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The Effects of Mobility on Youth Employment in the European Union:

The Case of the Netherlands

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Abstract

The Great Recession of 2007-2008 has had a significant impact on the position of young people in the labor market throughout the European Union. Following this global economic collapse, the youth unemployment rate of the European Union has grown twice that of adults. This is highly related to the lack of high-level skills and work experience of young workers. The European Commission recognized these circumstances when drafting their most recent growth strategy for the European Union, Europe 2020, with the proposal of the “Youth on the Move” initiative. This initiative argues that young adults in the European Union can best enhance their employability and education during this time of post-crisis recovery through intra-EU travel for studying, work, or training purposes. Yet to date, there have been no studies that investigate the actual impact of migration on the employment circumstances of European youth. This study investigates whether, and under what conditions, intra-EU migration has a positive effect on the employment circumstances of European youth.

Keywords: *Youth / employment / intra-EU migration / labor market discrimination / human capital / the Netherlands*

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1. Introduction

The European Union is experiencing two troubling trends: (1) there has been an increasing lack of skilled workers throughout the EU, and (2) there has been a growing tendency of unemployment amongst low-skilled workers (Kahanec & Zimmermann, 2011; O'Mahony & van Ark, 2004; OECD 2012; Zimmermann, 2009). These trends have become most apparent within Europe's youth population following the Great Recession of 2008 (Caroleo & Pastore, 2007; Isengard et al., 2003). Following this global economic collapse, the youth unemployment rate of the European Union has grown to being twice that of adults (Caroleo & Pastore, 2007; Isengard et al., 2003). As of December 2014, the overall unemployment rate was recorded at 11.4% in the Euro area and at 9.9% in the EU28, while youth unemployment was 23% in the Euro area and 21.4% in the EU28 (Eurostat, 2015). This is primarily related to the lack of high-level skills and work experience of young workers (Zimmermann, 2009). According to the European Commission (2010a), 50% of the youth population holds medium level qualifications that fail to meet today's labor market needs, one in seven young people leave education and training too early, and less than one in three people aged 25-34 has a university degree (European Commission, 2010a, p.12). Therefore, while youth employment patterns in the European Union have been directly impacted by labor market structures following the Great Recession, they also reflect the capacity of education and training programs in attracting youth to increase their skills (Coenjaerts et al., 2009; European Commission, 2010b; Isengard, 2003; Knijn & Plantenga, 2012; OECD Action Plan for Youth, 2013; OECD Employment Outlook, 2014; Scarpetta et al, 2010b).

In response to the poor labor market position of youth, the European Commission has focused on improving the situation of Europe's young population. One way in which the EU has recognized these circumstances was by focusing attention on young people when drafting their most recent growth strategy for the European Union, Europe 2020, and proposing the "Youth on the Move" initiative.

The main lines of action of the “Youth on the Move” initiative include: extending and broadening learning opportunities for young people as a whole, including supporting the acquisition of skills through non-formal educational activities; promoting apprenticeship-type vocational training and high quality traineeships as workplace learning experiences; making European higher education more attractive and open to the rest of the world by improving the quality, attractiveness and responsiveness of higher education; and, most importantly, expanding national and regional resources for programs and initiatives focused on work and learning mobility in order to help remove obstacles to mobility, and to better assist intra-EU mobility (European Commission, 2010b). With this initiative, the European Commission argues that young adults in the European Union can best enhance their employability and education during this time of post-crisis recovery through intra-EU travel for studying, work, or training purposes (European Commission, 2010).

Although the “Youth on the Move” initiative encourages youth to move throughout the European Union as a means of obtaining education and increasing employment prospects, there has been little evidence that mobile youth are actually more employable workers (Moisander & Primožic, 2012). Furthermore, the relatively small percentage of the EU population who are identified as mobile students and workers suggests that the high expectations for the use of mobility to answer the problems of youth unemployment are unrealistic (Stepien, 2012). To what extent does mobility impact whether youth are employed, the length of time it takes for unemployed youth to find jobs, and whether youth are able to find work that they are satisfied with? The economic and social costs of youth underemployment, long-term unemployment, and widespread low quality jobs for young people cause these to be socially relevant questions because the problem of youth employment undermines potential economic growth while also fostering social exclusion. Altogether, this may lead to EU policy and administrations losing legitimacy within the youth populations (Knijn & Plantenga, 2012; OECD, 2013; OECD, 2014).

1.1. Aims of the research

The EU 2020 initiative “Youth on the Move” suggests that moving is a “one-best” method for dealing with the youth unemployment problem. While migration as a means of

obtaining education and training, or increasing employment prospects has been a recurring topic within EU-based literature, to date no studies have looked into whether migration actually has a positive impact on the employment circumstances of young adults in the EU, and if there are any notable contextual differences between those who increase their labor market outcomes by moving, and those who do not. The present study serves as an interdisciplinary exploration of this topic in the Dutch case.

2. Migration and employment: a theoretical background

Migration as a means of obtaining education and training, or increasing employment outcomes has been a recurring topic within EU-based literature. Intra-EU mobility is expected to have a positive impact on the employment prospects for youth because it provides them with experiences to become more confident, independent, and self-aware, while also fostering a greater respect for diversity among mobile students by providing them with the opportunity to deal with other cultures (Hofheinz, n.d.; Kovacheva, 2014; Marlier & Natali, 2010; Miklavic et. al, 2010). Furthermore, it is widely argued that the prospects of free movement throughout the EU suggest that individuals are capable of taking their skills wherever they are most valued, and best rewarded (Hofheinz, n.d.; Kovacheva, 2014; Marlier & Natali, 2010; Miklavic et. al, 2010). With this, mobile youth are better able to find employment opportunities with greater promise (Hofheinz, n.d.). Despite the absence of studies evaluating the effects of mobility on youth in the EU, it is possible to gain theoretical insights on this topic by looking at mobility studies outside of Europe that have tried to identify what it is about migration and mobility that leads to greater labor market outcomes. Before looking at these studies, it is important to define the group under study here: European youth. Youth is best understood as the period of transition from the dependence of childhood to the independence of adulthood (United Nations, n.d.). The European Commission identifies young people as individuals aged 15 to 25, and sometimes up to 30 (European Commission, 2015a). In this study, European youth will refer to all individuals aged 18-34 who are recognized citizens of any EU member state. This age range was selected because it only encompasses young people who are classified as legal adults, while also taking into account potential delays in this transition towards independence influenced by the Great Recession of 2008 (Newman, 2008).

2.1. Studies on migration

There have been several studies on migration and whether it has direct or indirect effects on the length of time it takes for the unemployed to find jobs, job match, and employment satisfaction among newly re-employed workers (Boehm et al., 1998). The bulk of

these studies have been focused on either regional mobility in the United States as a means of promoting labor market transitions¹ or the international migration of low skilled workers. The United States serves as a good theoretical starting point for this exploration because it is characterized as having a geographically mobile population that has historically been known to pursue new or better jobs in different regions as necessity or opportunity has permitted (Antolin & Bover, 1997; Boehm et al., 1998; Greenwood, 1997; Pekkala & Tervo, 2002; Seater, 1979; Steipien, 2012; Tervo, 2000). Numerous studies on regional migration in the United States seek to understand if mobility really has a positive impact on job search outcomes for the unemployed.

2.1.1. Migration and unemployment duration

According to Pekkala & Tervo (2002), individuals who find themselves unemployed are generally faced with three alternative strategies: (1) they can remain unemployed in their original environment and search for a new job, (2) they can partake in speculative² or contracted³ migration, or (3) they can drop out of the labor force altogether. Whether they choose one scenario over the others depends on several personal characteristics (Greenwood, 1997). For instance, older and less educated people will be more likely to drop out of the labor force because the opportunity cost of doing so will be relatively low. In contrast, younger and highly educated individuals are expected to be more willing to move in search of new jobs because the opportunity cost of remaining unemployed, especially for long periods of time, is relatively high (Greenwood, 1997; Pekkala & Tervo, 2002). According to the job search theory, when an individual increases the radius in their search for employment—with migration being the most extreme case—they also reduce the length of time it takes to find employment opportunities (Boehm et al., 1998; Seater, 1979). Re-employment for active job seekers is thus directly enhanced through migration because it increases the number of available jobs at hand within a given occupation. Based on the open-border policies of the

¹ Labor market transitions here refer to re-employment for unemployed workers.

² Moving to another area in search for a job. Due to the difficulty in finding employment in a new country while abroad, this type of migration is the more common form (Greenwood, 1997).

³ Moving to another area as a result of finding a new job (Greenwood, 1997).

EU, this suggests that free movement will allow unemployed youth to find more suitable job options in less time.

While mobility may decrease the time it takes someone to find a job, several studies on unemployment and migration in the United States have found moving to be a mediating or moderating variable in the quest for employment, rather than an effective mechanism for alleviating individual unemployment in itself (Antolin & Bover, 1997; Boehm et al., 1998; Pekkala & Tervo, 2002; Seater, 1979; Tervo, 2000). For example, macroeconomic theory also suggests that regional migration is expected to reduce the length of time it takes mobile individuals to find employment opportunities only by serving as an equilibrating factor for realigning labor market supply and demand (Boehm et al., 1998; Seater, 1979). According to this theory, moving is a moderating variable for increased employment opportunities when active job seekers relocate to labor markets with more favorable employment opportunities⁴ (Boehm et al., 1998; Seater, 1979). Therefore, while individuals are expected to become employed over a shorter period of time when they migrate to regions with greater labor market demand, it is suggested that the act of moving does not in itself improve employability (Pekkala & Tervo, 2002).

While these theories provide alternative perspectives in the role moving plays with regards to decreasing unemployment duration, they suggest that all individuals make choices as sovereign and rational actors. Although migrating to more productive labor markets may improve an individual's employment outcomes, it cannot be assumed that all individuals are equally able to make the decision to relocate in search for a job. According to the capability approach, it is not only relevant to take into account which opportunities are open to individuals, but also the range of a person's resources and capabilities. Doing so allows us to uncover their real opportunities to do and be what they reason to be valuable (Clark, 2006). With regards to European youth, it cannot be expected that the opportunity to move freely within the EU alone will encourage large groups of unemployed youth to increase their job search radius given the resources and capabilities of young, unemployed adults compared to the resources needed to relocate to another country. For example, while young adults may be

⁴ Labor markets characterized by more favorable employment opportunities are those with lower unemployment rates, and, thus, greater labor market demand (Boehm et al., 1998)

more capable of moving due to the lack of having established nuclear families, it is likely that they will be less capable to uproot their lives and move to another country when accounting for the financial resources necessary to relocate (Clark, 2006). Furthermore, given that finding a job from abroad is often difficult, a majority of individuals do not have contracted employment prior to relocating to a new member state country (Open Society Foundations, 2013). While this may limit the real opportunities for young adults to migrate within the EU to increase employment outcomes, this, along with limitations to unemployment entitlement, could motivate migrants living in the Netherlands to search more rigorously for a job than they would if they were living in their home countries—directly impacting the duration of unemployment amongst intra-EU migrants.

2.1.2. Migration, job match and employment satisfaction

An alternative perspective on the effects of both mobility and personal attributes on employment prospects, however, suggests that the length of time required for individuals to find employment after moving only decreases when workers' expectations and the quality of jobs found are not taken into account (Seater, 1979). Although it is argued that higher skilled individuals tend to be the population of those “moving”—therefore suggesting that these individuals will find quality jobs in labor markets with higher demand—this can only be regarded as a mere assumption, especially in the European case. There is little evidence to suggest that high skilled workers will be placed in the most suitable positions upon arrival into new countries (Moisander & PriMozic, 2012). This becomes most apparent when taking into account the “transitory negative effects of migrating” by which region-specific human capital is unprofitable or unrecognized in destination economies (Pekkala & Tervo, 2002). For example, individuals with informal training or knowledge, habits, social and personality attributes that are specific to their communities of origin may become less useful in new environments. Although steps have been taken to improve the transferability of human capital throughout the European Union, intra-EU migrants may experience job mismatch—resulting in either longer time frames needed to find favorable employment or being placed into jobs below their skillset—if qualifications are not recognized across borders, and if cultural or language barriers inhibit individuals from reaching their full potential (Stepien, 2012). Since there are no studies that evaluate whether moving has a positive effect on the employment

circumstances of youth in the EU, it is scientifically relevant to question the actual benefits of mobility on the prospects of young adults on the basis of these theoretical findings.

It becomes further suggested that “lurking variables”⁵ are most responsible for the impact of migration on employment opportunities when accounting for social capital, human capital, and other personal and locational characteristics (Boehm et al., 1998; Pekkala & Tervo, 2002; Seater, 1979; Zaiceva & Zimmermann, 2008; Zimmermann, 2004; Zimmermann, 2005; Zimmermann, 2009). According to Pekkala & Tervo (2002), mobility begins to have a negative effect on employment status when controlling for personal attributes such as age, education, human capital and unobserved ability. With this, the personal characteristics of movers, rather than the act of moving itself, leads to an improvement in the employment prospects of mobile workers (Pekkala & Tervo, 2002).

2.1.3. Labor market discrimination

Another perspective on mobility suggests that moving may have negative consequences on an individual’s labor market outcomes regardless of the professional qualification, human and social capital they possess. Labor discrimination refers to the valuation in the labor market of personal attributes of workers that are unrelated to their qualifications or potential productivity. Such attributes include: age, gender, religion, disability, sexual orientation, race or ethnicity (Aigner & Cain, 1977; Arrow, 1973; Bauer, Losfstrom & Zimmermann, 2000; Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999; Boverkerk, Gras, & Ramsoedh, n.d.; International Labour Office, n.d.; Kahanec & Zaiceva; Uhlendorff & Zimmermann, 2009). Of these, discrimination on ethnic grounds is seen as the most widespread form of discrimination in the European Union (Special Eurobarometer 393, 2012).

Ethnic discrimination of European migrants has been most prominent surrounding discussions of EU enlargement (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999; Boverkerk, Gras, & Ramsoedh, n.d.; International Labour Office, n.d.; Uhlendorff & Zimmermann, 2009). Due to

⁵Lurking variables refer to those that have important effects and yet are not included amongst the predictor variables under consideration. In regards to migration and employment, it is expected that personal attributes such as age, education, human and social capital and other unobserved abilities will be mediating or moderating variables in terms of employment results.

the economic differences between old and new member states, natives have often feared extensive open border policies that could potentially cause large-scale immigration of unemployed workers from Central and Eastern member states to flood local labor markets and cost natives their jobs (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999). Labor market discrimination can be caused by both direct and indirect discrimination. Indirect labor market discrimination usually consists of rules or practices that are not overtly discriminatory though they have negative consequences on the employment prospects of immigrants (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999). Direct discrimination involves negative stereotypes and prejudices associated with immigrant populations that lead migrants to become perceived by employers as unattractive potential employees (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999). This leads to unemployment rates often being higher amongst migrants than for natives, or migrants settling at jobs below their qualification level (Aigner & Cain, 1977; Arrow, 1973; Bauer, Losfstrom & Zimmermann, 2000; Bauer & Zimmermann, 1999; Uhlendorff & Zimmermann, 2009).

In an open society like the European Union, freedom of movement across borders has played a central role in encouraging tolerance and understanding among people of different cultures. Freedom of movement allows EU citizens to move to other member state countries to work, and, in certain circumstances, access the welfare system in place (Open Society Foundation, 2013). Although this open-border policy can be used to break down harmful stereotypes and prejudices to enhance cross-border cooperation and EU-wide solidarity, it also has been re-examined with reluctance by several member countries (Open Society Foundation, 2013). In April 2013, four EU member states—Austria, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom—called for the European Commission to change the rules of free movement to make it harder for EU migrants to claim benefits when moving to another member country. This desire was spurred by what these countries perceived to be “benefits tourism”: large scale migration from new member state countries⁶ for generous welfare benefits rather than for work (Open Society Foundation, 2013). Although these countries were seeking to alter rules on free movement and the criteria for qualifying for social benefits in order to alleviate growing burdens on their welfare systems by welfare

⁶ New member states countries refers to those which were welcomed in the 5th enlargement of the European Union during 2004 and 2007: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia (European Commission, 2015b).

fraud, these alternations lead to indirect discrimination by perpetuating negative stereotypes about Central and Eastern European migrants, and by limiting the potential for speculative migration⁷ for immigrants who are actually looking to find employment. Furthermore, migrant youth will be placed in an even more precarious position as they are even less likely to possess the financial resources to support themselves while finding employment.

2.2. Research question

While migration as a means of obtaining education and training, or increasing employment prospects has been a recurring topic within EU-based literature, to date no studies have looked into whether migration actually has a positive impact on the employment circumstances of young adults in the EU. This study deals with investigating whether mobile youth are given the same employment opportunities as native youth when they move into foreign labor markets. Therefore, the central research questions will be: (1) How and to what extent do the employment situations of intra-EU migrants living in the Netherlands differ from those of native Dutch youth? And what explains this? (2) Are there any notable variations in employment experiences within the mobile youth population? And what explains these variations?

⁷ Moving to another area in search for a job, rather than as a result of finding a job (Greenwood, 1997).

2.3. Hypotheses

Based on the previous theoretical exploration, I expect to find that mobile (non-Dutch) youth in the Netherlands will find themselves at a disadvantage to native Dutch youth on the Dutch labor market due to the effects of region-specific human capital and unrecognized professional qualification. This leads to the following: *Hypothesis 1*: Dutch youth are more likely to be employed than EU migrants. In addition, this labor market advantage should also be evident in relation to job match and job satisfaction.

Furthermore, given that individuals who feel that they are reemployed at their qualification level are also more likely to be satisfied with their employment, it is expected that Dutch youth respond more positively to job match and job satisfaction (Albert & Davia, 2005). *Hypothesis 2*: Dutch youth are more likely to feel their jobs to meet their qualification level than EU migrants. *Hypothesis 3*: Dutch youth are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs.

Furthermore, based on Pekkala and Tervo's (2000) theory on the transitory negative effects of migrating by which region-specific human capital is unprofitable or unrecognized in destination economies, I anticipate to find variations in employment experiences within the mobile youth population based on their level of proficiency in the Dutch language and the transferability of foreign-acquired human capital. This leads to the following: *Hypothesis 4*: Three variables have a moderator effect on whether or not intra-EU migration leads to employment, increased job satisfaction and the feeling that one's job meets their qualification level in the Dutch case. These include: region of origin, proficiency in the Dutch language and the transferability of professional qualifications.

Also, based on the Netherlands' imposition of waiting periods for job seekers to claim out-of-work benefits, I expect to find labor market disparities between native Dutch and non-Dutch youth. These include: *Hypothesis 5*: EU migrants will have shorter unemployment spells due to the greater risks of speculative migration; and, because of this, will be less satisfied with their employment due to more limited job search time.

Furthermore, due to the extensive laws on discrimination in the labor market in the Netherlands, I expect that there will be little or no significant variation in reports of discrimination between "old member country" and "new member country" migrants. This

leads us to the following: *Hypothesis 6*: Intra-EU migrants are not likely to report having experience with labor market discrimination when moving to the Netherlands.

Lastly, due to lack of evidence that mobile youth are more qualified or favorable options to employers, I expect there will be little or no significant variation between Dutch youth who have or have not migrated in the past for work, volunteering, studying or training purposes. This leads us to the following: *Hypothesis 7*: When taken alone, moving in the past to improve employment circumstances is likely to have no correlation with being satisfied with current employment.

3. Case selection

In this study, the focus is on mobile youth in the Netherlands. The Netherlands is a relevant country for exploring the work experiences of young EU migrants because it can be viewed as an attractive destination for increased employment opportunities. To begin with, of all the countries in the European Union the Netherlands ranks as having the second highest quality of life⁸, surpassed only by Luxembourg. Also, the Netherlands is one of the Euro zone countries with a comparably low youth unemployment rate. As of November 2014, Eurostat reported that within the EU, the lowest rates of youth unemployment have been observed in Germany (7.4%), Austria (9.4%) and the Netherlands (9.7%), while the highest have been observed in Spain (53.5%), Greece (49.8%) and Italy (43.9%) (Eurostat, 2015). Furthermore, the Netherlands has the highest employment rates amongst young people once they have left formal education. According to Eurostat (2015), 88% of young adults in the Netherlands who completed university level degrees between 2008 and 2013 were employed in 2013, compared to 84% in Austria, 82% in Luxembourg, and 80% in Germany (Eurostat, 2015). The lowest recorded employment rates in this study were that of Spain (60%) and Italy (59%) (Eurostat, 2015). Therefore, individuals seeking to improve their circumstances may view the Dutch labor market as favorable. In short, the Netherlands offers a potentially favorable climate for young migrants in relation to quality of life and employment prospects. Yet there are several less favorable aspects in the Dutch case that make it an interesting case study for exploring the impact of mobility on youth employment, job match and employment satisfaction.

To begin with, the Netherlands has a minimum wage set lower for young adults⁹ than its National minimum wage rates. The youth minimum wage per month varies according to age. While individuals aged 23 and older must make a minimum of €9.02 per hour, the minimum wage for individuals who are 22 years old is €7.67 per hour, and goes down to €4.11 per hour for those who are 18 years old (Euwals, n.d.). Although this policy of lower minimum wages for young adults helps facilitate early labor market entry for Dutch youth,

⁸ As measured based on purchasing power by Eurostat 2015.

⁹ Individuals less than 23 years old (Euwals, n.d.).

the youth minimum wage causes the Netherlands to be a less attractive option for younger migrants who may end up having lesser returns than if they were to seek employment elsewhere. This factor becomes more prominent when taking into account the costs of moving to the Netherlands compared to other EU countries. The Netherlands has a relatively high cost of living¹⁰ compared to other EU countries (European Commission, 2015b). Together, these factors will increase the opportunity costs of moving to the Netherlands.

Also, while anti-discrimination legislation has increased over the last decade within the European Union, the 2012 Special Eurobarometer on labor market discrimination found that ethnic discrimination was regarded as the most widespread form of discrimination in the EU. Furthermore, 70% of those living in the Netherlands believed that ethnic discrimination was still widespread in the Dutch case¹¹ (Special Eurobarometer 393, 2012). Therefore, there is a significant need to investigate whether perceptions of ethnic discrimination mirror the existence of it.

Lastly, given the strict time restraints and limited resources available for this master's thesis, the Netherlands served as the most accessible and most practical EU country for conducting fieldwork. Therefore, the decision to take the Netherlands as the focus for this case study can be viewed as an extension of convenience sampling.

¹⁰ Cost of living includes food, drink, clothing, transportation, home rents, utility bills, household supplies and personal care items, healthcare and recreational costs (The Economist Group, 2013).

¹¹ Ethnic discrimination is regarded as widespread by at least seven out of ten respondents of the 2012 Special Eurobarometer. The percentage of those who agreed with this by country was: 76% in France, 75% in both Cyprus and Sweden, 70% in Denmark, Hungary, Greece and the Netherlands. However, less than a third of EU citizens living in Lithuania, Poland and Latvia share this view (Special Eurobarometer 393, 2012)

4. Research design

This section highlights the research design that has been used in this research project. This will include the following information about this study: the choice and justification of the research methods, the population and study participants, data collection, operationalization of concepts and variables, and the data analysis methods.

4.1. Research methods

Quantitative methods were chosen for this study. This decision was appropriate due to the types of research questions I was interested in exploring. Quantitative research methods are particularly suited for finding answer to four types of questions:

1. Questions that demand quantitative answers. An example of this type of question is “How many people live in Utrecht?”
2. Questions that examine numerical change. An example of this type of question is “Are the number of students in Utrecht University rising or falling?”
3. Questions that examine the state of something. An example of this type of question is “What factors are related to changes in work performance over time?”
4. Questions aimed at testing theories and hypotheses (Creswell, 2003).

Of these, the latter two represent the types of questions asked in this study.

4.2. Population

The target population of central interest in my research is “mobile youth in the EU”. “Mobile youth”, as defined above, refers to all EU citizens aged 18-34 who have migrated outside of their home country in order to obtain a higher level degree, job, or training or to start their own business (European Commission, 2010a). Due to the limited resources available over the course of this master’s project, I will be comparing the populations of “Non-Dutch youth in the Netherlands”, “Dutch youth in the Netherlands who have been mobile at some point in the past”, and “Dutch youth in the Netherlands who have not been mobile at some point in the past”. Through an abstraction process, I will be able to use the conclusions found in my research to make implications about the overall mobile youth

population migrating throughout the EU for high-skilled employment. However, the research population remains a selected sample, which affects the generalizability of the results (Daniel, 2012). This will be discussed further in the conclusion chapter. The focus of this master's project is on mobile youth, instead of mobile individuals altogether, because it aims to investigate the European Commission's focus on mobility as a solution to the youth unemployment problem. Furthermore, the probability of younger people migrating is much higher than that of older people because the expected utility of mobility among young people is significantly higher amongst this population (Zaiceva & Zimmermann, 2008; Zimmermann, 2009).

4.3. Data collection

The overall goal of this master's thesis is to investigate whether, and under what conditions, intra-EU migration has a positive effect on the employment circumstances of European youth. Therefore, this research project is quantitative. Differences in employment circumstances between Dutch youth and non-Dutch youth in the Netherlands have been examined by developing an online survey aimed at native Dutch and intra-EU mobile youth.

The development of the surveys used in this study was guided by the theoretical framework¹² and contained a majority of closed-ended questions in order to limit the opportunity for unsolicited responses. The target of survey responses was placed at a total of 150 responses: allowing room for 75 responses from Dutch youth and 75 responses from non-Dutch youth. Respondents for the surveys were recruited through online social networking sites, and the survey itself was administered through Survey Monkey®, an online survey development cloud-based company. Although participant recruitment and data collection over the internet have become more common, many researchers have expressed concerns regarding the validity of research conducted in this fashion due to lower response rates compared to traditional paper-based surveys, and potential skewed findings due to the personality factors of those likely to respond to online surveys (Cate et al, 2014). Numerous studies, however, have indicated that the administration of surveys in an electronic format produces results that are as good as those obtained through the traditional paper format when

¹² See Appendix A for the list and format of survey questions.

they are straight to the point and appear visually attractive (Cate et al., 2014; Denscombe, 2006; Joubert & Kriek, 2009; Ritter et al., 2004; Robie & Brown, 2007). Under these conditions, online surveys have been suggested as being superior to face-to-face survey administration in terms of internal reliability, completion rates, and participant interest (Cate et al., 2014; Denscombe, 2006; Joubert & Kriek, 2009; Ritter et al., 2004; Robie & Brown, 2007). Furthermore, administering surveys online was the best option for this master's project because it provided a larger pool of potential participants in a more accessible, uniform, and cost efficient manner. Due to time limitations, a Bol.com® gift card raffle drawing was created to provide an incentive for respondents to complete the surveys. Studies on this mode of increasing response rates have found that using non-niche specific incentives to increase response rates do not produce differential measurement errors in the responses (Couper & Groves, 1998; Couper, Marans, & Ryu, 2005; Gouldner, 1960).

4.4. Participants

Individuals who fit the criteria for participating in this study were invited to complete the survey through online networking on Facebook®. The criteria for taking part in this study included: being aged between 18-34, holding an EU passport, working or actively seeking employment, and currently living in the Netherlands. Invitations to partake in the survey, with explicit requirements for who was eligible to take part in this study, were posted both on several Facebook® profiles and group discussion boards. The groups that the survey advertisements were promoted on included: Commodity Market Amsterdam, Expats Utrecht, Werk in Nederland, Find a room(mate) or house in The Hague- kamer(s) in Den Haag, For free and for sale in Den Haag, The Amsterdam Expats Meetup Group, Roommate Holland (find and exchange rooms), Life at the Cambridgelaan, Zeist, Woning te Huur in Amsterdam, Rooms to rent in Amsterdam, Free Stuff in Amsterdam, Kamer in Utrecht, Rotterdam Housing, Intouchexpats Rotterdam, SALES in The Hague, Jobs & Internships in Europe, Young Expats Netherlands, Expats in Utrecht, Den Haag online market, Work in Amsterdam, Expats in Amsterdam, and Rotterdam. These groups were found through a manual search for local groups on Facebook® in order to provide for a more random search not affected by

Edge Rank¹³. Altogether, these groups consist of a combined 135,245 members¹⁴. This provides a significantly larger sample population that traditional face-to-face administrating would not be expected to reach.

Data collection started on the 29th of April and continued until the 19th of May. All surveys collected were recorded and archived on Survey Monkey®. By the end of the data collection period, there were a total of 203 respondents. In order to determine whether those taking part in this study were employed or not, participants were asked to identify their current employment status as one of the following: employed, unemployed but looking for employment, unemployed and not looking for employment, disabled¹⁵, or retired. Due to the focus of this study being on mobility and employment, individuals who responded that they were unemployed and not looking for employment, disabled or retired were disqualified from this study. After removing unsolicited and inapplicable responses, 181 survey respondents remained who met the criteria for participating in this study. This final sample included 81 surveys responses from those in the Dutch youth population, and 100 from those in the non-Dutch youth population. Of those who identified as Dutch, 59.25% were employed while 41.74% were unemployed. Of those who indicated that they did not hold a Dutch passport, 58% were employed while 42% were unemployed. Table 1 illustrates the general demographics of the final sample.

After collecting the target responses, the open-ended responses were coded to provide easier transcription to SPSS (see Appendix B for full list of responses and the scores assigned to them for data analysis over the SPSS software system). Employment rates, job satisfaction rates, and the length of time needed to find employment will be analyzed between two group distinctions: (1) Native Dutch vs Non- native youth¹⁶, and (2) Intra-EU migrants. By comparing native Dutch youth to intra-EU migrants, it will be possible to say something about whether there are equal opportunities for native and non-native young adults in the

¹³ EdgeRank is the Facebook algorithm that decides which stories and group recommendations appear in each user's news feed (Kincaid, 2010).

¹⁴ This number does not account for any potential overlapping between members in each group.

¹⁵ Disabled and permanently unable to work.

¹⁶ Individuals were characterized as being native Dutch if they held passports issued by the Netherlands. Everyone else who held passports issued by other EU member states were placed into the "non-native" group.

Dutch labor market, and if intra-EU migration can be established as a sufficient answer to the youth unemployment problem.

Table 1: Respondent general demographics

A) COUNTRY	NUMBER	%
THE NETHERLANDS	81	44.7
GERMANY	7	3.8
SPAIN	18	9.4
SWEDEN	2	1.1
ESTONIA	2	1.1
CROATIA	6	3.3
UK	8	4.4
ITALY	11	6.1
POLAND	4	3.8
SLOVAKIA	1	.6
LITHUANIA	5	2.8
FRANCE	5	2.8
GREECE	7	3.8
CZECH REPUBLIC	2	1.7
ROMANIA	4	2.8
BELGIUM	2	1.1
HUNGARY	4	2.2
SLOVENIA	1	.6
LATVIA	2	1.1
CYPRUS	1	.6
BULGARIA	4	2.2
TOTAL	181	100%

B) EMPLOYMENT STATUS	NUMBER	%
EMPLOYED	106	58.56
UNEMPLOYED	75	41.44

C) AGE	NUMBER	%
18-25	76	42.00
26-29	71	39.00
30-34	34	19.00

D) SEX	NUMBER	%
FEMALE	126	69.61
MALE	55	30.39

Based on this information, it is clear that the sample contains an overrepresentation of non-Dutch youth, women, unemployed youth, and youth in the lower age brackets of the youth population. However, the sample provides sufficient variation to investigate cross-group employment outcomes.

4.5. Operationalization

There are four dependent variables in this project: (1) length of unemployment; (2) employment status, (3) job match and (4) job satisfaction. In relation to the first dependent variable, this study investigates whether individuals who move within the EU are more or less likely to be employed, and whether migrating or the willingness to migrate affects the time it takes individuals to find employment, job match, and job satisfaction. By comparing native Dutch youth to intra-EU migrants, it will be possible to say something about whether there are equal opportunities for native and non-native young adults in the Dutch labor market. Based on EU-literature, it is expected that migrating within the EU will have a positive impact on all of employment status, job match and job satisfaction, and a negative impact on length of unemployment.

Due to the lack of quantitative studies seeking to establish the effectiveness of intra-EU migration for increasing employment opportunities, these factors could not be measured based on pre-existing surveys that have been previously found to have internal and external validity. Therefore, these factors needed to be taken piece by piece from unrelated studies on job match and satisfaction, or questions independently constructed in order to get at how migration has had an impact on employment circumstances.¹⁷ The four variables have been constructed as follows:

¹⁷ See Appendix A for survey questions.

Length of unemployment. In order to determine whether those taking part in this study were employed or not, participants were asked to identify their current employment status as one of the following: employed, unemployed but looking for employment, unemployed and not looking for employment, disabled¹⁸, or retired. Those who responded that they were unemployed and seeking employment were asked subsequent questions regarding their current unemployment, past experiences with migrating and their level of willingness to move in search of employment. Respondents were allowed to answer openly regarding the duration of their current unemployment spell, whether they have lived outside of their home countries at any point in the past, and, if so, the destination countries and the reasons for moving there, and whether they have moved in the past to help find employment. Unemployment duration responses were divided into three groups: less than 3 months, 3 to 5 months, 6 to 8 months and 9 months or more¹⁹. Responses on whether participants have past experiences with migrating were divided into dichotomous categories: have migrated vs. have not. Lastly, respondents' willingness to commute and/or move to increase their employment opportunities was determined based on a Guttman scale²⁰. Individuals were asked to define the largest distance by which individuals are willing to move: to another city or municipality, to another province, to another country inside the EU or to another country outside of the EU. Using a Guttman scale, potential responses are arranged in an order so that an individual who agrees with a particular item also agrees with items of lower rank-order (Hervé, 2010). Therefore, levels of willingness to migrate to find employment can be easily calculated.

Employment status. In order to determine whether those taking part in this study were employed or not, participants were asked to identify their current employment status as one of the following: employed, unemployed but looking for employment, unemployed and not looking for employment, disabled²¹, or retired. Those who responded that they were employed were asked to verify their employment status by listing their job title.

Job match and employment satisfaction. Job match and satisfaction was measured by first considering whether individuals were employed. Those who responded as being

¹⁸ Disabled and permanently unable to work.

¹⁹ See Appendix B for extended coding information.

²⁰ A Guttman scale is a cumulative scale which holds that agreement with any item implies agreement with all preceding items (Hervé, 2010).

²¹ Disabled and permanently unable to work.

employed were asked subsequent questions regarding whether they have lived outside of their home countries at any point in the past, and, if so, the destination countries and the reasons for moving there; whether they have moved in the past to help find employment; whether their highest educational degree was required for their current job; whether they believe their current job fits their qualification level; and how satisfied they are with their current job. Job satisfaction was determined with a preexisting Likert-scale matrix for measuring levels of agreement with various aspects of employment satisfaction. These include: the general feeling of satisfaction with one's current employment; feeling valued and challenged in the working environment; feeling personal accomplishment with one's work; being satisfied with one's monthly salary; being proud of one's employer brand; and desire to find employment elsewhere. Individual responses were coded as being "satisfied", "more satisfied than dissatisfied", "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied", "more dissatisfied than satisfied" and "dissatisfied"²².

The independent variable in this project is migrating within the EU²³. Several demographic questions were asked in order to determine whether individuals have moved within the EU at any point in their lives. To begin with, respondents were asked to identify themselves as native or non-native to the Netherlands based on whether they held a Dutch passport. Individuals who responded that they were not native to the Netherlands were established to have migrated within the EU due to their current status as migrants. Individuals who responded that they were native to the Netherlands were asked subsequent questions regarding whether they have lived outside of their home countries at any point in the past, and, if so, the destination countries and the reasons for moving there; whether they have moved in the past to help find employment; and how willing they would be to move in the future in order to increase employment opportunities.

In addition to this independent variable, the relationship between the dependent variables and the independent variable within the EU migrant population is expected to be affected by moderator variables. Moderator variables affect the direction and/or strength of

²² See Appendix B for extended coding information.

²³ "Migrating within the EU" is a nominal variable because it is a variable which falls into mutually exclusive and exhaustive categories (have migrated vs. have not migrated) with values that cannot be organized in a logical sequence (Bohrnstedt, Knoke, & Mee, 1994).

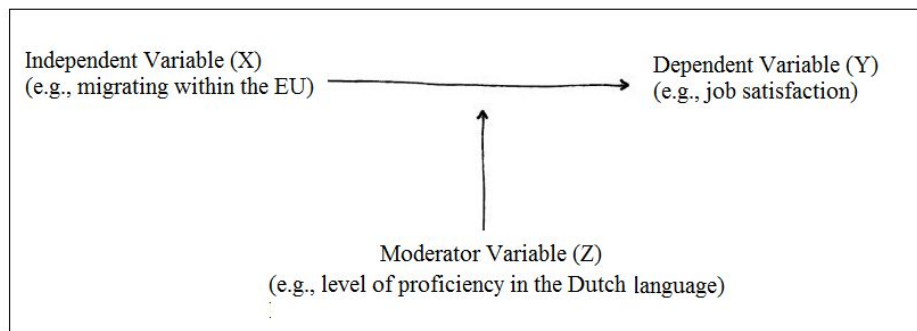
the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). As displayed in Figure 1, a variable functions as a moderator when variations in the level of the moderator variable significantly accounts for the effect that the independent variable has on the dependent variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In this study, three moderator variables are included that are expected to account for the relationship between migrating, job match, and job satisfaction for EU migrants: region of origin, Dutch-specific human and cultural capital and the transferability of foreign-acquired qualifications.

Region of origin was divided into two possible categories: “old” member states and “new” member states. New member states, or EU12, refers to those that were welcomed in the 5th enlargement of the European Union during 2004 and 2007: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia; while old member countries, or EU15, refers to longstanding member states of the European Union: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Finland, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom (European Commission, 2015b).

Next, due to data limitations, Dutch specific human or cultural capital was examined based on an individual’s levels of proficiency in the Dutch language. This was measured based on the Common European Framework of reference for languages learning, teaching and assessment—abbreviated CEFR. Respondents were asked to distinguish their level of Dutch language proficiency in reading, listening, speaking and writing along three levels: Basic user, Independent user, or Proficient user (Council of Europe, 2011).

Lastly, the transferability of foreign-acquired qualifications was measured depending on whether or not respondents have been able to use foreign-acquired degrees, certifications and diplomas.

Figure 1: Moderation causal model



4.6. Procedure

The first step of data analysis was putting responses for the central variables under investigation into contingency tables²⁴. A cross-tabulation is a multi-dimensional table used to compare the correlation between two variables (Cross-Tabulation Analysis, 2011). The Chi-square statistic is the primary statistic used for testing the statistical significance of the cross-tabulation table. When the variables have a relationship, the results of the statistical test will be significant ($p < .05$). In order to perform a cross-tabulation using the Chi-square statistic, the following assumptions must be met: (1) the sample is not biased; (2) observations are independent²⁵; (3) categories are mutually exclusive; and (4) there are at least 5 responses in each cell (Michael, 2001). Therefore, my data meets the assumptions needed for doing this type of analysis. At this stage of analysis, the main concern was to identify any potential associations between migration, employment, job quality, and job satisfaction without delving into the more complex relationships between these variables. This step provided a general overview of the frequency of outcomes in my sample. This was needed in order to address whether, and to what extent, the work experiences of respondents vary based on several predictor variables.

Next, I used logistic regression, combined with descriptive analysis, in order to investigate the more complex relationships between migrant status and employment outcomes when considering several alternative predictor variables. This mode of analysis was chosen for this study because the presence of categorical outcome variables would have

²⁴ Also referred to as cross tabulation (Niño-Zarazúa, 2012).

²⁵ Independent observations occur when sampling of one observation does not affect the choice of the second observation (Michael, 2001)

violated the assumption of linearity in alternative regression analyses (Laerd statistics, n.d.). Logistic regression is well suited for describing and testing hypotheses about the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Ingersoll, Lee & Peng, n.d.; Laerd statistics, n.d.). Through logistic regression, we are able to determine whether a dependent variable can be predicted based on an independent variable by establishing the odds of an event occurring, while descriptive analysis will allow me to describe the main features of the data under interrogation (Ingersoll, Lee & Peng, n.d.; Laerd statistics, n.d.). The simple logistic model for determining the probability of an event takes the following form:

$$\pi = \text{Probability}(Y = \text{outcome of interest} \mid X = x, \text{ a specific value of } X) = \frac{e^{\alpha + \beta x}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta x}}$$

This formula is changed to the following when examining multiple predictor variables, or the interaction effects of these variables:

$$\pi = \text{Probability}(Y = \text{outcome of interest} \mid X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2) = \frac{e^{\alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2}}$$

In order to perform logistic regression, the following assumptions must be met on the data being used: (1) The dependent variable should be measured on dichotomous scale (for binomial logistic regression) or on an ordinal scale (for ordinal logistic regression); (2) There should be one or more independent variables that can be interval, ratio, nominal or ordinal; (3) Observations are independent²⁶; (4) The model should be fitted correctly with only meaningful variables included. This can be tested based on a stepwise variable selection approach such as backward elimination, forward selection, or bidirectional elimination; (5) There is a linear relationship between any continuous independent variables and the logit transformation of the dependent variable; and (6) The sample size must be large, with at least

²⁶ Independent observations occur when sampling of one observation does not affect the choice of the second observation (Michael, 2001).

30 cases (Laerd statistics, n.d.; Statistics Solutions, n.d.). Based on these requirements, only part of my data will meet the requirements for performing binomial logistic regression.

Through binomial logistic regression, I was able to identify the strength and direction of associations between migration status, employment status, and job satisfaction, while also accounting for various demographic characteristics such as age, education level, level of willingness to relocate for work and region of origin for those who are not native to the Netherlands. Furthermore, logistic regression allowed me to establish the interaction effect between migrating and the expected moderating variables—an individual's level of proficiency in the Dutch language, region of origin, and the transferability of foreign-acquired qualifications—in order to test whether they are the most significant variables in predicting the employment outcomes of non-native youth.

5. Results

5.1. Contingency tables

This section highlights the general trends found when putting the data into contingency tables based on the following pairing of variables: migrant status and employment status, migrant status and job match, migrant status and job satisfaction. Building contingency tables based on this coupling of variables will provide the information needed to answer the first part of my research question: How and to what extent do the employment situations of intra-EU migrants living in the Netherlands differ from that of native Dutch youth? And what best explains this?

Table 1: Migrant status and employment status

MIGRANT STATUS	EMPLOYMENT STATUS				Total
	Employed = 1		Unemployed =2		
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%	
NATIVE DUTCH = 1	48	(59.26)	33	(40.74)	81
EU MIGRANT = 2	58	(58.00)	42	(42.00)	100
TOTAL	106	-	75	-	181

- **Significance tests:** Chi-square statistic = .0292, degree of freedom: 1, Alpha p-value: 0.05. Actual p-value: 0.8643. **No statistically significant relationship between variables.**

Table 2: Migrant status and job match

MIGRANT STATUS	JOB MATCH				Total
	Current job fits qualification level = 0		Current job is under qualification level = 1		
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%	

NATIVE DUTCH = 0	13	(27.08)	35	(72.92)	48
EU MIGRANT = 1	21	(36.21)	37	(63.79)	58
TOTAL	34	-	72	-	106

- **Significance tests:** Chi-square statistic = 1.0034, degree of freedom: 1, Alpha p-value: 0.05. Actual p-value: 0.3165. **No statistically significant relationship between variables.**

Table 3: Migrant status and job satisfaction

MIGRANT STATUS	JOB SATISFACTION				Total
	More unsatisfied than satisfied += 0		More satisfied than dissatisfied += 1		
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%	
NATIVE DUTCH = 0	18	(37.50)	30	(62.50)	48
EU MIGRANT = 1	27	(46.55)	31	(53.45)	58
TOTAL	45	-	59	-	106

- **Significance tests:** Chi-square statistic = 0.9106955, degree of freedom: 1, Alpha p-value: 0.05. Actual p-value: .3399. **No statistically significant relationship between variables.**

Based on the findings in these contingency tables, it can be concluded that there are no statistically significant relationships between migrant status on the one hand, and employment status, job match, and job satisfaction on the other. Although I initially hypothesized that mobile youth would hold a disadvantaged position in the Dutch labor market compared with their native peers, the contingency table findings above cannot support this assumption. Instead, I found that based on the sample collected in this study, there are no statistically significant variations in employment status, job match, and employment satisfaction based on migrant status alone. Therefore, it can be concluded that native Dutch youth do not hold a better position in the Dutch labor market than intra-EU migrants working in the Netherlands with regards to their likeliness of being employed, their likeliness of believing their current employment meets their qualification level, and their likeliness to be satisfied with their current jobs. Contingency tables alone, however, cannot provide information on what is responsible for these findings, or give insight into the second part of my research question regarding variations within the mobile youth population. Logistic regression will be used in order to examine these elements.

5.2. Logistic regression findings

Results of binomial logistic regression analysis for employment outcomes of youth in the Netherlands are presented in this section. This step in the analysis was divided into two parts. The first section is designated for exploring what may explain why migrant status alone cannot be used to predict variations in employment rates, job match or job satisfaction. The second section will be used to identify potential variations in employment outcomes of intra-EU migrants based on the predicted moderator variables. When interpreting logistic regression outputs, factors with values greater than one indicate that the odds are increased with a predictor variable, while values lower than one indicate that the odds are decreased.

5.2.1. Migrant status and employment outcomes

The below section illustrates the results found when doing a logistic regression of the employment outcomes for Dutch and non-Dutch youth working in the Netherlands. The goal of this section is to identify the strength and direction of associations between migration status, employment status, and job satisfaction, while also accounting for various demographic characteristics that may potentially improve the regression models. These include age, and educational attainment, level of willingness to relocate for work, and region of origin for those who are not native to the Netherlands. Gender was excluded from this stage of analysis due to the substantial disproportion between individuals who identified as female (126) and those who identified as male (55) that would otherwise lead to skewed findings.

Employment status. While my earlier theoretical exploration speculated that there could be variations in work experiences between migrant and native youth, the previous step of cross-tabulation asserted that there is no clear correlation between employment status and migrant status. Therefore, it is important to dig deeper into the sample and determine whether there are any underlying variables that best explain the homogeneity of employment outcomes between these two groups.

Although there were several potential variables available for the regression solution, only two displayed statistically significant relationships to the prediction of young adults in the

Netherlands being employed²⁷. These were age and level of educational obtainment. Results of these variables can be found in table 4. These values take the overall employment trends of native Dutch and intra-EU migrants in the Netherlands.

As displayed in the below table, as an individual’s age increased within the confines of the study, the odds of their being employed also increased by a factor of 2.14²⁸. Respondents’ level of education further contributes to the odds of being employed. The value of the odds of this variable indicates that additional educational obtainment after secondary school leads to an increase in the odds of being employed by a factor of 1.06, or 6%²⁹. This suggests that as age and/or education level increases, so does the likeliness of being employed—though not at a substantial rate. This can be seen as a commonsensical explanation considering that age and education have major implications regarding one’s availability³⁰ and qualification level. When taking migrant status into account, 62.06% of those in the EU migrant sample who indicated that they were employed had a Bachelor’s level degree or higher, compared to 56.25% of those in the native Dutch population. This suggests that although migrant status alone cannot predict whether an individual is employed, there is a significant correlation between being an employed individual in the EU migrant population and having a tertiary degree or higher.

Table 4: Logistic regression on predictors of employment amongst youth in the Netherlands

Variable	Wald	df	Significance	Odds
Age	3.592	1	.042	2.14
Level of education	1.118	1	.002	1.06

²⁷ Backwards elimination is an automatic computational procedure that determines the relative importance of variables in a model by starting with a “full” model of all potential predictive input variables, then deleting the variable least improving the model one-at-a-time until no other deleted variables can significantly improve the model. In this study, I used f-tests as selection criterion (Buswell et al., n.d.).

²⁸ This suggests an increase in the odd ratio by 214%

²⁹ This applies to simple variance between those who were employed. This says nothing about job quality or the types of jobs individuals had. Instead, it only focuses on the odds of being employed.

³⁰ This sample did not exclude individuals who were currently in school. If respondents were in school but were currently employed or looking for employment, they were allowed to continue taking part in the survey.

Job match. While my earlier theoretical exploration led me to hypothesize that native Dutch youth would be more likely to feel that their current jobs matched their qualification levels compared to intra-EU migrants due to being placed at an advantage on the labor market, findings in section 5.2 refuted this assumption. Although it would be fruitful to dig deeper into the sample and determine whether there are any underlying variables that best explain the homogeneity of employment outcomes between these two groups, this model cannot be further tested with logistic regression because it violates the fourth data assumption³¹ in doing this type of analysis. To begin with, the variables “level of willingness to migrate” and “region of origin” were measured with only part of the overall sample based on migrant status. This factor made these variables unsuited for modeling the grandeur trends in employment amongst youth in the Netherlands because utilizing these variables would leave large portions of the sample untested. Furthermore, through backwards elimination I found that age and level of education were not meaningful to this model of predicting beliefs on job match because they did not meet the f-test selection criterion of having statistically significant relationships with job match³². Taken with the previous findings on employment odds, this suggests that although individuals who are older and/or who increase their education beyond high school may be more likely to be employed, this does not mean that these same individuals are more likely to feel that their jobs meet their qualification level.

Job satisfaction. The missing link between the dependent variable and the various predictor variables that was established in the previous sub-section continued with the exploration of job satisfaction. Through backwards elimination I found that none of the predictor variables were meaningful to this model on predicting job satisfaction because they did not meet the selection criterion of having statistically significant relationships with job satisfaction within³³. Although this also goes against the hypotheses I derived from my previous theoretical exploration and logical deduction, these findings follow in accordance with the previous findings on job match. While it could be expected that individuals with more experience (e.g. age), education, or training (e.g. educational attainment) would end up

³¹ As asserted in the “Procedure” section, the fourth assumption of logistic regression states that the model should be fitted correctly with only meaningful variables included (Laerd statistics, n.d.).

³² See Appendix C, part 1 for backwards elimination process.

³³ See Appendix C, part 2 for backwards elimination process.

with better jobs that they are more satisfied with, this is an unsound theory. The lack of success in establishing relevant predictors of job match and job satisfaction outcomes suggests that there may be variables outside the range of this study that account most for variations in employment outcomes. This will be discussed further in the “Conclusion and discussion” section of this thesis.

5.2.2. Variations amongst EU migrants

This section is dedicated to presenting the results found when doing a logistic regression of the employment outcomes of EU migrants working in the Netherlands. Although the previous section on migrant status and employment made reference to variations in employment experiences of youth altogether, it is still necessary to test more specifically for whether moderating variables may lead some migrants to be better off working in the Netherlands than others. Potential moderator variables include: the transferability of foreign-acquired qualifications, region of origin, and Dutch-specific human and cultural capital. The findings in this section must be greeted with caution due to notable disparities in the response rates of individuals based on the distinction of region of origin³⁴

5.2.2.1. Transferability of qualifications.

The transferability of foreign acquired professional qualifications was found to not function as a moderator for the relationship between the dependent variables—employment status, job satisfaction, and job match—and the independent variable—*intra-EU migration*. This occurred because none of the survey respondents reported having any issues in using their foreign-acquired qualifications to find employment in the Netherlands. Although this suggests that the rules and guidelines imposed by EU directives have ensured that educational and training certifications are recognized across borders, this study did not test for whether informal education and training were also recognized in the Netherlands.

5.2.2.2. Interaction effects of Region of origin and Dutch language proficiency.

³⁴ 70 respondents originated from what would be considered “old” member state countries, compared to the 30 respondents who originated from “new” member state countries.

Part 1: Employment status. Through performing a logistic regression on the effects of region of origin and level of proficiency in Dutch on the likelihood that participants would be employed, I was able to find that there were no statistically significant relationships between the variables in this model. Results of the concluding analysis can be found in Table 5.

Table 5: Logistic regression summary on “region of origin” and “level of proficiency in Dutch” as predictors for employment status.

Variable	Wald	df	Significance	Odds
Region of origin	3.532	1	.060	.978
Level of proficiency in Dutch	.409	1	.522	.550

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that region of origin and level of proficiency in Dutch cannot be used to predict or account for the employment status of Intra-EU migrants. Although this was not what I was expecting to find in my study, several factors can help explain why this is the case. To begin with, my study did not investigate the kinds of jobs that individuals were employed in, or the international status of the companies they are affiliated with. Job match and job satisfaction will be explored in the subsequent section, as they may provide significant clues on the absence of notable discrepancies in employment status between migrants of differing origins and with differing levels of fluency in the Dutch language. While these trends may imply that young migrants are indeed ranking being employed as a top priority over job match and job quality, it may also imply that cross-border openness with other EU member states is causing the Netherlands to embrace a more internationally responsive labor market. Although the former possibility will be explored more in the next section, the latter can be supported in reference to my study findings based on the fact that 48.78% of those employed in the migrant population reported that Dutch was not the primary language spoken at work. Can it be concluded that Netherlands is an ideal, migrant-friendly country? Or do these findings only suggests that when education level, region of origin and level of proficiency in the Dutch language in mind, employment become more important than job quality?

Part 2: Job match and Job satisfaction. This section illustrates the results of a binomial logistic regression on the effects of region of origin and level of proficiency in Dutch on the likelihood that participants would a) believe that their jobs met their qualification level, and b) be satisfied with their current jobs. Results of the concluding analysis can be found in Table 6 and 7. Through this process, I found that job match did not vary based on region of origin or level of proficiency in Dutch (see table 6). I did, however, find a statistically significant relationship between region of origin and employment satisfaction (see table 7). When interpreting logistic regression outputs, factors with values greater than one indicate that the odds are increased with a predictor variable, while values lower than one indicate that the odds are decreased. Therefore, this model suggest that the odds that individuals who migrate from “new” member states will be satisfied with their employment decreases by a rate of .268 when compared to “old” member state migrants. However, based on Nagelkerke R-squared³⁵, this model explains only 11.8% of the variance in employment satisfaction.

³⁵ Nagelkerke R square is a Pseudo R² used to measure the goodness of fit of models used in SPSS.

Table 6: Logistic regression summary on “region of origin” and “level of proficiency in Dutch” as predictors for job match.

Variable	Wald	df	Significance	Odds
Region of origin	1.121	1	.290	2.046
Level of proficiency in Dutch	1.005	1	.316	.751

Table 7: Logistic regression summary on “region of origin” and “level of proficiency in Dutch” as predictors for job satisfaction.

Variable	Wald	df	Significance	Odds
Region of origin (1)	4.051	1	.044	.268
Level of proficiency in Dutch	1.948	1	.163	.684

Nagelkerke R²: 0.118

Based on the information found in this and the previous sections of chapter 5, the hypotheses formulated in the theoretical exploration section can now be tested.

5.3. Hypothesis testing

This section provides an overview of whether the earlier stated hypotheses were found to be valid based after data accumulation and analysis.

Hypotheses	Findings
Hypothesis 1: Dutch youth are more likely to be employed than EU migrants.	Hypothesis rejected. Based on the results found in part 1, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant correlation between migrant status and employment outcomes in this sample.
Hypothesis 2: Dutch youth are more likely to feel that their jobs meet their qualification level than EU migrants.	Hypothesis rejected. Based on the results found in part 1, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant correlation between migrant status and employment outcomes in this sample.
Hypothesis 3: Dutch youth are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than EU migrants.	Hypothesis rejected. Based on the results found in part 1, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant correlation between migrant status and employment outcomes in this sample.
Hypothesis 4: Three variables have a moderator effect on whether or not intra-EU migration leads to employment, increased job satisfaction, and the feeling that one's job meets their qualification level in the Dutch case. These include: region of origin, proficiency in the Dutch language and the transferability of professional qualifications.	Hypothesis partially accepted. In this study, the transferability of professional qualifications was found to not function as a moderator for the relationship between the dependent variables—employment status, job satisfaction, and job match—and the independent variable—intra-EU migration. Levels of proficiency in the Dutch language, however, was found to have moderating effects on various aspects of employment circumstances.
Hypothesis 5: EU migrants will have shorter unemployment spells due to the greater risks associated with speculative migration; and, because of this, will be less satisfied with their employment due to more limited job search time.	Hypothesis cannot be fully tested based on the data collected. However, it is possible to make a connection between levels of willingness to move and unemployment duration within the native Dutch population. Individuals who were only willing to commute and/or move within the Netherlands to find employment made up 76.92% of the sample who was unemployed for longer than 6 months, and 100% of the sample who were left unemployed after 9 months.
Hypothesis 6: Intra-EU migrants are not likely to report having experience with labor market discrimination when moving to the Netherlands.	Hypothesis cannot be tested. The questions used to gauge labor market discriminations cannot be said to hold internal validity when testing for labor market discrimination in general terms.
Hypothesis 7: When taken alone, moving in the past to improve employment circumstances is likely to have no correlation with being satisfied with current employment.	Hypothesis rejected: There is a statistically significant correlation between migrating in the past and current job match.

6. Conclusion and discussion

This study has produced somewhat mixed, and rather interesting findings on migration and employment in the Netherlands. The goal of this master's project was to investigate whether mobile youth are given the same employment opportunities as native youth when they move into foreign labor markets. This was guided by two central research questions:

1. How and to what extent do employment outcomes of intra-EU migrants living in the Netherlands differ from those of native Dutch youth? And what explains this?
2. Are there any notable variations in employment experiences within the mobile youth population? And what factors explain these variations?

Based on my theoretical exploration at the start of this project, and my skepticism with the mobility arguments in literature published by the European Commission, I expected to find that when comparing migrant status alone, native Dutch youth would be performing better on the labor market: with a greater likelihood of being employed, have jobs which they felt met their qualification level, and have jobs which they were more likely to be satisfied with. This assumption was based on the notion of transitory negative effects of migration. According to this notion, migration is expected to have a negative effect on employment outcomes due to the loss in value of region-specific human capital when it becomes unrecognized by destination labor markets. Furthermore, my theoretical exploration led me to believe that if individuals did not initially experience negative effects after migrating, there would be other underlying variables responsible for employment returns that would cause some individuals to be better off when migrating than others.

After the course of data accumulation and data analysis, it can be argued that Dutch youth are not placed at an advantage on the labor market when compared to intra-EU migrants working in the Netherlands. Through cross-tabulation, it was found that my sample did not produce any statistically significant relationships between migrant status and employment status, job match, or job satisfaction. Furthermore, through logistic regression it was found that neither age, nor level of education, gender, or level of willingness to relocate

for work could establish a factor of variation in employment outcomes while controlling for migrant status. Through this process, the most useful information obtained was that age and education were the only indicators of whether or not individuals were employed or not; however, it must still be concluded that migrant youth perform quite similarly to native youth on the Dutch labor market.

Also, based on my logistic regression findings on the transferability of foreign-acquired qualifications, and on the effects of “region of origin” and “level of proficiency in the Dutch language” as potential moderator variables, it can be concluded that the emphasis placed on region-specific human capital in my theoretical exploration does not translate into the reality of the Dutch labor market. Although I discovered a relationship between originating from “new” member states and having lesser odds of being satisfied at work, my sample suggested that migrant youth perform quite similarly to one another on the Dutch labor market regardless of having varying levels of qualifications and Dutch-specific human capital. This suggests that the literature and theory by which this study was based are either outdated and in need of being revisited, or irrelevant to the European case. Furthermore, there is significant work to be done in establishing if findings on intra-EU migration are generalizable across member states, or if each country comes with its own trends.

6.1. Policy implications of findings

While this study suggests that the Dutch labor market can be classified as unbiased and migrant-friendly, the fact that 64% of the EU migrant sample possessed Bachelor’s level degrees or higher suggests that the commonality in labor market outcomes may be due to this sample having a high number of responses from highly-skilled migrants. Whether this is the demographic norm for intra-EU migration can have serious policy implications. If this sample is truly representative of the mobile youth population, these findings suggests that the majority of those who are moving away from their home countries to find work are highly educated individuals. While this may not have immediate consequences, if migration leads to substantial numbers of highly skilled youth moving and potentially permanently relocating

outside of their home countries for employment, these countries may face serious consequences when faced with the trend of demographic aging.

Additionally, although age and education level were discovered as being positively correlated with being employed, the rest of my findings suggests that this trend cannot also be observed when it comes to feelings on job match and job satisfaction. This suggests that while individuals may view early age employment and tertiary education as potential stepping stones in building one's career, there seems to be a general feeling of dissatisfaction across the board regardless of increases to age or levels of educational attainment. With this, it can be concluded that there are discrepancies between what individuals believe they should be doing with regards to their age and qualification level, and what they actually are doing. Unless this issue is fully addressed, it will continue fostering social exclusion among Europe's youth populations. Altogether, this may lead to EU policy and administrations losing legitimacy within the youth populations.

6.2. Limitations and suggestions for further research

Although this thesis provides valuable information regarding mobility and employment, there are several recommendations I would make for researchers interested in taking this study further. Due to the lack of quantitative studies seeking to establish the impact of intra-EU migration on employment, job match, and job satisfaction, these factors could not be measured based on pre-existing surveys that have been tested for their internal and external validity. For future studies, it is critical to spend more time, money, and other professional resources to develop and test reliable measuring techniques. This process will help to increase the internal validity of the measuring techniques, and may lead to uncovering additional relevant subject matter needed for future studies. During data coding and analysis, I thought of alternative questions I would have been interested in exploring due to multiple short, missing, or unsolicited responses I received from survey respondents. However, given that I had already begun data collection, these could not have been added to the pre-existing survey.

Furthermore, I would highly advise against using Survey Monkey as a data collection platform for a study of this size. Although Survey Monkey software allows for easily viewing

data trends and controlling for specific variables, it is tremendously difficult to translate survey findings into SPSS. Traditional paper surveys would allow more control when transcribing data into SPSS: ensuring that the data is correctly recorded and allowing for a significantly more straightforward process.

Next, I recommend that future studies increase the generalizability and validity of the results found by recruiting larger sample sizes. One major issue that I found over the course of my research project was that extensive in-group comparisons were impractical given the sample size of my migrant youth population. This, however, will also require significantly more time, money, and other professional resources: which was unavailable to me over the course of this master's project.

Also, due to the difficulty I experienced in recruiting native Dutch participants, it may be useful to translate future survey material into the native language of the country being under investigation. This will help make the study more appealing to native populations. Furthermore, this will also ensure that the research samples of future studies are unbiased by eliminating the necessity for research participants to be proficient in the English language. Although this requirement provided little concern in the Dutch case due to the prevalence of English as a second language within the Dutch population, it can have significant consequences in studies examining populations with less of an ability or preference to speak, read, or write in English.

Also, although this study has produced valuable insight into how EU migrants fare on the labor market compared to locals, and how employment outcomes differ based on group identification in the Netherlands, another suggestion for future research would be to conduct in-depth interviews with migrant youth in order to get a better understanding of the migrant experience. Interviews would provide a great platform for getting more detailed accounts of the migrant experience, and, unlike survey research, it will allow for the use of follow-up questions when coding the data leads to interesting finding.

Lastly, it would be valuable investigate whether individuals who migrate for employment actually have better returns on the labor market than those who choose not to. In order to do this, it would be necessary to design a study that would look at groups of migrants

and compare their employment circumstances with that of groups of like-individuals in their home countries over a period of time.

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Appendix A: Survey

This is a research study conducted by a master's student of Social Policy and Social Interventions at Utrecht University. The purpose of this research is to understand the differences in employment and unemployment experiences between native Dutch youth and non-native youth in the Netherlands in order to investigate whether intra-EU mobility leads to better employment prospects for European youth.

This survey will ask about certain aspects of your daily life, and about your employment experiences. Completing this survey should take no longer than 10 minutes.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you have the right to refuse to participate or leave the study at any time without any penalty.

If you have any questions about this study, including inquiry into the results found, feel free to contact the researcher:

Danielle Lee, d.p.lee@students.uu.nl . +31 637431332

If you have any questions about the rights of research subjects or research-related injury, please contact the Ethical Committee for the Faculty of Social and Behavioral Sciences at Utrecht University.

By continuing on to the next page, you are asserting that you have read and understood the information above and freely give your consent to participate.

1. What is your age?
 - a. 17 or younger (disqualified answer)
 - b. 18-20
 - c. 21-29
 - d. 30-34

- e. 35 or older (disqualified answer)
2. Are you male or female?
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
 3. Do you hold a Dutch passport?
 - a. Yes (skip to relevant question)
 - b. No
 4. Country/Countries of Citizenship based on the passport(s) you hold.
 5. Please indicate when you relocated to the Netherlands.
 6. What languages are you proficient in? (*select all that apply*)
 - a. Dutch
 - b. German
 - c. French
 - d. Spanish
 - e. English
 - f. Portuguese
 - g. Other (please specify)
 7. Do you know any Dutch?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No (skip to relevant question)
 8. Please indicate which level of Dutch you can communicate at
 - a. Basic user (Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type; Can introduce yourself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where you live, people you know and things you have; Can

interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.)

- b. Independent user (Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc; Can deal with most situations likely to arise while traveling in an area where the language is spoken; Can produce simple connected text on topics that are familiar or of personal interest; Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.)
 - c. Proficient user (Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning; Can express ideas fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions; Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes; Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.)
9. How have you accumulated your knowledge of Dutch? (*select all which apply*)
- a. Self-taught through books or online programs
 - b. Language courses
 - c. Getting around the Netherlands and communicating with native speakers
 - d. Other (please specify)
10. Have you ever visited the Netherlands prior to relocating here?
- a. Yes
 - b. No (skip to relevant question)
11. Please describe the reasons for your past visits
-
12. What was the main reason you decided to move to the Netherlands?
- a. Moved in search for a job
 - b. Moved as a result of finding a job
 - c. School

- d. Other (please specify)
13. Have you ever lived outside of the Netherlands? (1st question for those who have a Dutch passport, not a question for non-Dutch respondents)
- a. Yes
 - b. No (skip to relevant question)
14. Please list the countries you have previously lived in, the estimated length of time spent there, and motives for your stay in the provided spaces. (not a question for non-Dutch respondents)
15. What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?
- a. Less than high school degree
 - b. High school degree or equivalent
 - c. Trade school
 - d. Some college, but no degree
 - e. Bachelor degree
 - f. Master's degree
 - g. PhD
 - h. Other (please specify)
16. After completing the highest level of education you have obtained, have you ever experienced unemployment that lasted more than 3 months?
- a. Yes
 - b. No (skip to relevant question)
17. How long have past unemployment spells lasted?
-
18. Which of the following categories best describes your employment status?
- a. Employed, working full time
 - b. Employed, working part time
 - c. Not employed, looking for work (skip to relevant question)
 - d. Not employed, NOT looking for work (disqualified)

- e. Retired (disqualified)
- f. Disabled, not able to work (disqualified)

19. What is your current job title?

20. Is the degree you have required for your current job?

- a. Yes
- b. No

21. Do you believe that your current job fits your qualification level?

- a. Yes
- b. No, my current job is **below** my qualification level
- c. No, my current job is **above** my qualification level

22. Is Dutch the primary language spoken or used in your current job?

- a. Yes
- b. No

23. Are there any other languages used in your current job? (select all that apply)

- a. English
- b. German
- c. French
- d. Spanish
- e. Portuguese
- f. Other (please specify)

24. Upon moving to the Netherlands, how long did it take you to find employment
(non-Dutch respondents only)

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25. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
I am satisfied with my current job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of my employer's brand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am satisfied with my current salary (monthly pay)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My work gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job makes good use of my skills and abilities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am interested in looking for a new job outside of my current company	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

26. How long has your current spell of unemployment lasted? (for respondents who are currently unemployed)

27. Have you moved in the past in order to help find employment?

- a. Yes
- b. No

28. If you find yourself unemployed, how far are you willing to commute and/or move in order to find employment?

- a. To another city/municipality
- b. To another province
- c. To another country inside the EU
- d. To another country outside of the EU

The survey is now complete.

Bol.com gift card drawing information:

This drawing is applicable for those who have completed the "Mobility and Employment" survey. There will be 2 winners in this drawing, both winning €25 bol.com gift cards. Enter this drawing in the below space by submitting your primary email address. This will be used only to contact you if you are a winner in this drawing. This drawing will be closed on May 30th. If the winners cannot be contacted or do not claim the prize within 14 days of notification, I reserve the right to withdraw the prize from the winner and pick a replacement winner

Appendix B: Assigned coding/dummy variables for SPSS

Gender

Male	0
Female	1

Age

18-25	0
26-29	1
30-34	2

Highest level of education

< High school degree	0
High school degree or equivalent	1
Trade school or professional level training	2
Bachelor's degree	3
Master's degree	4
PhD +	5

Level of proficiency in Dutch language (for migrant population)

No Dutch	0
Basic user	1
Independent user	2
Proficient user	3

Migrant status

Native Dutch	0
EU migrant	1

Region of origin

Old member state	0
New member state	1

Employment status

Employed	0
Unemployed	1

Moved in the past to increase employment prospects

Yes	0
No	1

Length of unemployment

< 3 months	0
3-5 months	1
6-8 months	2
9+	3

Willingness to commute and/or move to increase employment prospects

To another city/municipality	0
To another province	1
To another country inside the EU	2
To another country outside of the EU	3

Qualifications

Current job fits qualification level	0
Current job < qualification level	1

Transferability of foreign-acquired qualifications

Foreign-acquired qualifications recognized	0
--	---

Foreign-acquired qualifications unrecognized	1
--	---

Job satisfaction

More unsatisfied than satisfied ($1 \leq x \leq 2$)	0
More satisfied than unsatisfied ($4 \leq x \leq 5$)	1

➤ x = the number of responses that fall in the range of agreement

Appendix C: Selection of meaningful variables with stepwise selection

Part 1.

```
NEW FILE.
DATASET NAME DataSet4 WINDOW=FRONT.
NOMREG VAR00002 (BASE=LAST ORDER=ASCENDING) BY VAR00001 VAR00004 VAR00005
  /CRITERIA CIN(95) DELTA(0) MXITER(100) MXSTEP(5) CHKSEP(20) LCONVERGE(0)
PCONVERGE(0.000001) SINGULAR(0.00000001)
  /MODEL
  /STEPWISE=PIN(.05) POUT(0.1) MINEFFECT(0) RULE(SINGLE) ENTRYMETHOD(LR)
REMOVALMETHOD(LR)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /PRINT=CLASSTABLE FIT PARAMETER SUMMARY LRT CPS STEP MFI.
```

Part 2.

```
DATASET ACTIVATE DataSet3.
NOMREG VAR00001 (BASE=LAST ORDER=ASCENDING) BY VAR00008
  /CRITERIA CIN(95) DELTA(0) MXITER(100) MXSTEP(5) CHKSEP(20) LCONVERGE(0)
PCONVERGE(0.000001) SINGULAR(0.00000001)
  /MODEL
  /STEPWISE=PIN(.05) POUT(0.1) MINEFFECT(0) RULE(SINGLE) ENTRYMETHOD(LR)
REMOVALMETHOD(LR)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /PRINT=PARAMETER SUMMARY LRT CPS STEP MFI.
```