30	4	4	2	30	5
Property and business services	24	3	2	1	21	3
Government, administration and defence	16	2	9	4	25	4
Education	43	6	15	7	74	11
Health and community services	43	6	14	7	43	7
Cultural and recreational services	19	3	3	1	24	4
Personal and other services	65	9	19	9	35	5
IT	17	2	3	1	26	4
Other/unknown	18	2	1	0	1	0
Total	738		204		659	

These data demonstrate the preponderance of service industries (80 percent of the total 1601 jobs involved) over primary industries, manufacturing and construction in the employment pathways of young people. The retail and catering industries, for example, accounted for nearly 33 percent of all jobs, and over 37 percent of first jobs. Comparing “first job” with “current job”, it is apparent that pathways tend to progress away from rural industries and the retail trade, and towards administration, IT and education, possibly reflecting the need for more training and experience for jobs in the latter industries.

Occupation

These jobs were also classified according to the New Zealand Standard Occupational Classification. This breakdown is shown in Table 52 in Appendix One and in the Figure below.

Figure 5: First Job, Last Job and Current Job by Occupations



The comparison with the total New Zealand population is of interest, and needs to be viewed in the context that the current sample is of the younger segment of the New Zealand workforce. This is probably the reason that such a high proportion of our sample – double the population as a whole – is in the “sales and service worker” category, and so few in the “legislator and administrator” category. The small sample numbers in the “agricultural and fisheries workers” category is probably a reflection of the current sample focus in urban centres.

Again the pathways towards higher-level occupations are apparent: only 19 percent of first jobs are in the “top” three categories, compared with 34 percent of current jobs. In this respect it is noticeable that the distribution of “last jobs” (held by carers, unemployed people and others not currently working) is more similar to “first jobs” than to “current jobs”.

Permanence

Participants were also asked whether current and first jobs were permanent or temporary. Their responses are shown in Table 34.

Table 34: Employment: Permanent or Temporary

Type of employment	First job n = 738		Last job n = 204		Current job n = 659	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Permanent	498	67	121	59	519	79
Temporary – fixed term	52	7	15	7	43	12
Temporary – casual	135	18	45	22	80	7
Temporary – seasonal	29	4	11	5	10	2
Temporary - agency	17	2	9	4	7	1
Temporary – other/unknown	7	1	3	1	-	-
Temporary total	240	33	83	41	140	21

The striking thing about these data is the relative prevalence of temporary employment, particularly casual and seasonal employment, in participants' first jobs and last jobs. No doubt many of the jobs involved were jobs in supermarkets and the like taken as casual means of providing income while studying. On the positive side, the overall proportion of these jobs which were permanent is over 70 percent. Movement from first job to current job also appears to involve movement from temporariness to permanence.

Tenure

Participants were also asked how long they held each employment. In relation to this question, time in "current job" is not strictly comparable with time in "first job" and "last job" since the individuals still have the job and their total tenure of that job is unknown. With this caveat, the results for the three groups are provided in Table 35.

Table 35: Duration of Employment

Length of employment	First job		Last job		Current job	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 6 months	133	18	70	34	110	17
6 months to < 1 year	107	14	29	14	83	13
1 year to < 2 years	172	23	36	18	132	20
2 years to < 3 years	120	16	18	9	93	14
3 years to < 4 years	65	9	18	9	70	11
4years to < 5 years	26	4	7	3	35	5
Over 5 years	61	8	26	13	128	19
Still in job	38	5	-	-	-	-
Other/unknown	16	2	-	-	1	-
Total	738	-	204	-	659	-
Median (approx)	1.7 years	-	1 year	-	2 years	-

Across the two groups whose members had moved on from employment in first jobs and last jobs, nearly 60 percent of participants had quit the employment after less than two years, representing a very high rate of attrition. Attrition was particularly high in the “last jobs” group.

The same data was tabulated considering only those jobs that participants stated were “permanent”. These data are set out in Table 36.

Table 36: Duration of Employment: “Permanent” Employment Only

Length of permanent employment	First job		Last job		Current job	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 6 months	37	7.5	18	14.9	68	13.2
6 months to < 1 year	65	13.2	18	14.9	61	11.8
1 year to < 2 years	133	27.1	26	21.5	101	19.5
2 years to < 3 years	97	19.8	16	13.2	73	14.1
3 years to < 4 years	58	11.8	14	11.6	62	12
4years to < 5 years	20	4.1	5	4.1	32	6.2
Over 5 years	55	11.2	24	19.8	120	23.2
Still in job	24	4.9	-	-	-	-
Other/unknown	2	.4	-	-	-	-
Total	491	100	121	100	517	100
Median (approx)	2.2 years		2 years		2.3 years	

When only permanent jobs were considered, median job tenure increased to 2 years or more for all groups. Nevertheless, it must be of concern that even when only “permanent” jobs are considered, nearly 50 percent of participants leave these within two years. This high turnover rate is worthy of investigating further in the follow-up stages of this study.

Processes of Choosing Employment

Transitions into employment and between different jobs are critical points in the process of determining pathways. Often the individual’s eventual life path will be influenced by a choice (e.g. a particular occupation or organisation) made when young. Decisions can be charted in terms of the processes whereby people make these transitions: how they find the work they do, why they choose one particular opportunity over another, what they subsequently perceive to be the main benefits, and why they eventually leave. Following our “first job, last job, current job” we again sought to determine these key parameters for each job held.

Methods of finding jobs

First, participants were asked, “How did you get that employment?” Answers are shown in Table 37.

Table 37: How Employment was Obtained

How employment obtained	First job		Last job		Current job*		Total	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Through job advertisements	202	28	47	23	156	22	405	24
Through friends or other contacts	183	25	49	24	166	24	398	24
Through relatives	118	16	38	19	76	11	232	15
Wrote, phoned or applied in person to an employer	96	13	24	12	100	14	220	13
Through an employment agency	28	4	16	8	46	7	90	6
Invited to apply	18	2	7	3	32	5	57	3
Started with the employer on a job placement or training scheme	19	3	2	1	16	2	37	2
Through WINZ	12	2	4	2	9	1	25	2
Internet search	5	1	1	0	16	2	22	1
Became self-employed	1	0	0	0	20	3	21	1
Through school	13	2	0	0	8	1	21	1
Worked there while studying	8	1	3	1	8	1	19	1
Other	4	1	1	0	13	2	18	1
Don't know	5	1	5	2	3	0	13	1
Did a temporary job for the employer and it was made permanent	5	1	0	0	7	1	12	1
Recruitment drives (tertiary, army)	6	1	2	1	4	1	12	1
Worked there previously / promoted	1	0	0	0	11	2	12	1
Student job search	2	0	4	2	4	1	10	1
Through volunteer work	2	0	1	0	2	0	5	0
Family business	1	0	0	0	2	0	3	0
Total	729		204		699		1632	

*NB: Forty respondents in this category gave more than one response.

Sources of employment can be divided into the “formal” (e.g. replying to job advertisements, applying in person to a company, going to an employment agency) and “informal” (getting the job through friends, relatives, personal contacts with employers etc.). In some cases the two forms may work in interaction with each other. These figures suggest approximately equal use of the two by sample participants. There are few major differences between “first job” and “current job” though there is some suggestion that relatives have had less influence over finding the current job.

Reasons for Job Choice

Participants were asked, “Why did you choose that work?” Their responses are shown in Table 38.

Table 38: Reason for Job Choice⁶

Why work chosen	First job		Last job		Current job		Total	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Financial reasons	192	20	59	20	144	15	395	18
Interesting / nature of work / ambition / fun	142	15	40	14	197	21	379	17
Suited qualifications / experience	63	7	29	10	95	10	187	9
Came along / fell into / available	92	10	15	5	62	7	169	8
Convenient	66	7	23	8	60	6	149	7
Flexible / lifestyle	53	6	14	5	52	6	119	5
No other options	52	5	13	5	24	3	89	4
Good opportunity	35	4	8	3	37	4	80	4
Social aspect / people	30	3	5	2	36	4	71	3
Gain experience / learn skills	37	4	11	4	22	2	70	3
Undemanding nature of job	31	3	17	6	18	2	66	3
Was asked / headhunted	28	3	5	2	26	3	59	3
Contacts	19	2	10	3	29	3	58	3
Needed a job	25	3	6	2	21	2	52	2
Family business / tradition / influence	11	1	3	1	25	3	39	2
Got sick of last job / change	14	1	12	4	13	1	39	2
Good conditions / company	20	2	3	1	15	2	38	2
Challenge	5	1	4	1	25	3	34	2
Something to do	19	2	5	2	7	1	31	1
Not sure / don't know	6	1	3	1	4	0	13	1
Satisfaction / achievement	1	0	0	0	11	1	12	1
Security	2	0	0	0	5	1	7	0
Other	3	0	3	1	11	1	12	1
Total	946		288		939		2173	

⁶ Totals are inflated by some respondents providing more than one answer.

There are three broad categories of reason for making job choices. Intrinsic reasons are connected with the work itself, the interest, challenge, development opportunities and social life within it. Extrinsic reasons are connected with the tangible rewards of the work, particularly its financial rewards, its flexibility in relation to other aspects of the person's life, its advancement prospects and security. A third broad category might be termed "circumstances", for example when a job becomes available, is located close to home, is promoted by other family members, is far from ideal but the only job available etc. Financial reasons (extrinsic) were the most frequent response, but the overall picture was much more complex. While it is hard to fit the discrete categories in the table above into these three broader categories, one categorisation suggests that over 40 percent of the reasons came in the "circumstances" category, suggesting that many young people "drift" into jobs that may or may not be suitable, rather than selecting them on rational grounds. About 30 percent of the responses could be classed as "intrinsic", with interest, stimulation, social life, challenge and achievement major contributors. About 27 percent of responses could be classed as "extrinsic" and this category was dominated by the financial factor.

Perceived Benefits of Jobs

The reasons people choose jobs may be very different from the experiences they have once they have started the job. A person may choose a job because it is well paid, then find that its intrinsic interest or social life is far more significant to him or her than the earnings. Participants were asked to state the main benefits they got from each job. Answers are tabulated in Table 39.

Table 39: Main Benefits of Work

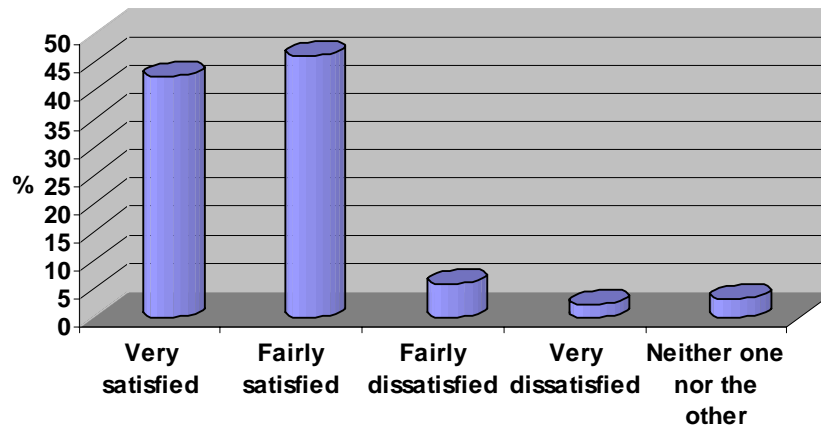
Main benefit	First job		Last job		Current job		Total	Total %
	n = 1476		n =460		n =1416			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Money (E)	396	27	128	28	392	24	916	26
Security (E)	33	2	11	2	63	4	107	3
Perks (E)	35	2	9	2	54	3	98	3
Convenience (E)	14	1	3	1	53	3	70	2
Employment conditions (E)	6	-	-	-	18	1	24	1
Career plan, progression (E)	11	1	-	-	4	-	15	-
Skills, knowledge (D)	257	17	66	14	169	10	492	14
Personal growth (D)	95	6	32	7	85	5	212	6
Communication skills (D)	63	4	31	7	56	3	150	4
Self-confidence (D)	50	3	14	3	50	4	114	3
Broader outlook (D)	34	2	12	3	36	2	80	2
Enhanced networks (D)	32	2	11	2	40	2	78	2
Experience (D)	73	5	18	4	27	2	118	3
Fitness, exercise (D)	13	1	6	1	9	1	28	1
Enjoyment (I)	86	6	28	6	156	10	270	8
Social life (I)	87	5	36	8	125	8	248	7
Specific work satisfactions (I)	66	4	23	5	135	8	224	6
Something to do (I)	47	3	14	3	44	3	105	3
Autonomy, freedom (I)	29	2	9	2	57	3	80	2
Other (specified)	28	2	4	1	56	3	88	2
None	16	1	5	1	8	-	29	1
Total	1471		460		1637		3568	

Again it is possible to discern a three-part division into the benefits that people experience from their work. Extrinsic aspects (marked “E” in the Table 39), including money and security account for 35 percent of responses, with money again having the lion’s share. Intrinsic aspects (marked “I”) include enjoyment, social life and networks, work satisfaction, something to do, and autonomy – features of the work itself. These account for 26 percent of responses. The third category is “personal development” (Marked “D”) – things which are not just enjoyable on the job but are improving the person for future challenges: skills, knowledge, personal growth, communication skills, self-confidence, a broader outlook – accounting, again, 35 percent of responses.

Job satisfaction

Participants currently in employment were asked how satisfied they were with their current work. They were given five options. Answers are shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Satisfaction with Current Job



Five hundred and eighty three out of 658 eligible respondents (89 percent) said they were “very satisfied” or “fairly satisfied” - a relatively high level of job satisfaction.

Reasons for leaving

Departure from a job may be for a variety of reasons: dissatisfaction, dismissal, and redundancy are all negative reasons, suggesting that the job did not “work out” for the individual. However, often the reasons are more positive: the individual is taking action to improve his or her career path by seeking a better job. In relation to “first job” and “last job” participants were asked, “Why did you leave (that job)?” Answers are shown in Table 40.

Table 40: Reasons for Leaving Past Jobs

Reason for leaving	First job		Last job		Total	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%		
To study / at school	66	10	50	25	116	13
Decided to change track and get a totally different job	102	15	11	5	113	13
Wanted a change	96	14	11	5	107	12
Family reasons (e.g. pregnancy, family relocation)	46	7	55	27	101	11
To go overseas / travel	77	11	15	7	92	10
Laid off / retrenched / closed down / redundant	57	8	11	5	68	8
Didn't like the job	54	8	9	4	63	7
For a better job (pay, hours)	48	7	3	1	51	6
End of contract / seasonal	33	5	11	5	44	5
Relocation	33	5	4	2	37	4
To advance career	25	4	1	0	26	3
Poor relationships at work	11	2	1	0	12	1
Sick / accident	6	1	6	3	12	1
Fired	6	1	0	0	6	1
Other (specified)	19	3	14	7	33	4
Total	679	100	202	100	881	100

This table shows a very wide distribution of reasons, with none of them predominating over the others, but presents a fairly positive picture. Many jobs were left because of new opportunities elsewhere, for example to study, to go down a new career track, to effect change, to move to a better job, to advance one's career. Others were caused by family circumstance. Less than 10 percent were apparently caused solely by dissatisfaction. Redundancies and contract terminations totaled 12 percent. Dismissals were rare. In other words, even though these jobs were not necessarily held during the current economic "boom", most participants appeared to be making their job moves because they wanted to rather than because they had to.

Relation of Employment to Education and Training

All participants currently in employment other than those whose main activity was as students were asked, “Are you taking any courses at present?”. Of 527 eligible, only 117 (22 percent) said they were. The breakdown of these courses is shown in Table 41.

Table 41: Qualifications Being Taken by Participants in Employment

Qualification	No.	%
Interest only	8	7
National Certificate and Bursary	11	9
Trade Certificate	17	15
Polytechnic diploma	17	15
Bachelor’s degree	36	31
Postgraduate qualification	12	10
Job/work related	9	8
Other	7	6
Total	117	100

Participants in employment were asked, “Have you received any training from your current employer?” Of 628 eligible, 378 (60 percent) answered “yes”, and a surprisingly high 40 percent “no”. However, when this analysis was restricted to those in permanent full-time jobs, the percentage who said they had not been trained fell to 35 percent (120 out of 340).

Participants who said they had been trained were also asked to state, on a five-point scale how satisfactory their training had been. Results are shown in Table 42.

Table 42: Training and its Satisfactoriness

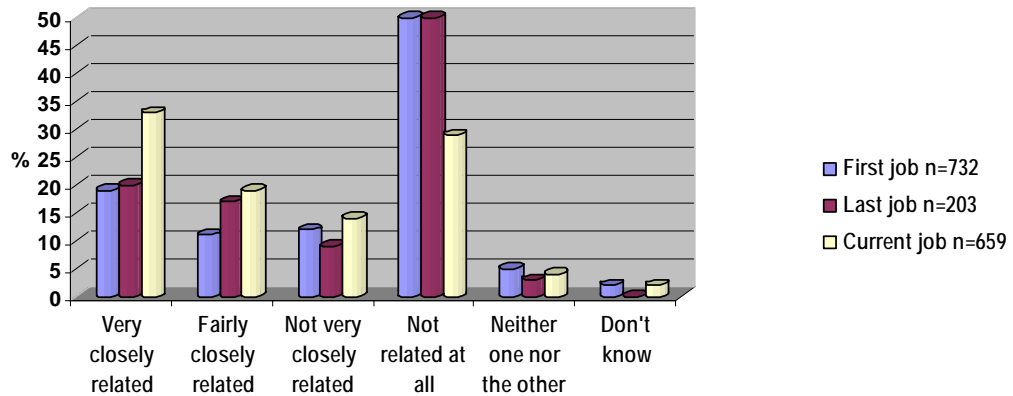
Training received	No.	%
Very satisfactory	170	44.9
Fairly satisfactory	178	47
Fairly unsatisfactory	14	3.7
Very unsatisfactory	7	1.8
Neither one nor the other	9	2.3
Total	378	100

Of the 378 of those who had been trained, 91.9 percent rated their training as either “fairly satisfactory” or “very satisfactory”.

Finally in this section, employed and self-employed participants were asked, “How closely is your current work related to your education and qualifications?” The question was repeated in relation to other groups in respect of “last job” and of all participants who

had been in employment in relation to “first job”. Responses are shown in the Figure below and in Table 53 in Appendix One.

Figure 7: Relationship between Work and Qualifications



Strikingly, in relation to 1594 jobs, in 862 cases the job holder reported that their work was “not related at all” or “not very closely related” to their qualification. However, when the analysis was restricted to comments on current jobs, the percentage of jobs where it was reported that qualifications were unrelated had dropped to 43 percent. This finding demonstrates the general, non-vocational nature of many educational qualifications.

Security, prospects, future mobility

A series of questions asked participants to look into the future. Follow-up interviews will attempt to establish how accurately they were able to do so. Participants currently in work were asked, “How secure or insecure would you say your work is?” and offered five options. Answers are shown in Table 43.

Table 43: Security in Current Work

Security	No.	%
Very secure	354	54
Fairly secure	232	35
Fairly insecure	35	5
Very insecure	16	2
Neither one nor the other	14	2
Don't know	8	1
Total	659	100

The answers indicate a high level of self-perceived security among participants, in that 89 percent felt secure.

These participants were next asked whether they saw their prospects in their current employment as good, average or poor. Responses are shown in Table 44.

Table 44: Perceived Future Prospects

Perceived future prospects	No.	%
Good	366	56
Average	200	30
Poor	84	13
Don't know	9	1
Total	659	100

Again, the majority of respondents (56 percent) considered that their prospects were good, while only 13 percent considered them poor.

Participants were asked how long they expected to remain in their current employment. As shown in Table 45 below, they were given three options to choose from.

Table 45: Expectations of Remaining in Current Employment

Expectations	No.	%
Less than one year	180	27
1-2 years	175	27
2 years or more	270	41
Don't know	34	5
Total	659	100

As previously shown, the median tenure-to-date of current employment was 2.3 years. If these results are accurate predictions, then the estimated median tenure-to-come was about 1.7 years, a total median tenure of 4 years: again, relatively short, though much longer than the data for “first job.”

EMPLOYMENT HISTORY AND MOBILITY

Mobility: Number of Jobs

All participants currently in employment were asked to state how many jobs they had had, including full-time, part-time, permanent, temporary and self-employment. Responses are shown in Table 46.

Table 46: Number of Jobs Held, by Age-Group

No. of Jobs		Age Band				Total
		15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	
1	No.	54	9	8	6	77
	%	34.4	6.1	5.4	3.0	11.7
2	No.	46	13	16	7	82
	%	29.3	8.8	10.7	3.5	12.5
3	No.	20	27	15	26	88
	%	12.7	18.2	10.1	12.9	13.4
4	No.	12	29	25	24	90
	%	7.6	19.6	16.8	11.9	13.7
5-7	No.	11	31	21	37	100
	%	7.0	20.9	14.1	18.3	15.2
8-10	No.	8	28	42	58	136
	%	5.1	18.9	28.2	28.7	20.7
more than 10	No.	6	11	22	44	83
	%	3.8	7.4	14.8	21.8	12.7
Total	No.	157	148	149	202	656
	%	100	100	100	100	100

Even allowing for the relatively liberal definition of “job”, responses to this question showed a startlingly high degree of inter-job mobility. Less than a quarter of the sample had had only one or two jobs. Respondents under 20 years of age had had a median number of two jobs, those aged 20-24 four, those aged 25-29 six, and those aged 30-34 eight. These findings confirm the findings reported in Table 35 that median job duration is less than two years. Of course, for some participants the mobility shown might have been mobility between different jobs with the same employer, for example through promotion.

A similar analysis of the number of jobs held by those not currently in employment (n=194) yielded similar results. These respondents had held a median number of three jobs each, with 35 percent having had all the jobs in the same occupation and 61 percent in the same region.

Mobility: Occupational and Geographical

A series of further questions considered the issue of different types of mobility – occupational and geographical. These were:

“Have all these (jobs) been in the same occupation as you are in now?” and “Have all these jobs been in Auckland/Wellington/Manawatu/Gisborne?” Answers indicated that only 25 percent had had all their jobs in the same occupation, but that 59 percent had had all their jobs in the same region. Again, even allowing for different interpretations of the word “occupation” the degree of occupational mobility is striking. Traditional public images of careers suggested linear models in which people train for a specific occupation and stick to it if they can. This evidence suggests that young people in New Zealand operate their careers on a quite different model. It is likely that the actions of the younger people in our sample are demonstrating a more contemporary approach to ‘career’. Given that there is considerable emphasis in the curricula of schools and tertiary institutions, especially universities, on “how to think” rather than “what to think”, the data could be demonstrating that younger people have taken on board the notion of transferable skills. Hence the relatively short time spent in jobs represents an understanding of ‘contemporary career wisdom’.

The effect of frequency of job change and high inter-job mobility on careers is of course dependent on how quickly the individual finds another job. Here we have data on respondents’ behaviour following their first job. They were asked to indicate how long it took them to find their next job. Of 672 respondents who responded to the questions about their first job 559 (85 percent) indicated that they had had another job within one month. Only 23 (3.8 percent) said it took them three months or more. The 61 participants who did not answer this question were either still in their first job or had left the workforce. Such ease of finding alternative employment facilitates labour mobility.

SOCIAL CAPITAL

An important goal of the study was to consider the influence of young people’s “social capital” on the early stages of their working lives. Social capital is the resources one can call on due to one’s membership of a group - a kind of credit which group members can call on. The volume of social capital available to individuals depends on the size of their networks and the extent of the various forms of capital those in the networks – for example family, friends, neighbours, co-workers and employers.

Students’ Sources of Guidance

An initial question about social capital concerned the student group. Their potential pathways to employment are not just about finding jobs, but are also about choice of educational pathway, choice of occupation, broader career strategies etc. Participants who were still students were asked, “Have you talked about your future career to anyone?”

Of the 319 students, 98 (or 31 percent) said they had not talked to anyone. The responses of those who had consulted with someone are shown in Table 47.

Table 47: Who Students Spoke to about Employment Choices

	15-19 (n=153)	20-24 (n=46)	25-29 (n=12)	30-34 (n=10)	No.	% of all students (n=221)
Parents	106	30	4	0	140	63
Friends	73	30	9	10	122	55
Career counsellor/ careers teacher	68	11	1	3	83	38
Teacher/lecturer	46	9	4	4	63	28
Other family/whanau	41	18	5	4	68	31
Parents’ friend	6	1	0	0	7	3
Possible employers	3	3	2	0	8	4
Boyfriend/girlfriend	3	2	0	2	7	3
People in pertinent positions	5	0	0	1	6	3
Employment agency	2	2	1	0	5	2
Other people in higher education	3	2	0	1	6	3
Colleagues at work	2	1	1	0	4	2
Mentor	2	0	1	1	4	2
Other	1	1	1	0	3	1
Total	361	110	29	26	526⁷	-

⁷ this question allowed for multiple responses

These data demonstrate that family and friends are the primary source of students' employment and career advice, but that educational advisors also play an important role. Note that these respondents were predominantly in the 15-19 age-group. From this information, 39 percent of all responses were in the 'family' category (parents, other family, and parents' friends). Teachers, lecturers, and careers teachers and counsellors accounted for 28 percent of responses. Friends, including boyfriends and girlfriends accounted for 25 percent. Employers and agencies, with only 3 percent of the responses, were seldom consulted about more general career direction.

Age-related data confirmed that the key people consulted changed over time: for example for under-20s, 43 percent of assistance came from family sources, 32 percent from educational sources, and only 21 percent from friends. For over 25-year-old students, the figures were 27 percent, 24 percent and 35 percent respectively. This indicates that as people get older, the reliance on family and educational sources declines while that on friends increases. This pattern might be expected as younger people leave educational institutions the influences of those institutions decline.

Social Capital and Finding Employment

The role of social capital in job-finding was investigated by means of the question "How did you find your current employment?" and "How did you find your first employment?" (already analysed in Table 37). Responses were divided into three types:

FA (Formal application): individual applies through formal processes or agencies;

SC (Social capital): job obtained through networks, including employer networks; or

OI (Own initiative): job obtained on own initiative without formal availability.

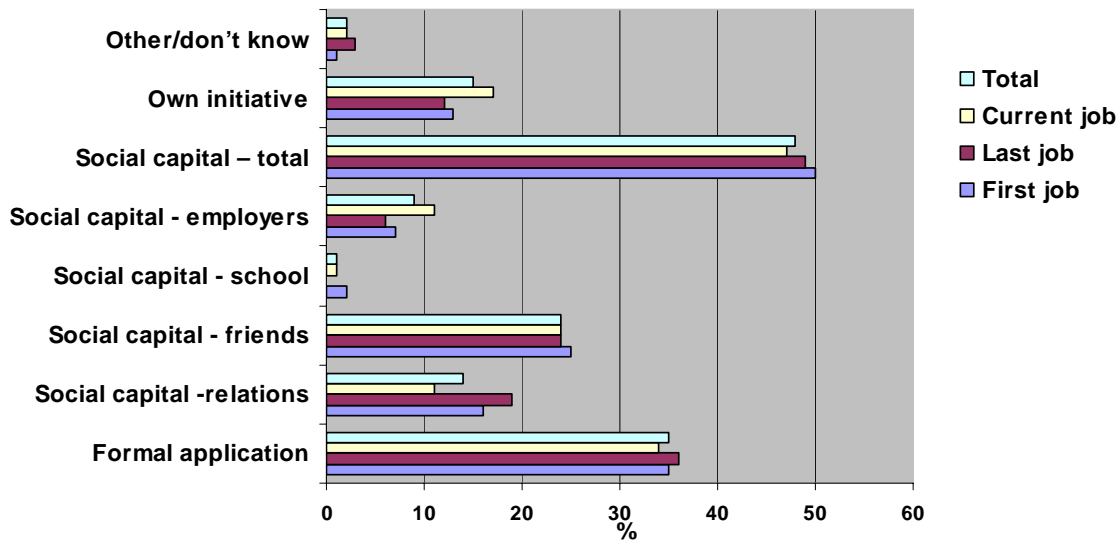
Social capital (SC) was further subdivided in terms of the type of capital – relatives (SCR), friends (SCF), employers (SCE), or school (SCS). This procedure produced the results shown in Table 48 and are summarised in Figure 8.

Table 48: Finding Employment

How employment obtained	First job		Last job		Current job		Total	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Through job advertisements (FA)	202	28	47	23	156	22	405	24
Through an employment agency (FA)	28	4	16	8	46	7	90	6
Through WINZ (FA)	12	2	4	2	9	1	25	2
Internet search (FA)	5	1	1	0	16	2	22	1
Recruitment drives (tertiary, army) (FA)	6	1	2	1	4	1	12	1
Student job search (FA)	2	0	4	2	4	1	10	1
Through friends or other contacts (SCF)	183	25	49	24	166	24	398	24
Through relatives (SCR)	118	16	38	19	76	11	232	15
Family business (SCR)	1	0	0	0	2	0	3	0
Wrote, phoned or applied in person to an employer (OI)	96	13	24	12	100	14	220	13
Became self-employed (OI)	1	0	0	0	20	3	21	1
Invited to apply (SCE)	18	2	7	3	32	5	57	3
Started with the employer on a job placement or training scheme (SCE)	19	3	2	1	16	2	37	2
Worked there while studying (SCE)	8	1	3	1	8	1	19	1
Did a temporary job for the employer and it was made permanent (SCE)	5	1	0	0	7	1	12	1
Worked there previously / promoted (SCE)	1	0	0	0	11	2	12	1
Through volunteer work (SCE)	2	0	1	0	2	0	5	0
Through school (SCS)	13	2	0	0	8	1	21	1
Other (-)	4	1	1	0	13	2	18	1
Don't know (-)	5	1	5	2	3	0	13	1
Total	729	100	204	100	699	100	1632	100

In Figure 8 and Table 54 in Appendix One the data from Table 48 are aggregated in three broad categories to show the comparative importance of social capital, formal applications and own initiatives in finding employment

Figure 8: Use of Social Capital, Formal Application and own Initiative in Finding Employment



These results indicate the importance of social capital in finding employment: it accounts for nearly 50 percent of responses. The detailed results also indicate that different sources of social capital are different at different stages of the career pathway, with links to relatives being comparatively more important for first job, and those to employers for current job. Overall, social capital also declines slightly between first job and current job, with “own initiative” being relatively more important. At all stages, however, the most significant social source of employment opportunities is “friends”. This may have major implications for the careers of young people.

The picture is complicated by relationships to age. In general, as respondents’ age increased the reporting of social capital in finding their current job decreased and formal processes increased. For example, in relation to current job, for those below 25 years of age, 58 percent of responses were in the social capital category and only 25 percent in the formal application category; whereas for those 25 years and over, the equivalent figures were 41 percent and 44 percent - a dramatic shift. Social capital through relations declined rapidly from 22 percent for participants aged under 20 to five percent for those aged over 30. In the formal application category, finding employment by answering advertisements went from 15 percent for the under 20s to 27 percent for the over 30s and use of employment agencies from three percent to 9 percent. We surmise that as people gather experience and seek more responsible jobs, employers become more thorough and

professional in the procedures they use and the criteria they apply with respect to hiring procedures.

Social Capital: General Influences on Employment

Another question, asked of *all* participants near the end of the interview after they had reviewed much of their employment experience to date, was: “Now, going back over your employment so far, who has influenced you the most in making your employment choices and how?”

This was an open-ended question and out of the 966 respondents, 313 (or 32 percent) said no-one influenced them or they denied any external influence by the response ‘myself’. A further 55 did not answer or said the question was not applicable as they had not yet started their career. The people named by the 598 participants who commented on people who had influenced them, and the type of intervention provided, are shown in Table 49.

From Table 49 it is apparent that families and relations are seen to have by far the greatest influence on employment choices, though they decline in relative importance as the individual ages. For 15-19 year-olds, 73 percent of responses were in the SCR (relatives) category, gradually reducing to 46 percent for the 30-34 year olds. In contrast SCE (employer) influences, including work colleagues, increased from 5 percent in the youngest group to 24 percent in the oldest. SCF (friends) increased slightly, from 10 percent to 14 percent and SCS (schools and educational institutions) remained steady at 7 percent. No doubt these patterns represent individuals’ gradual emancipation from family influences and their increasing reliance on relevant information available in the spheres of their employment. It should also be borne in mind that the question was about the individual’s history of employment choices and not just the most recent choice. Nevertheless, the predominance of the family in these data, represented by a total of 63 percent of responses identifying relatives as major sources of influence, is very striking.

Among family influences, specific mentions of parents (including ‘mother’ and ‘father’), accounted for 83 percent of SCR responses by the 15-19 group, declining to 69 percent for the 20-24s, 49 percent for the 25-29s and 35 percent for the 30-34s. Also noticeable was the tendency for the mother rather than the father to be singled out by the 15-19s, and for spouses and partners to increase in importance with increasing age.

As far as the type of intervention was concerned, most of these seemed positive and symbolic, i.e. offering support, advice, and previous experience rather than direct assistance to get a job, though the latter had some importance in the 15-19 group, presumably in relation to first jobs. The ‘nagging/hassling’ category was largely the preserve of teenagers reporting, ‘Mum kept nagging me to go out and get a job’ and the like.

Table 49: Influences on Employment Choices

PERSON:	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	Total	%
No-one/'myself'	67	68	68	110	313	
Relatives (SCR)						
Parents	80	36	11	16	143	20
Mother	50	19	12	7	88	12
'Family'/whanau (non-specific)	15	16	19	26	76	11
Father	24	17	11	5	57	8
Partner/spouse/boyfriend/girlfriend	6	10	10	23	49	7
Relation not specified in other codes e.g. aunt	9	5	4	1	19	3
Sibling	8	1	2	1	12	2
Work environment (SCE)						
Boss/employer	10	14	17	25	66	9
Work colleagues(s)	4	7	3	15	29	4
Education (SCS)						
Teacher (school)	17	4	3	5	29	4
Lecturer/tutor	1	11	6	7	25	3
Social environment (SCF)						
Friends	24	17	8	17	66	9
Mentor/coach	2	0	5	5	12	2
Other						
God	0	0	3	5	8	1
Community Organisation	2	0	2	2	6	1
Other	9	5	5	9	28	4
Total	261	162	121	169	713	100
TYPE OF INTERVENTION⁸:						
Encouragement/support	34	16	15	26	91	21
Advice	25	18	10	14	67	15
Role modeling/work in same field	19	11	14	10	54	12
Nagging/hassling/'go to work'	33	10	6	2	51	11
Options/suggestion/assistance to find direction	14	16	8	11	49	11
Information	10	11	7	10	38	9
Assistance in getting employment	20	8	3	5	36	8
Motivation/inspiration	4	3	2	6	15	3
Work assignments	1	3	4	6	14	3
Compulsion	4	1	2	0	7	2
Promises	2	1	0	1	4	1
Other	9	4	2	2	17	4
Total	175	102	73	93	443*	100
Not applicable	6	1	1	1	9	
Don't know/not answered	12	7	10	10	39	

⁸ Not all those who reported being influenced stated what type of influence it was.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The range of different statuses of members of our sample made evident how complex a concept such as “pathways to employment” may be. Not everyone pursues employment single-mindedly, and the pathways are many and varied. We were however able to assemble some interesting data on smaller groups such as the self-employed, the unemployed and those caring for children at home. However our most substantial and important data was that on our two largest groups: students and those currently in employment.

Here, if our data was indeed representative, there was a relatively positive story to tell. Most of those who wanted to be in employment were in employment, levels of job satisfaction were high and training received was perceived to be of value.

However, in three areas the data indicated issues, and possibly problems, of some import, which deserve further research (and will receive it in the later stages of our programme), and policy attention.

1. The apparent high levels of job-to-job movement and inter-occupational mobility of those in employment and their susceptibility to being employed on the basis of convenience or whim rather than that of a planned approach to self- and career development. It appears that the careers so far developed by the majority of the employed in our sample are relatively non-linear. This is not necessarily a bad thing, but appears contrary to the assumptions that many decision-makers in our society make.
2. Related to (1) above, the relatively large number of young people who, looking retrospectively at their education, could see little relevance to their employment. This was particularly true in relation to school experiences.
3. The importance of social capital in the process of finding pathways into, and through, employment, and the associated questions which must be asked of the ability of those concerned such as family members and friends to act as effective counsellors and guides in the absence of additional professional support.

These questions will be further addressed in later stages of the programme. In the qualitative phase of Objective 1 (“supply-side”) we will be seeking to elicit participants’ underlying conceptualisations of the world of work and employment which may provide some further insights into these issues. Other reports on the current data are also planned. For example the dynamics of employment behaviour in Maori participants will form the content of another report. An Objective 2 (“demand side”) study of employers’ attitudes and actions in relation to the employment of young people is in progress which will hopefully provide a new lens to focus some of the issues identified in this report. The current study has thrown up some surprising and challenging results, which we intend to follow up in the later phases of our work.

APPENDIX ONE

Table 50: Intentions after Completion of Qualification

Intention	School students	%	Tertiary students	%	No qualification (incl. for interest)	%	All students	%
Go on to further study	109	71.2	35	23.3	4	50	148	47.5
Get a job	17	11.1	81	54	2	25	100	32.1
Travel/OE	6	3.9	21	14	0	0	27	8.7
Return to previous job	1	.7	5	3.3	0	0	6	1.9
Become self-employed	1	.7	1	.7	0	0	2	.6
Don't know	17	11.1	7	4.6	2	25	26	8.4
Other	2	1.3	0	0	0	0	2	.6
Total	153	100	150	100	8	100	311⁹	100

Table 51: Expectations of relationship of study to employment after completion of qualification

Intention	School students	%	Tertiary students	%	No Qualification (incl. for interest)	%	All students	%
Very closely related	48	31.4	95	63	1	12.5	144	46
Fairly closely related	63	41	40	27	2	25	105	34
Not very closely related	23	15	3	2	3	37.5	29	9
Not related at all	7	4.5	2	1	0	0	9	3
Neither one nor the other	1	0.7	4	3	1	12.5	6	2
Don't know	11	7.2	6	4	1	12.5	18	6
Total	153	100	150	100	8	100	311¹⁰	100

⁹ This does not include participants in the 'other' category

¹⁰ Table does not include 8 "other" specifiers as we are unsure of what qualification was mentioned.

Table 52: First Job, Last Job, Current Job: Occupations

Occupational group	Total NZ population (2004) ¹¹		First job n = 738		Last job n = 204		Current job n = 659	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1. legislators & administrators	246,700	12.5	15	2	5	3	46	7
2. professionals	289,000	14.2	48	7	12	6	96	15
3. technicians and ass. professionals	216,800	11	77	10	18	9	88	13
4. clerks	248,800	12.6	142	20	47	23	88	14
5. service and sales workers	317,500	16.1	265	36	70	34	217	33
6. agricultural and fisheries workers	158,900	8	38	5	12	6	11	2
7. trade workers	186,100	9.5	44	6	6	3	62	9
8. plant and machine operators	167,400	8.5	11	1	9	4	25	4
9. elementary occupations	132,500	6.7	78	11	23	11	24	4
Not specified	2,300	0.1	14	3	2	1	2	-
Total	1,966,000	100	732	101	204	100	659	100

Table 53: Relationship between Work and Qualifications

How closely work is related to qualifications	First job		Last job		Current job		Total	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Very closely related	142	19	40	20	217	33	399	25
Fairly closely related	80	11	34	17	125	19	239	15
Not very closely related	90	12	19	9	92	14	201	13
Not related at all	369	50	102	50	190	29	661	41
Neither one nor the other	39	5	7	3	25	4	71	4
Don't know	12	2	1	0	10	2	23	1
Total	732	100	203	100	659	100	1594	100

¹¹ Statistics New Zealand Labour Market Statistics 2004

Table 54: Use of Social Capital, Formal Application and own Initiative in Finding Employment

Method	First job (%)	Last job (%)	Current job (%)	Total (%)
Formal application	35	36	34	35
Social capital - friends	25	24	24	24
Social capital -relations	16	19	11	14
Social capital - school	2	0	1	1
Social capital - employers	7	6	11	9
Social capital – total	50	49	47	48
Own initiative	13	12	17	15
Other/don't know	1	3	2	2



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Eva McLaren

Research Manager

Labour Market Dynamics Research Programme

School of Social and Cultural Studies

Massey University

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