



## **Descriptive analyses of youth transitions in Azerbaijan**

Aynura Hajizadeh<sup>1)</sup>, Rajab Sattarov<sup>1)2)</sup>, Tair Faradov<sup>1)</sup> and  
Michael Gebel<sup>3)</sup>

<sup>1)</sup> International Centre for Social Research (ICSR), Azerbaijan

<sup>2)</sup> Baku State University, Azerbaijan

<sup>3)</sup> University of Bamberg, Germany

**TEW-CCA Working Paper No. 4.1**

Version 1.0

**DISCLAIMER:**

The authors gratefully acknowledge funding for the project “Opportunities and Barriers at the Transition from Education to Work-A Comparative Youth Study in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Tajikistan” (TEW-CCA) from the VolkswagenStiftung for the period 2015–2019; funding initiative “Between Europe and Orient”, call “Institutional change and social practice. Research on the political system, the economy and society in Central Asia and the Caucasus”.

TEW-CCA Working Papers are outputs from the TEW-CCA project aiming at the dissemination of research results of the TEW-CCA project. The series is edited by the project coordinator Prof. Michael Gebel from the University of Bamberg, Chair of Methods of Empirical Social Research.

The published TEW-CCA Working Papers represent the views of the respective authors and not of the TEW-CCA project consortium as a whole. Neither the funding agency Volkswagen Foundation nor the University of Bamberg and the participating universities and research institutes and the providers of the data used in this research bear any responsibility for copyright issues, the analysis and the conclusions of this working paper.

Copyright remains with the authors.

© 2019, Aynura Hajizadeh, Rajab Sattarov, Tair Faradov and Michael Gebel, all rights reserved.

**SUGGESTED CITATION:**

**Hajizadeh, Aynura, Rajab Sattarov, Tair Faradov and Michael Gebel (2019). Descriptive analyses of youth transitions in Azerbaijan. TEW-CCA Working Paper No. 4.1. Bamberg: TEW-CCA Project, University of Bamberg.**

*In memory of Dr. Tair Faradov*

# Contents

- 1. Introduction ..... 5
- 2. Education ..... 7
  - 2.1. Level of education enrolment when leaving education ..... 7
  - 2.2. Rates and reasons for completion and dropouts ..... 8
  - 2.3. Types of education programs and institutional characteristics ..... 11
  - 2.4. Social inequality in education attainment ..... 14
  - 2.5. Working before leaving education ..... 18
- 3. Labor market inactivity, job search and time until finding a first job ..... 25
  - 3.1. Labor market inactivity ..... 25
  - 3.2. Job search methods ..... 27
  - 3.3. Time until finding a first job ..... 28
  - 3.4. Obstacles in finding a first job ..... 33
- 4. Characteristics of first job ..... 35
  - 4.1. Type and quality of first job ..... 35
  - 4.2. Sector of first job ..... 42
  - 4.3. Methods of finding the first job ..... 43
- 5. Early career mobility ..... 46
  - 5.1. First job type and current activity status ..... 46
  - 5.2. Occupational mobility ..... 47
  - 5.3. Sectoral mobility ..... 48
- 6. Timing of life course transitions ..... 50
  - 6.1. Incidence and average age of experiencing central events in the transition to adulthood .. 50
  - 6.2. The timing of leaving education and finding a first job ..... 52
  - 6.3. The timing of leaving parental home ..... 54
  - 6.4. The timing and arrangement of first marriage ..... 58
  - 6.5. The timing of first parenthood ..... 63
- 7. References ..... 66

## List of abbreviations

BA	Bachelor
GBE	General Basic Education
GSE	General Secondary Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
MA	Master
n.a.	Data not available
PhD	Doctoral degree
TEW-CCA	Research project “Opportunities and Barriers at the Transition from Education to Work-A Comparative Youth Study in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Tajikistan” (funded by VolkswagenStiftung)
VET	Vocational Education and Training

## 1. Introduction

This working paper provides univariate and bivariate descriptive statistics on youth transitions in Azerbaijan. It is part of a series of working papers characterizing youth transitions of countries in the Caucasus and Central Asia. It is based on research conducted in the project “Opportunities and Barriers at the Transition from Education to Work – A Comparative Youth Study in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Tajikistan” (TEW-CCA) that was financed by the VolkswagenStiftung in the period 2015–2019; funding initiative “Between Europe and Orient”, call “Institutional change and social practice. Research on the political system, the economy and society in Central Asia and the Caucasus”. The focus is on youth transition from education to work but also related youth transitions such as leaving parental home and family formation (marriage and childbirth) are considered.

As a prior or complementary reading to this descriptive report it is recommended to read the methodological report of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys (Gebel et al., 2019), which offers an overview of the general methodology, specifically the cross-national survey standards, a description of the target group and screening process as well as a detailed theory-driven and evidence based justification and explanation of the general logic and contents of the individual questionnaire. In addition, country-specific explanations of the methodology of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan can be found in the chapter of the methodological report of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey on Azerbaijan (Sattarov et al., 2019), with detailed information on the process of questionnaire adjustments and translation, pretesting, interviewer recruitment and training, sampling procedures, fieldwork management, monitoring and quality control, and response rates as well as the questionnaires (in English, Azeri and Russian). Moreover, it is recommended to read the report on the institutional conditions that are seen as relevant for youth’s transition from education to work and related youth transitions such as family formation in Azerbaijan (Rashidova et al., 2019). It contains an overview of the institutional setting of the education system, the labor market, and the family and welfare regime in Azerbaijan. This knowledge of the country-specific institutional, structural and cultural setting is important to understand the logic of our analysis and operationalizations as well as to read the findings in the specific context of Azerbaijan.

It should be noted that this descriptive report on youth transitions in Azerbaijan is strongly oriented at the first report published by the TEW-CCA research consortium on descriptive analyses of youth transitions in Georgia (Badurashvili et al., 2019). Specifically, some technical explanations and the general framing in the scientific literature are taken word-by-word in order to underline that all reports on descriptive analyses of youth transitions of the TEW-CCA research consortium follow a highly standardized approach and were based on a common template. Hence, also the headings as well as the structure of tables and figures are identical. This should ease the reader to compare results across all reports on descriptive analyses of youth transitions of the TEW-CCA research consortium. The reports, of course, deviate in the description of results for each country.

This descriptive report is restricted to purely descriptive analyses. Next to investigating univariate descriptive statistics selected findings of bivariate relationships are studied. Bivariate analyses focus on key aspects of interest in the TEW-CCA project such as gender inequalities in education and work and other life course transitions, the relationship between education attainment and the job search process, the labor market entry and early career as well as other life course transitions.

Design weights were applied in all descriptive analyses. Specifically, each respondent was weighted with the inverse of the number of eligible persons in the same household. For details on the sampling process see the chapter of the methodological report of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey on Azerbaijan (Sattarov et al., 2019). Whereas univariate analyses might be biased by gender-specific and education-specific unit non-response, the bivariate analyses can be expected to be less biased with respect to non-response patterns as we study the effects of gender and education.

In general, the bivariate analyses should only be interpreted as an associational analysis because no efforts have been made to account for confounding bias and/or endogenous selection bias when

studying the relationship between the independent and dependent variable. Further working papers as well as book chapters and academic journal publications of the TEW-CCA project will become available that aim at a better causal understanding using techniques of multivariate data analyses according to the logic of modern causal analysis. Therefore, we also refrain from giving any policy recommendations based on the descriptive analyses because this requires at least evidence based on multivariate analyses that account for confounding bias and/or endogenous selection bias.

Although the aim of this report is purely to deliver a description, it has not been the aim to study each variable available in the data set. A conscious choice has been made on studying key aspects of youth transition from education to work but also the related youth transitions such as leaving parental home and family formation (marriage and childbirth). The TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan offers even more information than the information that is provided in the following. Future users of scientific use files are encouraged to investigate all this information.

Chapter 2 of this report provides descriptive studies on education in Azerbaijan. After giving a general overview on the level of education enrolment when the respondents left the education system (Section 2.1), Section 2.2 addresses rates and reasons for completion and dropouts in the education career of the respondent. Section 2.3 highlights the types of education programs and institutional characteristics. Section 2.4 investigates various dimensions of social inequality (inequality according to gender, ethnic origin and social origin) in education attainment. In Section 2.5 we describe work activities that respondents performed before leaving education.

Chapter 3 investigates the transition process from education to work after leaving education. Section 3.1 is devoted to the topic of labor market inactivity in terms of its incidence and determinants. As a certain proportion of education leavers, especially, women neither have found a job nor engage in active job search this topic of “school-to-home transition” deserves a special attention. In Section 3.2 we report which kind of job search methods were used by active job seekers in Azerbaijan. In Section 3.3 we study the time elapsed until finding a first job in a dynamic perspective with means of Kaplan-Meier estimates of survivor functions that take the right-censoring of the duration data into account. Section 3.4 highlights obstacles in finding a first job that were reported by the respondents based on their experiences.

Chapter 4 describes the characteristics of the first job after leaving education. In Section 4.1 we differentiate between different types of first jobs in terms of formal (registered) jobs, informal (unregistered) jobs outside the family business, being employee or helper in the family business or starting the working career as an own account worker, self-employed or employer. The quality of first employment is investigated in terms of the type of contract, existence of employer provided free health insurance coverage and the occupational level. In Section 4.2 we characterize the sectoral distribution of first job differentiating various industries as well as the private versus public ownership structure of the company/institution. In Section 4.3 we analyze the method of finding the first job.

Chapter 5 addresses the early career mobility by comparing the first job and the current activity status at the time of the interview (Section 5.1), measuring the occupational mobility between the first and current job (Section 5.3) as well as the sectoral mobility between the first and current job (Section 5.3).

In Chapter 6 we broaden the perspective on the transition from education to work by studying the timing of other life course transitions as well. Specifically, we consider the events of leaving education, leaving parental home, finding a first job, getting married and getting parent for the first time. In Section 6.1 we describe the incidence and average age of experiencing central events in the transition to adulthood. In the following sections we offer more in-depth studies of the various youth transition events. In Section 6.2 we complement our findings from Chapter 2 and 3 by giving information on the timing of leaving education and finding a first job. We study the timing of leaving parental home in Section 6.3, the timing and arrangement of first marriage in Section 6.4 and, finally, the timing of first parenthood in Section 6.5.

## 2. Education

### 2.1. Level of education enrolment when leaving education

Table 2.1 shows the level of education enrolment when the respondents left education. As explained in detail in the methodological report of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys (Gebel et al., 2019) the target group is defined as individuals living at the time of the survey in Azerbaijan and aged 18–35 who finished or stopped formal education in the period from 1 January 2006 till 31 December 2015.<sup>1</sup> Thus, both persons who successfully completed their last education and those who failed/dropped out were included. In the following, we investigate the level of education enrolment when leaving education, i.e. the highest level of education the respondent was enrolled in, irrespectively of whether he or she successfully completed this level or not.

**Table 2.1: Level of education enrollment when leaving education, by gender, column-%**

	Men	Women	Total
Basic secondary	6.4	5.7	6.1
Upper secondary	47.5	40.1	44.1
Initial professional	4.5	2.5	3.6
Secondary professional	9.7	24.4	16.5
Lower tertiary (BA)	27.6	24.0	25.9
Higher tertiary (MA)	3.5	2.9	3.2
Basic university education in medicine (6 years)	0.4	0.4	0.4
Specialized university education in medicine – Rezydentura	0.1	0.0	0.1
Graduate education-Doctorate or Aspirantura	0.1	0.0	0.1

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Overall, there is bipolar education distribution (for a detailed description of the education system of Azerbaijan, see Rashidova et al. (2019)). Around one half of all respondents who leave education just have basic education (6.1%), which lasts for five years (ages 10–15) and ends with a General Basic Education degree (GBE – 9th grade), or upper secondary education (44.1%), which lasts for two to three years (ages 15–16/17) and ends with a General Secondary Education degree (GSE –11th grade). In contrast, almost one third of all respondents reach the tertiary education level. At the tertiary level, Master (MA) studies are very exclusive. Just 3.2% of all respondents studied at the MA level compared to 25.9% who studied at the Bachelor (BA) level. Among all education leavers students from the specific degrees in medicine as well as doctorate and Aspirantura students represent less than 1%.<sup>2</sup> The share of education leavers from professional secondary education just reaches around 20%. There is a clear dominance of secondary professional education, at which 16.5% of all respondents were enrolled, over primary professional education that was just taken by 3.6% of all respondents. Primary vocation education (initial professional education), operated at professional-technical schools, is either offered as a one year program after the GSE (giving access to tertiary education) or as a one to two year program after BSE (without giving access to tertiary education). Specialized vocation education (secondary professional education), operated at colleges and

<sup>1</sup> “Finishing education” has to be interpreted as “successful completion/graduation” of the *last* education program the respondent was enrolled into and “stopping education” has to be interpreted as “failing/dropping out” from the *last* education program the respondent was enrolled into (Gebel & Mandieva 2019).

<sup>2</sup> For this reason and in order to have a clear presentation of results these groups are merged with the group of students from Master studies in the following analyses.



professional lyceums, is either offered as two to three year programs that offer in parallel the GSE (giving access to tertiary education) or as one, two or three year programs after GSE (giving access to tertiary education) (Rashidova et al., 2019).

The gender-specific results in the first two columns of Table 2.1 reveal that a larger proportion of men just reach a lower level of education, such as basic secondary education, upper secondary education or initial professional education when leaving education compared to their female counterparts. Men also surpass women at the tertiary level of education. In contrast, the share of women were much more often enrolled in secondary professional education (24.4% of women compared to just 9.7% of men).

In education research it is argued that education careers are sometimes not in a straight line because people change their field of studies, make several degrees, decide to do secondary professional education after tertiary education (BA, MA, aspirantura, doctorate), or do secondary professional education first and then tertiary education (BA, MA, aspirantura, doctorate). It has been shown that this phenomenon influences the later labor market chances in Germany, for example (Edeling & Pilz, 2017). However, this seems to be a very minor phenomenon in the case of Azerbaijan. Among persons enrolled at secondary professional education, nobody attended tertiary education before. Thus, professional education is not seen as an alternative after completing or dropping out from tertiary education. Among those who were enrolled in lower tertiary (BA) education 3.3% report that they completed another post-secondary education degree in terms of secondary professional degree before going to university. Just 0.7% mention that they have completed another lower tertiary (BA) degree. Among graduate (MA) degree holders 8.1% mention that they completed a secondary professional degree before going to university.<sup>3</sup> Thus, if tertiary students report prior education degrees it is primarily from secondary professional education. According to the structure of the education system of Azerbaijan this may either be a conscious choice to make another post-secondary degree in order to increase labor market chances or it may also just represent a linear track in the education system as a secondary professional degree can also be obtained in parallel to the general secondary degree (GSE), which is needed to qualify for tertiary education.

## **2.2. Rates and reasons for completion and dropouts**

Table 2.2 provides information on the completion and dropout rate by level of education enrollment for female and male education leavers. Overall, the reported incidence of dropouts in the survey is quite low. On average across all education levels, 2.0% of men and 2.1% of women dropout from the last education level they were enrolled in when leaving education. The dropout rate is highest at the lowest education level. 7.8% of men and 20.5% of women who were participated in basic secondary education before leaving education did not complete this education level. Among women the dropout rate is also relatively high at the initial professional education level (2.9%). Among women the dropout rate is also relatively high at higher tertiary (MA/PhD) education level (3.0%).

---

<sup>3</sup> All respondents who reported another degree successfully completed it. Although the question and the answer categories explicitly ask to report unsuccessful further education enrollments as well (Gebel et al. 2019), there might be some underreporting of such unsuccessful previous attempts in the education system. Nevertheless, the figures speak in favor that the phenomenon of non-linear education careers as observed in Western European countries is not of great relevance in Azerbaijan.

**Table 2.2: Completion and dropout rate by level of education enrollment when leaving education, by gender, column-%**

	Men		Women	
	Completion	Dropout	Completion	Dropout
Basic secondary	92.2	7.8	79.5	20.5
Upper secondary	98.1	1.9	98.4	1.7
Initial professional	100.0	0.0	97.1	2.9
Secondary professional	99.4	0.7	99.7	0.3
Lower tertiary (BA)	98.4	1.6	99.4	0.6
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	97.0	3.0	100.0	0.0
Total	98.0	2.0	97.9	2.1

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remark: "Completion" includes the case that the respondent completed the respective education program and obtained a certificate as well the case that the respondent completed the respective education program and has not yet obtained the certificate. The latter case accounts for the phenomenon that the administrative process of handing over the certificate takes some time after graduation. "Dropout" just includes the respondents who attended the respective education level but did not complete it.

Table 2.3 displays reasons for leaving education after successfully completing the respective education level by level of education enrollment and gender. The questionnaire allowed respondents to give multiple reasons. This analysis is restricted to lower levels of education because the graduates from secondary professional, tertiary education were not asked this question because it not meaningful at higher education levels.

**Table 2.3: Reasons for leaving education after successfully completing the respective education level, by level of education enrollment and gender, column-%**

	Basic sec.		Upper sec.		Init. Prof.	
	M	W	M	W	M	W
You were tired of studying	36.2	14.5	15.3	11.4	14.5	6.1
You thought that you cannot succeed in education anymore	48.9	35.5	55.3	41.8	49.3	24.2
Because of the low quality of education	3.2	3.2	3.8	1.7	0.0	0.0
You did not pass the exam that gives access to the next education level	n.a.	n.a.	27.0	36.4	14.5	30.3
There was no school of the next education level nearby	1.1	9.7	6.4	8.0	2.9	12.1
You did not see a reason for further education	22.3	12.9	21.2	13.4	10.1	9.1
You/Your family was not able to pay for your further studies	6.4	3.2	17.6	16.8	18.8	9.1
You wanted to work	13.8	4.8	12.8	2.1	18.8	3.0
You needed to work	30.9	6.5	11.4	0.9	17.4	0.0
You got married	0.0	8.1	0.0	3.9	0.0	33.3
You had to care for other household members	12.8	4.8	2.4	3.0	7.2	0.0
Because of religious or cultural reasons	0.0	4.8	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0
Your family wanted you to stop education	5.3	48.4	4.1	28.7	0.0	24.2
Due to health issues	3.2	1.6	1.2	0.4	0.0	0.0
You went abroad	n.a.	n.a.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Multiple answer categories were allowed, i.e. column-% do not add up to 100%. M – men, W – women, n.a. – answer option was not offered for this education level.

In general, the majority of respondents, specifically among men, claimed that the reasons for not continuing at higher education levels were related to the education system. 36.2% of male basic secondary graduates said they were tired of studying. The share drops the higher the level of education is (male upper secondary graduates: 15.3%, male initial professional graduates: 14.5%). Less female graduates mention being tired of studying. For both men and women many graduates thought they cannot succeed in education anymore. This applies to about half of male respondent and 24 to 42% of female respondents. Interestingly, almost no graduate blamed the low quality of education as a reason for not continuing to higher education. Around one third of female graduates from upper secondary and initial professional education mention that they did not pass the exam that gives access to the next education level. This applies less often to men. Also, women graduates report more often that there was no school of the next education level nearby, which may reflect stronger barriers to geographical mobility to young women than to young men.

Particularly men do not see a reason for further education once they graduate from basic or upper secondary education. For example, 21–22% of male secondary graduates compared to just 13% of female secondary graduates said they did not see a reason for further education.

Especially men claim work-related reasons for dropping out of education. For example, 13-19% of male graduates from lower education levels answered that they wanted to work and 11-31% said that they needed to work. The respective shares just reach low single digit levels for low educated female graduates.

Family related factors are a reason for not continuing further education for women. However, the shares are relatively low among basic and upper secondary graduates, which may be related to their low age, at which only a small share of persons gets married (see Chapter 6). A major obstacle for not continuing education at higher levels is that the family wanted women to stop education. This applies to almost every second female graduate from basic secondary education and around one quarter of every female graduate from upper secondary and initial professional education. In contrast, men from low education levels never blame marriage and rarely blame pressure from the family for not pursuing higher education. Just a few low educated men that they had to care for other household members and this prevented them from continuing in the education system. Health and migration reasons were almost not mentioned among men and women.

Table 2.4 displays reasons for leaving education among dropouts, i.e. those respondents who attended the respective education level but did not complete it. The questionnaire allowed respondents to give multiple reasons. In general, the majority of dropouts claimed that the reasons were related to the school system. 25.0% of all male dropouts and 10.3% of all female dropouts state that they were simply tired of studying and 28.1% (men)/31.0% (women) explained that they thought that they could not succeed in education. Furthermore, 10.3% of female dropouts mention the low quality of education. 21.9% of male dropouts mention barriers in the education system in terms of not passing the exam that gives access to the next level of education as a reason for not completing the education level they were enrolled in. 25.0% of male dropout and 10.3% of female dropouts seemed not having had a long-term perspective in education because they say that they did not see a reason for further education, thus, aiming at other activities such as work in the labor market, care, home duties, etc.

Men also explicitly claim work-related reasons for dropping out of education. For example, 21.9% of all male dropouts answered that they wanted to work and 21.9% said that they needed to work. Family related factors are a major reason for dropping out for women. 37.9% of female dropout identify marriage and 6.9% report care for other household members as reasons for leaving education without completing the last education level they were enrolled in, whereas this is never the case for men. Just a few men (12.5%) refer to care for other household members as the reason for stopping education. Women also often report pressures from the family. 34.5% of female dropouts report that they family wanted them to stop education. In comparison, the share (9.4%) is

much lower for male dropouts. Men also sometimes mention health problems (9.4%) and the reason of moving abroad (6.3%), while these reasons are not reported among women.

**Table 2.4: Reasons for leaving education among dropouts, by gender, column-%**

	Total	
	M	W
You were tired of studying	25.0	10.3
You thought that you cannot succeed in education anymore	28.1	31.0
Because of the low quality of education	0.0	10.3
You did not pass the exam that gives access to the next education level	21.9	0.0
There was no school of the next education level nearby	0.0	0.0
You did not see a reason for further education	25.0	10.3
You/Your family was not able to pay for your further studies	0.0	3.4
You wanted to work	21.9	0.0
You needed to work	21.9	0.0
You got married	0.0	37.9
You had to care for other household members	12.5	6.9
Because of religious or cultural reasons	0.0	3.4
Your family wanted you to stop education	9.4	34.5
Due to health issues	9.4	0.0
You went abroad	6.3	0.0

*Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.*

*Remark: Due to the overall small number of dropouts the analysis of reasons for dropping out of education were not differentiated by the last education level enrolled in. Multiple answer categories were allowed, i.e. column-% do not add up to 100%. Due to the overall small number of dropouts the analysis of reasons for dropping out of education were not differentiated by the last education level enrolled in.*

### 2.3. Types of education programs and institutional characteristics

Table 2.5 offers information on the organization and duration of training by the level of professional education enrolment. Specifically, the organizational arrangement of the vocational training is seen as a policy-relevant factor that is expected to affect the transition from education to work (see Chapter 3 and 4) (Breen, 2005; Kogan et al., 2011; Noelke & Horn, 2014; Shavit & Müller, 2000; Wolbers, 2007). We find that at initial professional level 50% of the education leavers received solely/mainly school-based vocational training, whereas 41% were enrolled in the dual system of vocational training (, i.e. the combination of school and work place based training) and 9% mainly got trained at the work place. The shares slightly deviate at the secondary professional level, where the majority of persons experienced the dual system of vocational training (54%). Compared to initial professional education, the shares of school-based vocational training (42%) and work place based vocational training (4%) were smaller at the secondary professional education level.

As can be seen in the lower part of Table 2.5 there are clear differences in the duration of VET at the initial and secondary professional level. VET programs at initial professional level are of shorter duration, lasting from one to three years according to the respondents. Many youths (35%) just get a short term-VET of one year duration or a medium-term VET of two years duration (54%) at the initial professional level. The shortest reported duration of secondary professional education was two years (13% of respondents). Typical durations of secondary professional education were three years (41%) and four years (43%).

**Table 2.5: Organization and duration of training, by level of professional education enrollment**

	Init. Prof.	Sec. Prof.
<i>Organization of training</i>		
Vocational education mainly (or solely) school based	50	42
Combination of school and work place	41	54
Vocational education mainly work place based	9	4
<i>Duration of VET</i>		
1 years	35	0
1.5 years	1	0
2 years	54	13
2.5 years	2	1
3 years	8	41
3.5 years	0	2
4 years	0	43
Don't know/refusal	1	0

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Besides the vertical level of education, the horizontal line of education differentiation across the field of study is important for those attending any post-secondary education. The field of study has been shown to be an important institutional dimension of horizontal differentiation in the post-secondary education system affecting the transition from education to work (Kogan et al., 2011; Noelke et al., 2012; Baranowska-Rataj & Unt, 2012). Table 2.6 shows the distribution of field of studies by the level of post-secondary education enrollment and gender. Among women the dominant field at all post-secondary education levels is education. At the secondary professional education level 45% of women were enrolled in the education field. This share is even slightly higher at the lower level of tertiary (BA) education (48%) but smaller at higher tertiary (MA/PhD) education (31%). Many women were also enrolled in the social sciences, business and law. While this share ranges around 20% at the secondary professional and the lower tertiary (BA) level, the share even reaches 36% at the graduate level of tertiary education. At the secondary professional and graduate level 13% of women participated in health and welfare studies but these fields did not play any role at the lower tertiary (BA) level (2%).

**Table 2.6: Field of study, by level of post-secondary education enrollment and gender, colum-%**

	Sec. Prof.		Low. Tert.		High. Tert.	
	M	W	M	W	M	W
Education	13	45	11	48	2	31
Humanities and Arts	10	8	8	16	9	11
Social sciences, business and law	30	20	43	17	44	36
Science	8	9	11	12	12	9
Engineering, manufacturing and construction	12	1	21	4	8	0
Agriculture	1	2	2	1	0	0
Health and welfare	5	13	1	2	14	13
Services	21	2	4	0	12	0

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

The distribution of field of studies differ substantially for young men. They were primarily enrolled in social sciences, business and law, which share is ranging from 30% at the secondary professional level to 44% at the higher tertiary level of education. Young men also clearly dominate the study fields of engineering, manufacturing and construction as well as services. In contrast to women, the education fields are of minor importance for male post-secondary students in Azerbaijan. Interestingly, the gender composition of the fields humanities and arts as well as science is quite balanced in Azerbaijan, which is different from the typical observation in other countries.

Table 2.7 gives insights into the study arrangements, sources of funding and ownership of education institutions at the post-secondary education level. The distinction of full-time, part-time and per correspondence studies is seen as relevant for the transition from education to work since part-time and per correspondence students tend to have less time to follow skill instructions due to the double burden of studies and work, care or other obligations (Gebel & Baranowska-Rataj, 2012). In terms of study arrangements the great majority of post-secondary students (83-87%) follows full-time studies. Just a minor proportion studies in part-time, which share is relatively highest at the lower tertiary level (16%). Studying per correspondence, which was more popular during Soviet times and the early years of the transformation period, lies below the level of 1%.

Sources of funding and ownership of education institutions capture the privatization and marketization of education, which is seen as an additional line of differentiation in the education system (Gerber & Cheung, 2008; Shwed & Shavit, 2006; Gebel & Baranowska-Rataj, 2012). Sources of funding differ between the levels of post-secondary education enrolment. At the secondary professional level and the higher tertiary level (MA/PhD) 61–62% receive state-budgeted financing for their studies, whereas 37–38% of students have finance the studies at this level themselves or get it financed by their parents. The opposite situation is observed at the lower tertiary (BA) level, where the majority of students (61%) rely on personal or familial resources to pay for their studies, whereas only 39% of the students get financed by the state.

**Table 2.7: Study arrangement, source of funding and ownership of education institution, by level of post-secondary education enrollment, column-%**

	Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert.	High.Tert.
<i>Study arrangement</i>			
Full-time student	87	83	85
Part-time student	13	16	15
Per correspondence	0	0	0
<i>Source of funding</i>			
State budgeted financing	62	39	61
Paid by yourself or parents	37	61	38
Don't know/refusal	1	0	1

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Regarding the ownership of the education institution attended by students it turns out that the overwhelming majority of 89% to 95% is in public higher education institutions (HEI) at the post-secondary level (see Table 2.8). The share of private HEI is relatively highest at the lower tertiary education level with 11%. Additional analyses (not displayed in Tables) reveal that secondary education institutions and initial professional education institutions attended by the respondents were all public. Thus, the privatization of education has not yet proceeded very much in Azerbaijan and the education system is predominantly in public hands.

**Table 2.8: Ownership of education institution, by level of post-secondary education enrollment, column-%**

	Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert.	High.Tert.
Public education institution	95	89	95
Private education institution	5	11	5

*Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.*

## 2.4. Social inequality in education attainment

Table 2.9 presents results on various dimensions of social inequality in education attainment. Education attainment, in contrast to education enrollment (see Chapter 2.1), is defined as the highest level of education successfully completed when leaving education. Hence, respondents who dropped out from education, i.e. without successful completion, were assigned the prior education level they attended.<sup>4</sup>

The gender-specific results in the first two columns of Table 2.9 reveal that a larger proportion of men just reach a lower education degree, such as basic secondary education, upper secondary education or initial professional education when leaving education compared to their female counterparts. Men also surpass women at the tertiary level of education. The share of lower tertiary (BA) degree holders and higher tertiary (MA/PhD) degree holders is slightly larger among men. In contrast, the share of women with secondary professional education degrees is much higher (24%) compared to men (10%). Small differences are also visible according to the ethnic origin of the respondent. In the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan 89% of the respondents define themselves as Azerbaijani. The largest ethnic minority groups among the respondents are Talish (4.9%) and Lezgi (3.1%). Bivariate analyses reveal that ethnic minorities are slightly overrepresented with regard to basic and upper secondary degrees, whereas fewer of them reach the professional and tertiary education level.

Next to gender and ethnic inequalities in education attainment we study the influence of the family of origin on educational attainment. Specifically, we investigate correlations of parental education, employment and occupation status and wealth with the education attainment of the respondent. The questions on the parental background refer to the parental situation at the age of 15 of the respondents. This is a proxy measure for the situation at the parental home during the childhood and youth (for a detailed justification of the timing of measurement and indicators used, see (Gebel & Mandieva (2019)).

<sup>4</sup> That is, basic secondary dropouts were coded as primary education. Upper secondary dropouts were coded as basic secondary. Initial professional dropouts would have been coded as basic secondary if their prior level of education was basic secondary education or incomplete upper secondary education (grade 10). However, this case did not occur. Instead, there was just one initial professional dropout that was coded as upper secondary education because this respondent reported upper secondary education (grade 11) as prior level of education. The same logic applies to secondary professional education. In the sample there are only secondary professional dropouts that reported that they attended secondary education before going to secondary professional education and, thus, they were recoded as upper secondary education. The lower tertiary (BA) dropouts all reported that their last level of education was upper secondary education and not professional education such that they were coded as upper secondary education. Higher tertiary (MA) dropouts were coded as lower tertiary graduates (BA).

**Table 2.9: Social inequality in education attainment, row-%**

	<=Basic sec.	Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof.	Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert.	High. Tert.
<i>Gender</i>						
Men	7	47	5	10	27	4
Women	6	40	2	24	24	3
<i>Ethnic origin</i>						
ethnic majority	7	43	4	17	26	4
ethnic minority	8	51	3	15	21	3
<i>Highest level of parental education</i>						
Basic secondary or less	22	52	4	22	0	0
Upper secondary	11	61	3	12	12	1
Initial or secondary professional	8	38	5	21	25	2
Tertiary education	1	27	3	18	44	8
<i>Parental wealth</i>						
fairly well off/well	5	29	2	17	40	7
around the average	6	41	4	18	27	4
fairly poor/poor	10	55	4	13	16	1
<i>Father's employment and occupation</i>						
Employee ISCO 1-2	2	26	2	17	44	10
Employee ISCO 3-4	3	34	2	16	41	5
Employee ISCO 5	7	50	5	15	21	2
Employee ISCO 6	7	62	1	15	14	1
Employee ISCO 7-9	7	47	5	18	20	2
Own account worker/self-empl/employer	10	50	5	13	20	2
Unemployed	9	37	2	20	31	0
Home duties	–	–	–	–	–	–
Unable to work due to illness	12	59	2	14	10	4
Retired	–	–	–	–	–	–
<i>Mother's employment and occupation</i>						
Employee ISCO 1-2	1	24	1	18	46	10
Employee ISCO 3-4	5	27	6	22	36	4
Employee ISCO 5	11	42	5	15	16	11
Employee ISCO 6	5	68	3	14	9	1
Employee ISCO 7-9	14	48	3	18	14	3
Own account worker/self-empl/employer	16	48	7	13	16	0
Unemployed	–	–	–	–	–	–
Home duties	8	47	4	15	23	2
Unable to work due to illness	–	–	–	–	–	–
Retired	–	–	–	–	–	–
<i>Number of siblings</i>						
0 siblings	9	39	1	20	27	3
1 sibling	5	40	3	16	31	5
2 siblings	8	44	4	18	24	3
>=3 siblings	7	52	5	15	19	3
<i>Living arrangements during childhood</i>						
Lived with two parents	7	44	4	16	26	4
Lived with less than two parents	11	42	3	20	22	2

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.



*Remarks: Definition of ISCO levels: legislator, official, manager (ISCO 1), professional (ISCO 2), technicians, associate professional (ISCO 3), clerk (ISCO 4), service workers, shop or market sales workers (ISCO 5), skilled agricultural or fishery workers (ISCO 6), craft and related trades workers (ISCO 7), plant, machine operators and assemblers (ISCO 8), elementary occupations (ISCO 9). Results for some parental activity types not displayed (“–”) in case of too small number of cases.*

The first dimension of parental resources we consider is parental education, which can be mainly seen as a measure for cultural capital that provide information advantages and support for young people to pursue a successful academic and work career. In the following bivariate analyses we consider parental highest education level, being it the one of the mother or the father. A strong degree of intergenerational inheritance of education degrees is visible. 22% of respondents whose parents had a basic secondary education degree at maximum also end up in the lowest education group, whereas this applies only to 1% of the respondents with at least one parent with tertiary education. 61% of the respondents with the highest parental degree of upper secondary education attain the same education level. This share is much lower among those with higher parental education degrees. Similarly, there is the pattern of intergenerational transmission of professional education attainment. The share of initial and secondary professional education degrees is highest among persons whose parents had a professional degree as the highest education degree. The only exception are persons with the lowest education background who have an even a slightly higher probability of attaining secondary professional education, which reveals some upward mobility in education attainment across generations. However, less than 1% of respondents with parents from the lowest education group manage to get to tertiary education. The probability of tertiary education attainment raises sharply with the highest level of parental education. For example, 44% of persons whose parent(s) reached tertiary education also acquire a BA degree, whereas this applies to just 12% of those respondents with parents with upper secondary education.

The advantages of persons from privileged family of origins are also visible with regard to the association of parental wealth and education attainment, although to a weaker extent than for parental education. Parental wealth can be seen as a measure of parents’ economic capital. Respondents were asked to subjectively assess the overall financial situation of the family when he or she was 15 years old. Five answer categories were distinguished that were merged to (fairly) well, average wealth and (fairly) poor wealth. Next to parsimoniousness the reason for merging categories was that 62% of respondents defined themselves as coming from average wealth backgrounds. Results displayed in Table 2.9 show that, for example, respondents who assessed the financial wealth of their parents as (fairly) poor ended up in basic education (10%) twice as often as respondents who reported a (fairly) well parental wealth. The opposite picture emerges at tertiary level, where respondents from richer families reach BA degrees (40%) and MA/PhD degrees (7%) more often than respondents from families of average financial wealth (BA: 27%, MA/PhD: 4%) and respondents from poorer families (BA: 16%, MA/PhD: 1%). Discrepancies according to financial wealth are slightly less pronounced at the professional education level.

There is a relationship between parent’s employment and occupation situation and the education attainment of the respondent. Parent’s employment and occupation position can also be seen as a measure of the economic capital but also social capital of the family of origin when it comes to analysis of education attainment. Among respondents whose father was employed, it is found that the lower the ISCO level, the higher is the probability of ending up with basic or upper secondary education and the lower is the probability of reaching tertiary education. For example, 44% of respondents whose father was legislator, official, manager (ISCO 1) or professional (ISCO 2) and 41% of respondents whose father was technicians, associate professional (ISCO 3) or clerk (ISCO 4) reached a BA degree whereas the share was just 20–21% for respondents with fathers working as service workers, shop or market sales workers (ISCO 5), craft and related trades workers (ISCO 7), plant and machine operators and assemblers (ISCO 8) or elementary occupations (ISCO 9). The share of BA degrees (14%) is even lower among those whose father worked as skilled agricultural or fishery

workers (ISCO 6). In contrast, there is no clear association between father's ISCO level and the attainment of professional education. The main patterns are similar for the association of mother's ISCO level and the education attainment of the respondent. Respondents whose father or mother were own account workers, self-employed or employers had on average lower chances of getting a tertiary degree and higher risks of just getting a basic or upper secondary degree. More detailed analyses on this group (not shown in Table 2.9) reveal that this negative association is dominated by own-account and self-employed parents working as farmers/herders, craftsmen, shopkeepers, petty traders and street sellers, whereas the very small share of respondents with parents working as self-employed professionals or managers or owners of companies resemble more the pattern of respondents with employed parents of ISCO 1 and ISCO 2 level. Having an unemployed father, a father who was unable to work due to illness or a mother engaged in home duties tend to reduce the chances of getting a tertiary degree and increases the probability of having a upper secondary degree or less.

Next we consider the association between the number of siblings and education attainment. Siblings are expected to matter in the competition for parental resources that are relevant for education success. The more siblings a young person has the less resources should be available for him or her. Table 2.9 shows that the larger the number of siblings the higher is the probability that respondents possess a upper secondary degree or initial professional education degree. The opposite relationship exists at the secondary professional and lower tertiary (BA) level, which are less often attained by persons with more siblings. This clear cut association between the number of siblings and education attainment is not visible at the lowest education level of basic secondary degrees as well as the highest education level of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) degrees.

A related measure is the question on with whom the respondent spent most of her/his childhood up to age 15. In the following analyses we distinguish between those spent all or the majority of this period with both parents and those who did not. Growing up with less than two parents can be seen as proxy for fewer parental resources *ceteris paribus* because there is only one or no parent providing resources. It can also be seen as an indicator of disruptive life course events such as divorce or death of a parent that may have detrimental effects on the education attainment. We find that growing up with less than two parents is associated with slightly higher probabilities of leaving education with lower education degrees, and vice versa, lower probabilities of reaching a higher education degree. For example, 11% of respondents who grow up with less than two parents have a basic secondary degree or less, whereas this applies to only 7% of the respondents who lived with two parents. Another example is that the share of BA degree holders is lower among respondents who grow up with less than two parents (22%) compared to those who had both parents at home (26%).

Table 2.10 presents findings on the type of access exams for post-secondary education and the points reached in national exam. The great majority of students got access to the respective post-secondary education level via national exams. 83% of secondary professional students, 85% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) students and even 94% of lower tertiary (BA) students passed a national exam to get access to the respective post-secondary education level. Just 5% of lower tertiary (BA) students, 12% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) students and 14% of secondary professional students entered the respective education level via entry exams organized by the specific institutions they wanted to enroll at.

Regarding the performance in the national exam, one must take into account that the scaling differs between education levels. Thus, the grade distribution cannot be compared across education levels. In the past, national exams usually had a 200-point and in recent years mainly a 300-point scale for access to secondary professional education level. Given this change in scale the points in national exams are difficult to compare even within the group of secondary professional students. For access to lower tertiary (BA) education the maximum score level is 700. Higher tertiary (MA/PhD) students report the points they received for accessing the MA level, which is again another scale. Given the

limitations of comparability the results on the grade distribution in Table 2.10 are not further discussed.

**Table 2.10. Access exams for post-secondary education and points in national exam**

	Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert.	High.Tert.
<i>Access to post-secondary education</i>			
National exam	83	94	85
Entry exam required	14	5	12
No exam was required	3	1	3
<i>Points in national exam</i>			
100-200	50	3	
201-300	41	19	
301-400	6	37	
401-500	1	29	
501-600	0	10	
Over 600	0	2	
Don't know/refusal	2	0	
<i>Points in national exam (access to MA)</i>			
51-63			46
Over 63			50
Don't know/refusal			4

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

## 2.5. Working before leaving education

There is a debate in literature whether “working while in school” is bad as it may distract students from being a good student or good as young people acquire work experience, skills and social contacts as well as getting familiar with cultural codes, behavioral patterns and habits in the world of work that may help with the integration in the labor market after leaving education (Jacob et al., 2018; Weiss et al., 2014). It may also act as a signal of unobserved characteristics that are valued by employers (Nunley et al., 2016). Against this background we will describe the incidence, timing, duration and characteristics of working before leaving education in Azerbaijan in the following. Multivariate analyses on the determinants and consequences of working before leaving education shall be the aim of future studies.

In this section we study any kind of employment activities the respondents performed before finishing or stopping formal education. Collecting information on working in parallel to education or in periods of interrupting education is seen as important because increasing shares of young people continue their educational career beyond compulsory schooling entering an age when they are available for work next to their studies (Roksa & Velez, 2010; Wolbers, 2003). In the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan we apply a broad conception of work that includes any kind of paid/unpaid registered/unregistered work in family businesses, private businesses or in public sector or work as an own account worker/self-employed/employer.<sup>5</sup> In addition, periods of informal

<sup>5</sup> A “registered/formal employee” means that income taxes are paid either by the employer or employee. “Unregistered/informal employee” means that income of the employee is not taxed. For all types of work it does not matter if someone earns monetary or non-monetary income.

apprenticeship (that is not organized in a formal vocational program) and internships/traineeships are covered as well. However, vocational training received in formal vocational education as well as housework, which was done outside family businesses, are not counted as work episodes to be reported.

Table 2.11 offers an overview on the overall incidence of work before leaving education for various gender and education groups. The incidence is calculated at the individual level. Overall, 17.0% of men and 8.1% gained some work experience before they left education.

**Table 2.11: Overall incidence of work before leaving education, by gender and education, row-%**

	%
<i>Gender</i>	
Men	17.0
Women	8.1
<i>Education</i>	
Basic secondary	5.9
Upper secondary	7.1
Initial professional	22.9
Secondary professional	13.2
Lower tertiary (BA)	20.2
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	33.0

*Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.*

*Remarks: Incidence is calculated at the person level.*

The incidence is higher among higher educated persons, which can be attributed to the higher age of leaving education among high educated persons. Only 5.9% of persons with basic secondary education and 7.1% of persons with upper secondary education gained work experience before leaving education. The share of persons with working experience (outside the formal vocational program) before leaving education is much higher among those with initial professional education (22.9%). A similar incidence is reached among students with lower tertiary (BA) degrees. In contrast, just 13.2% of secondary professional graduates reported any work experience, which is not organized in the formal vocational program, before leaving education. Higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates have the highest incidence of working before leaving education. Every third higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates worked before the date of leaving education.

Table 2.12 offers more detailed information on the types of work, periods of work and reasons of work that is done before leaving education. The analyses refer to the sample of reported work spells before leaving education, i.e. one person may contribute to the analysis with several work spells. The analyses are differentiated by various gender and education groups.

In terms of types of work there is a gender-specific pattern as the majority of spells reported by women refer to formal/registered employment (52%), whereas informal/unregistered work arrangements are the dominant form of work for men (56%). Work in family businesses plays only limited role. Work as an employee/helper in agricultural family business is more common (4% of work spells reported by men and 6% of work spells reported by women) than work experiences as an employee/helper in non-agricultural family business (3% of work spells reported by men and 1% of work spells reported by women). Overall, the share of work spells in family businesses (7%) is the same for men and for women. 10% of work spells reported by men and 4% of work spells reported by women refer to own-account work, self-employment or being employer. Specific work arrangements that were expected to play a role for the transition from education to work are not often reported before leaving education. Only 1% of spells of men and only 3% of spells of women

refer to informal apprenticeships<sup>6</sup>. Even less than 1% of all reported work spells were in form of an internship or traineeship.

**Table 2.12: Types of work, periods of work and reasons of work of reported work spells before leaving education, by gender and education, column-%**

	Men	Women	Basic Sec./ Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof./ Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert./ High. Tert.
<i>Types of work</i>					
Formal/ registered employee	26	52	1	30	50
Informal/ unregistered employee	56	35	51	57	46
Informal apprentice	1	3	4	0	1
Internship/trainee	0	0	0	0	0
Employee/helper in non-agricultural family business	3	1	8	0	0
Employee/helper in agricultural family business	4	6	16	2	0
Own-account/self-employed/ employer	10	4	20	11	1
<i>Periods of work</i>					
All over the year	47	71	33	56	63
Seasonal work	13	6	10	13	10
During school holidays	17	3	29	16	5
Irregular interval	23	19	28	16	22
<i>Reasons of work</i>					
You wanted to earn your own money	72	73	45	86	80
You wanted to gain work experience	20	43	11	19	38
You worked to build networks	7	13	0	6	13
You had to work to finance your study	11	15	0	4	21
You had to work to support your family	62	54	82	64	47

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: % are calculated for the sample of reported work spells, i.e. one person may contribute to the analysis with several work spells. Multiple answer categories were allowed for the question on the reasons for working, i.e. column-% do not add up to 100% for the reasons for working.

There are also strong education-specific differences in the types of work before leaving education are not very pronounced. As in previous analyses, the level of education attainment refers here to the highest level that is completed at the time of leaving education. Among secondary graduates informal/unregistered employee work clearly dominates (51%) as just 1% of the reported work spells are as formal/registered employees. The dominance of informal/unregistered employee work also exist for professional graduates but to a lesser extent (57% informal/unregistered employee work compared to 30% formal/registered employee work). The pattern is reversed for tertiary graduates that reach 50% of work spells as formal/registered employees and 46% of work spells as informal/unregistered employees. Work in the family business is a more typical work arrangement among secondary graduates. 16% of work spells of secondary graduates refer to being employee/helper in agricultural family business and 8% of work spells of secondary graduates refer to being employee/helper in non-agricultural family business. In contrast, these shares are below 2% for professional and tertiary graduates. Similarly, being own-account worker, self-employed or employer is more common at lower levels of education. For example, 20% of the work spells of

<sup>6</sup> Informal apprenticeship solely refer to apprenticeships that are not organized in a formal vocational program. The latter is captured in the analyses on education programs (see Section 2.3).

secondary graduates are in this work arrangement, while this applies to just 1% of the work spells of tertiary graduates. Informal apprenticeships, internships and traineeships are equally low spread (below 4%) among all education groups.

Regarding the periods of work, almost every second reported work spell reported by men and almost three quarter of work spells reported by women relate to work that is done all over the year. The incidence of working all over the year is higher among higher education groups. The share increases with the level of education from 33% for secondary graduates to 63% for tertiary graduates. Seasonal work is more common among men than women (13% vs. 6%) but rather equally distributed among education groups. Working during school holidays is more common among men than women (17% vs. 3%) and more common among lower education groups. Whereas 29% of work spells of secondary graduates relate to school holiday work, this applies only to 5% of tertiary graduates. Irregular work intervals apply to men and women in a similar way (23% of men and 19% for women). Regarding education, irregular work intervals are most often reported by secondary graduates (28% vs. 22% for tertiary graduates and 16% for professional graduates).

Respondents were also asked to tell the reasons for working for each work spell before leaving education. Multiple answer categories were allowed. One very common reason for working is the motive of earning money. Almost three quarter of all work spells were justified with the motive of earning money by both men and women. The monetary motive is more widespread among professional graduates (86%) and tertiary graduates (80%) than by secondary graduates (45%). In contrast, the motive of earning money not for themselves but for the family is much more common among lower education groups. For example, 82% of work spells reported by secondary graduates are justified by the need of financially supporting the family, whereas this applies to 47% of the work spells reported by tertiary graduates. In terms of gender, there is only small difference in terms of men reporting more often support for own family as a motive (62% vs. 54% among women). The motive to gain work experience is two times more often reported for work spells of women (43%) than for men (20%). Gaining work experience is also more important among tertiary graduates (38%) than for professional graduates (19%) and secondary graduates (11%). Similarly, although at a much lower level of incidence, the motive of building networks is more often reported among tertiary graduates (13%) than among professional graduates (6%) and secondary graduates (0%) and more common among women (13% vs. 7% for men). Working in order to finance the studies is mentioned for 21% of the work spells of tertiary graduates and just 4% of the work spells of professional graduates. Not surprisingly, as secondary education is free of charge in Azerbaijan, no secondary graduates reports the motive of working to finance her/his study.

Table 2.13 provides insights into the life course dynamics of working before leaving education. It report the age-specific incidence (%) of work before leaving education differentiated by gender and education groups. This analysis is done at the individual level. The incidence of working is very low during teenage years. For example, at age 15, just 5.1% of male respondents and 0.6% of female respondents worked. However, the share substantially grows with increasing age. For example, already 16.4% of male respondents and 7.4% of female respondents reported a work activity at age 20. At age 24 almost every second male respondent and almost every third female respondent was in work. In general, it is found that male respondents reported more often work activities than female respondents for almost every age before leaving education.

However, these figures are strongly influenced by the level of education attainment because respondents drop out of the analyses at the age they left education. This induces an overrepresentation of professional and tertiary students at later age. Hence, supplementary education-specific investigations were performed. For the education-specific analysis cell entries are restricted to ages until the average age before leaving of the respective education level plus two years in order to avoid the dominance by very small group of persons at later ages after typical education leaving age. The education-specific analyses show that the work propensity is rather low (below 8%) for (prospective) basic secondary graduates up to age 16 and just reaches 10.5% at age 18. (Prospective) upper secondary graduates have a work incidence of below 10% for all the ages

reported in Table 2.13. Among (prospective) initial professional graduates double-digit rates of work experience are reached from age 17 onwards (with the exception of age 19), reaching up to 22.6% at age 20. Compared to initial professional graduates, fewer secondary professional graduates were working before leaving education.<sup>7</sup> Their work incidence remains below 10% until age 21. Both (prospective) lower tertiary (BA) and (prospective) higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates report few work experiences than lower education groups until age 18. Starting with age 20 for (prospective) lower tertiary (BA) graduates and with age 21 for (prospective) higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates more than 10% of students are working. With the transition to tertiary education work their activity rate surges. For example, one third of (prospective) lower tertiary (BA) works at age 23 and one third of (prospective) higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates works at age 24.

**Table 2.13: Age-specific incidence (%) of work before leaving education, by gender and education**

	Men	Women	Basic Sec.	Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof.	Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert.	High. Tert.
Age								
12	0.8	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.0	0.4	0.4	0.0
13	1.3	0.0	1.0	1.2	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.0
14	3.1	0.1	4.6	2.6	0.0	1.0	0.5	0.0
15	5.1	0.6	6.1	4.6	4.8	1.7	0.7	0.0
16	6.3	1.2	8.2	6.2	7.6	2.1	0.9	1.8
17	7.4	2.0	10.5	6.2	14.6	3.7	2.5	1.8
18	8.2	2.7		9.4	14.3	4.7	3.8	2.8
19	9.3	5.4		7.4	8.6	6.1	8.6	2.8
20	16.4	7.4			22.6	9.4	12.9	6.4
21	18.5	11.8			12.9	16.0	14.8	13.8
22	25.2	17.9				21.0	21.1	21.4
23	38.0	22.6					33.1	26.6
24	46.6	28.6					44.3	33.8
25	43.9	25.8						34.8
26	56.7	7.7						21.4

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Incidence is calculated at the person level. % are calculated for the sample of respondents for the time before leaving education. For the education-specific analysis cell entries are restricted to the average age before leaving the respective education level plus two years in order to avoid the dominance by very small group of persons at later ages after typical education leaving age. Average age of leaving education is taken from Table 6.1. The calculation does not take the length of work spells into account (see Table 2.12 for an analysis of length of work spells).

Next to the timing of working, it is also interesting to study the time spent working before leaving education. Table 2.14 provides information on the absolute and relative time spent working before leaving education for gender and education subgroups. The measures are calculated at the individual level. The individual time interval considered lasts from age 12 to the individual age of leaving education. The time spent working is measured on a yearly level and the year is considered as a year of working whenever a work activity is reported in the year, irrespectively of the period of work (for an analysis of periods of work see Table 2.12).

The absolute duration measures the number of years between age 12 and the individual year of leaving education. When interpreting the numbers it should be kept in mind that the year of leaving

<sup>7</sup> For the figures of initial and secondary professional education, it should be taken into account that our definition of working before leaving education does not entail practical work experiences that were part of a formal vocational training program (see Section 2.3 for results on such kind of practical training experiences during education).

education and, thus, the time interval considered varies between individuals. Overall, 83% of men and 92% of women do not work before leaving education, which replicates the findings of Table 2.11. If persons worked, short work experiences are more common than long term ones. However, the shortest duration of one year is least common (just 1% of men and less than 1% of women). The most typical duration is two years (4% men, 3% women) and three years (5% men, 4% women). Longer work durations are rarely reached. The share of persons working five years and more is just 4% for men and 1% for women. Regarding education groups, the absolute duration of time spent working prior leaving education tends to increase with the level of education, which, among other factors, can be technically related to the later age of education leaving of higher educated persons. The first row replicates the findings from Table 2.11 that 93% of secondary graduates, 85% of professional graduates and 78% of tertiary graduates reported that they never worked prior to leaving education. 2% of secondary graduates, 5% of professional graduates and 6% of tertiary graduates have one or two years of work experience. Three to four years of work experience is reported by 3% of secondary graduates, 6% of professional graduates and 11% of tertiary graduates. Long work experiences of five years or more apply more often to tertiary graduates (6%) than to professional graduates (3%) and secondary graduates (1%).

**Table 2.14: Absolute and relative time spent working before leaving education, by gender and education**

	Men	Women	Basic Sec./ Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof./ Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert./ High. Tert.
<i>Absolute duration</i>					
0 years	83	92	93	85	78
1 year	1	0	0	0	1
2 years	4	3	2	5	5
3 years	5	3	2	5	7
4 years	3	1	1	1	4
5 years	2	1	1	2	3
6 years	1	0	0	1	1
>6 years	1	0	0	0	2
<i>Relative duration</i>					
0%	83	92	93	85	78
]0%-20%]	2	2	0	3	6
]20%-40%]	8	4	2	9	12
]40%-60%]	4	1	3	2	4
]60%-80%]	1	0	1	1	0
]80%-100%]	1	0	1	0	0

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Measures are calculated at the person level. The individual time interval considered lasts from age 12 to the individual age of leaving education. The time spent working is measured on a yearly level and the year is considered as a year of working whenever a work activity is reported in the year, irrespectively of the period of work. This is because the answer categories of periods of work (see Table 2.12) do not allow a concrete measure of the exact time spent within a year on work. The absolute duration measures the number of years between age 12 and the individual year of leaving education. The relative duration of work experience is calculated by dividing the absolute number of working years prior leaving education by the number of years that were theoretically available for working from age 12 to the individual age of leaving education.

The lower part of 2.14 calculates the relative duration of work experience by dividing the absolute number of working years prior leaving education by the number of years that were theoretically available for working from age 12 to the individual age of leaving education. By definition, the shares



in the first row of 0% relative duration is identical to the shares in the first row of zero years absolute duration.

2% of men and women worked for up to 20% of their available time between age 12 and leaving education. 8% of men and 4% of women spent between 20 and 40% of their time working. Just 6% of men and 1% of women spent more than 40% of their youth between age 12 and leaving education in work. Regarding education groups, if secondary graduates worked, they spent on average more of their relative time working than professional or tertiary graduates. 5% worked between 20 and 60% and 2% worked for more than 60% of their time between age 12 and the age of leaving education. In contrast, shorter relative working time is typical for professional graduates and tertiary graduates. 12% of professional graduates and 18% of tertiary graduates worked up to 40% of their available time between age 12 and the age of leaving education, whereas only 3% of professional graduates and 4% of tertiary graduates worked more than 40% of their available time between age 12 and the age of leaving education.

### 3. Labor market inactivity, job search and time until finding a first job

#### 3.1. Labor market inactivity

Regarding the period after leaving education we start with an empirical analysis of the incidence of labor market inactivity by gender. We address the specific pattern of the “school-to-home transition”, which is usually ignored in the Western literature on school-to-work transition and which got a first detailed attention by the comparative study on youth transitions by Gebel and Heyne (2014). Following this approach, we define “inactive” persons in our sample of education leavers as persons who have neither found a first job<sup>8</sup> until the date of the interview nor engaged in any kind of job search activities<sup>9</sup> since leaving education. Hence, we use a very strict definition of “permanent” inactivity ignoring the incidence of temporary inactivity or persons becoming inactive after a period of labor market engagement.<sup>10</sup> Supplementary analyses (not displayed in Tables) show that 52.4% of women and 14.5% of men have not yet found a first job at the time of the interview.<sup>11</sup> Among those persons without a first job at the time of the interview, 77.0% of women and 43.5% of men reported that they were not actively looking for a job after they have left education.<sup>12</sup> We calculate the inactivity rate by combining this information on the existence of the first job and search behavior after leaving education. Table 3.1 shows that 40.4% of women and just 6.3% of men in Azerbaijan are inactive. This result highlights the large gender inequality with respect to the labor market participation decision after leaving education.

Table 3.1 also reports the inactivity rate by education attainment level.<sup>13</sup> For women there is a clear negative education gradient. The higher the level of education attainment, the lower is the probability of being inactive after leaving education.

---

<sup>8</sup> For a definition of a “first job” see Section 4 for details as well as the Methodological Report of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys (Gebel & Mandieva 2019).

<sup>9</sup> Each respondent was asked whether he or she had been actively seeking for work in the period after leaving education. Actively seeking means applying for specific works, replying to work offers, answering advertisements, appearing for an interview, sending CV, going directly to companies’ offices.

<sup>10</sup> These issues of temporary inactivity and dynamics into and out of inactivity shall be subject to future multivariate and dynamic analyses.

<sup>11</sup> This is just an information with regard to the criteria of defining inactivity. As individuals differ in the duration of the time period between leaving education and the date of the interview, the given figures have limited information value with regard to the success probability of finding a first job in a dynamic perspective. For more adequate analyses in this respect see Section 3.3, in which more appropriate methods of event history analysis are applied.

<sup>12</sup> Among those respondents who got a first job after leaving education 33.6% report that they did not actively seek for work in the period after leaving education. When looking at the reasons given for not searching 21.5% of these first job holders without search experience did not search because they continued the same work they had before leaving education. Among the remaining cases (n=332) 9.5% report self-employment as their first job type and 8.7% report a first job in the family business, which both often do not entail an active search process. Thus, 273 cases are left for which it seems implausible that they did not search for a first job but found one. 72.7% of these cases can be somehow explained by the fact that they report they found their first job via personal contacts, where the initiative often comes from the family and does not entail a process that is perceived by the respondent as an active search process. The remaining 27.3% (n=73 cases) report methods of finding a first job later on that implies a job search process must have taken place. However, among those 73 cases 77% reported that they did not search because they were waiting for military service. They may have neglected reporting search activities that took place during or after military service. For the remaining cases the job search process may have already occurred before leaving education such that it was not reported. Nevertheless, in a few cases respondents may have misreported non-search.

<sup>13</sup> In this section and the following sections we use education attainment, i.e. the highest education level that was completed, as the independent variable of interest. This is because from a theoretical perspective of

The inactivity rates drops from 78.2% for female graduates from basic secondary education to just 4.4% among women with higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. In contrast, there is no clear association between the level of education attainment and the inactivity rate for men.

**Table 3.1: Inactivity rate, by gender and education level, column-%**

	Men	Women
<i>Total inactivity rate</i>	6.3	40.4
<i>Inactivity rate by education attainment</i>		
Basic secondary	6.0	78.2
Upper secondary	4.8	65.6
Initial professional	5.6	33.3
Secondary professional	6.5	17.8
Lower tertiary (BA)	9.9	17.0
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	0.0	4.4

*Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.*

Table 3.2 displays results on the personal reasons given by young men and women for being inactive, i.e. not working or not looking for work, after leaving education. Multiple responses were allowed. For men, the major reason for labor market inactivity (reported by 63.9% of inactive respondents) is that they have been waiting for their military service after leaving education. For women, the major reason for labor market inactivity is that their parents and/or spouse did not allow them to work (73.9%). Just 1.3% directly report religious and cultural barriers to their labor market participation. 17.2% of inactive women mentioned marriage and 7.1% of inactive women mentioned care for other household members as a major reasons for not engaging in job search. All these reasons are almost never given by men.

Next to family-related reasons 10.2% female school leavers mention the lack of jobs in the immediate surrounding as a reason for their labor market inactivity. This can reflect a general lack in labor market demand but also regional labor mobility barriers for women because just 3.1% of inactive men in Azerbaijan give the same reason for their inactivity. Regarding other labor market related reasons of not having useful contacts (4.1% men, 2.6% women), being not properly qualified or trained (0.0% men, 1.3% women) and being too young/inexperienced (2.1% men, 1.6% women) is mentioned by women and men to a similar degree. Neither inactive men nor inactive women tell that plans to go abroad or waiting for seasonal work have been reasons for their labor market inactivity.

Comparing the numbers for men and women it becomes evident that the lack of work motivation is more often an issue among inactive men in Azerbaijan. About one quarter of inactive men said that they did not want to work, whereas this applies to 18.1% of inactive women in Azerbaijan. Similarly, health issues are much more often mentioned among inactive men (10.3%) than among inactive women (0.4%).

---

signaling theory it can be expected that having the signal of the final degree is important in the labor market attainment process (Gebel & Heineck 2019). Moreover, the persons spent the full time in the education program, which should enhance their human capital compared to person dropping out from the same education program. Specific analyses on the labor market value of the additional education experience of education dropouts can be subject to future multivariate analyses (for such studies on other Eastern European countries, see, for example, Matković & Kogan (2012); Matković & Kogan (2014)).

**Table 3.2: Reasons for inactivity after leaving education, by gender, column-%**

	Men	Women
There was no job in the immediate surrounding	3.1%	10.2%
You were waiting for seasonal work	0.0%	0.0%
You did not have useful contacts	4.1%	2.6%
You were not properly qualified / trained	0.0%	1.3%
You were too young/inexperienced	2.1%	1.6%
You were planning to go abroad	0.0%	0.0%
You were seriously ill or disabled	10.3%	0.4%
You got married	0.0%	17.2%
Your parents/spouse did not allow you to	0.0%	73.9%
You had to take care for other household	2.1%	7.1%
Due to religious or cultural reasons	0.0%	1.3%
You did not want to work	24.7%	18.1%
You were waiting for military service	63.9%	0.0%

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Multiple answer categories were allowed, i.e. column-% do not add up to 100%. Analysis on the reasons for inactivity are conducted for the subsample of inactive persons.

### 3.2. Job search methods

Among respondents who were actively looking for a job the job search behavior of young people at their transition from education to work was asked. There is an ongoing scientific debate about the role of social networks for labor market success in Eastern European countries (Kogan, 2011; Kogan et al., 2013). In the following, we will highlight the role of such informal job search method as compared to formal job search methods. Table 3.3 shows the job search methods after leaving education differentiated by gender and education attainment. The analyses includes all respondents who actively engaged in seeking for work after leaving education, irrespectively of the fact whether the respondent was successful in finding a job or not.<sup>14</sup> Multiple answers were allowed, if the respondent used several job search methods. The results in Table 3.3 clearly underline the importance of informal methods of job search in the transition from education work in Azerbaijan as 87.4% of men and 80.0% of women used personal contacts in the search for a first job. Only very few respondents (1.3% of men and 3.0% of women) contacted labor migrant networks when looking for a first job.<sup>15</sup> Next to the dominance of informal job search methods, formal job search methods still play a role in Azerbaijan. 37.1% of men and 43.2% of women inserted or consulted a job advertisement in online portals, newspapers or journals or answered one in the process of searching for a first job. Even more than half of the female and male respondents who engaged in job search activities after leaving education directly applied to the company of their choice for the first job opportunity. Three times more female job seekers (19.5%) than male job seekers (6.3%) took a test or participated in a competition to get access to a public sector job. Search via employment agencies is not very common in Azerbaijan. Just 14.1% of male job seekers and 13.5% of female job seekers contacted a public employment agency. The probabilities are even much lower for contacting a private employment agency (2.9% for men and 3.2% for women).

<sup>14</sup> The method of searching for a job after leaving education should not be equated with the methods of finding a first job. This is because education leavers may use a search method that does not yield a job match. The method of finding the first job is analyzed in Section 4.3.

<sup>15</sup> This result must be interpreted against the background of the definition of the target population of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan which entails only persons residing in Azerbaijan at the time of the survey. Hence, labor migrants are underrepresented in this survey.

The gender-specific results reveal that men and women use quite similar job search methods with few variations. While women in Azerbaijan are more prone to taking tests and participating in competitions for the jobs in private sector, men are more likely to use personal contacts in the job searching process. Formal job search methods are more popular among women than among men.

Education-specific analyses show that the higher the education level of a graduate the less common is the practice of using the personal contacts in the search of a first job. While 91.1% of respondents with secondary education used personal contacts in the search for a first job, this applies to 82.9% and 75.2% of tertiary graduates. Nevertheless, across all education groups at least three quarter of the respondents relied on personal network as a job search method. The share of formal job search methods increases with the level of education attainment. For example, whereas just 30.4% of secondary graduates inserted or consulted a job advertisement in online portals, newspapers or journals or answered one, this share is higher among graduates from professional education (37.0%) and tertiary graduates (56.1%). The positive relationship between education attainment and formal job search methods is even more evident with respect to taking a test or participating in a competition for recruitment to the public sector. This applies to just 0.7% of graduates from basic or upper secondary education compared to 32.2% of graduates from tertiary education. In contrast, there is only a weak association between the level of education attainment and unsolicited applications. Regarding the use of employment agencies, there is a positive association with the level of education attainment as professional graduates and tertiary graduates more often contact public and private employment agencies than secondary graduates.

**Table 3.3: Job search methods after leaving education, total, by gender and by education attainment level, column-%**

	Men	Women	Basic Sec./ Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof./ Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert./ High. Tert.
You inserted or consulted a job advertisement in online portals, newspapers or journals or answered one	37.1	43.2	30.4	37.0	56.1
Unsolicited application	52.0	58.3	49.2	59.3	59.1
You used personal relations	87.4	80.0	91.1	82.9	75.2
You contacted labor migrant networks	1.3	3.0	0.7	1.0	4.7
You took a test/You participated in a competition for recruitment to the public sector	6.3	19.5	0.7	7.3	32.2
You contacted a public employment agency	14.1	13.5	10.6	16.3	17.0
You contacted a private employment agency	2.9	3.2	1.6	3.4	4.9

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Multiple answer categories were allowed, i.e. column-% do not add up to 100%.

### 3.3. Time until finding a first job

In the next we do a dynamic analysis of the individual time elapsed between leaving education and finding a first job. Finding a job is a central marker in the transition to adulthood due to its importance in gaining independence from the family, as well as for securing a good socio-economic position, career and life chances. Using detailed monthly retrospective individual data, the duration of the school-to-work transition is measured as the time elapsed between leaving the education system and finding stable employment (Gebel & Noelke, 2011).

The date of leaving education refers to the last education program the respondent attended.<sup>16</sup> Leaving education is defined both as “finishing education” in terms of successful completion/graduation<sup>17</sup> of the last education program the respondent was enrolled into and “stopping education” in terms of “failing/dropping out” from the last education program the respondent was enrolled into. Thus, both persons who successfully completed their last education and those who failed/dropped out were included. Search periods prior to leaving education are disregarded due to missing information on potential search activities, and because they are fundamentally different from the time elapsed between leaving education and finding a first significant job, as the search after graduation gives rise to higher material and psychological costs (Allen & van der Velden, 2007).

Following common definitions (Gebel & Noelke, 2011), as well the definitions given in the surveys analyzed (Gebel & Mandieva, 2019), we operationalize the first job position for a school leaver as any first job after leaving education, including short-term, casual work and unregistered work, self-employment and work as family helpers, is treated as a first job in order to account for the variety of first job positions in Azerbaijan. The respondents were asked to fill out a detailed monthly economic activity calendar for the time since leaving education. The activity calendar covers a minimum period of one year up to a maximum period of 10 years depending on the year the respondent was leaving education. The actual length of the calendar varies randomly due to the criteria of selecting respondents. Based on this calendar the first job was identified. The few graduates who obtain first significant jobs before leaving the education system are counted as making an instantaneous transition.

“Permanently” inactive people, i.e. persons who have neither found a first job until the date of the interview nor engaged in any kind of job search activities since leaving education, are excluded for the following analyses on the time elapsed between leaving education and finding a first job (for analyses of this group see Section 3.1). Using the monthly retrospective activity calendar information, periods of military service between leaving education and finding a first job or, respectively the date of the interview were deducted from the duration measurement. This is because military service is an obligatory time-out that should not be counted to the duration of finding a first job. Given the large proportion of respondents who reported a military service activity after leaving education the average search duration (irrespectively of finding a job or not) drops from 24.4 to 15.6 months when making the military service correction of the job search duration. Despite these restrictions the time elapsed between leaving education and finding a first job should not be equated with job search time. It may happen that young people temporarily give up job search within this period, i.e. experiencing temporary periods of labor market inactivity because of fully engaging in housework or care, being sick, etc.

Event history analysis is used to study the time elapsed between leaving education and finding a first job. The time elapsed until first significant employment is described with Kaplan–Meier (product-limit) estimates of transition rates because of the problem of right-censored duration data for those who have not yet found employment at the time of the interview (Blossfeld et al., 2019).<sup>18</sup> Figure 3.1

---

<sup>16</sup> This means that respondents who interrupted their education career reported about the date of leaving their last education program attended, which is easier to remember Gebel & Mandieva (2019). In the context of Azerbaijan, the focus on the last education program attended is justified as the phenomenon of education returners is less widespread than in Western countries. In any case all work activities in parallel or prior to this last education spell are still captured in the analyses of Section 2.5.

<sup>17</sup> The date of finishing education for successful graduates is defined as the date of attending the last course or participating in the last exam, and not to the date of receiving the certificate. This restriction was seen as important as the national experts reported that a substantial part of graduates receives certificates with a delay due to bureaucracy (Gebel & Mandieva 2019).

<sup>18</sup> Specifically, in the case of “right-censoring” we know that the transition duration is longer than the time between leaving education and the date of the interview. For example, somebody leaves education seven

shows Kaplan-Meier survival functions for finding a first job after leaving education by gender, education and VET organization as key independent variables of interests. The y-axis shows the proportion of persons who have not yet found a first job for a given time point after leaving education that is marked on the x-axis. In addition, Table 3.4 shows the respective figures but from a reversed perspective. For selected months after leaving education it reports the share of people having found a first job until the respective month after leaving education by gender, education and VET organization. This equivalent to the distance from the 100% line and the Kaplan Meier survivor function.

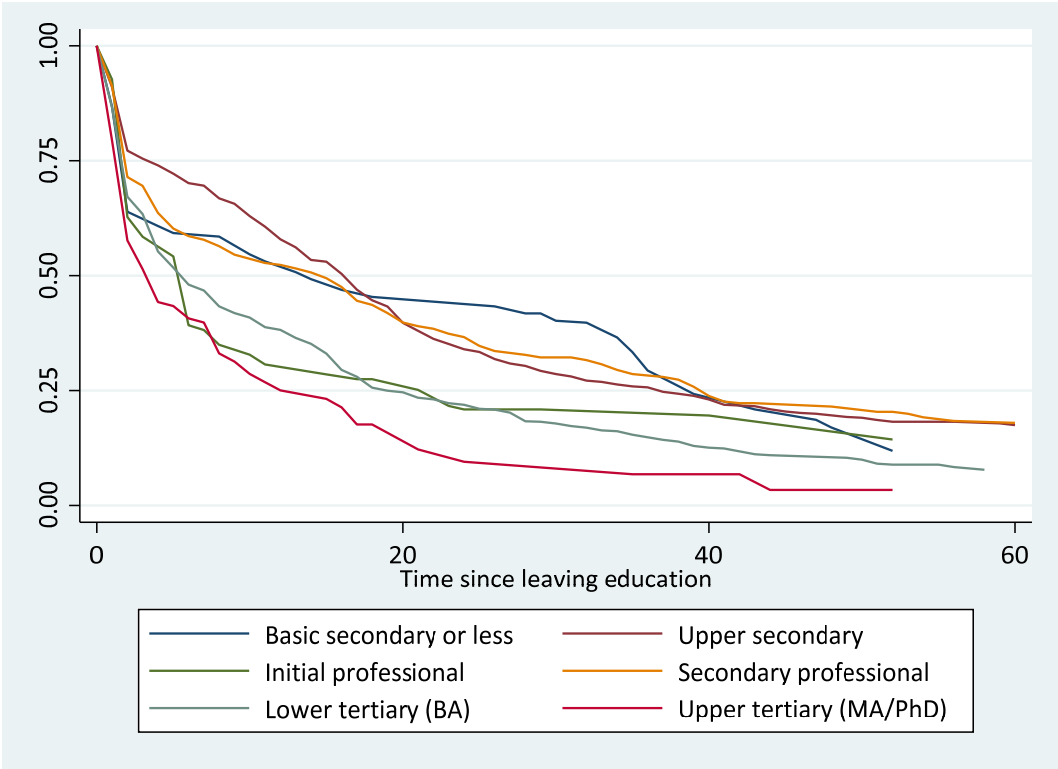
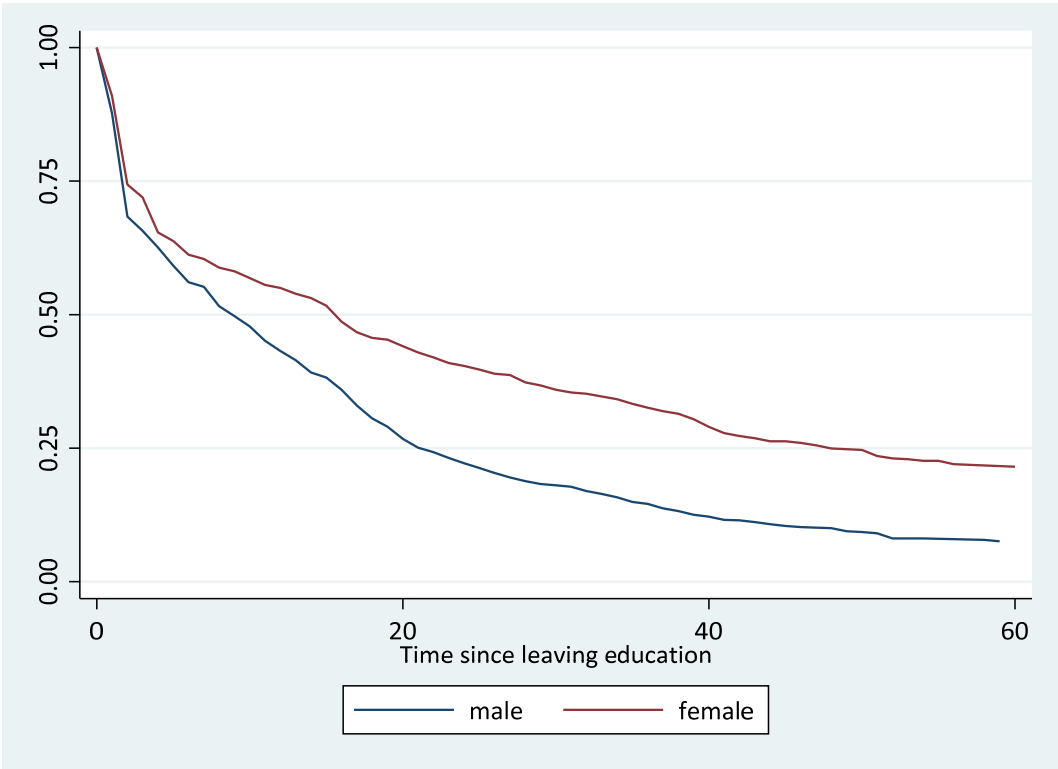
We find that only very few active education leavers (12% of men and 9% of women) experience direct and quick entries into their first job within one month. However, after six months already 44% of men and 39% of women have found a first job. In the following months, further labor market integration can be observed, but the conditional transition probabilities (so-called “hazard rates”) decrease: the longer the time elapsed in non-employment after leaving education, the harder it is to find a first job. Such a pattern of so-called “negative duration dependence” in the job search process is usually explained by discouragement effects that lead to reduced individual search intensities. Moreover, potential employers may interpret the prolonged search period as a negative signal and therefore refrain from making job offers to the long-term unemployed. As a result, there is a substantial share of young people who require a long time to find a first job or who remain unsuccessful even after a long search period. According to the results displayed in Table 3.4 around one half of active persons have got a first job after one year (57% of men and 45% of women). This share increases to 78% for men and 60% for women after two years and 90% for men and 75% for women after four years. Thus, in the long run a substantial share of active persons has a first job experience. Comparing men and women it turns out that the gender gap in finding a first job among active persons increases with the time since leaving education. In the first month after leaving education the gender gap is just three percentage points, whereas it increases to 12 percentage points after two years and 15 percentage points after four years.

Education qualifications are seen as the central determinants of successful labor market integration (Kogan & Müller, 2003; Kogan et al., 2011; Shavit & Müller, 1998). There is the general tendency that the higher the level of education the speedier is the job finding process. However, the nexus between education and the speed of labor market integration is not strongly pronounced. For example, the share of immediate transitions (within one month) is 13% both among basic secondary graduates and lower tertiary (BA) graduates. The highest incidence of immediate transitions is observed among higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates (21%). After six months the group of professional graduates speeds up in terms of labor market integration. 61% of initial professional graduates have experienced a first job after six months, which is the highest proportion of all education groups. Secondary professional graduates reach 41% after six months, which is identical to basic secondary graduates. Two years after leaving education higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates are leading with 91% first job finding rate ahead of initial professional (79%) and lower tertiary (BA) (78%) graduates. The lowest rate is observed for basic secondary graduates two years after leaving education (56%). Four years after leaving education secondary graduates and professional graduates reach the same level of first job experience of around 80%. Tertiary graduates are slightly more successful as 89% of lower tertiary (BA) graduates and 97% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates have found a first job after four years. In this respect it should be noted that the group of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates, which is very small in Azerbaijan (see Chapter 2.1), is very successful in their labor market integration because more than 90% have already found a first job after two years. Hence, this small and selective group outperforms all other education groups.

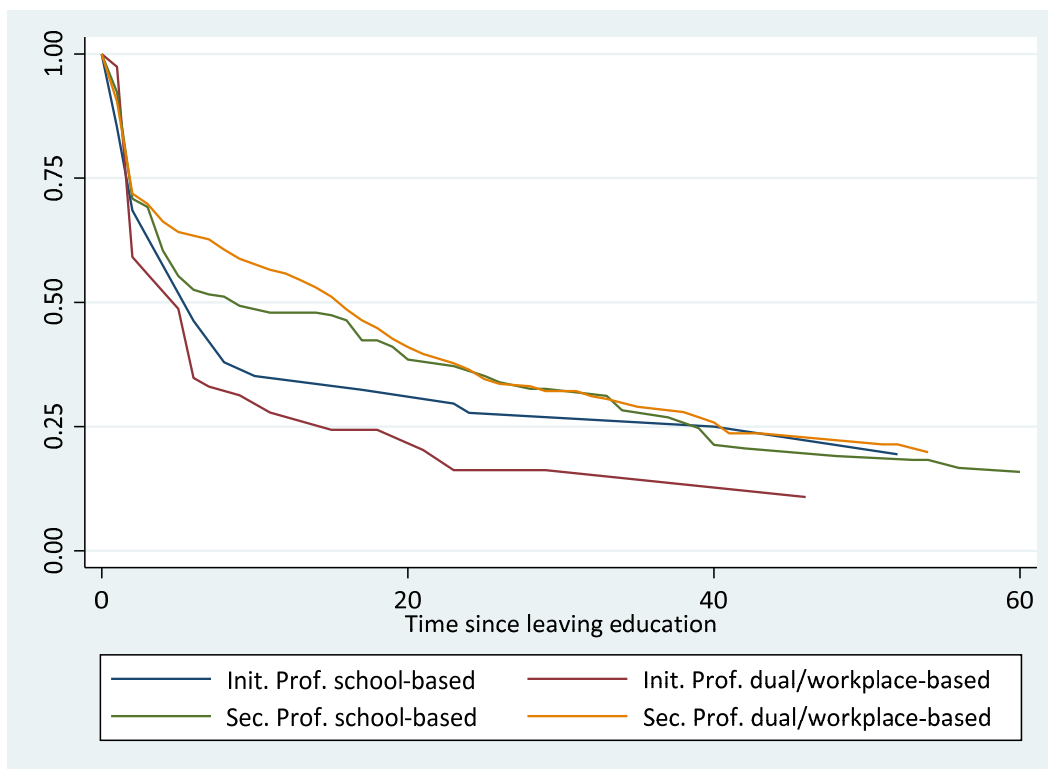
---

months before the interview and has not yet found a job. In this case, the overall job search duration will not be exactly seven months but longer and has to be estimated.

**Figure 3.1: Kaplan-Meier survival functions for finding a first job after leaving education by gender, education and VET organization**







Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons excluding inactive persons (i.e. persons who have not found a first job yet and who have not actively searched for a job since leaving education). Survivor function shows for each month the share of persons for a specific group who has not yet found a first job.

**Table 3.4: Share of people (%) having found a first job until a specific month after leaving education by gender, education and VET organization**

	Months since leaving education						
	1	6	12	24	36	48	60
<i>Gender</i>							
Men	12	44	57	78	85	90	92
Women	9	39	45	60	67	75	78
<i>Education</i>							
Basic secondary	13	41	47	56	71	83	88
Upper secondary	9	30	42	66	74	80	83
Initial professional	7	61	69	79	79	83	86
Secondary professional	9	41	48	63	71	79	82
Lower tertiary (BA)	13	52	62	78	85	89	92
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	21	59	75	91	93	97	–
<i>VET organization</i>							
Init. Prof. school-based	15	54	65	72	72	75	81
Init. Prof. dual/workplace based	3	65	72	84	84	89	89
Sec. Prof. school-based	8	47	52	63	72	81	84
Sec. Prof. dual/workplace based	10	37	44	64	71	76	80

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons excluding inactive persons (i.e. persons who have not found a first job yet and who have not actively searched for a job since leaving education).

A specific additional analysis has been performed with respect to the role of the organization of the VET system as there is an ongoing scientific and political debate about the best organization of VET in terms of its practical work elements and its relevance for the transition from education to work (Shavit & Müller, 1998; Kogan et al., 2011; Kogan, 2019). Table 3.4 shows that at the initial professional level persons with dual/workplace-based training reach a better labor market integration than persons who received school-based training. The only exception is observed at the very beginning of the job search period. 15% of initial professional graduates with school-based training compared to just 3% of initial professional graduates with dual/workplace-based training have found a first job within the first month. The pattern reverses after six months, when 65% of professional graduates with dual/workplace-based training and just 54% of professional graduates with school-based training compared have got a first job. Another pattern emerges at the secondary professional level. Differences between school-based and dual/workplace-based training are less pronounced in terms of the transition to a first job. While the share of immediate transition is rather equal, secondary professional graduates with school-based training have an eight to 10 percentage points advantage over secondary professional graduates with dual/workplace-based training after half a year and a year. Afterwards, both groups are equal and just in the long run (four and five years after leaving education), there is again a marginal advantage of five percentage points for secondary professional graduates with school-based training.

### **3.4. Obstacles in finding a first job**

In addition every respondent who actively searched for a job was asked about the main obstacles the person experienced in finding a job after leaving education. Both persons who successfully found a first job and those who have not yet found a first job during the observation period are included but analyzed separately because it differences in the experiences of obstacles in the job search process can be expected between the two groups.

Table 3.5 shows the different major obstacles of finding a job after leaving education that were reported by persons who were actively engaged in job search activity, by success of finding a first job as well as differentiated by gender and education level.

In Azerbaijan, just a small proportion of respondents report that they did not have any problems at all finding a job. The share is 0% among job seekers that have not yet found a first job. However, just one third of persons with a first job tell that they didn't have any problems at all in finding a job. This indicates that the majority of successful job seekers in Azerbaijan faced problems in finding their first job. Persons without a first job report higher rates of the various obstacles in finding a first job than those who found a first job. Non-successful first job seekers see the limited number of available jobs as the major obstacle (81.0%) but also among successful job seekers more than a half of the persons complain about the same problem of limited job opportunities. Lack of work experience is reported by 57.8% of non-successful first job seekers as well as 36.8% successful first job seekers. A smaller proportion of respondents mention that the requirement for a job were higher than their education and/or training received (21.4% of non-successful first job seekers and 14.5% of successful first job seekers). Interestingly, just a tiny share of respondents of below 1.4% report that they experienced discrimination based on gender or ethnic origin. In contrast, 18.4% of non-successful first job seekers and 9.8% of successful first job seekers report age discrimination. Both non-successful and successful first job seekers see the problem of unattractive job offers in terms of low wages (around one quarter) and poor working conditions (5-10%) in the job search process. About one quarter of non-successful first job seekers but also 13.8% of successful first job seekers report that they did not have useful contacts as a problem in the job search process.

**Table 3.5: Main obstacles of finding a job after leaving education among persons who were actively engaged in job search activity, by success, gender and education level, column-%**

	No first job	With first job	Men	Women	Basic Sec./ Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof./ Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert./ High. Tert.
You didn't have any problems at all in finding a job.	0.0	33.9	25.3	31.4	19.1	30.5	39.0
Requirements for job were higher than education/ training received	21.4	14.5	19.3	10.7	21.1	12.8	9.9
Not enough work experience	57.8	36.8	43.3	36.8	48.4	35.5	32.6
Not enough jobs available	81.0	56.2	63.0	57.4	69.1	57.7	50.1
Discrimination based on age	18.4	9.8	12.9	9.0	16.8	9.1	4.5
Discrimination based on gender	1.4	1.0	1.3	0.8	1.7	0.8	0.2
Discrimination based on ethnic origin	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Low wages in available jobs	28.2	23.2	25.9	21.5	27.6	21.1	20.9
Poor working conditions in available jobs	9.9	5.6	7.0	5.4	8.9	4.4	3.9
You did not have useful personal contacts	26.9	13.8	15.8	16.8	12.3	17.8	20.9

*Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.*

*Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who were actively looking for a job after leaving education, irrespectively of the fact whether they found a first job or not. Multiple answer categories were allowed, i.e. column-% do not add up to 100%.*

Regarding gender differences, men more often report obstacles in finding a first job than women. However, there are only small differences in the obstacles named. The only substantial difference is that men (19.3%) tell twice as often than women (10.7%) that requirements for a job were higher than their education and/or training received. Education-specific results show that respondents with higher education attainment are more likely to mention that they did not have any problems in finding of first job compared to less educated young people. Among tertiary graduates this applies to 39.0% compared to just 19.1% of secondary graduates. The complaint about not enough available jobs is prevalent among a majority of job seekers irrespectively of their education attainment level. However, there is a tendency that the incidence of this problem is lower among tertiary educated young people. Problems of underqualification are twice as often reported among secondary graduates (21.1%) than among tertiary graduates (9.9%). Similarly, the reason of having not enough work experience and being discriminated based on age is more widespread among secondary graduates than among professional and tertiary graduates. Complaints about low wages and poor working conditions of available jobs are also most common among secondary graduates. For example, 27.6% of secondary graduates name low wages and 8.9% name poor working conditions of available jobs as problem, whereas the respective shares are 20.9% and 3.9% among tertiary graduates. Gender and ethnic discrimination plays no role for all education groups. Regarding the role of informal networks, the higher the education the higher is the share of respondents blaming that they did not have useful personal contacts in the job search process.

## 4. Characteristics of first job

### 4.1. Type and quality of first job

In the previous chapter, we analyzed differences in the speed of finding a first job across different socio-demographic groups. However, a quick labor market entry does not automatically guarantee a higher quality of the first job. Hence, it is important to investigate the type and quality of the first job as well. In this regard, we adopt a multidimensional perspective on various aspects of job quality and working conditions instead of relying on a single job quality dimension (such as wages) or aggregating working conditions into a one-dimensional index. The advantage of such a multidimensional perspective is that it captures potential trade-offs or cumulative advantages or disadvantages in the working conditions of first job holders in different employment segments. Detecting cumulative disadvantages is important in order to assess the prevalence and degree of precarious, low quality work among young female workers. Specifically, the job type, type of contract and the occupation level are the central objective dimensions of job quality that are considered in the following. Due to the retrospective nature of the questions on the first job the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys refrained from asking subjective questions (e.g. on subjective job satisfaction) or details that are hard to remember (e.g. the wage obtained in the first job).

For the subsequent analyses we focus only on those respondents who report that they succeeded in finding a first job. Table 4.1 shows the type of first job differentiated by gender, education level and the organization of VET. Taking regional specificities into account, engagement in the labor market is defined as a very broad concept, encompassing unregistered informal work arrangements, agricultural waged work, self-employment and family helpers (Gebel & Mandieva, 2019). Formal versus informal employment are defined at the individual level and not at the firm level. A formal (registered) job means that income taxes for the specific job are paid either by the employer or employee, whereas this is not the case for informal (unregistered) jobs. Overall, it is noticeable that the great majority of female first job holders (77%) got a first job as a formal/registered employee, whereas the rate is just 43% among male first job holders. Thus, men more often work as informal/unregistered employees (39%) but also as employee or helper in the family business (7%) as well as own account workers, self-employed or employers (11%). In contrast, just 15% of women got a first job as an informal/unregistered employees, 4% became employee or helper in the family business and just 3% had their first work experience after leaving education as own account workers, self-employed or employers.

Education-specific results show that with the increase of the education level of the respondents, the probability of being formally employed in the first job increases as well. For example, just 18% of basic secondary, 29% of upper secondary graduates and 37% of initial professional graduates start their working life as formal employees, whereas the share is 75% for secondary professional graduates. Analyses by the type of VET training reveal that there are almost no differences in the chances of getting formal jobs between professional graduates with dual/workplace-based training and professional graduates with school-based training. The highest chances of formal sector employment is found among tertiary graduates (BA: 78%, MA/PhD: 85%). There is a negative education gradient with regard to become an informal employee in the first job. Around every second secondary and initial professional graduate has a first job as an informal/unregistered employee, whereas the probability of being informal/unregistered employee is just 20% for secondary professional graduates. Distinguishing the type of training for professional graduates reveals that getting dual-/workplace-based training slightly decreases the risks of informal employment (by 10 percentage points at the initial professional level and three percentage points at the secondary professional level). Tertiary graduates are least affected by informal/unregistered employment in their first job. Just 16% of lower tertiary (BA) and 14% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates starts their work career as an informal/unregistered employee. Working as an employee or helper in the family business in the first job is observed for 11% of basic secondary and 13% of upper secondary graduates. In contrast, this type of first job does not play any role for professional

and tertiary graduates, whose incidence of being employee or helper in the family business is below 2%. Own-account work, self-employment and being employer has the highest incidence among secondary graduates (13–16%) as well as among initial professional graduates (11%). For higher education groups the incidence is below 5%.

**Table 4.1: Type of first job, by gender, education level and VET organization, row-%**

	Formal/ registered employee	Informal/ unregistered employee	Employee/ helper in family business	Own-account/ Self-employed/ employer
<i>Gender</i>				
Men	43	39	7	11
Women	77	15	4	3
<i>Education</i>				
Basic secondary	18	55	11	16
Upper secondary	29	46	13	13
Initial professional	37	50	2	11
Secondary professional	75	20	2	3
Lower tertiary (BA)	78	16	1	5
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	85	14	0	1
<i>VET organization</i>				
Init. Prof. school-based	39	55	2	5
Init. Prof. dual/workplace based	35	45	3	18
Sec. Prof. school-based	74	22	2	2
Sec. Prof. dual/workplace based	76	19	2	3

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview.

Another important job quality differentiations exist along the type of contract and social security coverage. Table 4.2 displays differentiated results in this respect according to gender, education level and VET organization. These analyses are restricted to dependent employees, including employees and helpers in the family business sector, excluding own-account, self-employed workers and employers. Regarding the type of contract the crucial distinction between work contracts of unlimited duration versus work contracts of limited duration (temporary contracts) versus seasonal work contracts is made. As seasonal contracts have a tiny negligible incidence of 0.25% they are merged with temporary contracts as it is often done in research on contract types. Whereas temporary contracts play a less prominent role at labor market entry in Eastern Europe, with a few exceptions such as Poland and Slovenia (Baranowska & Gebel, 2008), it is important to consider the case of a written work contract from having no written work contract in Eastern Europe (just a verbal agreement) (Kogan, 2011; Gërkhani & van de Werfhorst, 2013). The case of having no written work contract is often seen as a defining characteristic of informal work arrangements next to or in addition to the distinction between registered and unregistered work.

Gender-specific analyses in Table 4.2 show that 47% of men work without a contract but only 19%, whereas a reversed pattern is visible for the chance of starting with an unlimited work contract. Almost three quarter of women get an unlimited work contract in their first job, whereas this applies to only 43% of men. Next to gender inequalities there is a clear negative effect of education on the risk of working without a contract. The probability of working without a contract is 72% for basic secondary graduates and drops to 53% for initial professional graduates. Compared to their counterparts from initial professional education secondary professional graduates have a 30

percentage points lower probability of working without a contract. In terms of the VET organization there is an advantage of graduates who were trained in the dual way or mainly/solely at the workplace. At the initial professional level this lowers the risk of no-contract work by 15 percentage points but only by four percentage points at the secondary professional level. Tertiary graduates have the lowest probability of working without contract. Just 15% of lower tertiary graduates (BA) and 10% of higher tertiary graduates (MA/PhD) start their working career without a work contract. A positive association is observed between the level of education attainment and the chances of getting an unlimited work contract. Just 17% of lower secondary graduates, 30% of upper secondary graduates and 40% of initial professional graduates get an unlimited work contract in their first job, whereas between 73% and 77% all secondary professional and tertiary graduates begin with an unlimited work contract. In terms of the organization of VET, there is no clear effect on the chance of getting an unlimited work contract.

**Table 4.2: Type of contract and employer provided free health insurance coverage in first job, by gender, education level and VET organization, row-%**

	Type of contract				Employer provided social security		
	no contract	Unlimited contract	limited contract	Don't know	yes	no	Don't know
<i>Gender</i>							
Men	47	43	9	1	47	53	1
Women	19	73	8	0	76	24	0
<i>Education</i>							
Basic secondary	72	17	7	4	21	76	3
Upper secondary	60	30	10	0	33	67	1
Initial professional	53	40	4	3	39	61	0
Secondary professional	23	73	5	0	72	28	0
Lower tertiary (BA)	15	75	10	0	80	20	0
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	10	77	13	0	86	14	0
<i>VET organization</i>							
Init. Prof. school-based	60	40	0	0	40	60	0
Init. Prof. dual/workplace based	45	39	9	6	36	64	0
Sec. Prof. school-based	25	71	5	0	69	31	0
Sec. Prof. dual/workplace based	21	74	5	0	74	25	1

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview. Respondents who were self-employed and employers in their first job are excluded.

Men and women are also equally affected by limited work contracts (8–9%). There is no clear relationship between the level of education attainment and the probability of getting a temporary work contract. For example, both upper secondary graduates and lower tertiary (BA) graduates have 10% probability of starting with a limited work contract in their first job. At the initial professional level, the probability of temporary employment is equal in absolute percentages (7%) as well as in relative percentages (among the sample of persons with a working contract in the first job) for persons with school-based training and persons with dual-/workplace-based training ( $5\%/(5+71\%)=7\%$  vs.  $5\%/(5+74\%)=6\%$ ). In contrast, at the initial professional level, employers use temporary contracts more often among persons with dual-/workplace-based training than school-

based training, both in absolute terms (9% vs. 0%) and in relative terms ( $9\% / (39\% + 9\%) = 19\%$  vs.  $0\% / (40\% + 0\%) = 0$ ).

Regarding social security coverage the results in the right part of Table 4.2 show that coverage rates are higher for women (76%) than for men (47%). There is a positive association between the level of education attainment and social security coverage. Just 21% of basic secondary graduates, 33% of upper secondary graduates and 39% of initial professional graduates got social security provided by their employer. Secondary professional graduates stand out with a coverage rate of 72%. In terms of VET organization there is no clear pattern. Whereas initial professional graduates who received school-based training have a four percentage point advantage over those with dual-/workplace-based training, it is reversed at secondary professional level. At secondary professional level graduates who received dual-/workplace-based have a five percentage point advantage over those with school-based training.

Another job quality indicator we consider is the occupational skill level of the respondent in the first job. This analysis is restricted to employees and family helpers, i.e. excluding self-employed for which a separate analysis of types of occupations is performed (see below). The TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys classified first jobs based on a three-digit version of the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) classification. We aggregated the information into 1-digit ISCO levels. Table 4.3 reveals that young male and female labor market entrants enter different occupational positions. Only a very small fraction of men (1%) and women (2%) get direct access to a ISCO-1 positions as legislators, senior officials and managers position at labor market entry. However, many respondents got into jobs as professionals (ISCO-2) or technical and associates professionals (ISCO-3). Women reach ISCO-2 positions almost twice as often as men (37% vs. 20%) and ISCO-3 positions three times more often than men (19% vs. 6%). Women also outperform men as clerks (ISCO-4, women: 22% vs. men: 6%). The gender-specific pattern reverses at lower ISCO levels. For example, men become more often service workers, shop and market sales workers than women (ISCO-5, men: 23% vs. women: 13%) and more often skilled agricultural and fishery workers (ISCO-6, men: 8% vs. women: 4%). The levels ISCO-7 to ISCO-9 are almost never entered by women (incidence below 1%). Thus, there is a clear dominance of men, of whom 18% became craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7), 6% became plant and machine operators, assemblers (ISCO-8) and 10% worked in elementary occupation (ISCO-9).

There is a strong positive association between the level of education and the occupational skill level. For example, the highest ISCO-1 and ISCO-2 levels are exclusively reached by secondary professional and tertiary graduates. Even among the highest education groups there is a clear education level effect for ISCO-2 positions. For example, the share of higher professionals increases from 23% for secondary professional graduates to 57% for lower tertiary (BA) graduates and reaches the highest level (71%) for higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. Professional graduates are overrepresented at the level of technical and associates professionals (ISCO-3) (26% for secondary professional graduates and 11% for initial professional graduates), whereas all other education groups are at 10% or below. Starting the working career as a clerk (ISCO-4) is most common among secondary professional graduates (17%), followed by lower tertiary (BA) graduates (14%) and initial professional graduates (9%). Lower educated have better chances to reach service workers, shop and market sales workers (ISCO-5) positions (33% of initial professional graduates, 31% of upper secondary graduates and 41% of lower secondary graduates). In contrast, only 17% of secondary professional graduates work as service workers, shop and market sales workers (ISCO-5) and the shares are single digit for tertiary graduates. ISCO-6 occupations (skilled agricultural and fishery workers) are most common among secondary graduates (11–14%), whereas all professional and tertiary graduates have a probability of 3% or less of working in ISCO-6 positions. Graduates from basic secondary and upper secondary education as well as initial professional education are overrepresented at the craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7) with probabilities of getting ISCO-7 jobs of more than 20%, whereas all higher education groups have a probability of 4% or less to start in ISCO-7 jobs. There is no clear education-specific pattern for work as plant and machine operators, assemblers (ISCO-8). Lower

education groups have the highest probability to start in elementary occupations (ISCO-9). For example, 11% of basic secondary graduates and 13% of upper secondary graduates work in elementary occupations, whereas this applies to just 4–7% of professional graduates, 1% of lower tertiary (BA) graduates and no one from higher tertiary (MA/PhD) education.

**Table 4.3: Occupational level of first job, by gender, education level and VET organization, row-%**

	ISCO 1	ISCO 2	ISCO 3	ISCO 4	ISCO 5	ISCO 6	ISCO 7	ISCO 8	ISCO 9	Army
<i>Gender</i>										
Men	1	20	6	6	23	8	18	6	10	2
Women	2	37	19	22	13	4	1	0	1	0
<i>Education</i>										
Basic secondary	0	0	2	5	41	11	27	3	11	0
Upper secondary	0	0	6	8	31	14	21	5	13	2
Initial professional	0	0	11	9	33	3	24	8	7	5
Secondary professional	2	23	26	17	17	3	4	4	4	1
Lower tertiary (BA)	2	57	10	14	4	2	4	3	1	2
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	3	71	9	6	6	0	0	2	0	2
<i>VET organization</i>										
Init. Prof. school-based	0	0	5	17	31	2	24	12	10	0
Init. Prof. dual/workplace based	0	0	18	0	36	3	24	3	3	12
Sec. Prof. school-based	1	17	26	20	23	5	2	5	1	0
Sec. Prof. dual/workplace based	2	26	26	14	13	3	5	3	6	1

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview. Respondents who were self-employed and employers in their first job are excluded. ISCO levels are defined as 1 "Legislators, senior officials, managers", 2 "Professionals", 3 "Technicians, associate professionals", 4 "Clerks", 5 "Service workers, shop and market sales workers", 6 "Skilled agricultural and fishery workers", 7 "Craft and related trades workers", 8 "Plant and machine operators, assemblers" and 9 "Elementary occupations". Military personal forms a separate group without any distinction of the occupational skill level.

Regarding the organization of VET there is no clear relationship with the occupation level. All professional groups almost never reach ISCO-1 level. In terms of access to professional positions (ISCO-2) secondary professional graduates who received dual-/workplace-based training have an advantage over those who received school-based training (26% vs. 17%). For ISCO-3 technical and associates professional positions, there is an advantage of dual-/workplace-based training over school-based training at the initial professional education level (18% vs. 5%) but not at the secondary professional education level (26% for both groups). Professional graduates with school-based training have higher chances of getting a first job as a clerk (ISCO-4) than those with dual-/workplace-based training (17 percentage point advantage for initial professional education and six percentage points advantage for secondary professional education). Patterns are mixed for service workers, shop and market sales workers (ISCO-5). At the initial professional level, those with dual-/workplace-based training end more often in ISCO-5 positions than those with school-based training (36% vs. 31%). At the secondary professional level, those with school-based training end more often in ISCO-5 positions than those with dual-/workplace-based training (23% vs. 13%). At lower ISCO levels 6 to 9 there is no clear association with the type of training for secondary professional education. The same applies to ISCO levels 6 and 7 for initial professional education. However, among initial professional



graduates, those with school-based training have much higher incidence of ISCO-8 and ISCO-9 positions than those with dual-/workplace-based training.

As explained above we looked at various dimensions of job quality. In the next step we would like to link the various quality dimensions to the type of first jobs in order to better characterize them. Table 4.4 presents the association between job quality and first job type. The great majority of formally registered employees were working with official contracts, either with unlimited duration (89%) or temporary (10%) one. Only 1% of formally employed first job holders were working on the bases of a verbal agreement with the employer. Having no written work contract is the clearly dominating contract arrangement for informal/unregistered employees (88%) and employees and helpers in family business (94%). This reveals how close the family business jobs are to the informal employee positions in terms of contract types. If informal/unregistered employees have a contract it is predominately a limited work contract (9%) instead of an unlimited work contract (3%). Formal employees also have the highest probability (94%) of benefiting from employer-provided social security. In contrast, employer-provided social security is an almost unknown phenomenon both among informal employees as well as employees/helpers in the family businesses with an incidence below 5%.

**Table 4.4: Quality of first job, by first job type, column-%**

	Formal/ registered employee	Informal/ unregistered employee	Employee/ helper in family business
<i>Type of contract</i>			
No contract	1	88	94
Unlimited contract	89	3	4
Limited contract	10	9	0
Don't know/refusal	0	1	2
<i>Employer provided free health insurance</i>			
Yes	94	4	2
No	6	95	96
Don't know/refusal	0	1	2
<i>Occupation (ISCO 1 digit)</i>			
Legislators, senior official and managers	2	0	0
Professionals	39	8	0
Technicians, associate professionals	16	4	0
Clerks	14	8	0
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	9	38	14
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1	1	84
Craft and related trades workers	5	26	0
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	4	5	0
Elementary occupations	5	11	2
Military occupation	3	0	0

*Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.*

*Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview. Respondents who were self-employed and employers in their first job are excluded.*

Formal employees have the highest probability of becoming legislators, senior officials, managers (ISCO-1 level: 2%) and professionals (ISCO-2 level: 39%), whereas informal/unregistered employees and employees and helpers in family business almost never reach these occupational levels. Formal employees also clearly dominate the job positions as technicians, associate professionals (ISCO-3 level: 16%) and clerks (ISCO-4 level: 14%), which is only reached by 4% (ISCO-3) and 8% (ISCO-4) of informal/unregistered employees and no employee/helper in family businesses. Employees and helpers in family business primarily work as service workers, shop and market sales workers (ISCO-5 level: 14%) and skilled agricultural and fishery workers (ISCO-level 6: 84%). Informal/unregistered employees work often as service workers, shop and market sales workers (ISCO-5 level: 38%), whereas just 9% of formal/registered employees work in this occupational level. Both formal/registered and Informal/unregistered employees almost never (1% incidence) work as skilled agricultural and fishery workers (ISCO-level 6). Informal/unregistered employees have a high incidence of working as craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7: 26%) and elementary occupations (ISCO-9: 11%). In comparison, only 5% of formal/registered employees work in ISCO-7 positions and only 5% of formal/registered employees work in ISCO-9 positions.

Data presented in Table 4.5 illustrate the main characteristics of those young persons who started their labor market career as entrepreneurs. In terms of type of occupation, the majority make up self-employed craftsmen (45%) followed by shopkeepers, petty traders and street-sellers (29%) and farmer/herders (16%). Just 4% enter professional positions, e.g. as lawyers, consultants or medical doctors. There is also just a small proportion of 5% who become manager/owner of their own company/organization.

**Table 4.5: Characteristics of first jobs as own account workers, self-employed and employers**

	%
<i>Occupation</i>	
Farmer/herder	16
Self-employed craftsman	45
Shopkeeper/petty trader/street-seller	29
Professional (Lawyer, consultant, doctor)	4
Manager/owner of the company/organization	5
<i>Formality of business</i>	
registered business	29
unregistered business	70
Don't know/Refusal	1
<i>Main source of business funding</i>	
You took the business over from your father/mother/other relatives	23
Money from family or friends	4
Own savings/sold property	37
Loan from microfinance institutions	3
Loan from bank	6
No money was necessary to start your business	27

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview. Analysis is restricted to own account workers, self-employed and employers in first job. Dependent employees and family helpers in first job are excluded.

Gender-specific analyses (results not displayed in Table 4.5) reveal no big differences in the main job characteristics. There is just the slight tendency that women work more often as professionals and managers, whereas men work more often as self-employed craftsmen and farmer/herders.

70% of businesses owned at labor market entry were not officially registered, which underlines the importance of the informal sector also in the self-employment segment in Azerbaijan. In terms of business funding about one quarter of the respondents said that no money was necessary to start their business and about one quarter took over the business from their family. Among those who needed money the main part of them used own saving or sold a property (overall 37%; 74% among those who needed money). A minor role plays the family and friends who were the main source of business funding of just 4% of businesses at labor market entry in Azerbaijan. Similarly, loans from banks (3%) and loans from microfinance institutions (6%) are not as important for businesses of young people. This might be a hint that the banking system in Azerbaijan still has potential to play a bigger role in the financing of business startups of young people.

#### **4.2. Sector of first job**

There were also differences with regard to the economic sectors in which young school leavers are employed (excluding family sector) in their first job. Regarding the sector of employment, 64% of women and 32% of men, who are employed in their first job, work in the public sector, whereas 68% of men and 35% of women work in the private sector at the beginning of their labor market career. Employment in NGOs plays a negligible role as the incidence is 1% or below. There is a positive association between the education level and the probability of working in the public sector as an employee. For example, just 7% of basic secondary graduates and 22% of upper secondary graduates work in the public sector, whereas the share of public sector employment reaches 54% among higher tertiary graduates (MA/PhD). Graduates from lower tertiary (BA) secondary professional education even have higher employment shares in the public sector (58% and 63%) than higher tertiary graduates (MA/PhD) (54%).

In terms of industry sectors<sup>19</sup> it turns out that women most often start work in the education sector (41%). Other important sectors for women are other community, social and personal service activities (13%), public administration (10%) and wholesale and retail trade (10%). In contrast, male labor market entrants dominate construction (16%), work in hotel and restaurants (11%). Men also relatively often work in wholesale and retail trade (12%). Overall, male first employment is rather equally spread across the industry sectors, whereas there is a stronger concentration of women on specific work sectors.

There is also a relationship between education attainment of the respondent and the industry sector of first employment. For example, the share of the agriculture, hunting and forestry sector is highest among the secondary graduates (12–13%) and declines with education as almost no tertiary graduate works in this sector. A similar pattern can be observed in wholesale and retail trade, and construction as well as work in hotels and restaurants. In contrast, secondary professional and tertiary graduates tend to have a higher probability to work in the industry sectors of public administration, education and health and social work than lower education groups.

---

<sup>19</sup> Respondents who were self-employed and employers in their first job are excluded from the analysis of ownership structure.

**Table 4.6: Sector of employment and industry sector, by gender and education level, row-%**

	Men	Women	Basic Sec.	Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof.	Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert.	High. Tert.
<i>Sector of employment</i>								
Public	32	64	7	22	37	63	58	54
Private	68	35	93	78	63	36	42	46
NGO	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Industry sector</i>								
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	8	6	12	13	3	5	3	0
Fishing	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Mining and quarrying	3	0	0	3	3	0	2	1
Manufacturing	8	3	6	6	11	6	6	10
Electricity, gas and water supply	3	0	0	1	3	2	4	0
Construction	16	0	14	18	15	3	7	3
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods	12	10	28	19	5	8	3	5
Hotels and restaurants	11	0	22	11	16	5	2	3
Transport, storage and communication	6	1	6	4	8	2	5	1
Financial intermediation	4	3	0	0	0	1	10	8
Real estate, renting and business activities	5	3	3	3	3	5	5	5
Public administration and defense; compulsory social security	8	10	0	6	7	10	13	7
Education	5	41	1	4	5	30	29	35
Health and social work	3	9	0	2	5	13	3	15
Other community, social and personal service activities	7	13	8	8	16	10	9	4
Private households with employed persons	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Extra-territorial organizations and bodies	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	2

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview. Respondents who were self-employed and employers in their first job are excluded. For the analysis of the sector of employment employees/helpers in family business are excluded, while they are included for the analysis of industry sector.

### 4.3. Methods of finding the first job

Whereas we analyzed the method of searching for a first job in Section 3.2 this Section 4.3 is devoted to the analysis of the method of finding the first job. Separate analyses are needed because these two aspects can be different as not every method used in the job search process will yield a job match. More specifically, not everybody searching for a job with a specific method has been

successful already and even among the successful labor market entrants not each method applied brought them into the first job. Whereas each respondent could report multiple methods of job search that he or she applied after leaving education, respondents had to name the one method how they found their first job. Comparing the job search methods applied (Table 3.3) and the methods of finding a first job (Table 4.7) provides some insights into the efficiency of job search method.<sup>20</sup>

Table 4.7 displays the method of finding a first job in total, by gender and by education attainment level. The analyses includes all respondents who became employees in non-family businesses. Respondents who were self-employed and employers as well as those who were employees/helpers in family business in their first job are excluded.

**Table 4.7: Methods of finding a first job in total, by gender and education level, row-%**

	Men	Women	Basic Sec./ Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof./ Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert./ High. Tert.
You inserted or consulted a job advertisement in online portals, newspapers or journals or answered one	2.3	2.3	0.5	3.4	3.5
Unsolicited application	15.2	23.5	12.1	20.0	23.0
You used personal relations	74.2	58.5	86.1	67.1	52.3
You contacted labor migrant networks	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.5
You took a test/You participated in a competition for recruitment to the public sector	6.6	12.8	0.2	6.7	18.5
You contacted a public employment agency	1.6	1.7	1.1	2.9	1.5
You contacted a private employment agency	0.0	1.0	0.2	0.0	0.8

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview. Respondents who were self-employed and employers as well as those who were employees/helpers in family business in their first job are excluded.

Informal networks play a key role in finding a first job in Azerbaijan. Three quarter of men found their first job via personal contacts. This share is lower among women but still more than every second women also found their first job using personal relations. Only very few respondents contacted labor migrant networks when looking for a first job. This can be explained by the definition of the target population, which entails only persons residing in Azerbaijan at the time of the survey, such that labor migrants are underrepresented in this survey. Among formal job search methods the most common way of finding a job is via unsolicited applications. 15.2% of men and 23.5% of women got their first job in this way. The share of women who found their first job via taking part in a test or competition for recruitment in the public sector was twice as large than for men (12.8% vs. 6.6%). In contrast, inserting or consulting a job advertisement in online portals, newspapers or journals or answering plays almost no role in Azerbaijan as it was just used by 2.3% of both men and women. Similarly, less than 2% of both men and women found their job by contacting public and private employment agencies.

The education-specific analyses show that the higher the education level of a graduate the less common it is to find a first job using the personal contacts. For example, 86.1% of secondary

<sup>20</sup> In this comparison, it should be taken into account that Table 3.3. includes all active job searchers irrespectively of their later sector of employment, whereas Table 4.7 is restricted to employees who are not employed by their own family. Hence, respondents who had their first job in the business of their family were not asked about the way of finding a first job because it is by definition via personal relations.

graduates got into their first employment using personal relations, which is higher than for professional graduates (67.1%) and tertiary graduates (52.3%). In contrast, the share of first jobs found via formal job search methods strongly increases with the level of education attainment. While just 0.2% of secondary graduates and 6.7% of professional graduates got their first job by taking a test or participating in a competition for recruitment in the public sector, this applies to 18.5% of tertiary graduates. Similarly, finding jobs via unsolicited applications happens twice more often among tertiary graduates (23.0%) than among secondary graduates (12.1%). Getting a first job via inserting or consulting a job advertisement in online portals, newspapers or journals is more common among professional and tertiary graduates (3.4–3.5%) than among secondary graduates (0.5%) but the overall incidence is very low in all education groups. Job placements via public and private employment agencies does not happen very often with an incidence of 2.9% at maximum for professional graduates.

The gender-specific and education-specific differences in the job search process may also relate to the different sectors of first employment among men and women and the different education groups. Hence, we add an analysis on the ways of finding a first job by the sector of employment. Table 4.8 show the method of finding a first job by the sector of employment. As before the analysis is restricted to employees who were not employed by their family. The NGO sector was excluded because of the very small incidence (less than 1%) (see Section 4.2).

**Table 4.8: Method of finding a first job by sector of employment, row-%**

	Public	Private
You inserted or consulted a job advertisement in online portals, newspapers or journals or answered one	1.4	3.0
Unsolicited application	23.3	14.0
You used personal relations	55.7	78.7
You contacted labor migrant networks	0.0	0.3
You took a test/You participated in a competition for recruitment to the public sector	16.7	2.8
You contacted a public employment agency	3.0	0.6
You contacted a private employment agency	0.0	0.6

*Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.*

*Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview. Respondents who were self-employed and employers as well as those who were employees/helpers in family business in their first job are excluded. The NGO sector was excluded because of the overall very low incidence (less than 1%) among first jobs.*

Table 4.8 reveals that first jobs in the private sector were more often found using personal relations (78.7%) than first jobs in the public sector (55.7%). In contrast, finding a job via taking a test for recruitment in the private sector or participating in a competition for recruitment in the public sector happens more often in the public sector (16.7% vs. 2.8%). Similarly, 23.3% of first jobs in the public sector were found by unsolicited applications compared to 14.0% of first jobs in the private sector. Finding jobs via inserting or consulting a job advertisement in online portals, newspapers or journals is also more common in the public than in the private sector but in general of low incidence in both sectors (3.0% vs. 1.4%). Job placements via public and private employment agencies occur more often for first jobs in the public sector than in the private sector but, again, the overall incidence is very low (3.0% vs. 1.2%).

## 5. Early career mobility

### 5.1. First job type and current activity status

In the following, we will analyze the characteristics of the few mobility processes that take place after having found a first job by comparing the situation at the time of the interview with the first job. Studying the early career dynamics is a central topic of school-to-work transition research (Gebel, 2015; Scherer, 2001). Table 5.1 starts with an analysis comparing the first job type with the current activity status of respondents. As we just compare the current situation with the situation of the first job we do not capture all mobility processes that have taken place in the early career. It should also be noted that the observation window varies for the respondents.

**Table 5.1: First job type and current activity status, column-%**

	First job type				
	Total	Formal/ registered employee	Informal/ unregistered employee	Employee/ helper in family business	Own- account/Self- employed/ Employer
<i>Current activity state</i>					
Formal/ registered employee	49	79	17	13	11
Informal/ unregistered employee	17	1	50	3	0
Employee/ helper in family business	5	0	0	74	0
Own-account/Self-employed/ Employer	9	2	6	2	79
Unemployed	18	17	25	7	10
Engaged in home duties	2	2	2	2	0

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold (this/a) job or not at the date of the interview.

According to the results displayed in Table 5.1 there is a high degree of stability in the activity status of formal/registered employees in the early career. 79% of those who started in a formal/registered job are still formal/registered employees at the time of the interview.<sup>21</sup> Only a very small share of 1% of registered employees change to informal/unregistered jobs. This underlines a strong segmentation of the employment sectors in Azerbaijan along the formal-informal divide as there are almost no mobility processes between formal to informal employment in the early career. Just a tiny share (less than 2%) of the persons with a formal/registered first job became employee or helper in family business or became own-account worker, self-employed or employer. If persons with a formal/registered first job at the beginning of their working career get non-employed this is primarily in form of engagement in home duties. 17% of persons with a formal/registered first job have become engaged in home duties at the time of the interview and just 2% are unemployed.

A higher degree of mobility is observed for persons who started as an informal/unregistered employee. Just half of them are still employed as an informal/unregistered employee at the time of the interview. Whereas there were almost no mobility processes from formal/registered employment to informal/unregistered employment, there are 17% of respondents who more from

<sup>21</sup> As we just compare the job type of the first job and the current job type, employer changes and changes in job quality may have happened for those who stay in formal employment.

informal/unregistered employment in their first job to formal/registered employment at the time of the interview. However, there is also a large proportion of persons with an informal/unregistered first job who have become non-employed at the time of the interview. Specifically, 25% are engaged in home duties and 6% are unemployed at the time of the interview.

A high persistence is visible for persons who started their working life as an employee or helper in a family business. Around three quarter of them are still employee or helper in a family business at the time of the interview. Outflow processes occur both into other forms of (self-)employment and non-employment. Specifically, 13% of those who started as an employee or helper in a family business are a formal/registered employee at the time of the interview, whereas just 3% entered informal/unregistered employment. Just a few persons became unemployed (2%) or engaged in home duties (7%). The transition to own-account work, self-employment or becoming an employer also occurs very seldom (2%).

Persons who were own-account worker, self-employment or employer in their first job were very often in the same position at the time of the interview. Just 21% leave this status. 11% enter formal/registered employment and 10% become unemployed.

## **5.2. Occupational mobility**

Next to mobility in the type of job we consider the mobility in the occupational skill level of the respondent. We do so by comparing the occupation in the first job with the occupation in the current job (see Table 5.2). Thus, the analysis is restricted to persons who (have) had a first job and who had a job at the time of the interview. Due to applied occupation scale and design of the questionnaire the analysis is further restricted to persons who were employed in non-family business or family business, i.e. excluding own-account workers, self-employed and employers. As in Section 4.1 the first job as well as the current job were analyzed at the 1-digit ISCO level, which was the result of aggregating from a three-digit ISCO version.

Concerning those who got direct access to a ISCO-1 positions as legislators, senior officials and managers position at labor market entry, almost everybody (89%) can keep this privileged position. Just 11% experience moves to jobs as professionals (ISCO-2). Similarly, there is a strong occupational immobility for persons who started as professionals (ISCO-2) as 91% are still observed in this occupational position at the time of the interview. A few of the professionals are able to move upward to ISCO-1 positions as legislators, senior officials and managers (3%). 3% become technical and associates professionals (ISCO-3) and 2% become clerks (ISCO-4). Among those who started as technical and associates professionals (ISCO-3) 85% remain in this occupational position, whereas 9% become professionals (ISCO-2) and 1% get into ISCO-1 positions as legislators, senior officials and managers. There is also some downward mobility as, in sum, 2% become clerks (ISCO-4) or shop and market sales workers (ISCO-5) and, in sum, 4% become craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7), plant and machine operators, assemblers (ISCO-8) or end up in elementary occupations (ISCO-9). 80% of clerks (ISCO-4) are still clerks at the time of the interview. Most of the outflows from the position as a clerk occur in terms of upward occupational mobility. Specifically, 8% become technical and associates professionals (ISCO-3), 6% become professionals (ISCO-2) and 2% even reach ISCO-1 positions as legislators, senior officials and managers. Only 4% end up in lower positions, mainly as shop and market sales workers (ISCO-5) and craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7). Shop and market sales workers (ISCO-5) are equally upward and downward mobile, although the great majority (79%) remains in their occupational class. 11% of them reach ISCO-2 to ISCO-4 positions and 11% end up in lower ISCO-6 to ISCO-9 positions. If mobility occurs, it is rather diverse for persons in ISCO-5 positions as they enter other positions to a rather equal amount. A high degree of occupational level persistence is visible for skilled agricultural and fishery workers (ISCO-6). 86% of them were still in the same occupational level at the time of the interview as at the beginning of their work career. Upward mobility is very seldom for this group as just 4% make an move to higher ISCO



levels. If mobility occurs, it is predominately in form of downward mobility. For example, 2% become craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7), 3% become plant and machine operators, assemblers (ISCO-8) and 3% end up in elementary occupations (ISCO-9). In contrast, craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7) are more often upward mobile than skilled agricultural and fishery workers (ISCO-6). Specifically, 15% of persons who started as craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7) reach a higher ISCO level. For example, even 6% became professionals (ISCO-2) at the time of the interview. Just 6% experience downward mobility to jobs as plant and machine operators, assemblers (ISCO-8), whereas the incidence of downward moves to elementary occupations (ISCO-9) is below 1%. However, still the great majority of 79% of craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7) remain at the same ISCO level. The highest degree of mobility is observed among plant and machine operators, assemblers (ISCO-8) as 31% of them changes the occupational level. Interestingly, downward moves to elementary occupations (ISCO-9) almost never occur (<1%). 14% make upward moves to ISCO-5 to ISCO-7 positions. 8% even become technical and associates professionals (ISCO-3) and 6% even become professionals (ISCO-2). 80% of persons with first jobs in elementary occupations (ISCO-9) remain trapped in this lowest occupational level at the time of the interview. Upward mobility of this group is mainly restricted to moves to jobs as plant and machine operators, assemblers (ISCO-8) (3%) and jobs as craft and related trades workers (ISCO-7) (8%). However, in sum, 6% reach ISCO-2 to ISCO-6 positions.

**Table 5.2: Occupation in first and current job, column-%**

	Occupation first job									
	ISCO 1	ISCO 2	ISCO 3	ISCO 4	ISCO 5	ISCO 6	ISCO 7	ISCO 8	ISCO 9	Army
<i>Current occupation</i>										
ISCO 1	89	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
ISCO 2	11	91	9	6	4	1	6	6	2	4
ISCO 3	0	3	85	8	4	2	1	8	2	0
ISCO 4	0	2	1	80	3	0	2	0	1	0
ISCO 5	0	0	1	3	79	2	1	4	1	0
ISCO 6	0	0	0	0	2	86	4	4	0	0
ISCO 7	0	0	1	1	3	2	79	6	8	0
ISCO 8	0	0	2	0	2	3	6	69	3	0
ISCO 9	0	0	1	0	4	3	0	0	80	0
Army	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	2	2	96

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis is conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold this job or not at the date of the interview, and who are currently employed. Restricted to persons who were employed in non-family business or family business. Excluding own-account workers, self-employed and employers. ISCO levels are defined as 1 "Legislators, senior officials, managers", 2 "Professionals", 3 "Technicians, associate professionals", 4 "Clerks", 5 "Service workers, shop and market sales workers", 6 "Skilled agricultural and fishery workers", 7 "Craft and related trades workers", 8 "Plant and machine operators, assemblers" and 9 "Elementary occupations". Military personal forms a separate group without any distinction of the occupational skill level.

**5.3. Sectoral mobility**

The analysis in Section 4.2 highlighted that there are differences with regard to the economic sectors in which young school leavers are employed in their first job. In this section we consider the sectoral mobility between the first and current job. Hence, the analysis is restricted to persons who (have)

had a first job and who have a job at the time of the interview. Due to applied definition of sectors and the design of the questionnaire the analysis is further restricted to persons who were employed in non-family business or family business, i.e. excluding own-account workers, self-employed and employers. Information about the mobility out of the family business sector and self-employment were provided in Section 5.1.

According to the results in Table 5.3 there is a rather high degree of sectoral immobility in the early career. The great majority of persons remain in their initial sector of employment. This applies to 97% of labor market entrants in the public sector and 84% of labor market entrants in the private sector. Thus, just 16% of those who started their career in the public sector changed to the private sector at the time of the interview. Mobility out of the NGO sector is restricted to private sector jobs. The great majority (75%) of labor market entrants in the NGO sector remain in this sector.

**Table 5.3: Sector of employment in first and current job, column percentages**

	First sector of employment		
	Public	Private	NGO
<i>Current sector of employment</i>			
Public	97	16	0
Private	3	84	25
NGO	0	0	75

*Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.*

*Remarks: Analysis is conducted for the subsample of all persons who found a first job, irrespectively of the fact whether they still hold this job or not at the date of the interview, and who are currently employed. Restricted to persons who were employed in non-family business Excluding family helpers/employees, own-account workers, self-employed and employers.*

## 6. Timing of life course transitions

### 6.1. Incidence and average age of experiencing central events in the transition to adulthood

In this section we analyze the incidence and average age of experiencing central events in the transition to adulthood. In this regard we follow the approach of Gebel and Heyne (2014) and study the transition from education to work in the broader context of the transition to adulthood (Buchmann & Kriesi, 2011; Corijn & Klijzing, 2001; Hogan & Astone, 1986). Specifically, we consider the events of leaving education, leaving parental home, finding a first job, getting legally married<sup>22</sup> and getting parent for the first time. The incidence measures how many percent of the respondents have already experienced the respective transition event until the time of the interview. It should be kept in mind that the age of the respondent varies at the date of the interview. The age of leaving education is calculated on average for all respondents because the target population of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey is persons who left education. The age of further life course events is only calculated on average for those who experienced this event until the date of the interview. Due to the censoring of data we do not observe all life course events.

Table 6.1 presents the incidence and average age of the respondents at the central life events. The events are ordered in the chronological sequence that would be expected but individual deviations are common (see Sections 6.2 to 6.5 for further analyses on the individual order of life course events). According to the results of the analyses, men and women in Azerbaijan have about the same average age of leaving education (men: 19.0 years, women: 19.2 years).

Regarding the central life course event of leaving parental home, both men and women leave their parental home when they are in the age of around 20 years (men: 20.0 years, women: 19.9 years). There are large gender differences in the incidence of the event of leaving home. While 64% of the female respondents have left parental home at the time of the interview, this applies to just 30% of the male respondents.

Men start their first job on average about one year younger than women (men: 20.7 years, women: 21.9 years). This age gap can be related to the longer first job search duration among women compared to men (see Section 3.3) as well as the gender and education-specific selection patterns into the labor market in view of the high labor market inactivity rate among women (see Section 3.1).<sup>23</sup> There are also gender-specific differences in the incidence of finding a first job. 85% of men (have) got a first job until the date of the interview compared to just 48% of women. Central technical explanations for this pattern are the higher inactivity rate of women after leaving education (see Section 3.1) and the longer duration of first job search for women (see Section 3.3).

Strongly gender-specific pattern can be observed with regard to the events of family formation. At the time of the interview 37% of men and 56% of women have experienced their first legal marriage. A similar gap in the incidence is also visible for first parenthood, which has been experienced by 48% of women and 28% of men until the date of the interview. The incidence of first parenthood is rather similar to the incidence of first legal marriage for both men and women, which is a hint for out-of-wedlock births being not common in Azerbaijan (see Section 6.5 for details). Gender-specific differences also occur in the timing of first marriage and first parenthood. Men are on average about three years older than women at these two life course events. Specifically, for the target population of persons having left education during the last ten years prior the interview, we find that men got married at age 24.1 on average compared to women who got married at age 21.1 on average. Male respondents got first time father on average at age 24.9 compared to first time mothers who were

---

<sup>22</sup> The topic of religious marriage is studied in Section 6.3.

<sup>23</sup> Other factors for the gender-related peculiarities in the timing of finding a first job such as the gender-specific effects of early marriage and childbirth and the challenges of combining work and family life should be subject to further in-depth analyses.

on average 21.9 years old when becoming a mother. Comparing the age at central life course events it turns out that women are at the events of family formation (first legal marriage and first motherhood) on average of equal age or even younger than at the event of getting a first job. In contrast, men experience the events of family formation on average at a much higher age than the event of getting a first job.

**Table 6.1: Incidence and average age of experiencing central events in the transition to adulthood, by gender and education**

	Age of leaving education	Leaving home		1st job		1st marriage		1st parenthood	
		Inci-dence	Age	Inci-dence	Age	Inci-dence	Age	Inci-dence	Age
<i>Gender</i>									
Men	19.0	30%	20.0	85%	20.7	37%	24.1	28%	24.9
Women	19.2	64%	19.9	48%	21.9	56%	21.1	48%	21.9
<i>Education</i>									
Basic secondary	15.2	32%	18.2	59%	17.3	37%	19.5	34%	20.4
Upper secondary	17.2	30%	19.8	60%	19.2	39%	21.3	31%	21.7
Initial professional	19.1	27%	19.8	80%	20.5	37%	21.5	34%	22.3
Secondary professional	20.3	59%	20.0	68%	21.7	50%	22.2	44%	23.2
Lower tertiary (BA)	21.9	68%	20.0	80%	23.2	56%	24.1	46%	25.0
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	24.1	59%	21.4	91%	24.7	50%	25.8	36%	26.8

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Age of leaving education is calculated on average for all respondents because the target population of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey is persons who left education. The age of further life course events is only calculated on average for those who experienced this event until the date of the interview.

There are also strong education-specific differences in the incidence and timing of life course transition events. This is most evident in the average age of leaving education. Respondents with basic secondary education leave education on average at age of just 15.2 years and upper secondary education do so on average at age 17.2. Graduates from initial professional education are on average just 19.1 years old when leaving education, whereas their counterparts from upper secondary education reach an average age of 20.3 years. Tertiary graduates are on average the oldest when education leaving. Persons with lower tertiary (BA) degrees leave education on average at age 21.9 and respondents with upper tertiary (MA/PhD) degrees do so on average at age 24.1.

The education-specific age dispersion is much less pronounced with regard to leaving parental home. It ranges from 18.2 years for basic secondary graduates to 21.4 years for higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. For all education groups the average age of leaving parental home is lower than the age of leaving education. The incidence of leaving parental home ranges from 27 to 32% for secondary and initial professional graduates. It is higher for higher education group. The incidence of leaving parental home lies between 59% and 68% for secondary professional and tertiary graduates.

Concerning the age of starting of the first job it is logically that its timing is strongly related to the age of leaving of education and so its average value is higher among more educated youths. For example, basic secondary graduates are on average 17.3 years old and upper secondary graduates are on average 19.2 years old, whereas lower tertiary (BA) graduates on average find a first job at age 23.2 and higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates are on average 24.7 years old. Comparing the average age of leaving education and the average age of finding a first job across the education groups mirrors the findings we had with respect to the education-specific job finding rates (see Section 3.3). The gap is 2.1 years for basic secondary graduates and 2.0 years for upper secondary graduates, whereas it is

just 1.4 years both for initial and secondary professional graduates and even smaller for tertiary graduates (BA: 1.3 years, MA/PhD: 0.6 years).<sup>24</sup>

There are also education differences with respect to the incidence and timing of first marriage. The share of secondary and initial professional graduates who experienced their first marriage ranges between 37% and 39%, whereas the range is from 50 to 56% for secondary professional and tertiary graduates. In contrast, education-specific differences in the incidence of first parenthood are less pronounced. It is between 31% and 36% for secondary graduates, initial professional graduates but also for higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. Just secondary professional graduates (44%) and lower tertiary graduates (BA) (46%) register more marriages. The age of first legal marriage increases from 19.5 years for basic secondary graduates to 25.8 years for higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. Similarly, there is a strong relationship between the level of education and the age of first parenthood. It is on average lowest for basic secondary graduates (20.4) and highest for higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates (26.8).

As explained at the beginning of this Section 6.1 the analysis of the incidence and average age of life course events does not take the censoring of data into account. Thus, in more detailed analyses in the following, we apply method of event history analyses to the timing of the demographic life course events of leaving parental home, first legal marriage and first parenthood as we already did it for the timing of first job in Section 3.3.

In addition, we provide for each of the life course transitions more detailed analyses on the ordering of life course events in an individual perspective in Sections 6.2 to 6.5. Due to the censoring of data we do not have full life course sequences at hand. Thus, we cannot say how many percent of people experienced first event A and then event B and how many percent did this the other way around. However, what we can do is to investigate how many percent of persons who experienced a certain life course event have already experienced other life course events prior to the event of interest. When interpreting these kind of analyses in the following Sections 6.2 to 6.5 it should be kept in mind that due to the design of a survey on recent education leavers not all further life course events of leaving home or family formation have already been observed for every person who will experience in her or his life course. Hence, the results only apply to the respective group of persons who has already experienced the respective life course event. Moreover, the warning is given that these analyses do not allow any conclusions how many percent experience other life course events afterwards. This is because, due to the censoring of data, we do not observe each further life course events. Another related warning is that comparing numbers across Sections 6.2 to 6.5 is only possible to a limited degree because the sample analyzed is different in each section. This is because each Section 6.2 to 6.5 focuses on those respondents who have already experienced the life course event of interest until the date of the interview. As the incidence of life course events varies in general and due to censoring these are different groups of respondents that are investigated as analytical samples in each Section 6.2 to 6.5.

## **6.2. The timing of leaving education and finding a first job**

Table 6.2 shows the percentage of persons who experienced other life course transitions before leaving education, differentiated by gender and education groups. The incidence of leaving parental home before leaving education is higher among women (28%) than among men (18%).<sup>25</sup> There is a

---

<sup>24</sup> The more elaborated analysis on the relationship between education level and time until finding a first job is the event history analysis conducted in Section 3.3 because it takes the censoring of data into account, which is not the case in this Section 6.1.

<sup>25</sup> As explained before, the statement that 28% of female education leavers left parental home before leaving education does not imply that 72% of women leave parental home afterwards. This is because, due to the censoring of data, we do not observe whether all remaining women will indeed leave parental home.

clear positive association between the level of education attainment and the share of respondents who leave parental home before leaving education. Just 1% of basic secondary and 3% of upper secondary graduates leave parental home before leaving education. This share increases to 13% among initial professional graduates and 38% among secondary professional graduates. It is highest among tertiary graduates (BA: 50%, MA/PhD: 47%). Hence, almost every second university student left parental home before leaving education.

Just 2% of men and 14% of women experience their first legal marriage ahead of leaving education. The share is 8% or below for initial professional graduates and secondary graduates. It ranges between 13% and 16% among secondary professional and tertiary graduates. Thus, there is a slight positive association between the level of education and experiencing events of family formation before leaving education. Similarly, the incidence of first parenthood before leaving education is very low. It is 1% for men and 8% for women. There is a weak positive relationship with the level of education attainment. While just tiny shares (0% to 3%) of secondary and initial professional graduates got parents, among secondary professional graduates 9% and among lower tertiary graduates (BA) 10% got parent before leaving education. An exception to this relationship are higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates, whose probability of first parenthood before leaving education is just 3%, which is comparable to lower education groups.

**Table 6.2: Share of people (%) experiencing other life course transitions before leaving education, by gender and education**

	Before leaving education ...		
	leaving home	1st marriage	1st parenthood
<i>Gender</i>			
Men	18	2	1
Women	28	14	8
<i>Education</i>			
Basic secondary	1	0	1
Upper secondary	3	1	0
Initial professional	13	8	3
Secondary professional	38	16	9
Lower tertiary (BA)	50	13	10
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	47	15	3

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the full sample.

Table 6.3 reports the percentage of persons who experienced other life course transitions before getting a first job, differentiated by gender and education groups. The analysis and following interpretations are restricted to the sample of persons who have found a first job before the date of the interview. We find that already 42% of women but just 19% of men who got a first job left parental home before starting to work.<sup>26</sup> The incidence of leaving parental home before leaving education grows with the level of education. The incidence is 3 to 4% for secondary graduates and 13% for initial professional graduates. It is much higher for secondary professional graduates (40%) and for those with tertiary education (BA: 52%, MA/PhD: 48%). Thus, about every second university student left parental home before getting a first job.

<sup>26</sup> As explained before, the statement that 42% of women who found a first job left parental home before does not imply that 58% of women who found a first job will leave parental home afterwards. This is because, due to the censoring of data, we do not observe whether all remaining women will indeed leave parental home.

Whereas one quarter of women got married before getting a first job, this applies to only 4% of men. There is a tendency that the share of experiencing first marriage before getting a first job increases with the level of education. Whereas just 0% of basic secondary graduates, 4% of upper secondary graduates and 11% of initial professional graduates married before leaving education this applies to 18% of all groups with post-secondary education. Similar gender and education-specific patterns can be observed for the timing of first parenthood. 17% of women got mother but only 2% of men got father before starting to work. The probability of getting father or mother before finding a first job increases from 1% for basic secondary graduates to 14% for secondary professional graduates. However, the share is lower again for tertiary graduates (BA: 12%, MA/PhD: 6%).

**Table 6.3: Share of people (%) experiencing other life course transitions before finding a first job, by gender and education**

	Before leaving education ...		
	leaving home	1st marriage	1st parenthood
<i>Gender</i>			
Men	19	4	2
Women	42	25	17
<i>Education</i>			
Basic secondary	3	0	1
Upper secondary	4	4	2
Initial professional	13	11	4
Secondary professional	40	18	14
Lower tertiary (BA)	52	18	12
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	48	18	6

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis is restricted to the sample of persons who have found a first job before the date of the interview.

### 6.3. The timing of leaving parental home

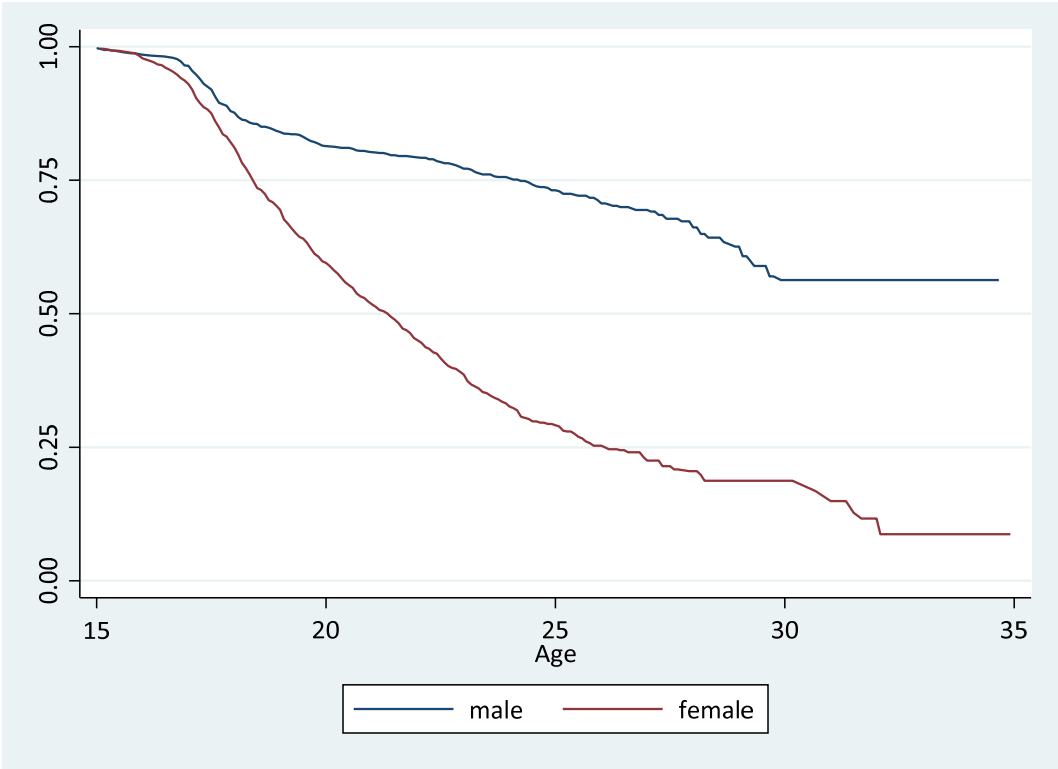
Leaving the parental home is seen as an important step in the complex transition to adulthood (Baranowska-Rataj et al., 2016; Gebel, 2017; Shanahan, 2000; Corijn & Klijzing, 2001). It is an objective indicator or, so called “transition marker”, of young people becoming independent from their parents. It also often implies that young people gain autonomy (Baranowska-Rataj et al. 2016). However, the objective indicator of leaving the parental home should not be seen as equal for gaining autonomy from parents (Manzoni, 2016). Young people may be rather independent of their parents although they still share a flat. In a similar way, young people may have their own household but the parents still strongly support their child. The standard objective indicator of the date of leaving education is used in order to maintain comparability to the majority of empirical studies on leaving parental home.

As explained by Gebel and Mandieva (2019) a time restriction for defining the event of leaving parental home is introduced requiring that the young people lived separately for one year or more to avoid reporting of short insignificant spells. Periods of military service or long-term hospital stays were excluded because young people only move from the parental home to institutionalized living arrangements, which does not represent the move to residential independence researchers are interested in when studying the transition to adulthood. The interviewer guideline specifies that “parental home” is broadly defined as living arrangements with the legal guardian(s), such as the biological, adoptive, or step parent(s) the respondent spent most of his or her childhood (up to age

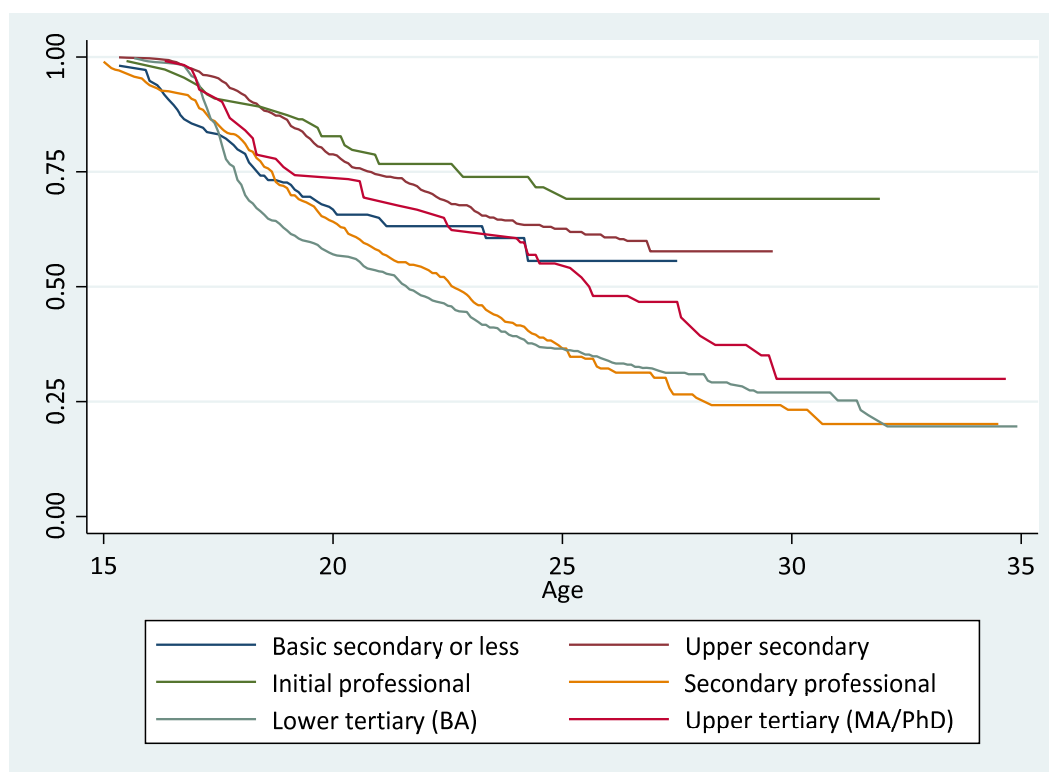
15). Adoptive and step parent were also included because, from a theoretical perspective, the biological relationship is not of interest when investigating the process of gaining residential independence. “Living separately” is defined as living in separate accommodation, i.e. with a separate entrance, living either alone or with other person(s) (friend(s), partner, spouse, own children, parents-in-law, etc. but not with any biological, adoptive and/or stepparents). This definition was chosen to account for multi-story dwellings, which are shared by separate persons and families that form distinct households. Thus, staying at home requires that the person continues sharing the household with his or her legal guardian(s).

Event history analysis is used to study the timing of leaving parental home. As described in Section 3.3 this accounts for the problem of right-censoring of data. Figure 6.1 shows Kaplan-Meier survival functions for leaving parental home by gender and education. The y-axis shows the proportion of persons who have not yet left parental home for a given age that is marked on the x-axis. In addition, Table 6.4 shows the respective figures but from a reversed perspective. For selected ages it reports the share of people having left parental home until the respective age by gender and education groups. This is equivalent to the distance from the 100% line and the Kaplan Meier survivor function in Figure 6.1.

**Figure 6.1: Kaplan-Meier survival functions for leaving parental home, by gender and education**







Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.  
Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the whole sample.

**Table 6.4: Share of people (%) having left parental home until a specific age, by gender and education**

	Age					
	18	20	22	25	27	30
<i>Gender</i>						
Men	12	19	21	27	31	44
Women	19	40	55	71	77	81
<i>Education</i>						
Basic secondary	20	33	37	44	44	–
Upper secondary	8	21	29	37	42	–
Initial professional	9	17	23	28	31	31
Secondary professional	18	36	46	63	70	77
Lower tertiary (BA)	28	43	52	63	68	73
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	13	26	33	45	53	70

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the whole sample. Survivor function cannot be estimated at age 30 for the secondary graduates because no events were observed.

The empirical analyses show that 12% of men and even 19% of women left parental home at age 18 or earlier. The share doubles for women to 40% at age 20 and also increases for men to 19% at age 20. The gender gap further increases with age. At age 25 almost three quarter of women but only around one quarter of men left parental home. At age 30 the gender difference is still 37 percentage points as 81% of women and 44% of men left parental home. There is no clear association between the level of education and the timing of leaving parental home. For example, already 20% of basic

secondary graduates as well as 24% of prospective<sup>27</sup> lower tertiary (BA) graduates but just 13% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates left parental home until age 18. At age 22 the highest incidence of leaving parental home is observed among (prospective) lower tertiary (BA) graduates (52%) and secondary professional graduates (46%). Initial professional graduates have the lowest incidence (23%). At age 25, the highest cumulative proportion of home leavers is reached again by secondary professional and lower tertiary (BA) graduates (63%). They are followed by higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates (45%) and basic secondary graduates (44%), which underlines that there is no clear nexus to the level of education attainment.

Table 6.5 shows the share of persons who experienced other life course transitions before leaving parental home, differentiated by gender and education groups. The analysis and following interpretations are restricted to the sample of persons who have found a first job before the date of the interview.

**Table 6.5: Share of people (%) experiencing other life course transitions before leaving parental home, by gender and education**

	Before leaving parental home ...			
	Leaving education	1st job	1st marriage	1st parenthood
<i>Gender</i>				
Men	36	26	9	4
Women	56	16	2	1
<i>Education</i>				
Basic secondary	96	9	0	0
Upper secondary	90	23	4	2
Initial professional	53	26	0	0
Secondary professional	36	19	5	2
Lower tertiary (BA)	26	17	5	1
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	19	16	5	0

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis is restricted to the sample of persons who have left parental home before the date of the interview.

56% of women and 36% of men left education before leaving parental home.<sup>28</sup> The incidence of leaving education before leaving parental home strongly declines with the level of education attainment. Whereas 96% of basic secondary graduates first leave education and then parental home, this applies to just 53% of initial professional graduates and just 19% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. Regarding the timing of the first job, 26% of men and 16% of women started to work before leaving parental home. There is no clear relationship between the level of education and the incidence of getting a first job before leaving education. For example, 9% of basic secondary graduates but 23% of upper secondary graduates got a first job before leaving home, whereas this

<sup>27</sup> The education variable refers to the level of education attainment at the time of leaving education. At younger ages most of the higher education groups are still in education and have not yet obtained their highest education degree.

<sup>28</sup> As explained before, the finding of this Section 6.3 that 56% of women who left parental home until the date of the interview left education before is not directly comparable to the finding of Section 6.2 that 28% of women who left education until the date of the interview left parental home before. The two numbers do not add up to 100% because the analytical samples of Section 6.2 and 6.3 are different. In Section 6.2 the persons who left education until the date of the interview are analyzed, which is different from the sample of Section 6.3, in which only those persons are analyzed who left parental home until the date of the interview.

applies to 16–17% of tertiary graduates. The incidence of family formation before leaving education is extremely low for all gender and education groups. Just 9% of male and 2% of female parental home leavers were already married and just 4% of male and 1% of female parental home leavers already had a first child. However, more detailed analyses (not shown in Tables) reveal that, especially for women, the events of leaving home and first marriage coincide. Specially, this applies to 56% of women and 13% of men who left home. Combining these findings reveals that 58% (=2%+56%) of women and 22% of men (=9%+13%) who left home got married before or in the same month as leaving education. Thus, for more than every second of female home leavers and for every quarter of male home leavers there was a previous or coinciding event of marriage. Hence, the great majority of men experience leaving parental home without the previous or simultaneous step of getting married or childbirth.

#### **6.4. The timing and arrangement of first marriage**

Processes of family formation such as marriage and parenthood are central events in the transition to adulthood next to the transition from education to work. Life course research has shown that family formation and school-to-work transition are strongly interrelated (for a short overview, see, Gebel & Mandieva, 2019).

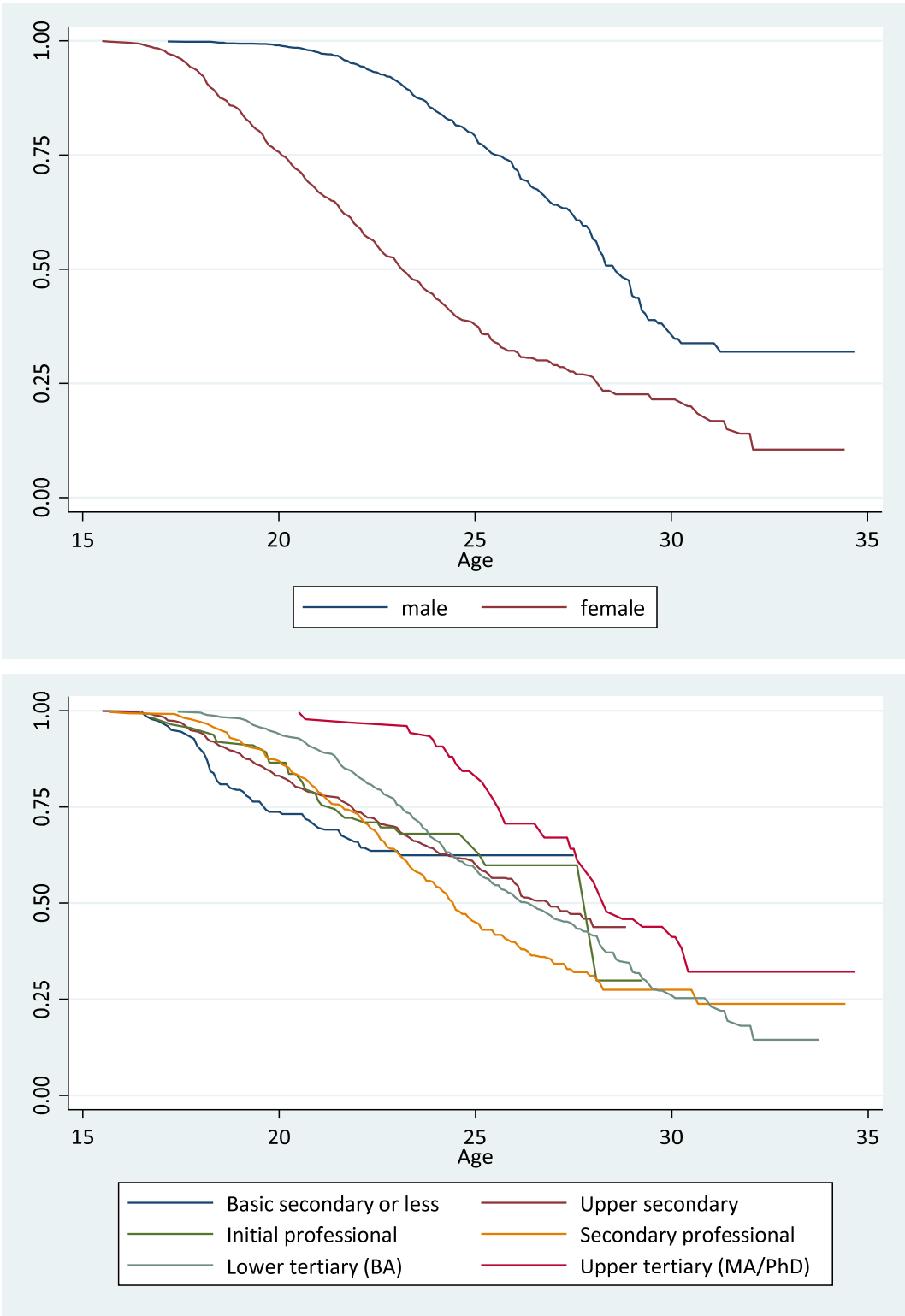
The TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan asked respondents about the incidence and timing of both religious and legal marriages. Detailed analyses (Results not displayed in Tables/Figures), reveal that among those respondents who experienced a religious or legal marriage (or both) until the time of the interview, 4% had a religious but (not yet) a legal marriage, 14% had a legal but (not yet) a religious marriage and 82% had both a religious and a legal marriage.

Among those respondents who have had both a religious and legal marriage until the date of the interview, 72% had these two events rather simultaneously within one month, 3% had the legal marriage before the religious marriage and 15% had the religious marriage before the legal marriage. The average time gap between both event is just about two months. Due to these small differences between legal and religious marriage we will focus on the event of first legal marriage in the following analyses. This is also in line with other studies on transition to first marriage.

Event history analysis, which accounts for the right-censoring of data, is also used to study the timing of first legal marriage. Figure 6.2 shows Kaplan-Meier survival functions for first marriage by gender and education. The y-axis shows the proportion of persons who have not yet legally married for a given age that is marked on the x-axis. In addition, Table 6.6 shows the respective figures but from a reversed perspective. For selected ages it reports the share of people who have got married until the respective age by gender and education groups. This is equivalent to the distance from the 100% line and the Kaplan Meier survivor function in Figure 6.2.

We find that less than 1% of men and 7% of women have already got married at age 18 or earlier. The shares strongly increase with age, specifically for women. For example, at age 20, almost one quarter of women but only 1% of men have got married. The shares increase to 62% for women and to 21% for men at age 25. A strong increase in marriage experience can be observed for men between age 27 and 30. The share of married men almost doubles from 36% at age 27 to 64% at age 30. After a maximum gender gap in marriage shares of 41 percentage points at age 25, the gender gap shrinks to 14 percentage points at age 30, when 78% of women and 64% of men have got married. The education-specific analyses reveal that the incidence of early marriage is higher among lower education groups. For example, until age 20, every fifth (26%) of basic secondary graduates got married, while the share is just 13–14% among (prospective) professional graduates and 0–4% among (prospective) tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. As higher education groups have not yet finished their education at these ages there is an overlap of education participation and education level effect.

**Figure 6.2: Kaplan-Meier survival functions for 1<sup>st</sup> legal marriage, by gender and education**



Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.  
 Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the whole sample.

**Table 6.6: Share of people (%) who experience 1<sup>st</sup> legal marriage until a specific age, by gender and education**

	Age					
	18	20	22	25	27	30
<i>Gender</i>						
Men	0	1	5	21	36	64
Women	7	24	41	62	71	78
<i>Education</i>						
Basic secondary	10	26	34	38	38	–
Upper secondary	6	17	26	40	51	–
Initial professional	4	14	28	32	40	–
Secondary professional	3	13	27	55	66	73
Lower tertiary (BA)	1	6	17	41	54	74
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	0	0	3	16	33	59

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the whole sample. Survivor function cannot be estimated at age 30 for the secondary and initial professional graduates because no events were observed due to the definition of the target group.

At age 22 marriage rates become more similar for secondary and professional graduates, ranging from 26 to 34%. The group of tertiary graduates differs most as 17% of (prospective) lower tertiary (BA) graduates and just 3% of (prospective) higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates have got married at age 22 or earlier. At age 27, the cumulative share of persons with first marriage experience is lowest among higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates (33%) but also among basic secondary graduates (38%). The highest share is observed for secondary professional graduates (66%). Hence, the negative association between the level of education and the incidence of marriage gets blurred at higher ages.

Table 6.7 shows the share of persons who experienced other life course transitions before first legal marriage, differentiated by gender and education groups. The analysis and following interpretations are restricted to the sample of persons who have got legally married before the date of the interview. 94% of married men and 75% of married women left education before getting married. The incidence of leaving education before getting married declines with the level of (prospective) education attainment. Whereas all basic secondary graduates first leave education and then got married, this applies to just 66% of higher tertiary graduates (MA/PhD) graduates. Nevertheless, among all education groups the great majority of persons who experienced first marriage until the date of the interview leaves education before getting married.

31% of both men and women left parental home before getting married. More detailed analyses (not shown in Figures/Tables) reveal that for many young people, especially women, the events of leaving home and first marriage coincide. Specially, this applies to 65% of women and 13% of men who got married. Combining these findings reveals that 96% (=31%+65%) of women and 44% of men (=31%+13%) who got married left parental home before marriage or the month of marriage. Hence, almost all married women leave parental home before or on marriage, whereas this applies to just about a half of men. The share of leaving home before getting married does not systematically vary with the (prospective) level of education. For example, the share is 47% for basic secondary graduates and 49% for higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. It is lowest for upper secondary graduates (16%).

84% of men but just 24% of women got a first job before becoming married. This share tends to increase with the level of education. For example, just 23% of basic secondary graduates got a first job before getting married, whereas this applies to 60% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates.

Only in a very few cases a first parenthood occurs before the first marriage. Specifically, just 4% of both men and women who got married first time became father or mother ahead. This is a first hint that out-of-wedlock births are very rare events in Azerbaijan (for further results see Chapter 6.5). The incidence of first parenthood before first marriage does not systematically vary with the level of education with the exception that basic secondary graduates (17%).

**Table 6.7: Share of people (%) experiencing other life course transitions before 1<sup>st</sup> legal marriage, by gender and education**

	Leaving education	Before 1st marriage ...		
		Leaving home	1st job	1st parenthood
<i>Gender</i>				
Men	94	31	84	4
Women	75	31	24	4
<i>Education</i>				
Basic secondary	100	47	23	17
Upper secondary	95	16	41	5
Initial professional	76	24	48	8
Secondary professional	67	28	40	3
Lower tertiary (BA)	74	44	53	2
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	66	49	60	3

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis is restricted to the sample of persons who experienced first legal marriage before the date of the interview.

The TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan asked respondents about some more details on the first marriage. In this respect Table 6.8 offers information on the way of finding the spouse, the decision on marriage and the age difference to the spouse, differentiated by gender and education groups.<sup>29</sup> The results indicate that young people in Azerbaijan usually meet their spouses occasionally or through parents and/or their family. Particularly, 39.0% of men and 34.7% of women report that they found their spouse occasionally. Finding a relative as a partner is quite common in Azerbaijan. 26.2% of women and 23.3% of men say that their partner is a relative. Specifically arranged marriages by the parents and/or the family were reported by 7.3% of men and 8.4% of women. 11.1% of women and 6.8% of men report that their spouse was a neighbor. Around 9% of young people met their spouse through friends, relatives, or acquaintances and about 8% got to know their spouse while studying. Meeting the spouse at the workplace is also not very common as this applies to only 4.9% of men and 2.1% of women. Finding a spouse via internet or phone, by matchmakers or via religious/charitable activities plays almost no role in Azerbaijan as their incidence is below 1%.

Regarding education group differences it turns out that the higher the (prospective) education level of a respondent is the higher is a probability that he or she met her spouse while studying or at the workplace or via friends, relatives or acquaintances.<sup>30</sup> In contrast, finding marriage partners among

<sup>29</sup> Differences between gender occur because the male respondents who got married before the date of the interview are different in their characteristics (age, etc.) from the female respondents who got married before the date of the interview.

<sup>30</sup> As indicated before we just report bivariate association. Whether this association mirrors a causal effect of education or whether it is, for example, just a spurious association due to confounding with age (as age is

relatives and neighbors is more common among secondary and professional graduates than among tertiary graduates. For example, 28.1% of secondary graduates and 30.1% of professional graduates but only 18.1% of tertiary graduates have a spouse that is a relative. However, arranged marriages occur with very similar probability of 8–10% both among secondary and tertiary graduates. Only professional graduates have a lower incidence of arranged marriages (5.0%). Finding a spouse via internet or phone, by matchmakers or via religious/charitable activities plays almost no role for all education groups in Azerbaijan as their incidence is below 1% for all education groups.

**Table 6.8: Ways of finding spouse, decision on marriage and age difference to spouse (in %), by gender and education**

	Men	Women	Basic Sec./ Upp. Sec.	Init. Prof./ Sec. Prof.	Low. Tert./ High. Tert.
<i>Ways of finding spouse</i>					
Occasionally	39.0	34.7	40.8	33.0	33.7
While working	4.9	2.1	1.4	2.1	6.4
While studying	7.8	8.4	3.3	9.9	13.1
We were neighbors	6.8	11.1	11.0	11.4	5.8
We are relatives	23.3	26.2	28.1	30.1	18.1
Arranged marriage by parents/family	7.3	8.4	8.1	5.0	9.6
Through friends/relatives/acquaintances	9.0	8.6	6.5	7.8	12.1
Through the internet/phone	1.0	0.0	0.5	0.4	0.4
Through religious/charitable activities	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Through a matchmaker	0.0	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.4
Don't know / Refusal	0.7	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.4
<i>Final decision on first marriage</i>					
Yourself/yourselfs	52.8	47.2	49.0	46.8	52.2
Father	1.4	3.8	3.4	3.6	1.5
Mother	0.3	0.9	0.2	0.4	1.5
Both father and mother	19.4	21.2	22.3	23.1	16.6
Joint decision of yourself and your parents	24.0	26.3	24.3	25.5	26.4
Other relatives	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2
Don't know / Refusal	2.0	0.4	0.9	0.7	1.7
<i>Age of spouse</i>					
spouse older	6.5	85.0	52.6	59.9	43.2
spouse same age	14.8	10.4	10.5	11.4	15.2
spouse younger	78.7	4.6	37.0	28.7	41.6

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis is restricted to the sample of persons who experienced 1<sup>st</sup> legal marriage before the date of the interview.

When asked about the final decision on marriage about half of the respondents (52.8% of men and 47.2% of women) report that he or she made the final decision on her/his first marriage partner herself/himself. Around one quarter (24.0% of men and 26.3% of women) indicate that it was a joint

related to education and independence in decision making becomes stronger with age) shall be subject to future multivariate analyses.

decision of themselves with their parents. In sum, 21.1% of men and 25.9% of women say that it was the decision of the father, the mother or both parents. Regarding education groups, there are only small differences. The share of respondents who made the final decision of their first marriage on their own increases from 49.0% of basic secondary graduates to 52.2% for tertiary graduates. The decision was made by the father, the mother or both parents for 27.1% of secondary graduates but only 19.6% of tertiary graduates.

Regarding age differences to the spouse Table 6.8 shows a clear gender-specific pattern. Whereas 85.0% of young women who got married report that their husband was older than themselves, this applies to just 6.5% of young grooms. 78.7% of men tell that they have a wife that is younger, whereas this applies to just 4.6% of women. 14.8% of men and 10.4% of women report that their spouse had the same age. There are weak associations with education. The share of person reporting having an older spouse is slightly lower for tertiary graduates (43.2%) than for secondary graduates (52.6%).<sup>31</sup>

### 6.5. The timing of first parenthood

Event history analysis, which accounts for the right-censoring of data, is also used to study the timing of first parenthood. Figure 6.3 shows Kaplan-Meier survival functions for first parenthood by gender and education. The y-axis shows the proportion of persons who have not yet got a child for a given age that is marked on the x-axis. In addition, Table 6.9 shows the respective figures but from a reversed perspective. For selected ages it reports the share of people who have got a first child until the respective age by gender and education groups. This is equivalent to the distance from the 100% line and the Kaplan Meier survivor function in Figure 6.3.

We find that just 2% of men got father at age 22 or earlier. In contrast, 3% of women are already mother at age 18 or before and the share even increases to 32% at age 22. The gender gap in first parenthood increases from 30 percentage points at age 22 to 42 percentage points at age 25, when the cumulative incidence of first motherhood is 56% and the cumulative incidence of first fatherhood is 14%. At later ages, the gender gap decreases again. As in the case of first marriage, men experience a strong run on first parenthood between ages 27 and 30, when the cumulative incidence of first fatherhood increases from 28% to 53%. Thus, at age 30, as 77% of women have experienced their first motherhood, the gender gap in parenthood shrinks to 24 percentage points.

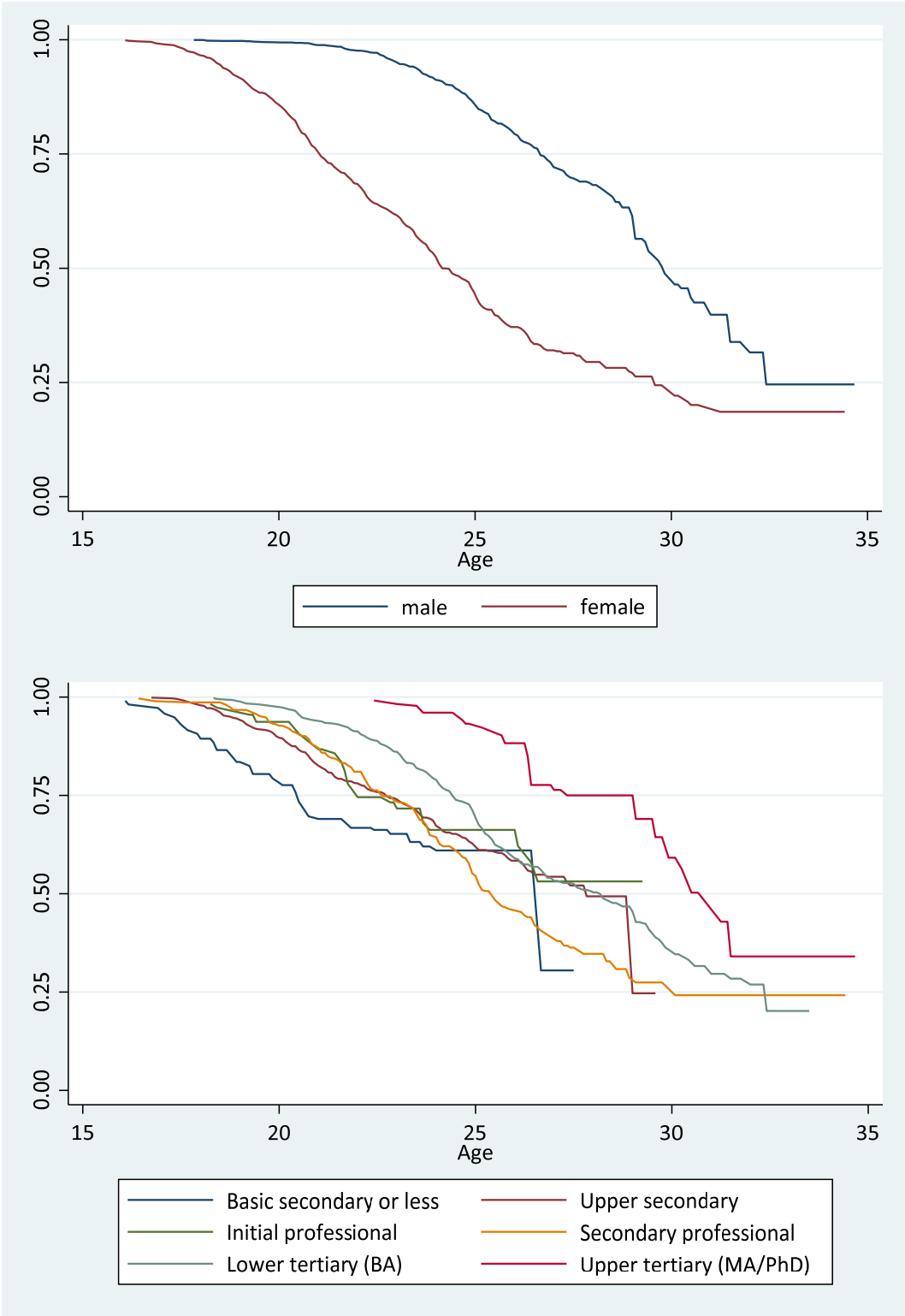
The education-specific analyses reveal that the incidence of early parenthood is much higher among lower education groups. For example, until age 18, 11% of basic secondary graduates and 2% of upper secondary graduates became first parent, whereas the incidence is below 1% for all other education groups. At age 22, 33% of basic secondary graduates got a first child, whereas for tertiary graduates the incidence of first parenthood is below 10%. At age 25, secondary and professional graduates reach cumulative shares of first parenthood of around 34–46%. Lower tertiary (BA) graduates reach 31% but higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates are far behind with 7%. There is still large education differences at age 27, when 70% of basic secondary graduates have got their first child, whereas this applies to only 24% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates.

---

<sup>31</sup> As indicated before we just report bivariate association. Whether this association mirrors a causal effect of education or whether it is, for example, just a spurious association due to confounding with gender (as women tend to marry men who are older and gender affects education) shall be subject to future multivariate analyses.



**Figure 6.3: Kaplan-Meier survival functions for 1<sup>st</sup> parenthood, by gender and education**



Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.  
 Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the whole sample.

**Table 6.9: Share of people (%) who experience 1<sup>st</sup> parenthood until a specific age, by gender and education**

	Age					
	18	20	22	25	27	30
<i>Gender</i>						
Men	0	1	2	14	28	53
Women	3	14	32	56	68	77
<i>Education</i>						
Basic secondary	11	22	33	39	70	–
Upper secondary	2	10	22	38	46	–
Initial professional	0	6	25	34	47	–
Secondary professional	1	7	19	46	61	73
Lower tertiary (BA)	0	2	9	31	47	65
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	0	0	0	7	24	41

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis are conducted for the whole sample. Survivor function cannot be estimated at age 30 for the secondary and initial professional graduates because no events were observed.

Table 6.10 shows the share of persons who experienced other life course transitions before first parenthood, differentiated by gender and education groups. The analysis and following interpretations are restricted to the sample of persons who have got a first child before the date of the interview. 95% of men and 84% of women left education before getting a first child. The incidence of leaving education before getting becoming parent slightly declines with the level of (prospective) education attainment. Whereas 96% of basic secondary graduates and 99% of upper secondary graduates first leave education and then become mother or father, this applies to 78% of lower tertiary (BA) graduates and 88% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates. Nevertheless, among all education groups the great majority of persons who experienced first parenthood until the date of the interview leaves education before getting a child.

Just half of the men but almost all women left parental home before first parenthood. Thus, moving out of parental home before first parenthood is the standard life course sequence for women. The share of leaving home before getting a first child does not systematically vary with the (prospective) level of education. The share is lowest among initial professional graduates (65%) and secondary professional graduates (89%).

89% of men but just a quarter of women got a first job before becoming married. This share tends to increase with the level of education. For example, just 20% of basic secondary graduates got a first job before getting married, whereas this applies to 72% of higher tertiary (MA/PhD) graduates.

The overwhelming majority of 90–91% of male and female respondents who became father or mother got married before childbirth. Thus, out-of-wedlock birth are very uncommon in Azerbaijan. With the exception of basic secondary graduates (67%) and upper secondary graduates (87%) all professional and tertiary education groups reach an incidence of more than 90% in terms of marriage before first childbirth.

**Table 6.10: Share of people (%) experiencing other life course transitions before 1<sup>st</sup> parenthood, by gender and education**

	Before 1st parenthood ...			
	Leaving education	Leaving home	1st job	1st marriage
<i>Gender</i>				
Men	95	51	89	90
Women	84	97	27	91
<i>Education</i>				
Basic secondary	96	84	20	69
Upper secondary	99	77	39	87
Initial professional	91	65	65	91
Secondary professional	79	89	44	92
Lower tertiary (BA)	78	87	57	96
Higher tertiary (MA/PhD)	88	84	72	96

Source: TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan, own calculation.

Remarks: Analysis is restricted to the sample of persons who experienced 1<sup>st</sup> parenthood before the date of the interview.

## 7. References

- Allen, J., & van der Velden, R. (2007). Transitions from higher education to work. In U. Teichler (Ed.), *Careers of university graduates. Views and experiences in comparative perspectives* (pp. 55–78). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Badurashvili, I., Gebel, M., Kobakhidze, N., Meladze, G., & Nadiradze, R. (2019). *Descriptive analyses of youth transitions in Georgia. TEW-CCA Working Paper No. 4.2*. Bamberg: TEW-CCA Project, University of Bamberg.
- Baranowska, A., & Gebel, M. (2008). *Temporary employment in Central- and Eastern Europe. Individual risk patterns and institutional context: MZES Working paper No. 106*. Mannheim: Mannheim Centre for European Social Research.
- Baranowska-Rataj, A., Bertolini, S., Bolzoni, M., Ghislieri, C., Goglio, V., Martino, S., Meo, A., Moiso, V., Musumeci, R., Ricucci, R., Shapoval, N., & Torrioni, P. M. (2016). *“Report on the impact of the institutional setting and policies on the autonomy of youth in insecure labour market positions in EU-28 & Ukraine”*: EXCEPT Working Papers No. 9. Tallinn: Tallinn University.
- Baranowska-Rataj, A., & Unt, M. (2012). Is it worth becoming an engineer in Central and Eastern Europe? The evidence from Poland and Estonia. *European Sociological Review*, 28(6), 717–728.
- Blossfeld, H.-P., Rohwer, G., Schneider, T., & Halpin, B. (2019). *Event history analysis with Stata*. (Second edition). London, New York: Routledge.
- Breen, R. (2005). Explaining cross-national variation in youth unemployment. Market and institutional factors. *European Sociological Review*, 21(2), 125–134.
- Buchmann, M. C., & Kriesi, I. (2011). Transition to adulthood in Europe. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 37(1), 481–503.
- Corijn, M., & Klijzing, E. (Eds.) (2001). *Transitions to adulthood in Europe*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

- Edeling, S., & Pilz, M. (2017). 'Should I stay or should I go?' – the additive double qualification pathway in Germany. *Journal of Vocational Education & Training*, 69(1), 81–99.
- Gebel, M. (2015). Labor market instability, labor market entry, and early career development. In R. A. Scott, & S. M. Kosslyn (Eds.), *Emerging trends in the social and behavioral sciences: An interdisciplinary, searchable, and linkable resource* (pp. 1–16). [Hoboken, N.J.]: John Wiley & Sons.
- Gebel, M. (2017). The effects of unemployment and temporary employment on leaving the parental home in Germany. In A. Baranowska-Rataj, S. Bertolini, & Goglio Valentina (Eds.), *Country level analyses of mechanisms and interrelationships between labour market insecurity and autonomy: EXCEPT Working Papers No.11* (pp. 97–130). Tallinn: Tallinn University.
- Gebel, M., Badurashvili, I., Olimova, S., & Sattarov, R. (Eds.) (2019). *Methodological report on TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Tajikistan. TEW-CCA Working Paper No. 3*. Bamberg: TEW-CCA Project.
- Gebel, M., & Baranowska-Rataj, A. (2012). New inequalities through privatization and mleuarketization?: An analysis of labour market entry of higher education graduates in Poland and Ukraine. *European Sociological Review*, 28(6), 729–741.
- Gebel, M., & Heineck, G. (2019). Returns to education in the life course. In R. Becker (Ed.), *Research handbook on the sociology of education* (pp. 454–475). Cheltenham, UK, Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Gebel, M., & Heyne, S. (2014). *Transitions to adulthood in the Middle East and North Africa: Young women's rising?* Basingstoke, Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gebel, M., & Mandieva, E. (2019). General Methodology of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Tajikistan. In M. Gebel, I. Badurashvili, S. Olimova, & R. Sattarov (Eds.), *Methodological report on TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Tajikistan. TEW-CCA Working Paper No. 3*. (pp. 7–54). Bamberg: TEW-CCA Project.
- Gebel, M., & Noelke, C. (2011). The transition from school to work in Central and Eastern Europe: theory and methodology. In I. Kogan, C. Noelke, & M. Gebel (Eds.), *Making the transition: Education and labor market entry in Central and Eastern Europe* (pp. 29–57). Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.
- Gerber, T. P., & Cheung, S. Y. (2008). Horizontal stratification in postsecondary education - forms, explanations and implications. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 34, 299–318.
- Gërkhani, K., & van de Werfhorst, H. G. (2013). The effect of education on informal sector participation in a post-communist country. *European Sociological Review*, 29(3), 464–476.
- Hogan, D. P., & Astone, N. M. (1986). The transition to adulthood. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 12, 109–130.
- Jacob, M., Gerth, M., & Weiss, F. (2018). Student employment: social differentials and field-specific developments in higher education. *Journal of Education and Work*, 31(1), 87–108.
- Kogan, I. (2011). When informal is normal... On the role of credentials and contacts for the job entry in Serbia. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, 29(4), 445–458.
- Kogan, I. (2019). Still a safety net? Revisiting the role of vocational education and training in school-to-work transitions in Europe. In R. Becker (Ed.), *Research handbook on the sociology of education* (pp. 329–346). Cheltenham, UK, Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Kogan, I., Matković, T., & Gebel, M. (2013). Helpful friends?: Personal contacts and job entry among youths in transformation societies. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, 54(4), 277–297.

- Kogan, I., & Müller, W. (Eds.) (2003). *School-to-work transitions in Europe. Analyses of the EU LFS 2000 ad hoc module*. Mannheim: Mannheim Centre for European Social Research.
- Kogan, I., Noelke, C., & Gebel, M. (Eds.) (2011). *Making the transition: Education and labor market entry in Central and Eastern Europe*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.
- Manzoni, A. (2016). Conceptualizing and measuring youth independence multidimensionally in the United States. *Acta Sociologica*, 59(4), 362–377.
- Matković, T., & Kogan, I. (2012). All or nothing?: The consequences of tertiary education non-completion in Croatia and Serbia. *European Sociological Review*, 28(6), 755–770.
- Matković, T., & Kogan, I. (2014). Relative worth of a bachelor degree. *Acta Sociologica*, 57(2), 101–118.
- Noelke, C., Gebel, M., & Kogan, I. (2012). Uniform inequalities: Institutional differentiation and the transition from higher education to work in post-socialist Central and Eastern Europe. *European Sociological Review*, 28(6), 704–716.
- Noelke, C., & Horn, D. (2014). Social transformation and the transition from vocational education to work in Hungary: A Differences-in-differences approach. *European Sociological Review*, 30(4), 431–443.
- Nunley, J. M., Pugh, A., Romero, N., & Seals, R. A. (2016). College major, internship experience, and employment opportunities: Estimates from a résumé audit. *Labour Economics*, 38, 37–46.
- Rashidova, A., Faradov, T., & Sattarov, R. (2019). *The institutional context of the transition from education to work in Azerbaijan*. TEW-CCA Working Paper No. 2.2. Bamberg.: TEW-CCA Project, University of Bamberg.
- Roksa, J., & Velez, M. (2010). When studying schooling is not enough: Incorporating employment in models of educational transitions. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, 28(1), 5–21.
- Sattarov, R., Faradov, T., Rodin, V., & Isayeva, N. (2019). Methodology of the TEW-CCA Youth Transition Survey in Azerbaijan. In M. Gebel, I. Badurashvili, S. Olimova, & R. Sattarov (Eds.), *Methodological report on TEW-CCA Youth Transition Surveys in Azerbaijan, Georgia and Tajikistan*. TEW-CCA Working Paper No. 3. (pp. 55–67). Bamberg: TEW-CCA Project.
- Scherer, S. (2001). Early career patterns: a comparison of Great Britain and West Germany. *European Sociological Review*, 17(2), 119–144.
- Shanahan, M. J. (2000). Pathways to adulthood in changing societies: variability and mechanisms in life course perspective. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 26, 667–692.
- Shavit, Y., & Müller, W. (Eds.) (1998). *From school to work. A comparative study of educational qualifications and occupational destinations*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Shavit, Y., & Müller, W. (2000). Vocational secondary education. Where diversion and where safety net? *European Societies*, 2(1), 29–50.
- Shwed, U., & Shavit, Y. (2006). Occupational and economic attainments of college and university graduates in Israel. *European Sociological Review*, 22(4), 431–442.
- Weiss, F., Klein, M., & Grauenhorst, T. (2014). The effects of work experience during higher education on labour market entry: Learning by doing or an entry ticket? *Work, Employment & Society*, 28(5), 788–807.
- Wolbers, M. H. J. (2003). Learning and working. Double statuses in youth transitions. In W. Müller, & M. Gangl (Eds.), *Transitions from education to work in Europe. The integration of youth into EU labour markets* (pp. 131–155). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wolbers, M. H. J. (2007). Patterns of labour market entry. A comparative perspective on school-to-work transitions in 11 European countries. *Acta Sociologica*, 50(3), 189–210.