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Economic and Occupational Insecurity of Young People in Austria and its Consequences

Johann Bacher and Joachim Nemella

Faculty of Social and Economic Sciences
Otto-Friedrich-University Bamberg
P.O. Box 1549
D-96045 Bamberg
Germany
http://www.transeurope-project.org

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INTRODUCTION

According to the Trans Europe Research Network and responding to the call of the Groningen workshop, the paper focuses on the following questions:

- To which extent are young people affected by occupational and economic insecurity in Austria?
- What are the consequences of occupational and economic insecurity on attitudes towards and behaviour in politics and family life?

The following hypotheses underlie the analysis:

- Occupational and economic insecurity has increased in Austria over the last twenty years.
- Young people are more affected by this increase than adults
- Less educated people are more affected within each group (young people, adults) by occupational and economic insecurity
- Occupational and economic insecurity results in higher expectations towards the welfare state as well as in higher support for right wing parties.
- Occupational and economic insecurity results in more conservative attitudes toward the family on the one hand and in lower fertility on the other hand.

The hypotheses will be tested on the basis of the Austrian Social Survey. Part 2 justifies the hypotheses and provides a literature review. The review concentrates on the Austrian context. The economic and political development of Austria is described in Part 3. Part 4 describes the data base and the selected variables for analysis. Part 5 presents the results. The results and their methodological and theoretical implications are discussed in part 6.

The term "occupational insecurity" will be used for occupations with a high level of insecurity resulting in an high unemployment risk and in low earnings. The term "economic insecurity" will be used for a low income-situation of the household.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH IN AUSTRIA

Economic and Occupational Insecurity

Most social scientists agree that flexible and insecure work has increased over the last decades. Different opinions exist whether these changes indicate insecurity or flexibility. For Austria, occupational insecurity resp. flexibility have recently been analysed by Pernicka/Stadtler (2006)[1]. Their analysis is based on the Labour-Force-Survey. According to the results, 27 percent of employees have an atypical job. This high percentage mainly results from a high rate (22 percent) of part-time employment.

Poverty as an indicator of economic insecurity has been studied since the 1990s. A first study of the dynamics of poverty was published by Stelzer-Orthofer (1997). Her study is influenced by the SF186 in Germany and is based on a local study of social aid including pathways in and pathways out of social aid. Since the end of the 1990s, poverty reports have become usual due to membership of the European Union. Austria participated in the European Commission Household Panel (ECHP) from 1995 to 2001. Since 2003, Austria has participated in the SILC-Programme (Community Statistics on Income and Living Conditions2). In the past, poverty figures were reported by the Ministry of Social Affairs, nowadays by Statistic Austria (Statistic Austria 2007). In the last three years, the poverty rate was constant with a value of 12-13 percent (poverty level = 50 percent of median income). In the 1990s a small decline from 14 to 11 percent is observable (Redl 2002). The decrease is not significant. An increase cannot be observed. Hence, hypothesis 1, which predicts increasing occupational and economic insecurity holds probably only true for occupational insecurity and not for economic insecurity.

Young people are generally more affected by poverty: Children and young people up to 20 years old represent 27% of all people under the poverty line. Children and young people with a migration background are more endangered. However, no empirical findings are available if poverty of young people has increased over the past twenty years. Hence, hypothesis 2, that young people are more affected by increasing insecurity can only be justified by theoretical reasoning and the findings of Blossfeld et al. (2005).

The relation between low education and a high risk of unemployment and poverty is well documented (e.g. Orr 2001). Therefore, hypotheses 3 stating that low educated people are more affected by economic and occupational insecurity needs no further justification.

Political Consequences

Hypothesis 4 assumes that occupational and economic insecurity results in higher expectations towards the welfare state as well as in higher support for right wing parties. The relation between right wing orientations and occupational insecurity was studied by Flecker et al. (2005). The project was part of the European SIREN-Project (Socio-economic change, individual reactions and the appeal of the extreme right). The results show that voting for a right wing party is one possible reaction to insecurities. Attitudes towards the welfare state were studied in the ASS (Grausgruber 2005). The results show a high acceptance of the welfare state.

In 2004 Austria took part in EUYOUPART 3 (Political Participation of Young People in Europe). 66 percent of the young Austrians indicate that the FPÖ is a political party they feel (very) distant to (SPÖ: 31; ÖVP: 41; Greens: 34). At the last National General Election they most frequently voted for ÖVP and SPÖ. The Greens came third. Young women are less interested in politics than young men. “More than half of the young Austrians do not position themselves on the left or right side of the continuum. Nearly one third, however, states that they are politically left” (Picker/Westphal, 2005).

Consequences for attitudes toward the family and fertility

Orientations towards family and gender roles have been analysed by Schulz/Hummer (2005). The results show that Austrians are still conservative, but the conservatism has changed in the last twenty years. The changes in fertility were analysed by Spielauer at al. (2003). The authors use the Microcensus 1996. Their results confirm the general trend of reducing fertility rate and of a delay of the first birth.

Summary

Empirical research results are available for many aspects analysed in the paper for Austria. However, the studies refer very often only indirectly to the research questions. If studies analyse the central dimensions of our paper there is not an explicit reference to young people. In contrast, youth research concentrates on other aspects. Values and political orientations are the main focus of youth research4 whereas fertility is widely ignored.

THE ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL SITUATION IN AUSTRIA 1984 TO 2006

Political Background

Into the 1980's the Austrian political system was characterised by the hegemony of two large parties, which actually bound in up to 90 per cent of the voters. SPÖ and ÖVP stood in no competition to each other, since they had grouped themselves by programme around classical social cleavages and the voters’ party identification was strong. Until 1986 there were no dramatic fluctuations and changing election results were based on shifts between the SPÖ and the ÖVP.

Nevertheless, the Austrian society was changing: Educational expansion, increased mobility and the growing importance of the tertiary sector led to an erosion of the traditional social milieus, reducing the number of core voters. The political parties had to consider the risen requirement level in modern policy by offering more issue oriented politics.

In 1986, Waldheim, UN Secretary-General of many years was elected as Federal President, which led to violent political controversies about his past during the Nazi-regime. In the same year right-wing politician Haider replaced the liberal Steger as head of the FPÖ and the SPÖ quit the social-liberal coalition. The election of 1986 resulted in a grand coalition between SPÖ and ÖVP – led by the Social Democrats until 1999.

In 1986, for the first time, a Green Alliance achieved seats in the federal parliament – holding their seats up to now in every election and steadily increasing their numbers from 8 (1986) to 21 (2006). In 1995 Austria joined the EU.

Headed by Haider, the FPÖ increased its votes from election to election - 1999 becoming the second-strongest party behind the Social Democrats. ÖVP and FPÖ formed a coalition, which led to international sanctions because of the FPÖ's right-wing policies. In 2002 splits within the FPÖ required federal elections. For the first time since 1966 the ÖVP was the strongest political party in Austria. The losses of the FPÖ were dramatic (- 34 seats out of 52). ÖVP and FPÖ continued their coalition (2005 ÖVP/BZÖ) until 2006, when the SPÖ (although losing slightly) won the elections and is now again the strongest political party – which resulted in a grand coalition led again by the Social Democrats. For the first time the Green Party came through third-strongest. Haider's now "BZÖ" proved to be a mere regional alliance (7 seats). His former FPÖ recovered (+ 3 seats) – their election campaign based (as always) on right-wing topics.

A detailed description is given in overview 1 in the appendix.

Economic Background

The GDP5 grew by about 17.5 percent in the 1980s, where the main growth occurred in the second part of the 1980s. In the first half of the 1990s, Austria benefited from the political breakdown of communists regimes in East Europe. This resulted in an increase of GDP of 11.3 percent in the first five years of the 1990s. After this period the growth became smaller and increased again at the end of the 1990s due to the hype of "new economy". The total growth in the 1990s was 24.5 percent. The first years of the new millennium were characterized by a slow increase, the growth accelerating in the last years again. The growth was about 7.5 percent in the first five years of the 21st century. Compared to the average of the EU-15, the Austrian growth rate was higher from 1990 to 1995 and equivalent with the average of the EU-15 from 1996 to 2005.

The unemployment rate increased from 1.9 percent to 7.3 percent in the period from 1980 to 2005 (see Figure 1). There was a continuous growth with the exception of three time periods. The unemployment rate decreased between1987 to 1989, between 1993 and 1994 and between 1998 and 2000.

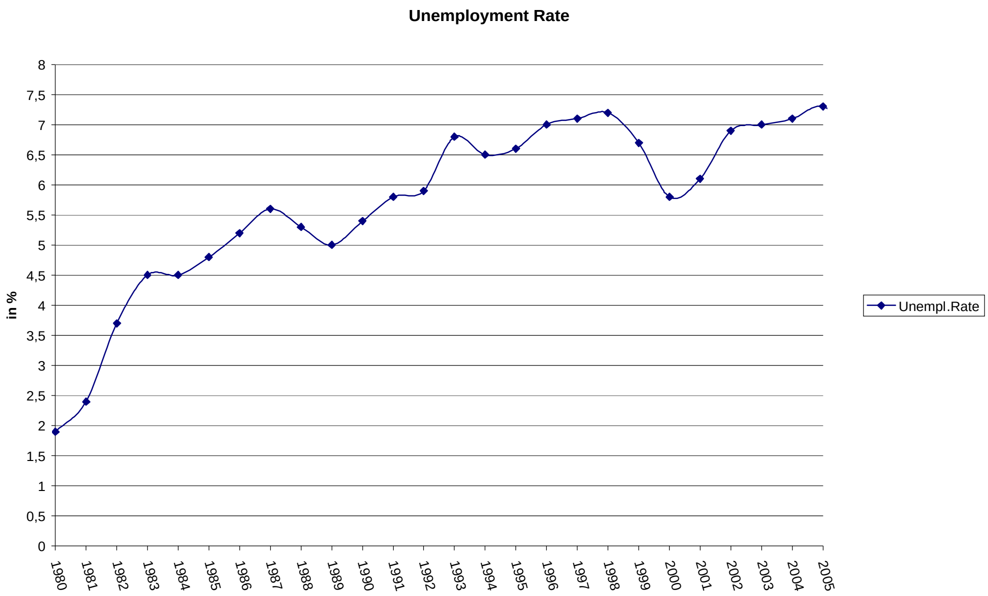

Figure 1: Unemployment Rate in Austria 1980 – 2005

Source: Statistik Austria, ISIS-database, own calculation

DATA AND METHODS

Data Base

The Austrian Social Survey (ASS; Schulz/Haller/Grausgruber 2005) was selected as data base. The ASS is a representative omnibus survey of the Austrian population of 16 years old or older. The survey was conducted in 1986, 1993 and 2003. At each time point, a sample size of n=2000 was realized. The survey is designed by a cooperation of Sociological Departments of Austrian Universities. The selected database has several advantages:

- A time period of approx. 20 years can be covered. This would not be the case, if SILC6, ECHP7 or MZ8 was used. ECHP covers five years (1996 to 2000), SILC starts 2002.
- Young people and adults can be compared.
- Attitudes as intervening variable between social structural characteristics and behaviour are available.
- The ASS is part of the ISSP. Hence, cross national analyses are possible.

However the database also has several disadvantages. They will be discussed at the end. For analysis two groups were selected:

- Young people (=adolescents and young adults): The age of the respondents is between 16 and 27 years (adolescents = 16 until 23; young adults = 24 to 27)
- Adults: The age of the respondents is between 28 and 56.

Table 1 shows the sample sizes for the two groups for the three time points.

Table 1: Sample sizes of the analysed groups 1986, 1993 and 2003

Group	1986	1993	2003
young people	473	459	350
adults	948	995	1041
Total	1421	1454	1391

Source: ASS, own calculations.

Variables

Table 2 summarises the selected variables. Only variables that are available for all three time points were selected in the first step of the analysis.

Table 2: Selected variables for analysis

Indicators for occupational insecurity
unemployed (UNEMPL): dichotomous variable, respondent put the category "unemployed" in the question of contemporary social status
hidden unemployed (HUNEMPL): dichotomous variable, respondents who are not employed or unemployed, but wish to have a job
low earning (earning belongs to the lowest 12-14%) (LOWEARN): dichotomous variable, Definition: monthly net earning in the job is low. The threshold (12-14%) varies for each time point because earnings were measured with categories.
Indicators for economic insecurity
low household income (household income belongs to the lowest 12 to 13%) (LOWINC): dichotomous variable, monthly net household income – sum of all incomes of the household. The threshold (12-13%) varies for each time point because earnings were measured with categories
Indicators of political consequences
positive attitude toward welfare state (ATTWEL): continuous variable, index of three items, statements: "state should provide jobs for unemployed", "state should guarantee a good living standard for unemployed people", "state should reduce the gap between poor and rich"
support of right wing parties (RPARTY): dichotomous variable, political preference toward FPÖ (Liberal Party of Austria, party of Jörg Haider)
Indicator of familial consequences
positive attitude to traditional female role (ATTFEM): continuous variable, index of two items, statements "a wife should only work if it is economically necessary" , "an employed mother can have as good a relationship to her children as a mother staying at home", the items were scaled in the same direction for the index.
having a child (CHILD): dichotomous variable, respondents have already at least one child

Source: Own illustration.

Test of hypotheses

Hypotheses 1 to 3 were tested with logistic regression. The following model was specified for the different dichotomous indicators:

$$R(Y=1) = P(Y=1)/P(0) = e^{z}$$
$$z = b_o + b_1 \cdot ADULLTS + b_2 \cdot YEAR93 + b_3 \cdot YEAR93 + b_4 \cdot AYEAR93 + b_5 \cdot AYEAR03 +$$
$$+ b_6 \cdot LOWEDU + b_7 \cdot ALOWEDU + b_8 \cdot FEMALE + b_9 \cdot CITY$$

Where...
Y = indicator of occupational or economic insecurity (1=precarious, 0=no)
ADULTS = Dummy variable (1=adult, 0=young people)
YEAR93 = Dummy variable (1=year 1993, 0=else)
YEAR03 = Dummy variable (1= year 2003, 0=else)
AYEAR93 = Interaction Year 1993 with ADULTS
AYEAR03 = Interaction Year 2003 with ADULTS
LOWEDU = Dummy variable (1=low education = only compulsory education, 0=no)
ALOWEDU = Interaction low education with ADULTS
FEMALE = Dummy variable (1=female, 0=male)
CITY = Dummy variable (1=living in a city with 50.000 or more inhabitants, 0=no)

The first hypothesis of an increase in insecurity can only be tested for the first two indicators (unemployment and hidden unemployment) because the income indicators are relative measures. If the first hypothesis proves true, the effect of YEAR93 and YEAR03 should be positive and significant (b2>0 and b3>0). However, the data was collected for the survey in different months (see overview 1 in the appendix). The survey was done in May and June in 1986, in January and March in 1993 and in December and February 2003. Therefore, higher rates of unemployment can simply occur due to seasonal factors for 1993 and 2003.

The second hypothesis that the young are more affected by the increase of insecurity can be tested by all four indicators. If the second hypothesis proves true , the effects of ADULTS, AYEAR93 and AYEAR03 should be negative and show a decreasing order (b1, b4, b5 < 0 and b1 > b4> b5).

For the third hypothesis that persons with low education are more affected by economic and occupational insecurity, the effect of LOWEDU should be positive and significant (b6 < 0). The effect of the interaction ALOWEDU (b7) must not be significant. The last two variables (FEMALE and CITY) are used as control variables.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 were tested separately for both groups. Multiple regression was used for continuous dependent variables, logistic regression again for dichotomous variables. The specified models are:

$$R(Y=1) = P(Y=1)/P(Y=0) = e^{z} \quad or \quad Y = z + u$$
$$z = b_o + b_1 \cdot UNEMPL + b_2 \cdot HUNEMPL + b_3 \cdot LOWEARN + b_4 \cdot LOWHINC +$$
$$b_5 \cdot YEAR93 + b_6 \cdot YEAR03 + b_7 \cdot LOWEDU + b_8 \cdot FEMALE + b_9 \cdot CITY$$

where
Y = political or familial consequences
UNEMPL = Dummy variable (1=unemployed, 0=no)
HUNEMPL = Dummy variable (1=hidden unemployed, 0=no)
LOWEARN = Dummy variable (1=low earning, 0=no)
LOWHINV = Dummy variable (1=low household income, 0=no)
YEAR93 = Dummy variable (1=year 1993, 0=else)
YEAR03 = Dummy variable (1= year 2003, 0=else)
LOWEDU = Dummy variable (1=low education = only compulsory education, 0=no)
FEMALE = Dummy variable (1=female, 0=male)
CITY = Dummy variable (1=living in a city with 50.000 or more inhabitants, 0=no)

If the fourth hypothesis proves true, the indicators of insecurity should have positive and significant effects on the attitudes towards the welfare state and for the preference of right wing parties (b1, b2, b3, b4 > 0)

If the fifth hypothesis proves true, the indicators of insecurity should have positive and significant effects on attitudes towards a traditional female role (b1, b2, b3, b4 > 0), whereas the effects on having a child should be negative and significant (b1, b2, b3, b4 < 0).

RESULTS

Occupational and economic insecurity

Table 3 reports the descriptive findings. An increase of unemployment and hidden unemployment is not observable in young people since 1986. Unemployment grew systematically for the adults. This fits to the general trend of unemployment (see Figure 1). Concerning low earnings, no systematic pattern occurs. In contrast, the percent of young people with a low household income is increasing continually. This results in a difference of 5.5 percent to adults in 2003. However, this difference is not significant, if we look at the multivariate results (Table 4).

Table 3: Occupational and economic insecurity by year and age group

	1986	1993	2003
unemployed			
youths	4,8%	2,5%	5,4%
adults	2,7%	3,4%	6,2%
total	3,5%	3,1%	6,0%
hidden unemployed			
youths	5,4%	5,0%	6,4%
adults	8,3%	7,5%	4,7%
total	7,3%	6,7%	5,2%
low earning (a)			
youths	9,2%	13,8%	10,9%
adults	10,6%	9,6%	11,1%
total	10,2%(b)	10,7%(b)	11,1%(b)
low household income			
youths	13,0%	14,0%	16,8%
adults	13,4%	11,0%	11,3%
total	13,3%(b)	11,9%(b)	12,6%(b)

Notes:
(a) only persons in a job were analysed
(b) no trend possible because relative measures for each time point

Table 4 reports results of logistic regression analysis. Hypothesis 1 of an increase of insecurity is not supported. The effects of YEAR93 and YEAR03 are not significant for unemployment and hidden unemployment.

Figure 2: Youth unemployment 1989-2006

Source: Statistic Austria, ISIS-database, results for 1980 to 1988 are not available

Hypothesis 2 stating that young people are more affected by an increase must be rejected too. Firstly, there is no increase. Secondly, most of the interaction effects between year and adults are not negative or not significant. Only two of the eight interaction effects are negative and significant – indicating a higher risk of young people at a certain time point. In addition, the main effects of adults are insignificant or also positive. Therefore, the conclusion is that young people don't have a higher risk of being affected by insecurity and the risk does not increase over time.

Hypothesis 3 assumes that low educated persons are more affected by insecurity. This hypothesis proves true for all indicators. The interaction between low education and adults is not significant, except for hidden unemployment. The negative interaction means that adults have a lower risk of hidden unemployment.

Table 4: Occupational and economic insecurity by year, age group and other variables (results of logistic regressions)

Independent variable	unemployed	hidden unemployed	low earning	low household income
constant	-3,26***	-4,59***	-3,58***	-2,37***
adults (ADULTS)	-0,44	0,74**	0,21	-0,16
year93 (YEAR93)	-0,64	0,04	0,75*	0,10
year03 (YEAR03)	0,14	0,39	0,51	0,32
adults*year93 (AYEAR93)	0,87	-0,11	-0,83*	-0,26
adults*year03 (AYEAR03)	0,78	-1,02**	-0,35	-0,33
low educational level (LOWEDU)	0,82**	1,02***	0,94**	0,57**
adults * low educ. level (ALOWEDU)	-0,50	-0,76*	0,24	0,34
female (FEMALE)	-0,27	2,02***	1,75***	0,32**
urban area (50.000 ++) (CITY)	0,47**	-0,21	-0,48**	0,43***
Nagelkerke R2	0,03	0,13	0,19	0,04
N	4207 (a)	4207 (a)	2706 (b)	3481 (c)

Notes:
(a) all persons of both groups were analysed
(b) only employed persons were analysed without those in apprenticeship
(c) all persons of both groups were analysed, reduction of number of cases due to missing values
* p < 10%; ** p < 5%; * p < 1%

Political Consequences

According to the fourth hypothesis, higher insecurity results in higher expectations towards the welfare state as well as in higher support for right wing parties. In general, attitudes towards the welfare state are positive and stable over time among young people. The average values on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree) are 3.0 for 1986, 2.9 for 1993 and 3.1 for 2003. The values do not differ from the adult population.

Among the indicators of insecurity, only unemployment has a direct influence on the attitude towards the welfare state (see Table 5). Unemployment and low household income have a significant effect in the adult population. The effect of unemployment can partially be explained by the items that were used to construct the index. Two of the three statements are explicitly welfare measures for unemployed people.

In addition, young people with lower education have a more positive attitude towards the welfare state.

Table 5: Positive attitudes towards welfare state and preference for right wing parties because of occupational and economic insecurity and other variables (results of multiple and logistic regressions for young people))

Independent variable	positive attitude towards welfare state	preference for FPÖ
Constant	2,90***	-4,35***
unemployed (UNEMP)	0,35**	0,57
hidden unemployed (HUNEMP)	0,15	0,44
low earning (LOWEARN)	0,16	0,05
low household income (LOWHINC)	0,09	-0,84
year1993 (YEAR93)	-0,05	2,53***
year2003 (YEAR03)	0,04	1,48*
female (FEMALE)	0,03	-0,49
urban area (50.000 ++) (CITY)	0,03	-0,11
low education (LOWEDU)	0,18**	0,26
Nagelkerke R2 resp. R2	0,07	0,13
N	559 (a)	855 (b)

Notes:
(a) Only young people. The small number of respondents explainable, results because of a split in the questionnaire. Only half of the population was asked these items.
(b) Only young people. The reduction of number of cases from n=1059 to n=855 results from missing values.
* p < 10%; ** p < 5%; * p < 1%

The support of right wing parties varies over time. Only 1.0 percent of young people show a preference for the FPÖ in 1986. The value increased to 10.9

percent in 1993 and decreased to 3.1 percent in 2003. There are no differences to adults. This pattern corresponds very well to electoral results: 1986 the FPÖ won 9.7 percent of the votes in the national election. In the 1990s this proportion increased to over 20 percent (national election 1990 = 16.5 percent; 1994 = 22.5; 1995 = 21.9 percent; 1999 = 26.9 percent). In 2002, the proportion dropped to 10.0 percent. However, the percent of voters for the FPÖ was much higher than the persons who had a preference for the FPÖ. This can be partially explained by social desirability. Respondents didn't show their preference in the survey. A further explanation is the fact that the general preference to a political party was measured in the survey. The FPÖ was elected by protest and not by identification.

In summary, hypothesis 4 is not supported by the results. There is nearly no insecurity influence on attitudes towards welfare state and no influence on the preference for right wing party among young people.

Familial Consequences

The attitudes towards traditional gender role have changed in both age groups in the last twenty years (Table 6). The Austrians have become more modern – they disagree with the traditional female role, but they not strongly disagree. The proportion of young people having at least one child is decreasing over time.

Table 6: Attitudes towards the traditional female role and having a child by year and age group

	1986	1993	2003
attitude toward traditional female role (a)			
youths	2,3	2,0	1,9
adults	2,4	2,3	2,1
total	2,4	2,2	2,0
having a child			
youths	22,2%	17,8%	14,2%
adults	83,9%	81,7%	77,9%
total	63,5%	61,5%	61,9%.

Note:
(a) scale values, 1=strongly disagree to 4=strongly agree

On a multivariate level, economic and occupational insecurity has no influence on the traditional female role. Significant effects occur when having a child. Young people with low earnings and hidden unemployment have more frequently already got a child.

The effects of hidden unemployment and low earnings contradict theoretical predictions. A negative effect was expected. One explanation is that the causal relations have the inverse direction. Having a child influences earnings and hidden unemployed and vice versa. The absence of childcare facilities forces young mothers (and fathers) either to reduce working hours resulting in lower earnings or to withdraw totally from the labour market – looking for a job that is consistent with child care.

Table 7: Attitudes towards the traditional female role and having a child by occupational and economic insecurity and other variables (results of multiple and logistic regressions for young people))

Independent variable	positive attitude towards traditional female role	having a child
constant	2,46***	-2,00***
unemployed (UNEMP)	0,15	0,36
hidden unemployed (HUNEMP)	0,14	2,16***
low earning (LOWEARN)	0,08	0,87**
low household income (LOWHINC)	-0,03	-0,05
year1993 (YEAR93)	-0,24***	-0,26
year2003 (YEAR03)	-0,33***	-0,21
female (FEMALE)	-0,22***	1,22***
urban area (50.000 ++) (CITY)	-0,27***	-0,77***
low education (LOWEDU)	0,10	0,18
Nagelkerke R2 resp. R2	0,09	0,22
n	1016	857

Note:
* p < 10%; ** p < 5%; * p < 1%

Stimulated by these findings a path model was specified in a next step. Figure 3 summarizes the results. The (previous) participation in the labour market (variable PARLAB) was added to the model. The variable has the value 1 if the persons were already active in the labour market, either at the time of the survey or previously. Otherwise the variable has the value 0.

The main results are:

- Having a child results in hidden unemployment and in low earnings.
- Having a child depends on (previous) participation in the labour market and on gender. Females more frequently report having a child. This may be a survey bias. Female with a small child are easier to reach than employed women.
- Labour market participation depends on region and education. Person living in rural areas and having lower education have a higher participation in the labour market.
- Lower education additionally influences hidden unemployment.
- Traditional female roles depend on region, gender, time and labour market participation. Females and people living in urban areas refuse to adhere to more traditional rules. Persons integrated in the labour market agree with traditional roles to a larger extent. Probably because they experience that family life and occupation are not consistent.

- The traditional female role has no influence on having children. However, if we reverse the causal order and attitudes towards traditional female role influences on labour market participation, an indirect effect occurs. Attitudes towards traditional female role influences on labour market participation and labour market participation have an influence on having a child.
- The effect of time means that attitudes towards the female role have changed in the last twenty years. Youth has become more modern.
- Time influences education, too. The effect of year 2003 reflects the increase of educational levels. There is a significant, but weaker effect for 1993, too
- The region has strong indirect effects. This result is surprising because this factor does not play an important role in the sociological discussion in Austria.

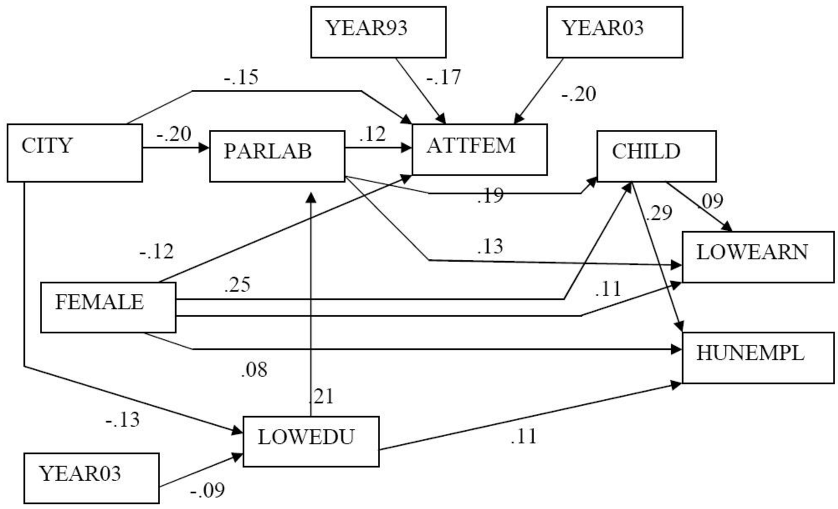

Figure 3: *Results of an explorative path analysis*

Note:
Only young people were analysed, meaning of variables see table 2 and the text

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Two questions were analysed in the paper:

- To what extent are young people affected by occupational and economic insecurity in Austria?
- What are the consequences of occupational and economic insecurity on attitudes towards and behaviour in politics and family life?

The Austrian Social Survey was used as database. Four indicators of occupational and economic insecurity were defined. Only two of them – unemployment and hidden unemployment - enable a comparison over time. A general increase of insecurity cannot be observed in the group of young people. However, young people were more effected by low household income in the year 2003.

However, it should be noted that detailed indicators of insecurity are not available for all time points. Only in the last survey were detailed indicators of precarious, respectively, atypical work collected (see Table 8): 19 percent of employed young people work in a atypical job. The differences to adults (17 percent) are not significant.

Table 8: Atypical work by age group

	young people n=307 in %	adults n=895 in %
temporary work (“Leiharbeit”)	4	4
reduced working hours (“Kurzabeit”)	2	2
just in time work (“Arbeit auf Abruf”)	3	2
self-employment (“freier Dienstnehmer”)	6	5
occupation for a limited period (“befristeter Werkvertrag”)	6	4
none of them	81	83

Consequences of economic and occupational insecurity were specified for politics and family life. Only one effect on politics was found: Unemployed young people have a more positive attitude towards the welfare state. Direct effects of insecurity on the preference for the FPÖ were not found. This contradicts other studies. This can be explained by social desirability and the design used to measure the preference for political parties.

Concerning family life, two significant effects of insecurity were computed. The signs of these effects contradict theoretical predictions. Therefore, a path model was specified that turns round the causal relation between having a child and occupational insecurity: insecurity does not influence having a child, but having a child results in occupational insecurity, mainly due to the absence of adequate child care facilities.

The path model identifies time effects: The attitudes towards the traditional female role have changed and the educational level has increased. The path model further underlines the importance of labour market participation. Labour market participation increases the probability of having a child and therefore is a prerequisite for having a child. The region was identified as an important indicator.

In reference to the thesis of Blosfeld et al. (2005) that young people are more affected by globalisation and that occupational and economic insecurity can explain low fertility, we can conclude:

- Young people are not more affected by occupational insecurity in Austria. Occupational insecurity depends on qualification and region. However, young people were more affected by economic insecurity in 2003.
- Labour market integration is a prerequisite for having a child. Labour market integration depends on education and region. Time only has an indirect effect. If time is interpreted as an indicator of modernisation and globalisation, globalisation only has a weak effect.
- Attitudes towards the female role have no effect on having a child. However, if we change the causal model in our analysis so that attitudes towards the traditional female role have an effect on participation in the labour market, attitudes towards traditional female role have an indirect effect on having a child.

Summarising, the thesis of Blossfeld et al. (2005) are only partially supported. Young people especially are not losers of globalisation in all aspects. However it should be mentioned that young people with immigration background are only included in the ASS if they are able to speak German. Immigrants with poor language competences in German have a high unemployment risk and are losers of globalisation: In Vienna for example, two third of unemployed young people (15 to 21 years old) have a immigration background whereas only 30 percent of total young population have an immigration background.9

Methodologically the analysis reveals the disadvantages of the database. The disadvantages are:

- The sample sizes for young people are quite small for each time point. Therefore it is difficult to find significant effects. For example, the number of people with preference to FPÖ or the number of unemployed people is small.
- Only three time points are available for the time period of 20 years. Therefore it is difficult to identify trends.
- It is difficult to specify causal relations because only cross section data are available.

These disadvantages raise the question whether other databases should be used. This would imply that only shorter time periods can be used. In general, it is desirable to collect original data by biographical methods.

The following steps are planned for the future:

- Comparison of Austria with other European Countries on the base of the ISSP.
- Analysis of insecurity using a different data set, e.g. international labour force survey, and - if possible – the interrelation with fertility. Different research institutes will be contacted to perform these analyses and present the results.

NOTES

[1] Further studies were done by Pernicka/Blaschke (2006) and Talos (1999). They concentrate on institutional regulations.
[2] http://www.statistik.at/web_de/frageboegen/private_haushalte/eu_silc/index.html (01.08.2007)
[3] Description: http://www.sora.at/de/start.asp?b=236 (14.07.2007)
[4] In addition to the already quoted references see as an example of international comperative research Datler et al. (2005) and Wallace et al. (2005).
[5] see http://wko.at/statistik/eu/europa-wirtschaftswachstum.pdf (01.08.2007)
[6] Community Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
[7] European Commission Household Panel
[8] Microcensus
[9] Der Standard, 2.8.2007, p. 7. A recent study of the situation of the second generation of immigrants was done by Weis et al. (2007). Actual numbers of unemployment

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APPENDIX

Overview 1: Political Development 1978-2006

Date	***Political Events***
1978	
5. November	Referendum about the peaceful use of nuclear energy (Zwentendorf: 50,5% No – Birth of the ecological movement
1982	
May	Citizen's initiative: „Conference centre - Savings act": 25,7% (1) - most successful initiative ever; Project still implemented
1983	
24. April	NRW: SPÖ 90 (- 5), ÖVP 81 (+4), FPÖ 12 (+1) Turn out: 91,3 • SPÖ lost absolute majority after 12 years (Vienna General Hospital scandal, the above mentioned Conference Centre was realised despite citizen's initiatives "No") • Kreisky era ends • The green formations ALÖ (1,4%) and VGÖ (2,0) fail clearly to enter parliament. Result: Kreisky resigns, Sinowatz forms small coalition with FPÖ (Vice- Chancellor: Steger)
1984	
December	Occupation of the Hainburger wetlands "Donauauen"-area forcibly ended – 40.000 strong demonstration in Vienna on 19.12 to protest against this. First use of ecology as a political force – the Danube power plant is not built
1986	
May- June	**Data collection SSÖ 1986**
8. June	Waldheim becomes Federal President following a tough election campaign involving his Nazi past – his method of coming to terms with his past becomes a dominant domestic topic. Result: Sinowatz resigns – Vranitzky continues red/blue coalition with Vice Chancellor Steger. Following this the government sets up a Historians Committee - Waldheim becomes politically isolated. Vranitzky and Jankowitsch try to arbitrate internationally.
13. September	Haider replaces Steger as FP chairman after a turbulent party congress with help from the German Nationalist camp. Result: Vranitzky ends the coalition with the FPÖ

23. November	NRW: SPÖ 80 (-10), ÖVP 77 (-4), FPÖ 18 (+6), Green Alliance 8 (+8) Turnout of voters: 88,8 (1983: 91,3) • Haider increases his vote percentage • First entry of the Green Alliance Result: Grand coalition Vranitzky I (Vice- Chancellor: Mock)
1987	
27. April	Die USA places the longstanding UNO- General Sekretary Waldheim (1972-1981) on the „Watchlist“ – Waldheim is refused entry up to his death
1988	
8. February	The International Historians Commission discloses its report on Waldheim– no war crimes are imputed. However, it was noted that he gave false information about his time in the Balkans and Greece
18. August	Haider refers to Austria as a „ideological freak” during a ORF reportage
1989	
30. Mai	Haider becomes Governor of Corinthia
1990	
7.October	NRW: SPÖ 80 (+/-0), ÖVP 60 (-17), FPÖ 33 (+15), Green Alliance 10 (+2) Turnout: 83,6 • FPÖ doubles its votes Result: Grand coalition Vranitzky II (Vice- Chancellor up to 1991: Riegler, then Busek)
1991	
21. June	Haider is voted out of office due to his comment about the „ good and proper employment policy of the Third Reich“
1992	
8. July	Klestil sworn in as BP
1993	
January/March	**Data Collection SSÖ 1993**
January	FPÖ’s Citizen’s Initiative „Austria First“ not successful: Participation 7,35 (Position 13 out of 30) Result: Heide Schmidt and others quit the FPÖ
23. January	250.000 protest by taking part in the campaign “Lichtermeer”
4. February	Formation of Liberal Forum (LIF)
3. December	First bomb attack with xenophobic background – right wing terror becomes a political issue
1994	
12. June	Referendum on EU entry: 66,6% Yes

9. October	NRW: SPÖ 65 (-15), ÖVP 52 (-8), FPÖ 42 (+9), Green Alliance13 (+3), LIF 11 (n.k) Turn out: 80,2 • SPÖ/ÖVP lose 2/3 majority needed for constitutional amendments • LIF makes it into parliament at first go • FPÖ reaches protest voters (by emphasizing scandals and rants against the "privileges system" in politics) Result: Grand coalition Vranitzky III (Vice- Chancellor: Busek)
1995	
1. January	EU-Entry
5. February	4 Romanies killed by booby trap in Oberwart. Most devastating terror attack in the history of the 2nd Republic
4. May	Schüssel sworn in as Vice-Chancellor
17. December	NRW: SPÖ 71 (+6), ÖVP 52 (+/-0), FPÖ 41 (-1), LIF 10 /-1), Green Alliance9 (-4) Turn out: 86 • SPÖ/ÖVP achieves constitutional majority once more • Turn out finally increases – high mobilisation level of SP voters Result: Grand Coalition Vranitzky IV (Vice- Chancellor: Schüssel)
1997	
January	Vranitzky steps down, Klima becomes Chancellor
April	„Gen Technology" citizen's initiative signed by 21,2% of eligible voters (2)
April	"Women" citizen's initiative: 11,2% (8)
1998	
8. April	Klestil begins second term of office
1999	
18. April	Haider once more elected as Governor of Corinthia
3. October	NRW: SPÖ 65 (-6), FPÖ 52 (+ 11), ÖVP 52 (+/- 0), Green Alliance 14 (+ 5) Turn out: 80,4 • FPÖ achieves more votes than the ÖVP and reaches a historic all time high. Strongest party amongst under 30's • LIF no longer represented
2000	
4. February	Coalition Black/Blue. Chancellor Schüssel, Vice-Chancellor Riess-Passer • Sanctions on the part of the EU • Federal President Klestil reluctantly swears in the cabinet but refuses to appoint Kabas as minister • Two years of constant protest rallies (youth) follow
29. April	Gusenbauer replaces Klima as SP Chairman
2001	
October	Tuition fees WS 2001

November	Citizen's initiative on "Education" and "Tuition fees" unsuccessful: 2,98% (26)
2002	
January	Citizen's initiative „Anti Temelin veto": 15,5% (6)
April	Citizen's Initiative „Welfare State Austria": 12,2% (7)
July	Citizen's Initiative against interceptor jets: 10,6% (9)
7. September	FPÖ „Knittelfelder Putsch" leads Riess-Passer, Grasser;Westenthaler etc. to step down. This leads to premature new federal elections
24. November	NRW: ÖVP 79 (+27), SPÖ 69 (+4), FPÖ 18 (-34), Green Alliance 17 (+3) • ÖVP achieves highest vote count since 1966 – not least through front man Grasser (no political party attachment) • Red/green increase their vote counts but the FPÖ's dramatic loses mainly benefit the ÖVP
	Analysis: http://www.sora.at/de/start.asp?b=21
2003	
28. February	Black/blue coalition Schüssel II, Vice-Chancellor Haupt
21. October	FPÖ's Gorbach made Vice-Chancellor
December-February 2004	**Data Collection SSÖ 2003**
2004	
February	Citizen's Initiative „ Pensions": 10,5% (10)
March	Haider re-elected as Governor of Corinthia
8. July	Fischer sworn in as Federal President
	Analysis: http://www.sora.at/de/start.asp?b=17
2005	
17. April	Formation of BZÖ
October	Young persons from the age of 16 allowed to vote for the State Parliament of Vienna. Analysis: http://www.sora.at/de/start.asp?b=348
2006	
1. October	NRW: SPÖ 68 (- 1), ÖVP 66 (- 13), Green Alliance 21 (+ 7), FPÖ 21 (+ 3), BZÖ 7 (n.k.) Turn out: 78,5 BZÖ is a regional alliance in Corinthia – can only enter parliament by results obtained in that federal state
	Main Topics: • Taxes (abrogation of death duty) • State of emergency in nursing the elderly • State of emergency in education • Youth unemployment • „The cross versus the crescent" - cultural clash demonised by the rightwing parties BZÖ and FPÖ
	Analysis: http://www.sora.at/de/start.asp?b=384
2007	
11. January	Gusenbauer/Molterer's cabinet sworn in.

June	Decision to reform electoral law – cornerstones are: extension of term of office and reduction of voting age to 16.
14. June	Waldheim’s death starts a new, hefty controversy whether Austria has come to terms with it’s Nazi past: Waldheim still polarises opinion, even 21 years after his election …