Journal of Education and Work ›
Volume 30, 2017 - Issue 5

Open access

3,647 Views | 10 CrossRef citations to date | 0 Altmetric

Listen

Articles

Transition systems and non-standard employment in early career: comparing Japan and Switzerland

Christian Imdorf , Laura Alexandra Helbling & Akio Inui

Pages 486-500 | Received 06 May 2016, Accepted 07 Sep 2016, Published online: 14 Oct 2016

Cite this article https://doi.org/10.1080/13639080.2016.1243234 Check for updates

Abstra

Even tho youth
unemplo osing a risk
to the st rench
approac school-to-
work ly career
differ entrants
who com in non-
standard es who
mainly e d, where
vocation nt
relations ountries

insecurities may not endanger labour market integration of highly skilled university graduates holding good career prospects in Switzerland, they may go hand in hand with social exclusion processes for the low-educated young entrants lacking bargaining power in the segmented Japanese labour market.

Keywords: Transition system | non-standard employment | early career | Japan | Switzerland

Introduction

This paper investigates how educational trajectories stratify the risk of non-standard employment for youth at labour market entry in Japan and Switzerland, two countries with distinctive education-to-work transition systems. Even though both countries have relatively low youth unemployment rates of 7–9%, school graduates face increasingly risky labour markets. In addition to increases in (youth) unemployment (Weber 2001; Genda 2003; Sacchi and Salvisberg 2011; Goodman 2012; Bolli et al. 2015), jobs deviating from the traditional 'male breadwinner model' (Meier 2014) of continuous, full-time employment have become an integral part of both economies (Inui 2009; Ecoplan 2010; OECD2010, 2014; Yu 2012; Toivonen and Imoto 2012, 4).

With refe ice, Sellier, and Silve ucation and transitio 1998) and which fe intertwi ooth school-to-work presents an Occupat ere the Inter]) is more prom ple as the main lin traditionally relied m ol graduates and trai ensely analyse ation in ILM and OLM s only very recently

To help close this research gap, the aim of this paper is to gain an initial understanding and encourage further thinking about how different education-to-work transition systems may relate to recent labour market insecurities surrounding the establishment of newcomers. More specifically, we ask how non-standard employment relates to vocational vs. university education in the different transition systems of Switzerland and Japan. We use comparable youth panel data in our analysis in order to compare early labour market destinations of young school graduates. Our findings point to remarkably different patterns of non-standard employment among vocational and university graduates in the two countries. These findings are interpreted against the background of different transition systems, suggesting differential operational logics of non-standard forms of entry-employment.

Investigating the stratifying impact of educational pathways on the risk of non-standard entry employment during one's early career in Japan and Switzerland, we briefly define non-standard employment and outline, in a first step, competing perspectives on the operational logics and consequences of non-standard entry work for youth as either 'stepping-stones' or 'dead-ends'. In a second step, we embed the operational logics of non-standard entry employment in the context of differential transition systems that structure the allocation of school graduates to their first jobs. Following this, the method and data used are introduced. Finally, the results are presented, followed by a discussion and conclusion.

Non-st ystems

Differe ment

In the co ological
progr r 2014),
estab ome under
increase n the
formerly oyment, has
increase ecurities
concerni s advanced
economi

Overall, different definitions of standard employment exist. Most definitions are based on aspects such as dependent employment, the contractual status (permanent) and regular working hours (full-time), which are in accordance with the definition applied in this study. Non-standard employment (also referred to as atypical work) is defined negatively against the standard employment relationship. Thus non-standard employment includes a heterogeneous conglomerate of different forms of work that deviate in one or several respects from standard employment, including part-time work, fixed-term employment, temporary agency work, or work on call (Ecoplan 2007; Meier 2014; ILO 2015).

Despite increased educational attainment, labour market entrants in particular are encountering increasing difficulties in finding stable employment across the OECD countries. In addition to increased unemployment risks, youth are disproportionately affected by non-standard forms of work, such as fixed-term work, part-time employment and temporary agency work (ILO 2012; Eurofound 2013; OECD 2014). This extends to labour markets that are otherwise characterised by low youth unemployment rates in international comparison, such as those in Switzerland or Japan (Ecoplan 2007; Inui, Masahiko, and Hiratsuka 2007; Standing 2011). As non-standard forms of employment have been found to be inferior compared to standard employment in terms of job security, wage level, promotion aspects, and occupational upward mobility, as well as continuing training possibilities (Booth, Francesconi, and Frank 20 4, 2010), and they ma n raised about th in advanced economi

What co ob and employr forms of empl (Giesecke and C ose engaged mployers as a screen prospects after an may function work transitio hemselves

a buffer stock of workers, which can be more easily adjusted to changes in demand. This clearly undermines the job security for those employed in such (more peripheral) work arrangements. From this perspective, atypical employment needs to be viewed as a trap, hindering stable labour market integration and professional development of youth who bounce back and forth between insecure work and unemployment (see, e.g. Scherer 2004; OECD 2014, 179 ff.).

School-to-work transition systems and non-standard employment

Rather than considering these two different perspectives on the operational logics and linked consequences of non-standard employment on the labour market integration of youth as competing, we argue that they need be assessed in the light of country-specific systems of school-to-work transitions. In short, such transition systems may be described as the relatively enduring features of a country's institutional and structural arrangements, which shape the transition from education to early employment (Raffe 2008).

The societal analysis approach (Maurice, Sellier, and Silvestre 1979; Maurice 2008) – distinguishing between 'qualification space' (OLM) and 'organisational space' (ILM) – has strongly influenced international transition systems research (Raffe 2008). It proposes country-specific relationships between the organisation of education (general vs. vocational education, type of degrees offered, the nature of competition, tracking and sele processes (job hier e branches of indust ios of general s have to be understo oyment system (ication and forms of other. Alon the early career p ught to relate to

Thus far mployment might be Nohara (2000) a ce and

(2015), with a special focus on initial vocational education and training (IVET) systems, demonstrated that skill formation regimes matter with regard to youth unemployment and low-pay employment. The authors distinguished four different skill formation systems – statist, collectivist, liberal, and segmentalist – by taking into consideration the degree of public commitment to vocational training and the involvement of firms in IVET (Thelen 2004; Busemeyer 2009). In liberal skill formation regimes (e.g. the United Kingdom), both public commitment to and firm involvement in IVET are low, and the education system promotes academic skills. Whereas the involvement of employers is similarly limited in statist skill formation regimes (e.g. France, Denmark), the latter show higher public commitment to IVET. Within systems with a high firm involvement, collectivist systems (e.g. Germany and Switzerland), where a wider range of firms, including small and medium-sized enterprises, typically train 'above need', can be distinguished from segmentalist systems (e.g. Japan), where on-the-job-training is primarily offered by firms for their own recruitment and retention purposes. Busemeyer and Thelen. (2015) found that even though firm-based IVET in collectivist systems is more effective in reducing youth unemployment, school based IVET of statist systems seems to be more effective in mitigating labour market stratification through wage inequality. Liberal skill formation regimes, in turn, perform better than average with regard to the inclusion of young people in the labour market, but they seem to produce a higher risk of low pay. In the following, we ask how collectivist and segmentalist systems [illegible]yment by analysin[illegible]

Contra[illegible]nd and Japan

While[illegible]now some simil[illegible]VET is the most po[illegible]organised in the form[illegible]er two-thirds of young[illegible]lify for a specific [illegible]ation rate figures f[illegible]st-time upper se[illegible]y one out of

enrolment is considerably higher in Japan compared to Switzerland. While Japan has a tertiary graduation rate of 69%, the respective figure for Switzerland amounts to 47%.[1]

The coherence of education and employment in ‘collectivist’ Switzerland

The traditional coherence of the education and employment systems in Switzerland is similar to that of Germany. In both countries, the way employees acquire labour market qualifications is centred on the concept of Beruf (professionality or vocation), which has several dimensions: a formal knowledge base, mastery of practical skills, membership in an association, and formal recognition of IVET qualifications within the labour market. The Swiss apprenticeship system is highly valued by the public and has a strong corporatist trait. The regulation of IVET is based on a complex collaboration between the state, industrial and professional associations (e.g. local chambers of industry and commerce, or handicraft guilds), and trade unions. The adjustment of supply and demand is made through joint initiatives of the industry and the IVET system. The IVET system leads to recognised qualifications (Federal VET Diploma) that closely match the needs of an occupationally segmented labour market, both in terms of occupational skills and the number of jobs that are available. As a consequence, access to qualified employment is highly regulated by recognised occupational certificates within specific industries. Therefore, Switzerland represents a collectivist skill formation regime embedded in a liberal, but occupationally segmented, labour market (‘qualification space’).

In turn, h rammes, are less occu ek 2015), which m n and Wolter 2014). F mes to the students ates (long higher n and work in th follows an employ s to be more oft ompared to IVET gra compared to graduate demic) higher e or at PET colleges and are

The coherence of education and employment in ‘segmentalist’ Japan

In Japan, post-World War II, the central actors in the development of workers’ job skills have not been schools or the state, but rather the employers of private enterprises (Thelen 2004; Brinton 2011). Training has been provided without state regulation in mostly large and medium-sized companies (Goodman 2012). According to their own needs and demand, companies de facto took over vocational education to develop the skills of high school graduates who were supposed to learn on the job (Inui 2003; Maurice 2008). Accordingly, public vocational education and training prior to employment was hardly developed and its lack has remained a distinctive characteristic of the Japanese education system (Inui 1993). Based on the production of company-specific skills in the primary segment of the labour market, the Japanese transition system is referred to as a segmentalist system (Thelen 2004). The (occupational) distinction between different jobs is of much less importance in this system than is the distinction between internal (primary) and external (secondary) labour market segments (Doeringer and Piore 1971; Inui 1993).

Up until today, the Japanese educational system has only provided some (mostly private) specialised training colleges and courses at vocational high schools in agriculture, fishery, industry, home economics, and commerce, which remain devaluated and aligned according to the needs of external markets (Brinton 2011). Rather t rivileged general er education (Maurice lopment of general senior high schools s within the whole sc mpletely aligned a eaming criter a general ‘pote 8) and are given pr is very different ng young adults h eveloped occupati lding a VET diploma l skills, especial

From the perspective of societal analysis, Japan's highly examination-centred, intensely competitive education system is linked to the distinct organisation of the Japanese employment system (Maurice 2008). The recruitment of young – especially male – workers was traditionally done through the high school graduate recruitment system, a quasi institution of the employment system for Japanese high school graduates. Conceptually, the graduate recruitment system is part of a lifetime employment model (with permanent full-time employment as one of its central features) that offers social security and includes additional subsystems, such as a training system within the firm, a seniority promotion system and a retirement system (Inui 1993).

In this segmentalist school-to-work transition system, schools, colleges and universities allocate their students directly to employers who sign informal job contracts with fresh graduates months before their graduation, based on academic criteria (Toivonen and Imoto 2012). Schools traditionally recommend a selection of their best students to some companies that they have been in contact with for several years. The more academically successful the high school and university graduates, the better the chance to get hired by a company in the Japanese employment system, which offers stable forms of employment in the ILM. As Goodman (2012, 164) stated, 'top employers drew their new workers from the top universities, which in turn took their students from the top secondary schools, which admitted their students on the basis of how well they had done on entrance examinations at the age of 15'. The Japanese graduate recruitm…he 1960s to the end …2003).

One sho…n has experien…sing labour market, …g workers since the…at fall into this c… people, and t…oyment pool increase… and 2009 (Inui 200…t Japanese transitio…t benefit from an … higher risk of non-s… Japanese adults.

Against this backdrop of two differing – segmentalist vs. collectivist – school-to-work transition systems, we empirically investigate how vocational training and academic education promote entry into non-standard employment to different degrees for youth who enter the labour market in Japan and Switzerland.

Data and methods

Data

Our analysis draws upon data from two comparable longitudinal surveys: the Swiss youth panel survey Transition from Education to Employment (TREE) and the Youth Cohort Study of Japan (YCSJ). TREE surveys the post-compulsory educational and labour market pathways of a school graduates' cohort in Switzerland, based on a sample of approximately 6000 young people who participated in the PISA survey for the year 2000 and left compulsory school the same year, at the age of 15 or 16. This sample was followed up by TREE by means of seven waves in an annual rhythm between 2001 and 2007 and an eighth one in 2010. The Swiss findings are based on the eighth survey wave in 2010, when the respondents were about 26 years old. At that time, 54% (N = 3424) of the 2001 sample were still covered by the survey (TREE 2013). Panel weights were used to compensate for sample bias and to maintain the representative nature o

A resear on conduct ademic research d were selected data collectio 11 (five surve ling to 1687 comp alysis of respond yment status (r s of the populati se findings are base years old.

The focu 2 who are

highest level of educational attainment. This amounts to a sample of N = 1979 young workers in Switzerland, of which 1122 are female and 857 are male. For Japan, the final sample consists of N = 687 young employees, of whom 384 are female and 303 are male. In the case of Japan, non-standard employment, our dependent variable, is defined with regard to an individual's main job (self-reported, according to the most hours worked) and captures self-reported part-time work, fixed-term employment, jobs through employment agencies, self-employment, work in family businesses, and artisanry in private households. In the Swiss case, non-standard employment is defined with regard to the main job (which is the job encompassing the most hours worked per week) and includes part-time work (<30 h per week, which is less than 70%), fixed-term employment, self-employment, work on call, work in family businesses and private households. Based on these measurements, we found that 31% of Japanese respondents were employed in non-standard jobs compared to 24% of Swiss respondents (weighted).

Independent variables

The attained type of education is categorised into general education, vocational education, short higher education, and long higher education. General education refers to workers with completed general studies at the upper-secondary level (Japan: senior high school level), holding neither a vocational nor a tertiary degree. Vocational educatic ber-
seconda n junior
colleges viss case, we
compare er education,
and prof ity studies
in Japan

Table 1 e samples.
In all -secondary
general cational
degrees pared to
12%). W ted in Japan,
especial ne Swiss
data).[3]

In our analysis, we controlled for the duration of time that a respondent has been out of school (duration), which is measured in months and captures the time span between the date of the survey and the completion of a case's highest educational degree. Parental higher education is a dichotomous variable that is coded 1 if at least one parent completed a (short or long) higher educational degree and is coded 0 if no parent graduated from higher education. Gender is a binary variable that is coded 0 for female and 1 for male workers. We further included a variable capturing the firm size, which is classified as small (headcount: 0–99), medium (headcount: 100–499), and/or large (headcount: 500+). In addition, we included industrial sectors, classified as manufacturing, construction, sales, finance and real estate, transportation and electricity, restaurant and hotel, information and communication, education and research, medical and welfare, government, primary and others, and various services. Region of living is a dichotomous variable that is coded 1 if the young workers' geographical origin is a rural area and is coded 0 if they lived in an urban area when they enrolled in upper-secondary school.

Method

The com s regression coefficie nd groups (Long 19 12). Thus, when ap n-standard employr compared across c on the probabil arginal effects the different aver posure to labour m r not significa sk of non-standard recomm n-standard employr s-ratios, predicte (Long 2009)

adjust for disproportionality due to the sampling design of the PISA/TREE survey and panel attrition (Sacchi 2011) were applied in order to allow for a generalisation of the results regarding the target population of young employees in Switzerland.

Results

Our multivariate results reveal significant differences in the effects of educational attainment on the risk of non-standard employment within both countries, even if gender, duration since leaving school, parental educational background, type of industry, firm size, and region of living were controlled (Table 2). Furthermore, our findings suggest that educational tracks differ in their effect on future labour market insecurities across institutional settings. In Switzerland, those who pursued a vocational education or a short higher education are, on average, 22–25% less likely to be exposed to non-standard work compared to those who pursued a long higher education (reference group). In contrast, in Japan, young adults who pursued a short higher, vocational or general educational track are, on average, between 13 and 39% more likely to attain non-standard work when controlling for further covariates that were included in the model. Therefore, while long higher education protects youth from non-standard work in Japan, the reverse seems to be true for Switzerland.

Table
(AME
Downlo

We did r employment
in either e
signi Young
workers higher risk of
attaining on applies to
Japan. In -standard
employn at while
non-star d, it is a
'lower cl

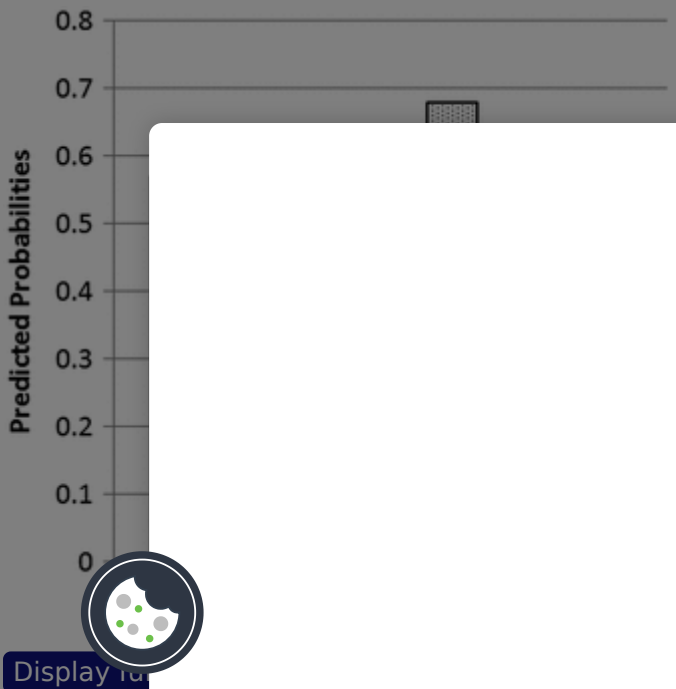
Industries matter considerably. In Switzerland, young workers in the manufacturing (reference group), finance and information/communication sectors show the lowest risks of attaining non-standard work, whereas the risk for those in the transport/electricity, restaurant/hotel, medical/welfare, government, primary/others, and various services sectors is considerably higher. In Japan, the sectors where workers face the highest risk of non-standard work are sales, transport/electricity, education/research, government, and primary/others. In contrast, the finance sector offers a high degree of regular employment, followed by the medical/welfare, information/communication sectors, and the reference sector manufacturing.

Institutional discrepancies

Comparing differences in predicted probabilities of non-standard employment across educational groups and countries reveals distinct patterns regarding the impact of educational tracks on the probability of non-standard employment (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Predicted probabilities comparing Switzerland and Japan.

Note: Probability of non-standard employment for young employees by educational attainment across countries.



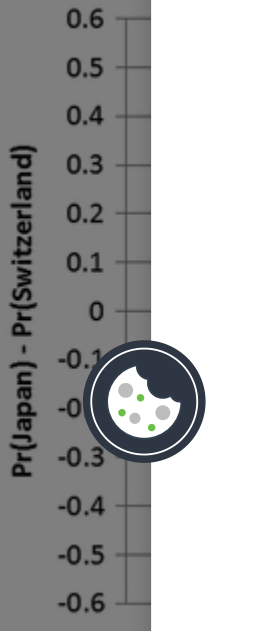
While in work for young e an the risk of non-s edentials is only abo adults who

exposure to non-standard work for young employees with vocational or short higher education is about 0.42 and 0.33, respectively, in Switzerland, these educational groups are least at risk of non-standard work, with an estimated probability of 0.18 and 0.13, respectively. In both countries, the risk of non-standard work is highest for young employees who completed upper-secondary general education without labour market orientation (CH: 0.57; JP: 0.68).

Significance testing of differences in predicted probabilities that compares young adults with similar educational credentials across countries suggests that in Switzerland, young adults that hold higher educational credentials have a significantly higher probability of being exposed to non-standard employment compared to young adults with comparable credentials in Japan (Figure 2). In contrast, young adults that hold vocational and short tertiary degrees in Switzerland are less likely to be in non-standard work compared to young workers with similar credentials in Japan. These results hold true when controlling for gender, parental educational background, industry sector, firm size, and region of living at their means (see Appendix 1).

Figure 2. Differences in predicted probabilities.

Note: Differences in the probability of non-standard work by educational attainment, across countries. Tick marks indicate 95% confidence intervals: significant differences in predicted probabilities ($p < 0.05$) at the levels of vocational, short higher and long higher e



Display ful

Conclusion

In this paper, we asked how educational trajectories mediate the risk of non-standard employment for young people in Japan and Switzerland, two countries that have different institutionalised modes of allocating school graduates to jobs. While in the wider international context, both countries show low youth unemployment rates, and from this point of view, can be seen as good places in which to be progressing through the respective transition system, the labour market entrants are nevertheless increasingly facing non-standard entry jobs. Against the background of the increasing risk for school graduates of not being able to find stable employment, we were interested in finding out whether different types of (general, vocational, higher) education have a differential impact on non-standard employment of young workers in countries with differing transition systems.

Based on comparable youth panel data, our results suggest there are remarkably different patterns of non-standard employment among vocational and university graduates across both countries. In Switzerland, those who pursued a vocational education or a short higher education are much less likely to be exposed to non-standard employment compared to those who pursued a long higher (academic) education or other forms of general education. In contrast, in Japan, young adults who pursued a short higher, vocational (or a general) educational track are more likely to become
mic)
educatio
ms to be
true in S
best chances
for stand
ly a general
educatio
market
entry in
ks stratify
the risk
er period
diffe
ial
operat
abour
market i

In Switze
e
involven
l an
employ
ion of mainly
vocation
ment in

constitute a major sorting criterion upon labour market entry, with occupation-specific credentials (primarily gained in IVET) qualifying individuals to take up work in the respective occupational segments of the Swiss labour market. In this context, the operational logic behind non-standard forms of employment, which mainly affects academically-educated entrants, seems to be one of ‘initial screening’ and an opportunity for the latter to gain some initial work experience. While IVET graduates have already proven their occupation-specific skills and motivation in standardised ‘on-the-job’ training schemes, university graduates first need to prove themselves as suitable for specific occupations by entering less secure and less standard forms of employment as a transitional phase. Hence, in the Swiss case, non-standard jobs of young academics may be viewed as stepping-stones rather than as dead-ends (Greppi et al. 2010) and may be combined with further training. Indeed, findings from the Swiss graduate survey highlight a considerable decrease in fixed-term employment within five years after graduation, whereas part-time employment remains unchanged (BFS 2015). Furthermore, Switzerland has a relatively low proportion of graduates who do not find a suitable job compared with other countries. In all, 1 out of 11 people with a university degree are unable to find a job in their field of education in the medium term and face a job–education mismatch (overeducation), which is associated with a wage penalty (Diem and Wolter 2014).

In contrast to Switzerland, employers have traditionally guaranteed the development of skills in t
interven value
academi ential of
graduate ates from
top univ exibilisation
of the Ja bour market
segment ese youth,
who uates who
were for cademic
criteria f enior high
school a

Hence, c for stable
employm have
increasi s, where

an increased allocation of labour market entrants holding little bargaining power in the Japanese labour market to non-standard jobs in the secondary labour market segment, the operational logic of non-standard entry level employment does not coincide with an 'integration' logic. Non-standard entry-level employment in Japan, rather, seems to mirror 'exclusion' processes of those who lack an institutionally paved way to work in the ILM segment. With non-standard work mainly present in secondary segments, where a logic of numerical flexibilisation prevails, non-standard entry level employment for youth in Japan goes hand in hand with employment insecurities, manifesting itself in a 'precariousness' that infects the future course of their lives (Yu 2012; Inui, Higuchi, and Hiratsuka 2015).

To conclude, contrasting the skill-related composition of youth in non-standard employment in early career in Japan and Switzerland suggests country-specific relationships between educational trajectories and non-standard entry-level employment, which relate to different (collectivist vs. segmentalist) transition systems governing the allocation of youth to jobs. With regard to the differing levels of bargaining power of youth that are allocated to non-standard jobs in the respective labour markets of Japan and Switzerland and the distinctive sorting criteria of a 'general learning potential' compared to 'professionality', different operational logics of non-standard entry level employment seem to prevail in the two countries. Viewing non-standard entry work against the background of differential skill formation regimes allows fo ent as either stepping cs of non-standard ifferent school-t

Disclo

No pote

Fundi

This wor grant

Notes on contributors

Christian Imdorf holds a SNSF Professorship at the University of Bern, Switzerland. His research projects focus on education systems and school-to-work transitions from a comparative perspective, pathways to higher education, insecure employment of skilled young workers, and new organisational forms of vocational training.

Laura Alexandra Helbling is a junior researcher at the University of Basel, Social Research and Methodology Group. Her PhD research focuses on school-to-work transitions and job and employment insecurities in early career.

Akio Inui is a Professor Emeritus at Tokyo Metropolitan University. His speciality is Education and research focuses on school-to-work transition, especially about precarious youth. His comparative studies with Japan include the UK, Switzerland, and Germany.

Notes

1. Total number of tertiary types A and B programme graduates according to OECD (2013) (

2. This i adults who work mo programmes anymore

3. The re ucation) derived ertiary grad s in the cohort i e 26 and therefor

4. This d ual reports (Survey nd Welfare. The repo

References

1. Allmendinger, J. 1989. “Educational Systems and Labor Market Outcomes.” European Sociological Review 5 (3): 231–250.
   Google Scholar

2. Atkinson, J. 1984. “Manpower Strategies for Flexible Organizations.” Personnel Management 16 (8): 18–31.
   Google Scholar

3. Best, H., and C. Wolf. 2012. “Modellvergleich und Ergebnisinterpretation in Logit–und Probit Regressionen [Comparing Nested Models and Interpreting Results from Logit and Probit Regression].” KZfSS Kölner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozialpsychologie 64 (2), 377–395.10.1007/s11577-012-0167-4
   Web of Science ® | Google Scholar

4. BFS (Bundesamt für Statistik). 2015. “Hochschulabsolventinnen und Hochschulabsolventen auf dem Arbeitsmarkt. Erste Ergebnisse der Längs . First Result
   Goog

5. Bolli, T ngly at Risk of Bec ko in der Schwe vember 16, 201
   G

6. Booth g Stones Or Dead F213.1

Article contents | Related research

7. Brinton, M. C. 2011. Lost in Transition. Youth, Work and Instability in Postindustrial Japan. New York: Cambridge University Press.
Google Scholar

8. Busemeyer, M. R. 2009. “Asset Specificity, Institutional Complementarities and the Variety of Skill Regimes in Coordinated Market Economies.” Socio-Economic Review 7 (3): 375–406.10.1093/ser/mwp009
Web of Science ® | Google Scholar

9. Busemeyer, M. R., and K. Thelen. 2015. “Non-standard Employment and Systems of Skill Formation in European Countries”. In Non-Standard Employment in Post-industrial Labour Markets. An Occupational Perspective, edited by W. Eichhorst, and P. Marx, 401–430. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
Google Scholar

10. Chung, H. 2015. “Subjective Employment Insecurity Gap between Occupations: Variance across Europe.” In Non-Standard Employment in Post-industrial Labour Markets. An Occupational Perspective, edited by W. Eichhorst, and P. Marx, 271–297. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
Google Scholar

11. Diem, Graduates: Deter (4): 313–328.1

12. Doerin ver Analysis. Le Goog

13. Ecopla len Siche al Security]. Forsch Goog

14. Ecoplan. 2010. Die Entwicklung atypisch-prekärer arbeitsverhältnisse in der Schweiz [The development of Atypical and Precarious Employment in Switzerland]. Nachfolgestudie zur Studie von 2003. Bern: Seco.
Google Scholar

15. Eurofound. 2013. “Working Conditions of Young Entrants to the Labour Market. European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.” Accessed September 07, 2015. http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/sites/default/files/ef_files/docs/ewco/tn1306013s/tn1306013s.pdf
Google Scholar

16. Furlong, A., A. Inui, T. Nishimura, and Y. Kojima. 2012. “Accounting for the Early Labour Market Destinations of 19/20-year-olds in England and Wales and Japan.” Journal of Youth Studies 15 (1): 1–15.10.1080/13676261.2011.617735
Web of Science ® | Google Scholar

17. Genda, Y. 2003. “Who Really Lost Jobs in Japan? : Youth Employment in an Aging Japanese Society,” In Labor Markets and Firm Benefit Policies in Japan and the United States, edited by S. Ogura, T. Tachibanaki, and D. Wise, 103–133. Chicago: University of Chi

18. Giese ?” European Sociol

19. Gi ocial In 31456

20. Giese gen 5/2006.” Acces giesecke.pdf
Goog

21. Goodman, R. 2012. “Shifting Landscapes. The Social Context of Youth Problems in an Ageing Nation.” In A Sociology of Japenese Youth. From Returnees to NEETs, edited by R. Goodman, Y. Imoto, and T. Toivonen, 159–173. London: Routledge.
Google Scholar

22. Greppi, S., M. Lucchini, J. Assi, and C. Marazzi. 2010. “The Determinants of Fixed-term Employment in Contemporary Switzerland.” FORS Working Paper Series 2010–2014. Lausanne: FORS.
Google Scholar

23. Iannelli, C., and D. Raffe. 2007. “Vocational Upper-secondary Education and the Transition from School.” European Sociological Review 23 (1): 49–63.
Web of Science ® | Google Scholar

24. ILO (International Labour Organization). 2012. Global Employment Trends for Youth 2012. Geneva: International Labour Office. Accessed September 7, 2015. http://www.ilo.org/global/research/global-reports/global-employmenttrends/youth/2012/WCMS_180976/lang–en/index.html
Google Scholar

25. ILO (In… …mployment.” Repor… …f Emplo… http://… travail… .
Goog…

26. Im… …rket Entry in Switze… …mparison of Schoo… …ek, and M. Triven… …4715038

27. Inui, A… …t: Japan and

313.10.1080/0142569930140306
Web of Science ® | Google Scholar

28. Inui, A. 2003. “Restructuring Youth: Recent Problems of Japanese Youth and Its Contextual Origin.” Journal of Youth Studies 6 (2): 219–233.10.1080/1367626032000110327
Google Scholar

29. Inui, A. 2009. “NEETs, Freeters and the New Labour Market Periphery: New Category, New Precariousness.” In Handbook of Youth and Young Adult; New Perspectives and Agendas, edited by Andy Furlong, 176–181. Abingdon: Routledge.
Google Scholar

30. Inui, A., A. Higuchi, and M. Hiratsuka. 2015. “Getting to Precariat: Young People’s Precarious Transition from School to Work, Japan’s Case.” In Handbook of Children and Youth Studies, edited by J. Wyn, and H. Cahill, 583–605. Springer Singapore.
Google Scholar

31. Inui, A., and T. Hosogane. 1995. “General Education as Foundation for Work?: The Efficiency and Problems of Japanese Upper Secondary School.” In Youth, Education and W
Goog

32. Inui, A
Discou
Metrop
Goog

33. Karis
Betwe
Sociol

34. Long,

Google Scholar

35. Long, S. J. 2009. “Group Comparisons in Logit and Probit Using Predicted Probabilities.” Unpublished work, Indiana University. Accessed November 13, 2014. http://www.indiana.edu/~jslsoc/files_research/groupdif/groupwithprobabilities/groups-with-prob-2009-06-25.pdf
Google Scholar

36. Maurice, M. 2008. “La Formation Professionnelle en France, en Allemagne et Au Japon. Trois Types de Relation entre L’école et l’entreprise.” [Vocational Education and Training in France, Germany and Japan. Three Types of School–Company Relationships]. In La Construction Sociale Des Acteurs De L’entreprise, edited by M. Maurice, 203–216. Toulouse: Octarès Editions.
Google Scholar

37. Maurice, M., F. Sellier, and J. J. Silvestre. 1979. “La production de la hiérarchie dans l’entreprise: recherche d’un effet sociétal: Comparaison France-Allemagne.” [The Production of Hierarchy in Companies : Research about a Societal Effect : Comparing France and Germany] Revue Française De Sociologie 20 (2): 331–365.
Web of Science ® | Google Scholar

38. Meier, E.
Goog

39. Mood, We Can Do, and W
82.10.

40. Müller ratification Proces ualifications and O xford: Clarer
Goog

41. Nohara, H. 2000. “Male and Female Patterns of Labour Force Participation. A Comparison Between France and Japan”. In Embedding Organizations. Societal Analysis of Actors, Organizations and Socio-economic Context, edited by M. Maurice, and A. Sorge, 373–387. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.10.1075/aios
Google Scholar

42. OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2010. “How Good is Part-time Work?” In Outlook 2010, edited by O. E. C. D. Employment. 211–266. Paris: OECD.
Google Scholar

43. OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2013. Education at a Glance 2013: OECD Indicators. Paris: OECD.
Google Scholar

44. OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2014. “Non-regular Employment, Job Security and the Labour Market Divide.” In Employment Outlook 2014, edited by OECD. 141–209. Paris: OECD.
Google Scholar

45. Raffe, and Work 21 (4): 27

46. Sacch he Panel Waves
Goog

47. Sacc T graduate emplo ufsbildung und Te niversität Zürich
Goog

48. Scherer, S. 2004. “Stepping-stones or Traps? ‘The Consequences of Labour Market Entry Positions on Future Careers in West Germany, Great Britain and Italy’.” Work, Employment and Society 18 (2): 369–394.10.1177/0950017204042774
Web of Science ® | Google Scholar

49. SERI (State Secretariat for Education, Research and Innovation). 2013. Vocational and Professional Education and Training in Switzerland 2013. Facts and Figures. SERI: Bern
Google Scholar

50. Standing, G. 2011. The Precariat: The New Dangerous Class. London: Bloomsbury Academic.
Google Scholar

51. Thelen, K. (2004). How Institutions Evolve. The Political Economy of Skills in Germany, Britain, the United States, and Japan. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.10.1017/CBO9780511790997
Google Scholar

52. Toivonen, T., and Y. Imoto. 2012. “Making Sense of Youth Problems.” In A Sociology of Japene ɔ, and T. Toivon
Goog

53. TREE.
Goog

54. W Nineties?]” Neu Die Vo
Goog

55. Yu, W. nt in Japan.” Social

Appendix 1

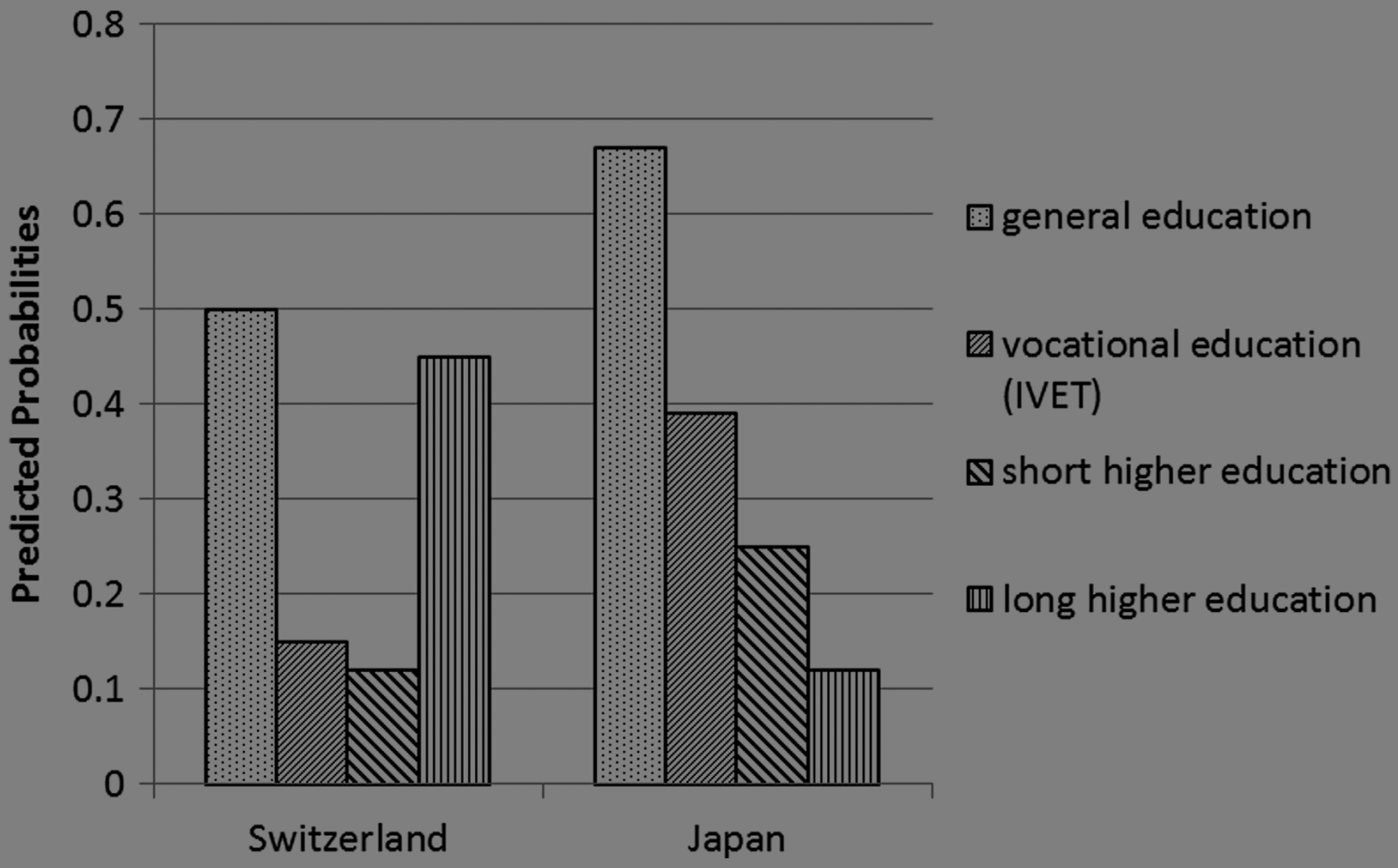


Figure A1. Predicted probabilities comparing Switzerland and Japan/controls.

Note: Pr cational attainme hool, parental means.

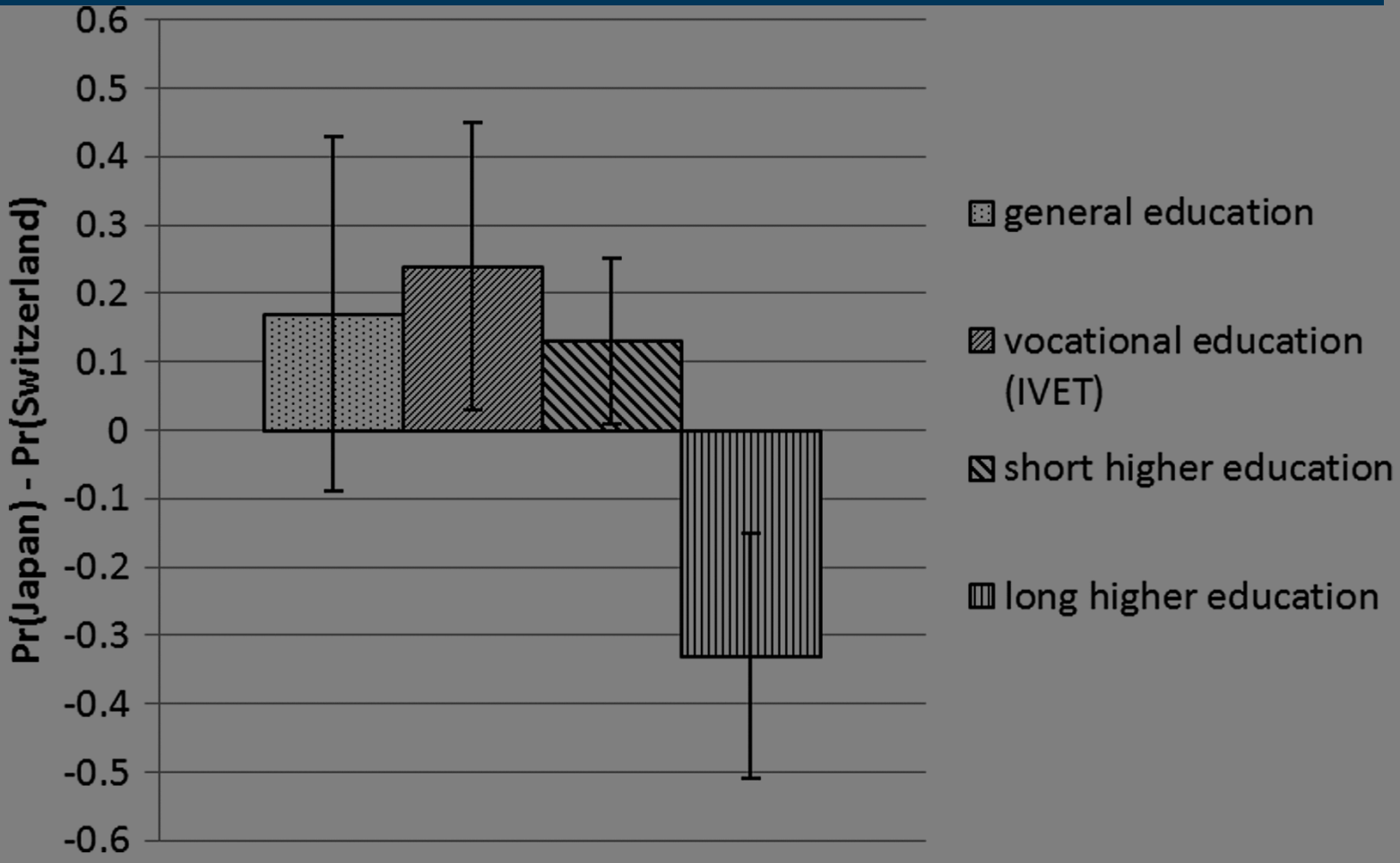


Figure A2. Differences in predicted probabilities/controls.

Note: Differences in the probability of non-standard work by educational attainment across both countries, holding gender, duration since leaving school, parental education, industry, firm size, and region of living constant at their means. Tick marks indicate abilities of non-star and long higher e