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Transition from School to Work  
among Japanese Youth

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## **Transition from School to Work among Japanese Youth**

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## **Transition from School to Work among Japanese Youth**

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### *Abstract*

This paper examines the process of transition from school to work among Japanese young people. I focus on the role of schools in shaping the unequal distribution of the outcomes of the first job. Previous studies have pointed out the distinctive features of the school-to-work transition among school graduates in Japan; Japanese schools play an active role in assisting students in the job search process. The empirical evidence presented in the paper suggests that there is no apparent decline in the use of the school-mediated system or the effects of using such a system. The school-mediated transition continues to provide assistance to the socially disadvantaged. The students coming from less advantaged social origins and those who were not successful in the early stages of the job search are the people who benefit most from the school-mediated system.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

This paper examines the differential life chances of young people in Japan at the time of significant life course transitions. The two most crucial transitions that young people must experience in their life course are probably transition from school to work and transition from single to married life. For both transitions, recent observations by the mass media and the academics alike emphasize changes in the process of transition (Honda 2005; Brinton 2008; Kosugi 2010). This paper focuses on the transition from school to work, and examines how young people are sorted into different jobs when they move into the labor market for the first time. In other words, school-to-work transition is seen as the process through which social inequality is generated among the young people.

There has been a resurgence of interests in social inequality in contemporary Japan (Chiavacci 2008; Ishida and Slater 2009). Following the economic stagnation which began in the early 1990s, both the media and the academic work emphasize the increased social inequality and economic gaps in Japanese society. Economists have documented the increased level of income inequality since the late 1980s in Japan. For example, one of noted Japanese economists, Toshiaki Tachibanaki, argues in his book *Japan's Economic Inequality* (1998) that the level of income inequality is almost on a par with that of the United States. However, other economists such as Fumio Ohtake (2005) claim that the increased income inequality is primarily the result of the aging of the population. The income inequality did not increase throughout all segments of the society. Instead, the increased proportion of the aged population which tends to show high income inequality was primarily responsible for the overall increase in income inequality.

With respect to social mobility, sociologist, Toshiki Sato, argues in his best-seller *Japan as an Unequal Society*, that intergenerational mobility into the upper non-manual class has declined in the 1990s and that the reproduction of this top class has strengthened. However, Hara and Seiyama (2005), Ishida (2008; Ishida and Miwa 2009), and Miwa (2008) claim that there is stability in the extent of intergenerational class mobility in post-war Japan and that there is no clear evidence of increased closure in the upper non-manual class.

Among the literature about social inequality in Japan, Yuji Genda's *A Nagging Sense of Job Insecurity* (2005) is probably most relevant to our paper. Genda documented the increased uncertainty and job security which was widespread among the younger generation in Japan. In order to maintain the employment security of the older generation, the Japanese younger generation was deprived of promotion chances

and favorable employment opportunities. Indeed, there is a clear increase both in the unemployment rate among youth and in the proportion of young people who are engaged in non-standard forms of employment, such as part-time and non-regular work. There emerges an increased differentiation among the younger population (Honda 2005; Kosugi 2010). Entry into the labor market marks the beginning of the differentiation in the labor market, and the school-to-work transition is the key process sorting young people into differential positions. The transition from school to work is particularly relevant in Japan because of the emphasis on the long-term employment and internal promotion among large Japanese companies (Koike 1988). There is a strong impact of the entry positions on the subsequent life course and occupational trajectories (Ishida 1993).

This paper examines the process of transition from school to work and how social inequality is generated in the process. I argue that institutions, namely schools, can help alleviate the formation of social inequality. My contribution will take the form of analyzing the unique panel data among Japanese youth, and describing the process through which social inequality is generated and reproduced in contemporary Japan.

## **2. TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK**

Japan has been praised for its low level of youth unemployment and the smooth transition from school to work, certainly until early 1990s. Japanese students have been generally successful in moving into the labor market in an orderly fashion, immediately following school graduation. The main reason for this successful transition was ascribed to the active role played by schools in the matching process of students and jobs (Kariya 1991; Honda 2005; Kozugi 2010).

Cross-national comparisons highlight the distinctive characteristics of the Japanese transition from school to work. Table 1 shows cross-national differences in the methods used for finding jobs after school completion from a survey conducted by the Japan Employment and Occupation Institute. In Japan, the overwhelming majority of students used the school placement office. In the US and Britain, advertisements and personal contacts were the most popular methods. The cross-national difference is especially striking among high school.

Previous studies (Kariya 1991; Kariya, Sugayama, and Ishida 2000; Honda 2005) pointed out that Japanese schools played an important mediating role in the process of transition from school to work. I will first focus on the transition from school to work among high school students, and then I will talk about the transition

among college students.

### **School-to-Work Transition among High School Students**

The following five features characterize the School-to-Work transition among Japanese high school students:

- (1) The schedule is highly regulated by the rules set forth by the government.
- (2) The opportunities of employment differ depending on the high school
- (3) Students can only apply to one company at a time.
- (4) Schools select which students can apply to which companies.
- (5) There is a long-term relationship between employers and schools.

These features have their historical origins in the late 1940s (Kariya, Sugayama, and Ishida 2000). So this system has been in place for a long time. Recently, however, the school-mediated system has been subject to criticism (Honda 2005; Brinton 2008; Kosugi 2010).

According to the critics, faced with the economic downturn beginning in the late 1990s, the schools are not equipped to adjust to the changing economic environment. There is not only an increase in the number of young people who engage in part-time and non-regular jobs, but there is also an increase in the number of young people who are neither working nor studying in educational institutions. The critics argue that the role played by schools in the job placement of high school students has completely disappeared since the late 1990s.

Others even argue that schools should not take the responsibility of allocating students, because that violates individual freedom of occupational choice. The idea echoes the neo-liberal orientation of individual freedom and responsibility. I would like to concentrate on the question of whether this kind of school-mediated system still works in contemporary Japan, and whether the system makes a difference in the outcomes, that is, the kinds of jobs students obtain.

Before I move on to present empirical findings, I will first provide some background information. Figure 1 shows the trends of destinations of high school graduates. Getting a job following high school graduation constituted the most popular destination until the 1980s. However, the rate has declined sharply, due to the expansion of the higher education sector during the 1990s, and today about 20 percent of high school graduates obtain full-time jobs and move directly into the labor market.

Figure 2 shows the trends of destinations of high school graduates. Getting a job following high school graduation constituted the most popular destination until the 1980s. However, the rate has declined sharply, due to the expansion of the higher

education sector during the 1990s, and today about 20 percent of high school graduates obtain full-time jobs and move directly into the labor market.

It is, therefore, true that the number and the proportion of high school students who go through the school-mediated job search process have been decreasing, and the labor market for high school graduates has been stagnating in recent times. However, this does not necessarily mean that the school-mediated process has completely broken down, or that the advantages associated with the school-mediated process have disappeared.

### **3. DATA AND VARIABLES**

The data set used in this paper comes from the Japanese Life Course Panel Surveys (JLPS). The first wave JLPS was conducted in Japan from January to April, 2007. It consists of the youth panel (20 to 34 years old) and the middle-aged panel (35 to 40 years old). The 2007 JLPS sampled respondents from the population of men and women aged 20-34 (for the youth panel) and aged 35-40 (for the middle-aged panel) residing in Japan in November 2006, using the electoral and resident registry.<sup>1</sup>

The sampled individuals were first contacted by mail and asked to take part in the survey. The enclosed letter explained that the participants would be followed up after the initial survey. This probably reduced the response rate in the first wave, but it was hoped that those people who agreed to participate in the survey would continue to cooperate, increasing the retention rate. To those who agreed to take part in the survey, the questionnaires were sent by mail, and the staff from a professional survey company visited the respondents to collect the questionnaires. For the youth survey, 3367 respondents returned the questionnaires and for the middle-aged survey 1433 respondents returned the questionnaires. The response rates were 34.5% for the youth survey, and 40.4% for the middle-aged survey.<sup>2</sup>

The second wave of JLPS was conducted from January to March, 2008. It followed up all the respondents who returned the questionnaires in 2007. The initial inquiry mail was sent in December 2007, and the questionnaires were sent in January

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<sup>1</sup> Because the response rates among the youngest people (especially men) are known to be lower than others, we stratified the sample by gender and age group, in addition to the geographical region and city size. We sampled respondents separately for males and females from 20-24, 25-29, 30-34, and 35-40 age groups. For details of the survey, see Ishida et al. 2008 and Ishida et al. 2009.

<sup>2</sup> The response rate is computed by the number of cases which returned the questionnaires divided by the number of sample attacked. Among those who were originally sampled, we excluded those who were dead, or had no correct address, or moved to a different location. Please see Yamamoto and Ishida (2010).

2008. The staff from a professional survey company collected the questionnaires by visiting respondents. For the youth survey, 2719 respondents returned the 2008 JLPS questionnaires, and for the middle-aged survey 1246 respondents returned the questionnaires. The retention rate was 80.1% for the youth survey and 86.9% for the middle-aged survey. Because the questions on school-to-work transition are included in the second wave, our analysis is restricted to the respondents who completed the second wave.

Our main variable school-mediated job search is determined by the following survey question: “how did you get to know and apply to your first job?” The following responses (multiple response) are coded as school mediation: “through the school placement office” and/or “through school teachers”. The school-mediation proportion represents those who found their first job through schools. High school graduates who obtained information through schools, but ended up in jobs which were not introduced by their school, are not included. If the first job was not introduced by the school, the respondent is not classified as someone who used school mediation, even if the student used school services extensively.

As to school-mediation job search for college graduates, in addition to the questions about whether the respondent used school placement office and/or school professors, I distinguish whether the respondents found the first job during the early stage of job search (relying on internet and direct applications). As explained later, because college placement office plays an active role of introducing employers in the later stage of job search among college students, three groups of college students are distinguished: college students who found their jobs in the early stage of job search (thereby without the mediation of school), those who found their jobs in the later stage through the introduction of school, and those who found their jobs in the later stage without school mediation.

Four outcomes of the job search are considered: (1) whether the respondent started working immediately after school graduation in April (timing of the start of the job), (2) whether the first job was something which the respondent desired (first preference), (3) whether the first job was firm with 300 or more employees or public sector (firm size), and (4) whether the first job was regular full-time employment or non-regular forms of employment (employment status).

Social background of the respondent is determined by the father’s employment. Father’s employment status, occupation, and managerial status are used to construct the following five classes: the professional-managerial class, routine non-manual class (clerical and sales), self-employed (urban and farming class), skilled manual class, and

semi- and non-skilled manual class. High school type distinguishes students who attended academic high schools and vocational high schools. High school grade variable is measured by the respondents' subjective grade: very good or good grades versus other grades. Gender of the respondent and panel survey (youth panel and mid-aged panel) are introduced as control variables.

#### **4. FINDINGS ON SCHOOL-TO-WORK TRANSITION AMONG HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS**

Figure 3 shows the proportion of high school graduates in our sample who used schools to obtain their first job after high school. Sixty percent of high school graduates in the middle-aged sample and 53 percent in the youth sample used the school placement office and school teachers to find their first employment. While the younger cohort used it less, the majority of high school graduates of the youth sample still relied on schools in their job search. The evidence is not consistent with the claim that the school-mediated job search has completely disappeared in recent times.

Figure 4 shows the proportion of school mediation by gender. It is clear that female students are more likely to rely on schools than male students. While the mediation rate is the same at 52 percent among males, the rate declined from 66 to 55 percent among females. This result suggests that recent economic downturn affected more the employment opportunities of female high school students than those of male students. Figure 5 shows the proportion of school mediation by school type. Students of vocational high schools generally have a much greater range of job opportunities than those of academic high schools because of the greater proportion of students in vocational high schools directly moving into the labor market. Students of academic high schools generally have options of continuing their education in higher education or technical/vocational schools, in addition to getting a job.<sup>3</sup>

Next, let us examine the outcomes of the job search, and see whether there are any differences between school-mediated searches and non-mediated searches. The first outcome examined is whether high school graduates were able to start working immediately following graduation. Figure 6 shows 97 percent of those who found their first jobs through school, started working on April 1st, immediately following graduation, while the percentages for those who found their first jobs without the assistance of school are much less: 66 percent for the youth sample and 71 percent for

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<sup>3</sup> I do not control for gender and school type in the following analyses because the effects of school mediation work similar ways among both males and females and both students in academic high schools and those in vocational high schools.

the middle-aged sample. Schools seem to help the smooth transition of students.

The second outcome is whether the respondent's first job was his or her first preference (Figure 7). The majority (56 percent of the youth and 58 percent of the middle-aged sample) of those who found their first jobs through school, reported that their jobs were something they desired. The proportion is much smaller for those who did not use the school to find their first jobs: 30 percent of the youth and 37 percent of the middle-aged sample.

Two other types of outcome are considered. The next figure (Figure 8) shows the firm size of the first job. The proportion of those who found first jobs in large firms (those with more than 300 employees) and the public sector is clearly different between graduates who used the school to find jobs and those who did not. However, the difference is greater in the mid-aged sample since the proportion of working in large firms among those who used school mediation is reduced from 48 percent in the mid-aged sample to 40 percent in the youth sample. The result probably reflects the weakening of the effect of schools to recruit large firms due to the downturn in the economy. Finally, the proportion of those who found full-time regular employment is shown according to whether the respondent used the school or not (Figure 9). Among the middle-aged sample, the difference is not very large (8 percent). However, among the youth sample, school mediation makes a large difference. If a high school graduate did not use the school mediation process, his/her chances of finding a regular job were greatly reduced, by more than 30 percent (to 60 percent).

All of these results related to the outcomes of job search lead us to conclude that school mediation offers significantly better job opportunities in contemporary Japan. And the effects of school mediation are still apparent among the young cohort, and there is no clear sign of the effects being reduced in recent period.

Although the effects of school mediation on the four outcomes are striking, there is the possibility that those who used school mediation are already selected kinds of people. For example, if we know that students who used school mediation are those who are abled and had good grades and students who did not use school mediation are those were not successful in academic work, then the effect of school mediation is likely to be overestimated. The effect may simply reflect the fact that students who used school mediation were abled students to begin with and that it is not school mediation which produced the apparent effect. Since school grades are used as one of important criteria for internal selection of students at school, we must consider the possibility that the academic achievement of students is responsible for the effect of school mediation.

Figure 10 shows the relationship between school grades and the use of school

mediation. It is indeed the case that students with above average grades are more likely to use school mediation in their job search than those with lower grades. The question is whether school grade can explain the apparent effect of school mediation. In order to address this question, I examine the effect of school mediation after controlling for gender, cohort, school type, and school grade. These four factors are causally prior to school mediation. By controlling for these factors, we can estimate the net effect of school mediation.

Figure 11 presents the effects of school mediation on the timing of first job after various controls are introduced. The bars indicate the log odds ratios, and they come from running a series of multiple logistic regression models. The bar representing no control implies that the log odds ratio is 2.73. If we take the anti-log ( $e^{2.73}=15.23$ ), we can calculate odds ratio which is 15. This means that without controlling for anything, students who found their first jobs through school mediation are 15 times more likely to start working immediately after graduation than those who found jobs without the assistance of school. As shown in Figure 11, the effects of school mediation hardly change after the introduction of various controls. Even if we control for gender, cohort, school type (academic or vocational), and school grade, the effect of school mediation is 2.63. If we translate this figure into odds ratio ( $e^{2.63}=13.91$ ), students who found their first jobs through school mediation are still 13 times more likely to start working immediately after graduation than those who did not use school assistance.

Figure 12 shows the effects of school mediation on whether the first job was students' first choice. The effect of school mediation changes a little bit from 1.0 to 0.86. If we translate these figures into odds ratio, students who found their first jobs through school mediation are 2.7 times more likely to report that their jobs were their first choice than those who found jobs without school assistance when there is no control. The odds ratio is reduced to 2.4 times when all four factors are controlled. The effect of school mediation on first job preference is much smaller than its effect on timing of start of first job, but it is still significant and does not change by the introduction of control.

Figure 13 presents the effect of school mediation on firm size. Its effect is even smaller than the first two outcomes: school mediation increases the chances of finding employment in large firms by 1.9 times when there is no control and by 1.7 times when all four factors are controlled. However, these effects are statistically significant, and there is very small change after controls. Figure 14 presents the effects of school mediation on employment status. The effect is substantial: school mediation

increases the chances of regular employment by 7.2 times ( $e^{1.97}=7.18$ ) when there is no control and by 6 times ( $e^{1.79}=6.00$ ). All these figures indicate that the effects of school mediation are largely independent of gender, cohort, school type, and most importantly school grade. Although students with good grades are more likely to use school mediation, the benefits of school mediation are apparent both for students with good grades and those without good grades.

We cannot completely rule out the possibility of unobserved heterogeneity between students who used mediation and those who did not. However, at least using the measurements available in the survey (that is, self-reported high school grades), the effects of school mediation are robust and are not greatly affected by factors which are causally prior to school mediation. The effects of school mediation are present regardless of gender, cohort, school type, and high school grades. Schools seem to provide assistance to both men and women, both students in academic and vocational schools, and both students with good grades and not so good grades.

Finally, I consider the question of who actually uses the school-mediated search. In particular, I would like to examine whether the use of the school-mediated job search is related to students' social backgrounds. Figure 15 presents the proportion of those who used schools to find their first job, by the father's social class. Students coming from a manual working class background are more likely to use school mediation than those from the professional-managerial class. The children of the professional-managerial class probably have their own resources and networks, and do not have to rely so much on the schools to secure good entry positions. High school students from more disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely to use the school mediated system and benefit from it.

Young people who move into the labor market after completing high school are those who lack access to further education beyond secondary school. Because enrollment in higher education is closely related to social background, high school graduates are more likely to come from a disadvantaged background than college graduates. So high schools, which mediate the job match process among students, are indeed providing assistance to the most disadvantaged youth in society, and possibly alleviating the negative consequences associated with coming from a disadvantaged background.

In summary, it is true that the number and the proportion of high school students who move into the labor market immediately after high school graduation is shrinking, thereby reducing the number of those who potentially go through school mediated transition. Nonetheless, schools continue to offer guidance in the job search

for high school students, and to provide assistance to socially disadvantaged youth.

## **5. SCHOOL-TO-WORK TRANSITION AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

Now I will discuss the process of transition from school to work among college graduates. Cross-national comparisons highlight the two features which characterize the Japanese process (Table 2). First, Japanese college students begin the job search process well before graduation. According to a survey conducted by the Japan Institute for Labour, 96 percent of Japanese college students began looking for a job more than 3 months before graduation, whereas the average for college students in Europe was only 23 percent.

With regard to the methods used to look for a job as shown in Table 3, 63 percent of Japanese college students used the school placement office, whereas the average for European students was only 17 percent. Japanese college graduates use the resources provided by the placement office extensively, but that does not necessarily mean that they obtain jobs through the assistance of the placement office. The major functions of the placement offices at the college level are to provide information and guidance to students (Nihon Rodo Kenkyu Kiko 2003; Chiavacci 2005; Borovoy 2009; Kariya and Honda 2010).

In recent years, the job search among college students begins in the summer/fall of the junior year – very early. During the summer vacation and the fall semester, college placement offices organize guidance meetings and job fairs for juniors who are about to start the job search process. The process begins with the students applying to different companies by filling out application forms on the internet. The companies select students from among the applicants and give written tests and interviews to a selected group. Placement office assists students by giving advice about filling out the application forms, conducting mock interviews, and providing information about alumni who work in companies where students are interested (Kariya and Honda 2010).

By May (the beginning of the senior year), roughly a third of students receive offers from companies they applied to. Up to this point, the job search process resembles the “free market” model of matching between students and employers. However, there are still students who must continue the job search. At this later stage, the college placement office plays a more active role in assisting those students who were not able to find jobs during the first stage of the job search. The placement office receives announcements of job openings from companies which were not able to fill the positions in the first round. The office selects employers from the list and

recommends them to students who come to the office for assistance. The students will take the recommendations and ask for interviews at these companies. The important difference from the high school placement office is that the college placement office does not usually select the students, but tries to assist everyone who comes to the office. The college placement office recognizes that the students who seek help are those who were not successful in the first round of the job search. So much for the description of the job search process of college graduates.

Figure 16 presents background information about the trends of the destination of college graduates. Getting a job has always been the dominant destination for Japanese college graduates, partly because graduate schools are not sufficiently developed in Japan. Although there was a drop in the proportion of those who got jobs after college in the late 1990s and early 2000s due to the economic downturn, the rates have been on the increase from 2005. Figure 17 shows the rate of job openings in private sector to job applicants for university graduates. The impact of economic recession is visible during the early 2000s and again during the most recent period after 2009.

I would now like to present findings from the Japanese Life Course Panel Surveys. Three groups of college graduates are distinguished: (1) the first group include those who found their jobs in the early stage of the job search and did not use school mediation (this group is composed of about 30 percent of college graduates of our sample) (2) the second group are those who found their job late, but through the introduction of school (comprising about 20 percent), and (3) the third group include those who found their job late without school mediation (which constitutes about a half of college graduates of our sample).<sup>4</sup>

Now the question is whether these three groups have different outcomes of the job search. Figure 18 shows the proportion of college graduates who began working immediately following graduation from college by the three groups. Well over 90 percent of the “Early” group and the “Late with school mediation” group began working immediately after graduation, while the proportion for those who found jobs “Late without school assistance” is much lower, especially in the youth sample where the rate is only 70 percent. The next figure (Figure 19) shows the proportion of college graduates who reported that their first jobs were their first choice. Among the mid-aged sample, the proportions for “Early” group and the “Late with school mediation” group are high at upper 60 percent. However, among the youth sample, the proportion for the “Late with school mediation” group is lower than the “Early” group

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<sup>4</sup> For details of the grouping, see Oshima (2009a, 2009b).

but still higher than the “Late without school assistance” group. A similar pattern is found in Figure 20 which shows the proportion of college graduates who found jobs in large firms and the public sector. The advantage of “Late with school mediation” group over the “Late without school assistance” group is clear in the mid-aged sample, but is diminished in the youth sample.

Figure 21 presents the proportion of college graduates who obtained full-time regular employment. The “Early” group and “Late with school mediation” group both scored high—over 90 percent, in both the youth and middle-aged samples. The “Late and no school mediation” groups had significantly lower figures, especially in the youth sample. All these results indicate that the job outcomes of college graduates who found jobs early in the process and those who found jobs late but with the introduction of schools are clearly better. And the disadvantaged effect of not using the schools at the later stage seems to be larger in more recent period.

Finally, we examine whether the use of the school mediated job search is related to students’ social origin, that is, the father’s social class. The figure is not shown here, because there is no significant association between class background and three groups of college graduates. Those who benefited from the assistance of the school placement office do not come from any particular class background. This suggests that the use of school mediation is not restricted by social background, but is open to all students who required assistance.

In summary, the school-mediated transition was used by college graduates who were not successful in the first round of the job search. School placement offices provide these students with relatively favorable job opportunities. The opportunities seem to be equal to, if not better than, those enjoyed by college students who were successful in the first round of the job search. In other words, school mediation plays an important role in helping students who were disadvantaged early in the job search process. Even though they failed to secure jobs in the first round, they were able to compensate for their early failures with the assistance of the school.

## **6. CONCLUSIONS**

This paper examined the process of the critical transitions for Japanese young people: the transition from school to work. During the transition process, social inequality, or the unequal distribution of life chances, clearly occupied the central place.

I focused on the role of schools in shaping the unequal distribution of the outcomes of the first job. Previous studies have pointed out the distinctive features of the school-to-work transition among high school graduates in Japan. Japanese schools

play an active role in matching students to jobs, and the empirical evidence suggests that there is no apparent decline in the use of the school-mediated system or the effects of using such a system. The school-mediated job placement provides assistance both to men and women, to students graduating from different types of schools, and to students with good grades and those without.

The school-mediated transition continues to provide assistance to the socially disadvantaged. The students coming from less advantaged social origins and those who were not successful in the early stages of the job search are the people who benefit most from the school-mediated system. Critics of the school-mediated system claim that the schools should not take the responsibility of placing students because they interfere with the notions of individual freedom and responsibility. However, these critics do not fully recognize the fact that the students coming from less advantaged social origins and those who were not successful in the early stages of the job search are the people who benefit most from the school-mediated system. Dismantling the system will further disadvantage those who are already disadvantaged in society.

In conclusion, I would like to stress the importance of the role played by institutions in understanding the transition experienced by Japanese youth. Institutions, such as schools, have the potential for affecting the life chances of the individual at particular stages, and breaking the cycle of cumulative disadvantages. It is possible that Japanese schools have contributed to alleviating the reproduction of social inequality and acting as a safety-net for the social disadvantaged.

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	Relatives	Friends	Booklets Magazines	Ads	Public offices	Schools	Private agencies
Japan							
Secondary education	22.4	11.7	4.9	6.6	4.5	62.6	0.9
Higher education	25.1	15.8	19.5	13.0	4.0	59.6	3.4
USA							
Secondary education	41.1	35.5	0.0	45.8	15.7	13.8	8.4
Higher education	38.4	36.1	0.0	56.2	16.4	46.6	14.6
Britain							
Secondary education	37.6	29.8	0.0	48.7	15.2	42.3	25.9
Higher education	18.1	25.0	0.0	68.1	14.7	36.2	21.6

Source: Koyo Shokugyo Sogo Kenkyusho (Employment of Occupation Institute). Seishonen no Shokugyo Tekiyo nikansuru Kokusai Hikaku Kenkyu (International Comparative Study of Occupational Adjustment of Young People) (Tokyo: Koyo Shokugyo Sogo Kenkyusho, 1989)

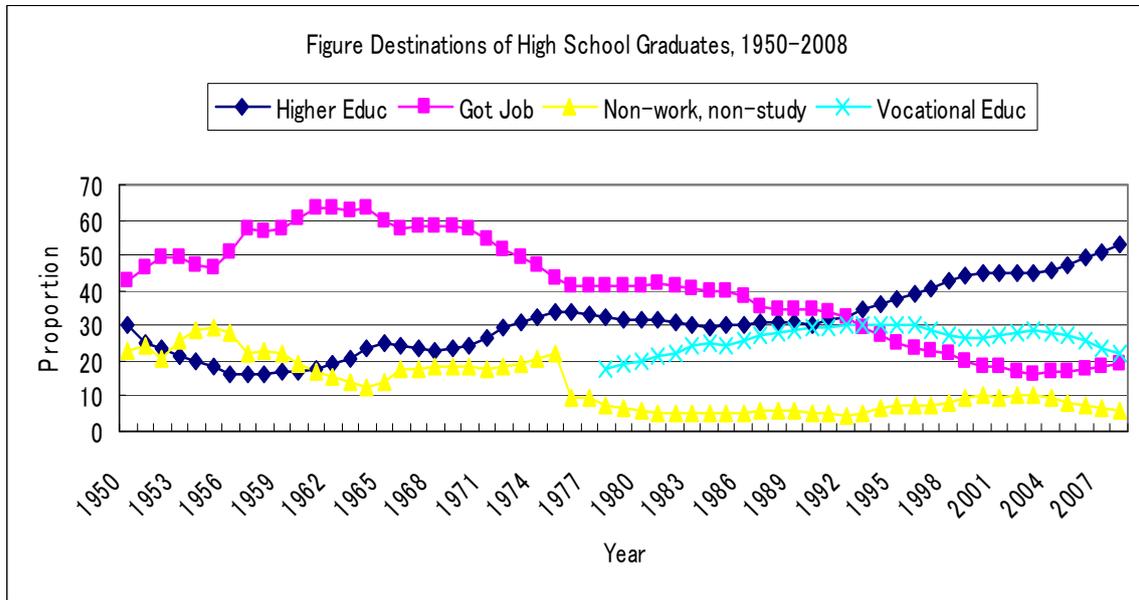
	Italy	France	Germany	Britain	Sweden	All Europe	Japan
When started looking for a job							
more than 3 months before graduation	11.0	8.0	29.0	35.0	25.0	23.0	96.0
1-3 months before	5.0	9.0	19.0	13.0	28.0	18.0	1.0
at the time of graduation	42.0	18.0	34.0	24.0	33.0	32.0	2.0
1-3 months after	25.0	16.0	10.0	12.0	6.0	12.0	0.0
3 months after	17.0	48.0	7.0	15.0	8.0	14.0	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Nihon Rodo Kenkyu Kiko (Japan Institute of Labour) (ed.) Koto Kyoiku to Shokugyo nikansuru Kkusai Hikaku Kenkyu (International Comparative Study of Higher Education and Occupation) (Tokyo: Nihon Rodo Kenkyu Kiko, 2003)

	Italy	France	Germany	Britain	Sweden	All Europe	Japan
Methods of looking for a job (multiple answer)							
Application to an opening	48.0	75.0	74.0	69.0	78.0	71.0	73.0
Direct contact to company	70.0	79.0	60.0	40.0	61.0	57.0	13.0
Advertisement	10.0	24.0	11.0	1.0	1.0	7.0	1.0
Approach from employer	19.0	10.0	12.0	9.0	18.0	15.0	14.0
Public employment agency	40.0	63.0	40.0	26.0	48.0	39.0	13.0
Private employment agency	14.0	16.0	4.0	27.0	-	20.0	13.0
School placement office	10.0	14.0	7.0	37.0	3.0	17.0	63.0
University professors	13.0	6.0	8.0	9.0	5.0	9.0	23.0
Contact while during school	11.0	21.0	28.0	17.0	20.0	21.0	3.0
Personal connection	54.0	39.0	26.0	27.0	25.0	32.0	21.0
Open new business	9.0	2.0	6.0	2.0	-	4.0	0.0
Other reasons	8.0	12.0	10.0	7.0	5.0	9.0	10.0

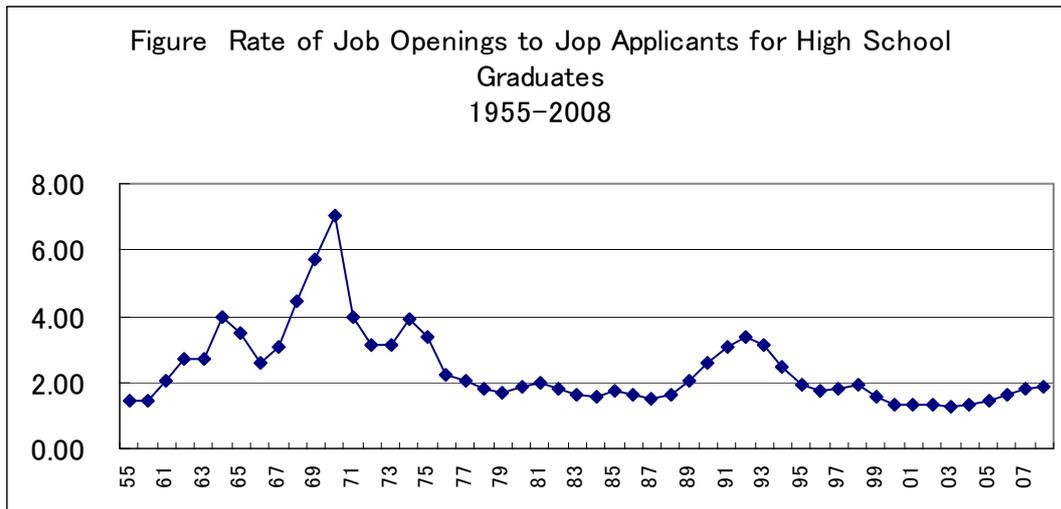
Source: Nihon Rodo Kenkyu Kiko (Japan Institute of Labour) (ed.) Koto Kyoiku to Shokugyo nikansuru Kkusai Hikaku Kenkyu (International Comparative Study of Higher Education and Occupation) (Tokyo: Nihon Rodo Kenkyu Kiko, 2003)

Figure 1. Destination of High School Graduates, 1950-2008



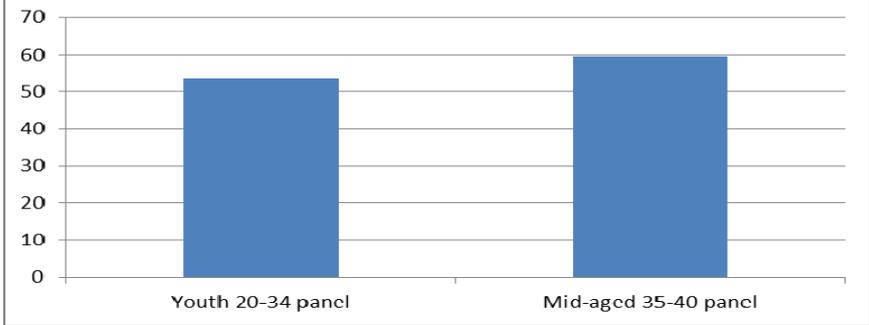
Source: Ministry of Education, *Gakko Kihon Chosa* (Tokyo: Ministry of Education, various years)

Figure 2. Rate of Job Openings to Job Applicants for High School Graduates, 1955-2008

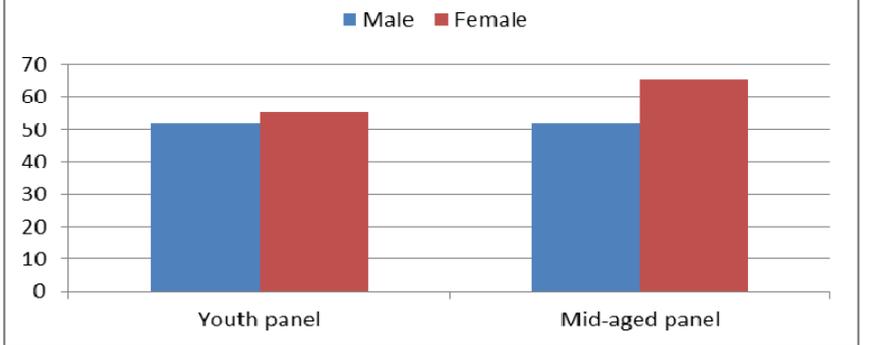


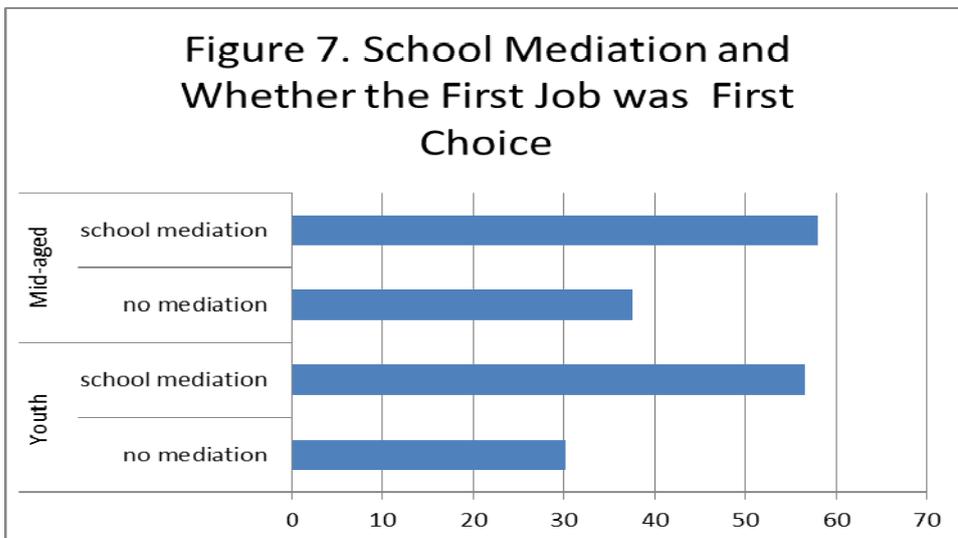
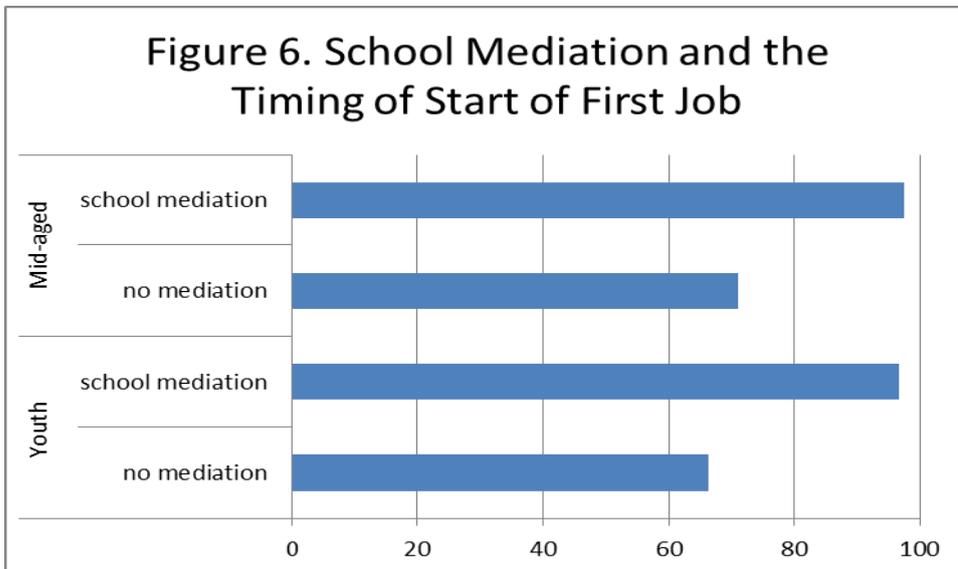
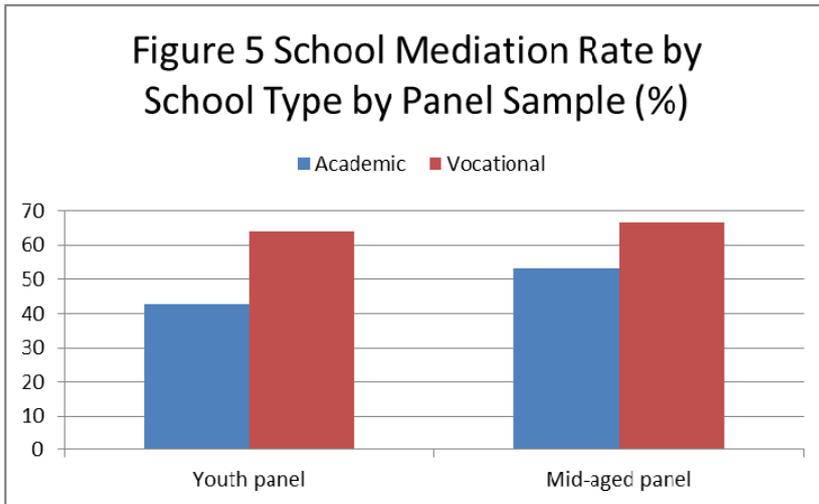
Source: Shokugyo Anteikyoku, Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare, *Shinki Gakusotsusha no Rodo Shijyo* (Tokyo: Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare, various years)

**Figure 3. School Mediation Rate among High School Graduates by Youth and Mid-aged Panel Sample (%)**

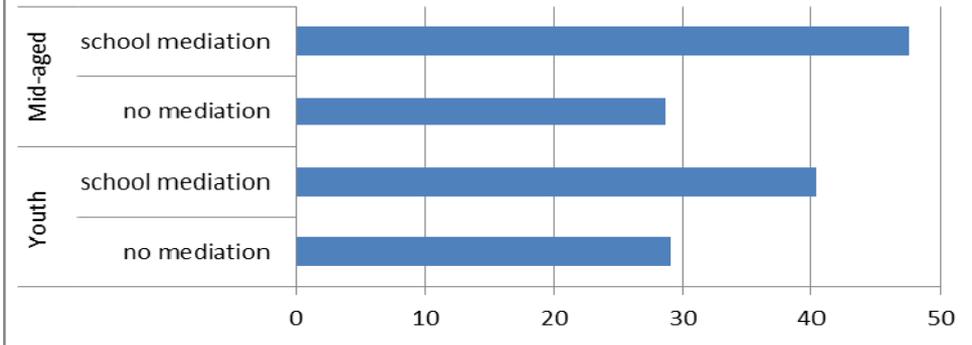


**Figure 4 School Mediation Rate by Gender by Panel Sample (%)**

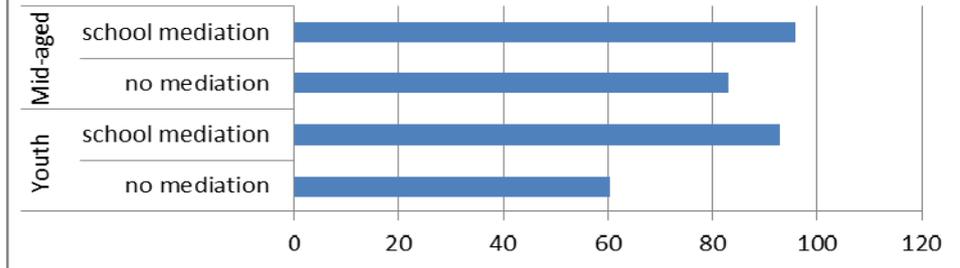




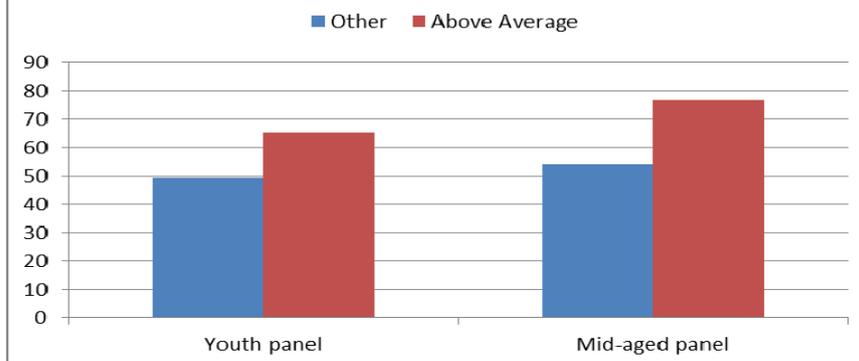
**Figure 8. School Mediation and Firm Size (Proportion of Students Who Work in Large Firms and public sector)**



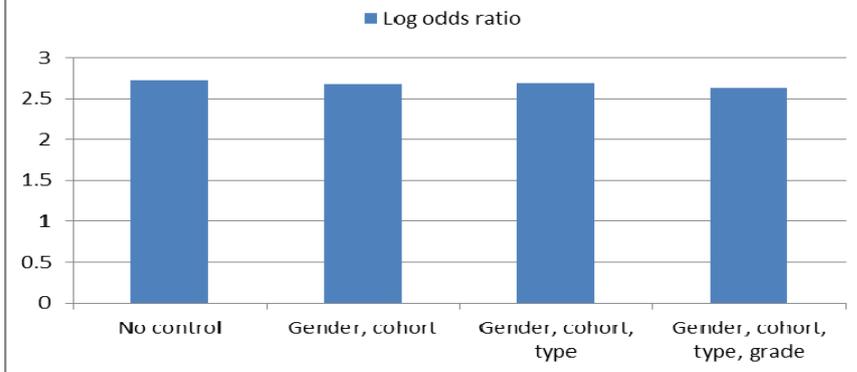
**Figure 9. School Mediation and Employment Status (Proportion of Students who Obtained Regular Employment)**



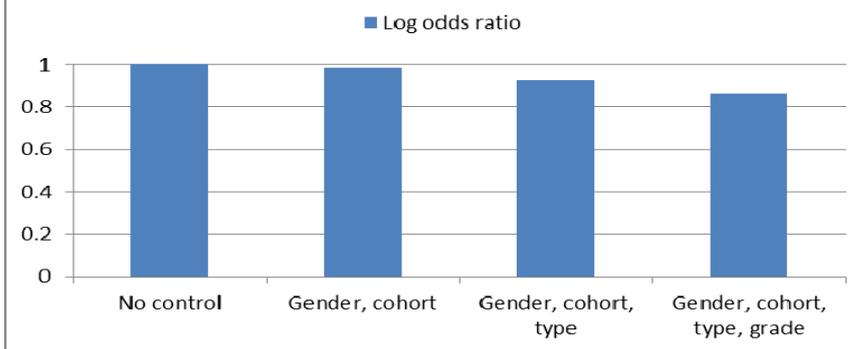
**Figure 10. School Mediation Rate and High School Grade by Panel Sample**



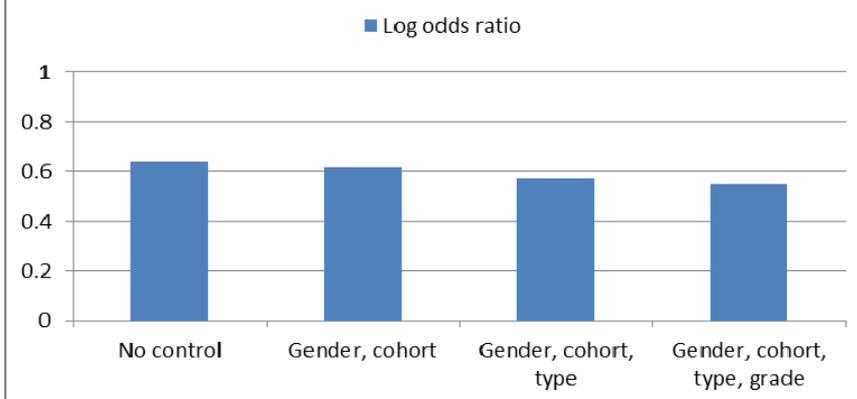
**Figure 11. Effect of School Mediation on the Timing of First Job After Various Control**



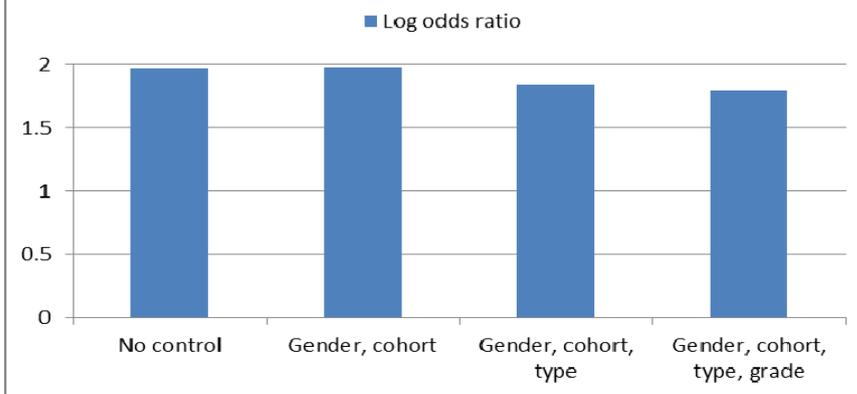
**Figure 12. Effect of School Mediation on First Job Preference After Various Control**



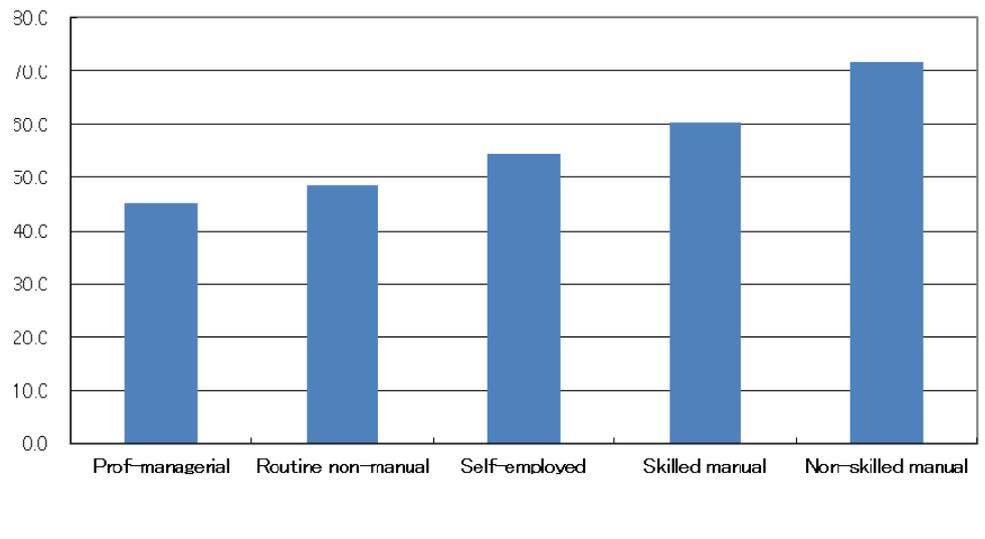
**Figure 13. Effect of School Mediation on Firm Size After Various Control**

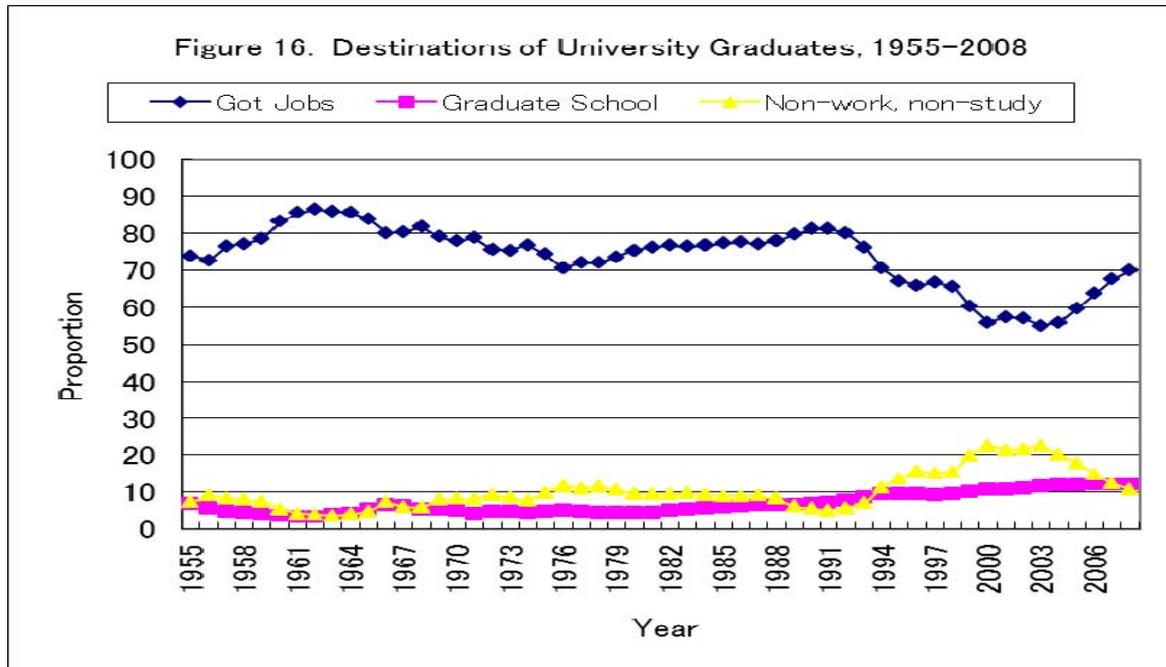


**Figure 14. Effect of School Mediation on Employment Status After Various Control**

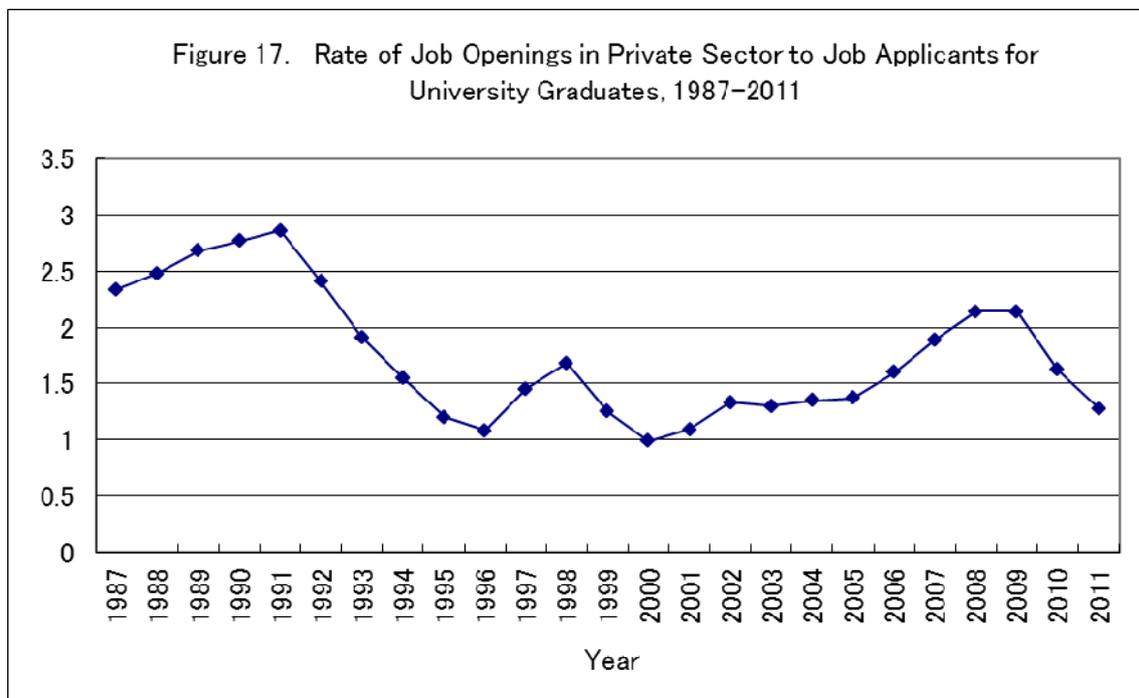


**Figure 15. Social Background and School Mediation**



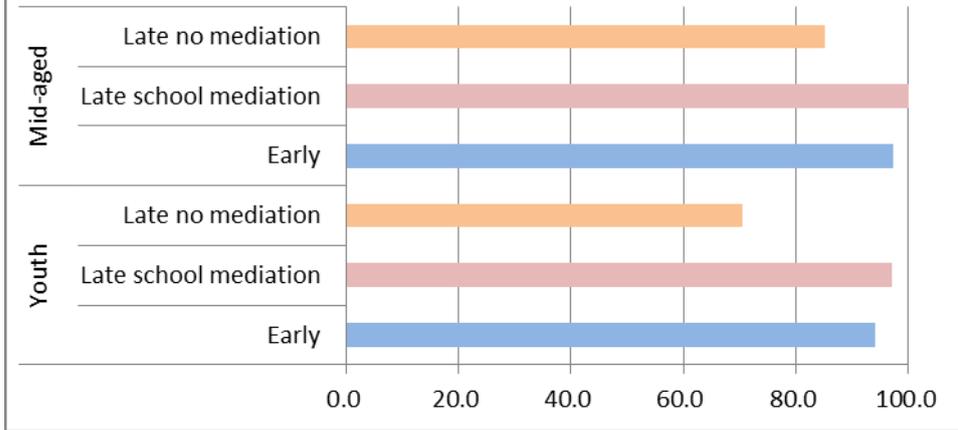


Source: Ministry of Education, Gakko Kihon Chosa (Tokyo: Ministry of Education, various years)

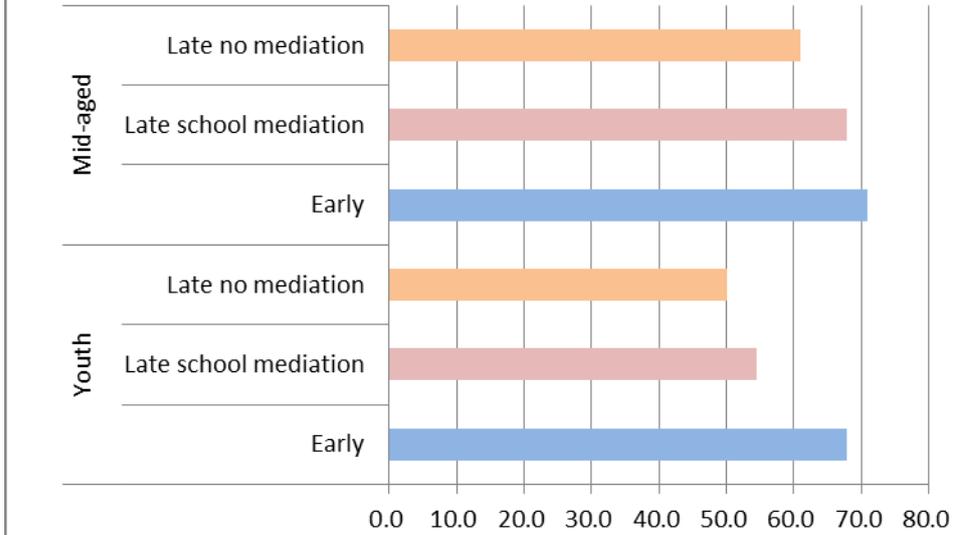


Source: Recruit Company (2010) College Management 163 (July-August 2010) 163, pp.28-31.

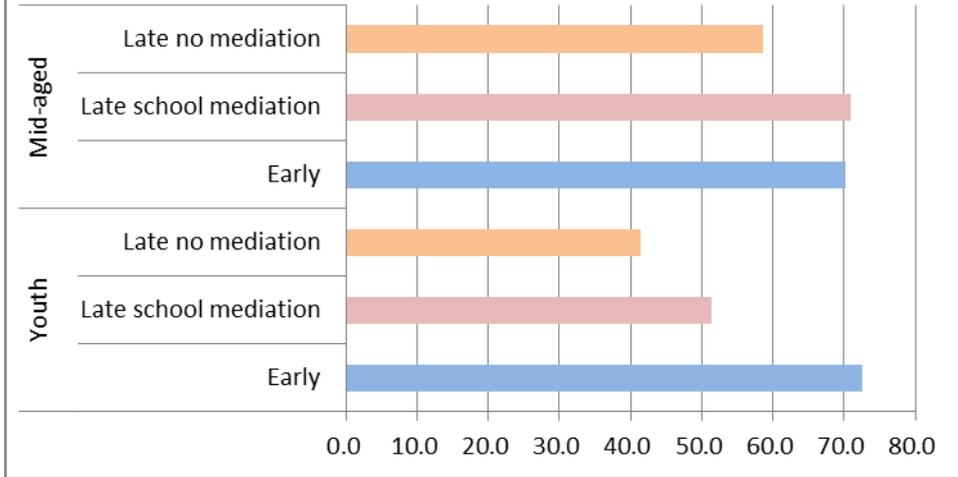
**Figure 18. School Mediation and the Timing of First Job**



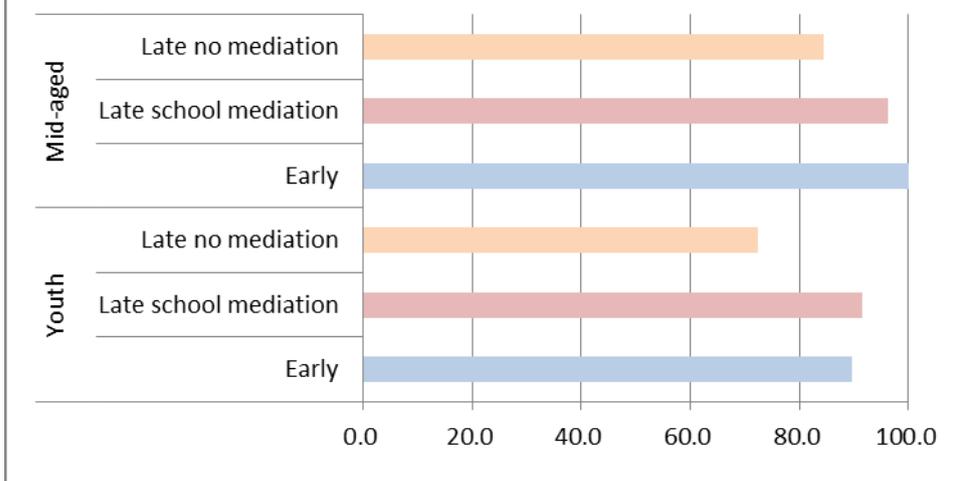
**Figure 19. School Mediation and Whether the First Job was First Choice**



**Figure 20. School Mediation and Firm Size**



**Figure 21. School Mediation and Employment Status**



## 東京大学社会科学研究所パネル調査プロジェクトについて

労働市場の構造変動、急激な少子高齢化、グローバル化の進展などにもない、日本社会における就業、結婚、家族、教育、意識、ライフスタイルのあり方は大きく変化を遂げようとしている。これからの日本社会がどのような方向に進むのかを考える上で、現在生じている変化がどのような原因によるものなのか、あるいはどこが変化してどこが変化していないのかを明確にすることはきわめて重要である。

本プロジェクトは、こうした問題をパネル調査の手法を用いることによって、実証的に解明することを研究課題とするものである。このため社会科学研究所では、若年パネル調査、壮年パネル調査、高卒パネル調査の3つのパネル調査を実施している。

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## 東京大学社会科学研究所パネル調査プロジェクト ディスカッションペーパーシリーズについて

東京大学社会科学研究所パネル調査プロジェクトディスカッションペーパーシリーズは、東京大学社会科学研究所におけるパネル調査プロジェクト関連の研究成果を、速報性を重視し暫定的にまとめたものである。

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三輪哲  
山本耕資  
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