working papers

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LONG-TERM EFFECTS OF INVOLUNTARY JOB SEPARATIONS ON LABOUR CAREERS*

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Abstract

In this article, we analyse whether involuntary job separations present long-term effects upon individuals' careers, and the magnitude of such effects. For this purpose, the impact of involuntary job separations on three measures of occupational prestige is examined, using the British Household Panel Survey. Involuntary job separations are found to show a negative effect upon those occupational prestige scales. In particular, when additional involuntary job separations are suffered, this negative impact is persistent and cumulative. Moreover, this observed decrease in prestige levels is enhanced by the length of job separations. Our results help to explain why displaced workers suffer persistent earnings losses compared to non-displaced workers along their work-life history.

Keywords: career, involuntary job separation, occupation, occupational prestige

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1. Introduction

The objective of this paper consists of testing whether involuntary job separations —IJS for short— present any influence on individuals' labour career in the long-term. It is widely known that IJS exhibit important long-term effects on wages. Many empirical studies have measured such wage losses in the short and the long run (Topel, 1990; Ruhm, 1991; Farber, 1993; Jacobson et al., 1993; Stevens, 1997). This literature stresses that long-term wage and earnings losses caused by job displacements are large. However, as Rhum (1991) shows, these wage losses are not related in the long-term to a significantly lower attachment to the labour market[1]. In a similar way, Jacobson et al. (1993) find that earnings losses are large even for those workers who find new jobs in similar firms.

Labour careers of individuals who are suffering IJS can certainly go on. However, is its 'quality' affected by IJS in the long-term? In other words, in spite of their attachment to the labour market, do workers who suffer IJS present a 'worse' career due to these breaks? Might the influence of IJS on individuals' labour career help to explain these permanent earnings losses in spite of the continuous attachment to the labour market?

In order to answer this question, some variable measuring the quality of the different jobs held along the life-cycle is required. This fact constitutes a problem which is common to the empirical analyses arising from the theory of career mobility. For instance, when Sicherman and Galor (1990) try to test the implications of their theory of career mobility, they build a so-called vertical ranking of occupations. This ranking is "an occupational index that will serve as an indicator for the amount of human capital needed to work in different occupations" (Sicherman and Galor, 1990, p. 189). This index is very similar to measures of occupational status or occupational prestige that have been traditionally developed by sociologists[2]. One may wonder the reason why those authors use an occupational index (instead of wages). Given that wages are linked to occupations in many ways, wages and this type of occupational indicators must be highly correlated. However, it may be the case that careers are affected by IJS even when IJS do not decrease future wages; that is, after a job displacement takes place,

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[1] "Four years after displacement , job losers are out of work only one week more than their non displaced counterparts but continue to earn 10-13 percent less" (Ruhm, 1991; p. 322)

individuals may be unable to attain occupations of a similar "quality" as the ones in which they had previously been hired. In those cases, occupational prestige scales will certainly be convenient proxies to contrast whether IJS present any influence on labour careers. This fact becomes especially important when researchers do not have information on wages for every job held along individuals' life-cycles, as is our case in this research.

For the purpose of this article, three different prestige scale scores are used: the Hope-Goldthorpe Scale (HGS) score, the Cambridge Scale score, and the Camsis Scale score (see section 3 for their corresponding definitions). Through the use of those different measures of occupational prestige, we are able to explore whether or not IJS show permanent effects on individuals' labour careers. Specifically, a negative relationship between IJS and the occupational prestige score is expected. This hypothesis is tested with the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS). Specifically, our empirical work is divided into two distinct parts. First, we undertake ordinary least squares regressions on occupational prestige scores along individual life-courses. Second, we outline an empirical differences-in-differences framework for identifying the impact of past involuntary displacements on the occupational prestige associated with the current job. We find that IJS decrease in a non-negligible way the occupational prestige along the individual's labour career (even with different definitions of the IJS variable). This fact therefore confirms that IJS present permanent effects on labour careers. It is also found that this negative effect is not large in terms of the occupational prestige. Nonetheless, this impact is associated to the individual's changing of occupations, which is very likely to imply the loss of any specific human capital. In addition, those occupational prestige losses are substantially affected by the length of time spent into non-employment after a job separation takes place. Our results allow to offer an explanation for the important long-term earnings losses detected among displaced workers, in spite of their continuous attachment to the labour market. Moreover, they reveal the persistence of these separation effects over time.

The article proceeds as follows. In the second section we describe the characteristics of the data base. Section three defines and describes the three measures of occupational prestige used in the analysis. The fourth section deals with the empirical

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[2] Indeed, as Sicherman and Galor (1990) underlie, their index is highly correlated with the Duncan socio-economic status index and the NORC occupational prestige index.

results regarding the influence of IJS on the occupational prestige score. Finally, the conclusions section resumes the main findings.

2. Data and main variables' description

Our data are from the first three waves of the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS). The first wave was designed as a nationally representative sample of the population of Great Britain living in private households in the Autumn of 1991 (the north of Scotland is not included). Approximately, 5,500 British private households (containing about 10,000 persons) were interviewed. These original sample respondents have been followed (even if they split off from their original households) and they, and their adult co-residents, interviewed at approximately one year intervals subsequently.

Information is recorded on labour market status at each interview, and for the period between 1 September a year before and the interview date. Thus, for respondents present at waves 1 to 3, we have a complete and detailed record of their labour market status from 1 September 1990 (or before: the start date of a job held at that date is known) to at least 1 September 1993. In addition, for our analysis, it is also necessary to have information on the respondent's entire career. In order to fill the gap since leaving full-time education to the start of the panel-derived labour market history, retrospective data were also collected in waves 2 and 3. In wave 2 a complete employment status history was collected, recording non-employed states in detail, and in wave 3 a complete job history was collected with detailed information on every job held (see the appendix for documentation on the data sets from the BHPS used in this paper). Thus, we can construct a complete employment/labour market status history for nearly every individual in the survey from his/her first job to the year 1993.

The analysis reported in this paper uses a sub-sample consisting of all original sample members aged at least 34 years-old at 1-December-93, so as to avoid very short life courses. The sub-sample with non-missing information on the covariates used in the empirical analysis consists of 5,888 individuals. In principle, recall bias is a problem for our analysis. However, in practice, previous research attempting to assess the magnitude of recall effects in the BHPS has not found in particular this kind of bias. Indeed, it has been argued that much of the recall error can be described as random error, the exception being for short duration events —especially unemployment. This can result in a biased and inaccurate account of cumulative experience, but need not be any worse than error inherent in data collected by panel methods. The BHPS has also attempted to

minimize recall error by asking sample members to detail marital and fertility events (which tend to be well remembered) prior to their employment histories, thereby providing a chronological ordering of personal histories aiding the recall of employment events. This procedure has been shown to work well in other surveys. Hence we argue that the recall error in the BHPS labour histories is less of a problem than in most other retrospective data sets.

As the facts analysed in the article exhibit a close connection to individuals' life cycle, an explicit consideration of the different birth cohorts will allow a better understanding of the results. The definition of the different cohorts is as follows:

- First cohort: individuals who were born between 1906 and 1919.
- Second cohort: individuals who were born between 1920 and 1929.
- Third cohort: individuals who were born between 1930 and 1939.
- Fourth cohort: individuals who were born between 1940 and 1949.
- Fifth cohort: individuals who were born between 1950 and 1959.

Table 1 presents some cohort characteristics. Most of individuals in the first two cohorts —and partially those in the third one— are above the mandatory retirement age. Thus, we are able to observe the complete life-cycle evolution of their employment status dynamics. On the contrary, life cycles must be considered as 'right-censored' in the remainder cohorts. The starting average year of the first spell offers an idea of the problems —or advantages— that each cohort must face in their eventual entry into the labour market. Whereas the first cohort starts their work-life histories at the beginning of the Great Depression, the second one does amidst the Second World War, the third one in the early fifties —i.e., while the economy was recovering from the previous recession period—, the fourth one in the early sixties, and finally, the last cohort's first spell is fairly close to the first oil shock. In order to appreciate how certain exogenous events might have affected the cohorts' labour market evolution, Table 1 also reports their average age at the first and second oil shocks. The first two cohorts must not have been substantially affected by these shocks, whereas the remainder ones have presumably suffered the consequences of the oil crisis —especially the last two cohorts— either through redundancies, or through longer and more frequent unemployment spells, or both.

We have divided the information provided by the survey to the question about reasons to leave the job in two groups. Firstly, involuntary reasons: made redundant;

dismissed or sacked; temporary job ended; or stopped by health reasons. Secondly, the remainder of reasons (presumably voluntary): promoted/left for a better job; took retirement; left to have a baby; and children/home care. Different IJS variables are then defined: the number of IJS, a dummy variable indicating whether the individual has ever been involuntarily displaced, and, finally, the ratio of the number of IJS over number of employment spells. This latter variable is taken as a measure of the 'frailty' of the labour career.

Table 2 presents a description of this set of IJS variables. On average, individuals suffer 0.58 IJS, but there are some of them with fourteen. The ratio between the number of IJS and the number of employment spells shows how frequent are IJS along the individual's labour career. Although the mean shows that around 12 per cent of employment spells end with an involuntary displacement, some individuals end all of their jobs due to involuntary reasons (the maximum is 1). Finally, 35 percent of the sample members have ever been involuntarily job separated.

Table 3 presents the three aforementioned IJS variables (number of IJS, number of IJS over the number of employment spells, and the dummy collecting whether individuals have ever suffered any IJS) by birth cohort and gender. It is men who present higher average levels for any of those three variables, independently of the cohort considered. For the total sample, men suffer, on average, 0.73 involuntary job separations (as opposed to 0.46 for women), the probability of being involuntarily displaced from their jobs is 0.41 along their life-course (0.29 for women), and 15 percent of their employment spells are finished due to involuntary reasons (9 percent for women). Since the group of 'voluntary' reason to abandon a job includes those related to family care —which are usually more present among women— this distribution by gender is hardly surprising. Therefore, from these data, the conclusion should not be that women have less fragile careers, but, rather, that their labour career is more affected than that of men by reasons related to family and to culture and social values (or prejudices). As regards birth cohorts, the three IJS variables attain their highest values for the third one. This cohort includes individuals those who were born in the Great Depression and who reached maturity during the oil shocks (38 years-old in the first of those shocks). Those shocks have presumably affected their careers, in the form of suffering a higher incidence of involuntary job separations than the remainder cohorts.

3. Measures of occupational prestige

The *Hope-Goldthorpe Scale* (HGS) score was derived from a survey on the social standing of occupations, whereby jobs were ranked in terms of their social desirability by the interviewees[3]. The underlying assumption behind the prestige measure by Goldthorpe and Hope (1974) is that judgement of occupations is based on various dimensions such as the living conditions it provides, the necessary knowledge it requires, the income earned in each occupation, and its social usefulness[4]. Individuals were asked through a survey about the desirability of occupations. The minimum (value 0) was set up for domestic housekeepers and related occupations (group 670 of the Standard Occupational Classification[5]). Individuals were asked to assign numerical values to the remainder of occupations. The maximum (value 82.05) corresponds to medical practitioners (group 220 of the Standard Occupational Classification). This prestige scale has been used before in Economics to measure the labour market success of individuals —Bond and Saunders (1999)— or to analyse the risk of fatal injury — Marin and Psacharopoulos (1982). The latter authors find that the risk of fatal injury presented a clear negative effect on the occupational prestige. In this sense, the HGS is related to the desirability of different occupations. For instance, job safety is an important factor in the desirability of an occupation, even when the effect of income is discounted, as Marin and Psacharopoulos (1982) show.

Whereas the HGS score is therefore a reputational evaluation, the *Cambridge Scale* is an associative one. Based on the scaling of survey respondents' occupational friendship and marriage scores, the Cambridge Scale is regarded by its originators as a broad measure of social stratification and social inequality. It consists of a measure of differential advantage as indicated by the tendency of those enjoying similar life-styles to interact socially on the basis of equality. It uses occupational groups as the basic units (for details, see Blackburn and Stewart, 1975). The minimum in this scale score (value

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[3] Though the survey was launched in 1972, it must be underlined that various prestige measurements have been empirically found to show strong correlating indexes (a correlation coefficient of 0.8 and 0.9 was found by Wegener, 1992). Moreover, occupational prestige indicators surprisingly exhibit great stability along time: since the year 1925 the structure of occupational prestige has remained almost constant in occidental countries (see Hauser and Featherman, 1977). Therefore, the use of an occupational prestige indicator seems specially convenient for our objective.

[4] Goldthorpe and Hope (1974, p. 5) define the occupational prestige as "the position of an individual or group within a structure of relations of deference, acceptance and derogation, which represents a distinctive, 'symbolic' aspect of social stratification; occupational prestige, therefore, can be viewed as the symbolic status or reputation of an occupation."

[5] The information about the Standard Occupational Classification in the BHPS has been obtained from Taylor et al. (2001).

0.56) corresponds to "glass products and ceramics makers" (group 590 of the Standard Occupational Classification), while the maximum corresponds to "other social and behavioural scientists" (value 85.04, for the group 291 in the SOC).

Finally, the *Camsis Scale* scores represent an occupational unit's relative position within the national order of social interaction and stratification. Since the Camsis scales are derived within the context of gender groupings, different scores are obtained for men and women. The male scales represent the ranking of the male occupations in a hierarchy of social interaction, and the female scales are a ranking of those of females. Thus, for instance, there is no necessary relationship between the values of an occupation on its male and female scales (although they are likely to share similar relative locations). The minimum value (13.1) in this scale is assigned to "glass and ceramics, furnace operatives" (group 823 in the SOC), while the maximum is achieved for "university and polythecnic teaching professionals" (group 230).

4. Empirical results

4.1. The determinants of average occupational prestige scores

In this section we assess the role played by the suffering of involuntary job separations on the measures of occupational prestige described above. Since our focus is on the whole individuals' labour career, our occupational prestige variable of interest has been obtained by constructing the weighted average of each of the prestige scales presented above in the different occupations held by individuals along their lives. These weights are the proportions of time that the individuals spend in the respective occupations[6]. This average becomes meaningful if the occupational prestige changes across the successive individual employment spells. This fact can be examined through the use of the three prestige scales. Figures 1, 3 and 5 show the correlations of the different measures of prestige for the first twelve employment spells[7]: the occupational prestige measures associated to each occupation are highly correlated across subsequent employment spells when the HGS scale is used —around 0.7— and it decreases slowly along the occupational prestige of spells t+2, t+3, etc. When the other two prestige scales are used, the obtained correlations across different occupations are very similar. Figures 2, 4 and 6 present these same correlations though, this time, only for the

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[6] Also arithmetic averages of the prestige scales in the different occupations held have been calculated. Results obtained with the arithmetic averages are similar to the ones presented in the paper, though the fitness of the different specifications of the empirical model is substantially lower.

[7] For the thirteenth spell and onwards the sample size is below 250 cases, and the estimated correlations can be affected by a non negligible sample error. Nevertheless, the trends commented in the text remains.

individuals who have ever been involuntarily job separated. In spite of the fact that the general picture is rather similar, prestige correlations across successive employment spells are shown to be lower for ever-separated individuals, especially when the HGS score is used. In addition, we have found that the correlation between the average occupational prestige scores and the number of IJS are significant and presents the expected negative sign (-0.081, -0.118, and –0.092 for the HGS, the Cambridge and the Camsis scale scores, respectively). Similarly, correlations between the ratio of the number of IJS over the number of employment spells and the prestige scores are also significant and with the expected negative sign too (-0.108, -0.152, and –0.139, respectively). As regards figures 4 and 6, the decrease in the plotted correlations for individuals who have ever been involuntarily job separated is slightly less relevant than that for the total sample.

Our dependent variable in this section is the natural logarithm of the weighted average of each prestige scale in the different occupations held by individuals along their job histories. Ordinary Least Squares regressions are used through an empirical model which, in addition to the IJS variables described in the previous section, takes into consideration dummies for the educational level, gender, ethnic origin (white=1), birth cohort, and another one denoting whether or not individuals are in 1993 above the mandatory retirement age (as a proxy for 'complete' labour careers). Continuous variables such as the years passed from the first spell, and the proportion of time that individuals have spent in a situation of unemployment or inactivity along their whole life-cycle are also included. Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 show the estimation results for several specifications of the model and the three different measures of occupational prestige, respectively.

Independently of the prestige variable used, the explanatory variables underlying the occurrence of IJS are, in general, statistically significant and with the expected negative sign. The only exception is constituted by the regressions which take the Camsis scale score as the dependent variable (Table 4.3): both the ratio of IJS over the number of employment spells, and the number of IJS are only marginally significant. On the other hand, it is the Cambridge scale score regressions which offer the best results in terms of both the significance of the relevant IJS variables and the global model adjustment (Table 4.2). According to those latter regression results, and keeping the remainder variables constant, those workers who have ever been involuntarily job displaced suffer a reduction in their estimated prestige levels of around 3 percent along

their life-course. In a similar way, significant negative impacts are also associated both to the ratio of IJS over the number of employment spells, and to the number of involuntary job separations. For instance, the last column in Table 4.2 shows that a unit increase in the number of IJS suffered along the individual's life-course presents a nearly 2 percent reduction in the average occupational prestige. This result, therefore, means that the effects of involuntary separations depend on the existence of additional job losses following an initial displacement.

As regards the remaining explanatory variables, the fact of having no education constitutes a significant contributor to smaller average prestige levels, as well as the proportion of time spent unemployed or inactive. In fact, the higher the education level attained, the easier the individual's access to occupations associated to larger prestige levels seems to be. In addition, the average prestige scale score is reduced when belonging to the birth cohorts 1940-49 and 1950-59, and the higher the time passed from the first entry into the labour market. Being a white individual presents a positive impact on the dependent variable, and men are able to achieve significantly higher levels of occupational prestige than women along their lives (though only when the HGS score is used).

Therefore, involuntary job separations present a long-term effect on the labour career through a reduction in the average occupational prestige. One may wonder for the size of this impact. Table 5 offers an idea in this respect. Predictions of the dependent variable —the three measures of the average occupational prestige, respectively— are implemented for reference males. The first column in those tables compares the prediction for the individuals who have ever suffered an involuntary job separation to those who have not. The following column works out the predictions for the average proportion of employment spells ending due to an involuntary separation. The last column considers the prediction taking as values one involuntary job separation and none, respectively.

The observed effect is relatively small, in general. In addition, the predicted impact on the occupational prestige is greater when the dummy for involuntary job separation is used, and for the Cambridge Scale score. In particular, a 3.34 per cent decrease is obtained in this case (which corresponds to a decrease in the Cambridge score scale from 14.41 to 14.91). In order to interpret this result, we have looked up for the occupations leading to this predicted impact, according to the Standard Occupational Classification. The change from the occupation named as "Sewing machinists, menders,

darners and embroiderers" (with a Cambridge Scale score of 14.74 in group 553) to that named as "Inspectors, viewers and testers of metal and electrical goods" (with a Cambridge Scale score of 14.56 in group 860) is the one which better approximates the 3.34 percent reduction in the average occupational prestige.

The remainder impacts found in Table 5 are smaller. They reach as a maximum a difference slightly larger than 2 percent when the HGS score is used, while they remain around 1 percent for the Camsis scale score. However, even though the predicted reduction detected in the average occupational prestige is small, relevant modifications in the activities related to the work performed by the individuals can be underlying those results. That is, in spite of the fact that involuntary job separations show, in general, a significant small empirical impact on the average occupational prestige, the fact of suffering such a decrease can, indeed, remarkably modify the nature of the job held. For instance, if we focus on the smallest percentage reduction in this table (−1.05 percent in the third column), and address to the Standard Occupational Classification in order to find out which are the associated occupations, the nearest values to the Hope-Goldthorpe scores shown in that table correspond to "wood working machine operatives" (with an HGS score of 32.61 in group 897) and "typists and word processor operators" (showing an HGS score of 34.62 in group 452).

Involuntary job separations can, therefore, be considered as long-term disruptions in the labour market career. This result is linked to the empirical literature on the earnings losses of displaced workers. Long-term earnings losses have traditionally been attributed to losses in specific human capital (see, in special, Topel, 1990). Although individuals suffering IJS work in jobs associated to only slightly lower occupational prestige levels, a relevant modification in terms of the day-to-day activities performed in the job may exist. It is likely, therefore, that workers are only able to use their general human capital in the new jobs found after the displacement, and that any of their specific human capital is lost —even that one which is only specific in the sense of being related to their previous occupation and not to their previous employer. This situation would, then, imply subsequent effects on their long-term earnings losses.

Our results are congruent too with the results obtained by Stevens (1997). She found that a great part of the persistence in wage losses can be explained by the accumulation of job losses. In particular, those individuals suffering only one involuntary job separation presented earnings and wage losses which ranged from 1 to 4 percent after 6 or more years had passed from the job loss. In this same vein, our results

show that one job separation has a general 'small' effect, which ranges from 1 to 2 percent for males without studies. However, suffering additional involuntary job separations exhibit a cumulative effect on the occupational prestige: not only is the dummy for being involuntarily job separated significant, but also are the remainder continuous variables which capture the existence of IJS. Therefore, individuals suffering more IJS will undergo more drastic changes along their future successive occupations. That is, a 'large' and permanent effect will be observed not only on wage losses (as found by Stevens, 1997) but also on the average occupational prestige.

To sum up, the disruption created by IJS on labour careers exists and it is, in general, a small effect when workers suffer only once this type of separation. However, it is certainly not negligible when suffering more and more IJS, given the existence of a cumulative effect exherted on the average occupational prestige.

4.2. Controlling for unobserved heterogeneity

In this section, we adopt another approach to assess the effects of involuntary job separations on individual's occupational prestige levels. Specifically, we wish to estimate the effect of involuntary displacements from the previous job on the occupational prestige associated with the current job. We would also like to find out whether decreases in prestige levels are affected by the length of job separations and whether time spent in re-employment may erode that prestige penalty.

For this purpose, we exploit two of the main strengths of our data set: it covers a long period of time and contains information on all employment spells for each individual. As stated in Section 2 above, information is recorded on respondents' entire careers (from their first job to the year 1993). Therefore, for each job held, we gather its duration, the individual age at the beginning of that job, the duration of the intermediate non-employment spell existing between the previous and the current job, and the reason for separation from the previous spell (either voluntary or involuntary). Our approach is, then, to use a fixed-effects estimator to control for unobserved worker characteristics that may be correlated with displacement probabilities. For instance, if less-able or less-motivated workers are more susceptible to layoffs, estimates of displacement effects that fail to control for individual-specific heterogeneity will be biased toward finding larger prestige losses[8].

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[8] In fact, without including fixed effects, the predicted negative impact of the dummy for involuntary job separations is even larger (results of the pooled regressions are available from the authors upon request).

More specifically, given longitudinal data on workers' prestige scores and employment histories, the effects of an involuntary job separation observed for worker *i* at moment *t-1* on prestige levels associated to the following occupation at moment *t* can be modelled in the following way:

$$Ln(P_{it}) = X_{it}\,\beta + Z_{it-1}\,\alpha + \lambda_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{1}$$

where P_{it} is the individual i's prestige score associated to the current job; X_{it} and Z_{it-1} are two vectors of observable variables associated to, respectively, the current and the previous job, which potentially influence a worker's prestige at the present occupation; λ_{it} is a time invariant individual specific error that captures the effects of unobservable characteristics; and ε_{it} is assumed to have a constant variance and to be uncorrelated across individuals and time. The parameters of interest (α, β, λ) are estimated using the within-group technique. This estimation method is equivalent to a simple least squares estimation of the model in which the variables are defined as deviation from their means (it consists of a generalisation of the "differences in differences" technique).

In estimating the model, some of the terms in X_{it} and Z_{it-1} such as education, sex and race have been eliminated from the equation since they do not vary with time[9]. The following variables are included as determinants in X_{it}. First, we include the length of time spent into non-employment after a job separation takes place (less than 1 month, from 1 month to 6 months, from 6 months to 18 months, and above 18 months). We expect a larger prestige loss the longer the permanence in non-employment. This coefficient would reflect, then, the persistence of the displacement effects over time. Second, dummy variables collecting tenure at the current job —up to 2 years, from 2 to 4 years, from 4 to 6 years, and above 6 years— are included in X_{it} to reflect time spent later in re-employment: we expect that the longer the time spent with the following employer, the larger the prestige gains will be. Finally, we also include dummies collecting the age at the beginning of the current employment spell as another determinant of the prestige score associated to that occupation (up to 35 years, from 35 to 45 years, above 45 years), as well as dummies for three different temporary moments for the beginning of the current occupation (up to the year 1950, from 1950 to 1975,

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However, this pooled-OLS regression does not take into account the unobserved heterogeneity present in the data.

[9] Given that the fixed-effects model does not yield estimates of the effects of the time invariant explanatory variables, and that trying to undertand the differences between men and women may be regarded as important, the Appendix includes the results of the estimation of model (1) by gender. As can be observed, involuntary displacements present a significantly negative effect on men's occupational prestige for whatever prestige variable considered. However, for women this impact not always exists.

beyond 1975). The vector Z_{it-1} includes two variables. First, we include tenure in the previous job (up to 2 years, from 2 to 4 years; from 4 to 6 years; and above 6 years of tenure). The underlying idea is that the occupational prestige in the current position may be positively correlated with the duration of the previous job. Second, we include a dummy variable indicating whether or not the worker has been involuntarily displaced from his/her previous job.

Table 6 provides the estimates of the prestige equation (1) for men and the three different prestige scales used (the Hope-Goldthorpe scale score, the Cambridge scale score and the Cambridge scale score). As explained above, the estimation is by ordinary least squares, using a mean-differenced form to control for individual-specific effects. Results obtained are similar for whatever prestige scale considered, the only difference being that the Cambridge scale score offers, in general, coefficients of higher absolute magnitude. Individuals suffering an involuntary displacement from their previous position present a reduction in the prestige level associated to the current job. This reduction is approximately 3 percent when the Hope-Goldthorpe scale is used (first column in Table 6), 2 percent in case that the Cambridge scale is taken as dependent variable (second column), and only 1 percent for the Camsis scale score. In any case, the prestige effects of involuntary displacements exist and they are significant.

The longer the tenure in the previous job, the larger the prestige gains are in the current occupation. For instance, compared to workers with less than 2 years of tenure in the previous job, an individual who remained with his/her employer above 6 years is estimated to enjoy an occupation with a significantly higher prestige level —which is around 2 percent independently of the prestige scale score used. Therefore, a positive relationship is found between tenure in the previous position and actual prestige gains.

Moreover, the longer the permanence in non-employment, the larger the relative prestige loss the individual incurs in. Compared to those workers who only remain 1 month in non-employment, results indicate that an individual who remains more than one and a half years in non-employment is estimated to get an occupation characterised lower prestige level; this reduction ranges from 5 percent when the Hope-Goldthorpe or the Cambridge scale score are used, to nearly 3 percent when the Camsis scale is taken as a dependent variable. However, at the same time, the longer the time spent with the current employer, the larger the prestige gain. Compared to those workers with short job tenure (2 years or less), an individual who keeps working more than 6 years is estimated to enjoy an occupation with an increase in its associated prestige ranging from 2 to 5

percent (depending on the prestige scale considered). Note that this prestige gain is higher the larger the tenure of the current job, as expected. Therefore, though the impact of past non-employment duration implies the existence of prestige losses, this non-employment incidence is found to have a temporary penalty effect, since it disappears after workers re-enter into employment.

Finally, compared to the youngest workers (those up to 35 years-old), individuals above 35 are able to enjoy occupations associated to significantly higher prestige levels, and especially for those above 45 years-old. This improvement ranges from 3 to 6 percent for those aged from 35 to 45 years-old, while it reaches even a nearly 8 percent increase for the eldest workers.

Therefore, the fixed-effects method presented in this section and the empirical approach from the previous section have yielded similar results: involuntary job separations lead the individual to work in occupations with significantly lower occupational prestige levels. Moreover, we have found evidence for this negative impact of involuntary job separations under two different frameworks of analysis, which must be considered as complementary. On the one hand, we interpret the fact that involuntary job separations present a negative effect on the occupational prestige associated with the individuals' life-cycle as providing support for the persistence of involuntary displacements along the whole individuals' career. This idea is also confirmed from the fact that additional involuntary displacements are found to present a cumulative negative effect on our variable of interest. On the other hand, turning to our fixed-effects analysis, we have found a negative impact of previous involuntary displacements on the occupational prestige associated with the current job, and a negative relationship between prestige levels and the length of job separations. In sum, involuntary job separations play a key role in the individuals' career expectations, both in terms of their life-cycle and of a job-to-job analysis.

5. Conclusions

In this article we have used work-history data from the British Household Panel Survey in order to empirically analyse the effects that involuntary job separations (IJS) present on labour careers. Since no data on wages are available —a common shortcoming for researchers trying to test the predictions from the theory of career mobility— several occupational prestige scales have been applied —in particular, the Hope-Goldthorpe Scale, the Cambridge Scale and the Camsis scale. We have estimated the determinants

of the mean occupational prestige along the whole individuals' career. In addition, we have presented a fixed-effects model in order to control for the existence of unobserved heterogeneity. Results with different definitions of IJS show that individuals who have experienced at least one involuntary displacement tend to have a significantly lower prestige level across their whole work-life individual career, which is larger for individuals without studies and for those who have stayed more time unemployed or inactive. Moreover, we have found that additional IJS present a cumulative negative effect, eventually leading to larger decreases in the occupational prestige. Although the prestige reduction is 'small', it is certainly associated to drastic changes in the activities performed on-the-job. Therefore, little reductions in the prestige scale are hiding important losses in the specific individuals' human capital. Our empirical findings when implementing panel estimation techniques in order to control for unobserved heterogeneity go in a similar direction. Even after controlling for individual fixed effects, those individuals who have been involuntarily displaced from the previous job tend to be employed in occupations associated with lower prestige levels.

Therefore, our analysis helps to explain why displaced workers suffer from relevant earnings losses in spite of enjoying a similar labour market attachment in the long-term as non-displaced workers (see Rhum, 1991). In addition, our results are coherent with those obtained by other authors (Stevens, 1997), who find that earnings losses are concentrated on those workers who suffer several involuntary job separations. Therefore, our research casts new light on the long-term effects of IJS, which go beyond the mere earnings and wage losses widely analysed in the literature, in order to focus, instead, on the occupations held by individuals along their whole careers.

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Table 1. Birth cohort characteristics

	Cohort 1 (1906-19)	Cohort 2 (1920-29)	Cohort 3 (1930-39)	Cohort 4 (1940-49)	Cohort 5 (1950-59)
Age at the third wave	74-87	64-73	54-63	44-53	34-43
Starting average year of first spell	1929	1941	1951	1963	1972
Average age at starting year of first spell	16	16	17	18	18
Average age at the first oil shock (1973)	60	48	38	28	18
Average age at second oil shock (1979)	66	54	44	34	24
Number of observations	798	1,126	1,073	1,426	1,465

Source: British Household Panel Survey and authors' calculations

Table 2. Description of IJS variables

	Mean	St. Dev.	Min.	Max.
Number of IJS	.58	1.043	.00	14.00
Ever inv. job sep (1=Yes)	.35	.476	.00	1.00
Nº IJS/ Nº employment spells	.12	.21	.00	1.00
Number of employment spells	4.80	2.918	1.00	14.00
N = 5888				

Source: British Household Panel Survey and authors' calculations

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of IJS variables by birth cohort and gender

Birth cohort	Gender	Number of IJS Mean (St Dev)	Ever inv. Job. Sep. Mean (St Dev)	Nº IJS/ Nº emp. spells Mean (St Dev)
Cohort 1 (1906-1919)	Male	0.48 (0.81)	0.33 (0.47)	0.16 (0.28)
	Female	0.25 (0.57)	0.20 (0.39)	0.07 (0.18)
	Total	0.34 (0.68)	0.25 (0.43)	0.11 (0.43)
Cohort 2 (1920-1929)	Male	0.65 (1.05)	0.39 (0.49)	0.16 (0.26)
	Female	0.39 (0.77)	0.27 (0.44)	0.10 (0.21)
	Total	0.50 (0.91)	0.32 (0.47)	0.13 (0.24)
Cohort 3 (1930-1939)	Male	0.80 (1.18)	0.45 (0.49)	0.16 (0.24)
	Female	0.58 (1.03)	0.38 (0.48)	0.11 (0.19)
	Total	0.68 (1.11)	0.41 (0.49)	0.14 (0.22)
Cohort 4 (1940-1949)	Male	0.75 (1.12)	0.42 (0.49)	0.13 (0.22)
	Female	0.53 (1.06)	0.31 (0.46)	0.09 (0.18)
	Total	0.63 (1.09)	0.36 (0.48)	0.11 (0.20)
Cohort 5 (1950-1959)	Male	0.83 (1.27)	0.42 (0.49)	0.13 (0.21)
	Female	0.51 (1.04)	0.31 (0.46)	0.08 (0.15)
	Total	0.66 (1.17)	0.36 (0.48)	0.11 (0.18)
Total	Male	0.73 (1.14)	0.41 (0.49)	0.15 (0.24)
	Female	0.46 (0.94)	0.29 (0.46)	0.09 (0.18)
	Total	0.58 (1.04)	0.35 (0.48)	0.12 (0.21)

Source: BHPS and own calculations.

Table 4.1. OLS estimations on the average occupational prestige.
Prestige variable: Log(Hope-Goldthorpe Scale)

	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T
At least once IJS (1=Yes)	-0.024	-2.51								
Ratio IJS/Empl. Spells			-0.061	-2.8	-0.143	-2.7				
Ratio IJS/Empl. Spells squared					0.114	1.7				
Number of IJS							-0.012	-2.66	-0.011	-2.14
Number of Employment Spells									0.007	1.34
Number of Employment Spells Squared									-0.001	-1.52
White (1=Yes)	0.044	1.41	0.044	1.41	0.045	1.45	0.045	1.45	0.046	1.47
Years from first spell	-0.003	-3.5	-0.003	-3.53	-0.003	-3.5	-0.003	-3.53	-0.003	-3.53
Birth Cohort 1906-1919	0.051	1.73	0.054	1.82	0.052	1.76	0.052	1.78	0.054	1.82
Birth Cohort 1920-1929	0.017	0.75	0.02	0.85	0.019	0.81	0.019	0.8	0.019	0.81
Birth Cohort 1940-1949	-0.04	-2.35	-0.041	-2.39	-0.041	-2.41	-0.04	-2.35	-0.04	-2.31
Birth Cohort 1950-1959	-0.098	-4.27	-0.099	-4.33	-0.099	-4.31	-0.098	-4.28	-0.099	-4.27
Gender (1=Male)	0.044	3.92	0.046	4.04	0.046	4.03	0.044	3.91	0.045	3.96
Higher and First Degree Education	0.506	26.2	0.506	26.22	0.504	26.14	0.506	26.26	0.506	26.22
Teaching. nursing and other univ. ed.	0.325	25.16	0.325	25.12	0.324	25.05	0.325	25.19	0.325	25.16
GCE A level Education	0.241	12.38	0.24	12.33	0.24	12.34	0.242	12.43	0.242	12.44
GCE O level or equivalent	0.167	12.19	0.167	12.16	0.166	12.14	0.167	12.22	0.167	12.2
Vocational Training education	0.119	6.91	0.12	6.94	0.119	6.93	0.119	6.92	0.119	6.92
Mandatory retirement age (1=Yes)	0.008	0.33	0.007	0.29	0.006	0.25	0.007	0.29	0.007	0.31
Proportion of time spent unemployed	-0.526	-6.7	-0.518	-6.58	-0.511	-6.48	-0.521	-6.63	-0.522	-6.61
Proportion of time spent inactive	-0.127	-5.13	-0.122	-4.95	-0.123	-4.99	-0.127	-5.15	-0.124	-4.88
Constant	3.626	72.31	3.624	72.3	3.626	72.33	3.624	72.29	3.607	69.64
R2	0.23		0.23		0.23		0.23		0.23	

Reference: Not white; birth cohort 1930-39; being female; no studies; below the mandatory retirement age (65 for men and 60 for women).
Source: British Household Panel Survey.

Table 4.2. OLS estimations on the average occupational prestige.
Prestige variable: Log(Cambridge Scale score)

	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T
At least once IJS (1=Yes)	-0.034	-2.38								
Ratio IJS/Empl. Spells			-0.126	-3.92	-0.155	-1.98				
Ratio IJS/Empl. Spells squared					0.04	0.4				
Number of IJS							-0.015	-2.29	-0.024	-3.31
Number of Employment Spells									0.019	2.65
Number of Employment Spells Squared									-0.001	-1.52
White (1=Yes)	0.131	2.85	0.132	2.87	0.132	2.88	0.132	2.87	0.131	2.85
Years from first spell	-0.005	-3.43	-0.005	-3.4	-0.005	-3.4	-0.005	-3.46	-0.005	-3.8
Birth Cohort 1906-1919	0.077	1.77	0.079	1.82	0.078	1.8	0.08	1.83	0.1	2.28
Birth Cohort 1920-1929	0.054	1.58	0.057	1.67	0.057	1.66	0.056	1.64	0.067	1.93
Birth Cohort 1940-1949	-0.029	-1.15	-0.03	-1.2	-0.03	-1.2	-0.029	-1.15	-0.039	-1.52
Birth Cohort 1950-1959	-0.126	-3.73	-0.128	-3.78	-0.128	-3.77	-0.126	-3.74	-0.14	-4.12
Gender (1=Male)	-0.279	-16.77	-0.274	-16.41	-0.274	-16.41	-0.28	-16.8	-0.269	-15.95
Higher and First Degree Education	0.997	35.01	0.995	34.98	0.994	34.94	0.998	35.08	0.994	34.94
Teaching. nursing and other univ. ed.	0.582	30.52	0.58	30.4	0.579	30.37	0.583	30.57	0.58	30.39
GCE A level Education	0.509	17.73	0.505	17.61	0.505	17.61	0.51	17.78	0.507	17.7
GCE O level or equivalent	0.404	19.97	0.402	19.88	0.402	19.88	0.404	20.01	0.402	19.91
Vocational Training education	0.277	10.9	0.278	10.94	0.278	10.94	0.277	10.91	0.277	10.91
Mandatory retirement age (1=Yes)	0.028	0.81	0.025	0.71	0.024	0.7	0.027	0.78	0.029	0.83
Proportion of time spent unemployed	-0.722	-6.24	-0.688	-5.92	-0.685	-5.89	-0.719	-6.2	-0.681	-5.84
Proportion of time spent inactive	-0.122	-3.35	-0.113	-3.1	-0.114	-3.11	-0.123	-3.37	-0.089	-2.38
Constant	3.201	43.26	3.198	43.27	3.199	43.27	3.198	43.23	3.143	41.16
R squared	0.31		0.31		0.31		0.31		0.31	

Reference: Not white; birth cohort 1930-39; being female; no studies; below the mandatory retirement age (65 for men and 60 for women).
Source: British Household Panel Survey.

Table 4.3. OLS estimations on the average occupational prestige.
Prestige variable: Log(Camsis Scale score)

	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T
At least once IJS (1=Yes)	-0.015	-1.69								
Ratio IJS/Empl. Spells			-0.069	-3.52	-0.059	-1.22				
Ratio IJS/Empl. Spells squared					-0.015	-0.24				
Number of IJS							-0.006	-1.42	-0.012	-2.64
Number of Employment Spells									0.008	1.73
Number of Employment Spells Squared									-0.0001	-0.52
White (1=Yes)	0.067	2.38	0.068	2.42	0.068	2.41	0.067	2.4	0.067	2.37
Years from first spell	-0.003	-3.47	-0.003	-3.42	-0.003	-3.42	-0.003	-3.5	-0.003	-3.82
Birth Cohort 1906-1919	0.056	2.09	0.055	2.09	0.056	2.1	0.057	2.14	0.068	2.54
Birth Cohort 1920-1929	0.04	1.88	0.041	1.94	0.041	1.95	0.04	1.92	0.046	2.21
Birth Cohort 1940-1949	-0.03	-1.92	-0.031	-1.96	-0.03	-1.96	-0.03	-1.92	-0.036	-2.29
Birth Cohort 1950-1959	-0.09	-4.35	-0.091	-4.39	-0.091	-4.39	-0.09	-4.36	-0.098	-4.72
Gender (1=Male)	-0.074	-7.29	-0.071	-6.96	-0.071	-6.95	-0.075	-7.33	-0.069	-6.69
Higher and First Degree Education	0.534	30.59	0.532	30.52	0.532	30.51	0.534	30.65	0.532	30.51
Teaching. nursing and other univ. ed.	0.33	28.25	0.328	28.11	0.329	28.1	0.331	28.3	0.329	28.13
GCE A level Education	0.283	16.12	0.281	16	0.281	16	0.284	16.17	0.283	16.08
GCE O level or equivalent	0.235	19	0.234	18.9	0.234	18.9	0.236	19.03	0.234	18.94
Vocational Training education	0.181	11.62	0.181	11.65	0.181	11.65	0.181	11.62	0.181	11.62
Mandatory retirement age (1=Yes)	0.006	0.28	0.004	0.18	0.004	0.18	0.006	0.26	0.006	0.3
Proportion of time spent unemployed	-0.44	-6.21	-0.417	-5.87	-0.418	-5.87	-0.441	-6.2	-0.418	-5.86
Proportion of time spent inactive	-0.091	-4.07	-0.086	-3.85	-0.086	-3.84	-0.091	-4.08	-0.073	-3.18
Constant	3.732	82.34	3.732	82.41	3.731	82.37	3.731	82.32	3.708	79.23
R squared	0.25		0.25		0.25		0.25		0.25	

Reference: Not white; birth cohort 1930-39; being female; no studies; below the mandatory retirement age (65 for men and 60 for women).
Source: British Household Panel Survey.

Table 5. Differences in occupational prestige by IJS variables for the reference individual

Prestige scale score	Ever IJS	Value	Ratio Nº IJS/ Nº Empl.Spells	Value	Nº IJS and Nº Empl.Spells	Value
HGS SCORE						
	1 or more IJS	32.55	Mean Ratio + 1IJS=0.32	32.30	NºIJS=1+Avg Nº Emp Spells	33.44
	No IJS	33.35	Mean Ratio=0.12	32.93	Nº IJS=0+ Avg Nº Emp Spells	33.80
	Dif (%)	-2.39	Dif (%)	-1.91	Dif (%)	-1.05
CAMSIS SCORE						
	1 or more IJS	33.23	Mean Ratio + 1IJS=0.32	33.21	NºIJS=1+Avg Nº Emp Spells	33.72
	No IJS	33.73	Mean Ratio=0.12	33.66	Nº IJS=0+ Avg Nº Emp Spells	34.12
	Dif (%)	-1.47	Dif (%)	-1.35	Dif (%)	-1.17
CAMBRIDGE SCORE						
	1 or more IJS	14.41	Mean Ratio + 1IJS=0.32	14.35	NºIJS=1+Avg Nº Emp Spells	15.08
	No IJS	14.91	Mean Ratio=0.12	14.76	Nº IJS=0+ Avg Nº Emp Spells	15.45
	Dif (%)	-3.34	Dif (%)	-2.81	Dif (%)	-2.38

Note: Calculations for the mean of years since the first spell, third birth cohort (reference), and males.
Source: British Household Panel Survey and authors' calculations

Table 6. Log prestige equations (within-group technique)

	Hope-Goldthorpe Score		Cambridge Score		Camsis Score	
	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T
Involuntarily job separated from previous job	-.033	-5.00	-.022	-1.88	-.009	-1.83
Tenure previous job						
<=2 years	-	-	-	-	-	-
>2 & <=4 years	.006	1.11	.009	0.84	.011	2.55
>4 & <=6 years	.011	1.58	.037	3.04	.020	3.98
>6 years	.027	4.94	.024	2.51	.016	3.91
Non-employment duration						
<=1 month	-	-	-	-	-	-
>1 & <=6 months	-.028	-2.99	-.015	-0.94	-.018	-2.62
>6 & <= 18 months	-.043	-5.10	-.027	-1.83	-.023	-3.77
>18 months	-.056	-9.50	-.050	-4.80	-.027	-6.18
Tenure current job						
<=2 years	-	-	-	-	-	-
>2 & <=4 years	.023	3.99	.034	3.30	.013	3.06
>4 & <=6 years	.028	3.74	.045	3.46	.018	3.38
>6 years	.042	7.43	.055	5.52	.023	5.52
Age current job						
<=35 years-old	-	-	-	-	-	-
>35 & <= 45 years-old	.055	8.56	.060	5.32	.033	7.06
> 45 years-old	.054	5.77	.079	4.76	.038	5.45
Constant	3.675	347.98	3.174	169.55	3.776	485.52

Notes: regressions control for individual fixed effects, as well as for three different temporary periods (up to the year 1950, from 1950 to 1975, beyond 1975).
Source: British Household Panel Survey.

APPENDIX.

Table A1. Main sample statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Ever involuntarily job separated	5,888	0	1	.35	.48
Ever made redundant	5,888	0	1	.03	.17
Ever dismissed	5,888	0	1	.22	.41
Number of involuntary job separations	5,888	0	14	.58	1.04
Number of employment spells	5,888	1	22	4.80	2.92
Ratio IJS/Empl. Spells	5,888	.00	1.00	.12	.21
White (1=Yes)	5,888	0	1	.98	.14
Years from the first spell	5,888	.33	78.60	38.70	16.05
Birth cohort 1906-1919	5,888	0	1	.14	.34
Birth cohort 1920-1929	5,888	0	1	.19	.39
Birth cohort 1930-1939	5,888	0	1	.18	.39
Birth cohort 1940-1949	5,888	0	1	.24	.43
Birth cohort 1950-59	5,888	0	1	.25	.43
Gender (1=Male)	5,888	0	1	.45	.49
Higher and First Degree Education	5,888	0	1	.07	.26
Teaching, nursing and other univ education	5,888	0	1	.20	.39
GCE A Level Education	5,888	0	1	.07	.25
GCE O Level or Equivalent	5,888	0	1	.16	.37
Vocational Training Education	5,888	0	1	.08	.27
Mandatory retirement age (1=Yes)	5,888	0	1	.35	.48
Proportion of time sent unemployed	5,888	.00	.84	.02	.06
Proportion of time spent inactive	5,888	.00	1.00	.25	.25
Average HGS prestige scale score	5,888	.33	82.05	40.98	13.63
Average Cambridge prestige scale score	5,888	.26	85.04	30.75	15.95
Average Camsis prestige scale score	5,888	.63	93.31	46.34	14.11
Involuntary job separated from previous job	18,562	0	1	0.13	0.33
Tenure previous job:					
<=2 years	18,562	0	1	0.44	0.49
>2 & <=4 years	18,562	0	1	0.18	0.18
>4 & <=6 years	18,562	0	1	0.11	0.11
>6 years	18,562	0	1	0.27	0.27
Non-employment duration					
<=1 month	18,562	0	1	0.70	0.46
>1 & <=6 months	18,562	0	1	0.06	0.23
>6 & <= 18 months	18,562	0	1	0.07	0.26
>18 months	18,562	0	1	0.17	0.38
Tenure current job					
<=2 years	18,562	0	1	0.45	0.49
>2 & <=4 years	18,562	0	1	0.18	0.38
>4 & <=6 years	18,562	0	1	0.10	0.29
>6 years	18,562	0	1	0.26	0.44
Age current job					
<=35 years-old	18,562	0	1	0.57	0.49
>35 & <= 45 years-old	18,562	0	1	0.25	0.43
> 45 years-old	18,562	0	1	0.17	0.38

Source: British Household Panel Survey.

Table A.2. Files in the BHPS database used for the empirical analysis

Filename	Wave	Start of field work	Description
AINDRESP	1	Sept 1991	The main individual respondent file, containing *inter alia* detailed information on current status at the date of interview
AJOBHIST	1	Sept 1991	Information on all employment status spells between 1/9/90 and the date of interview
BINDRESP	2	Sept 1992	Wave 2 equivalent of AINDRESP
BJOBHIST	2	Sept 1992	Inter-wave history: details of all employment status spells between 1/9/91 and the date of interview.
BLIFEMST	2	Sept 1992	Information on all employment status spells since first leaving full-time education until the date of interview
CLIFEJOB	3	Sept 1993	Information on all jobs held since first leaving full-time education until the beginning of data collection

## Table A.3. Log prestige equations for men (within-group technique)

	Hope-Goldthorpe Score		Cambridge Score		Camsis Score	
	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T
Involuntarily job separated from previous job	-.046	-5.25	-.042	-2.29	-.018	-2.91
Tenure previous job						
<=2 years	-	-	-	-	-	-
>2 & <=4 years	.009	1.00	.008	0.47	.011	1.73
>4 & <=6 years	.015	1.46	.032	1.48	.010	1.36
>6 years	.021	2.81	.027	1.71	.016	2.98
Non-employment duration						
<=1 month	-	-	-	-	-	-
>1 & <=6 months	-.006	-0.48	.0006	0.02	-.009	-0.94
>6 & <= 18 months	-.028	-2.04	-.013	-0.46	-.009	-0.91
>18 months	-.031	-2.72	-.044	-1.89	-.020	-2.43
Tenure current job						
<=2 years	-	-	-	-	-	
>2 & <=4 years	.029	3.34	.041	2.31	.010	1.66
>4 & <=6 years	.053	4.81	.068	2.96	.017	2.10
>6 years	.061	7.59	.078	4.65	.024	4.04
Age current job						
<=35 years-old	-	-	-	-	-	-
>35 & <= 45 years-old	.069	7.17	.079	3.91	.039	5.57
> 45 years-old	.031	2.26	.070	2.39	.032	3.06
Constant	3.675	238.76	3.016	94.09	3.739	330.31

Notes: regressions control for individual fixed effects, as well as for three different temporary periods (up to the year 1950, from 1950 to 1975, beyond 1975). **Source:** British Household Panel Survey.

Table A.4. Log prestige equations for women (within-group technique)

|	Hope-Goldthorpe Score		Cambridge Score		Camsis Score	
	Coef.	T	Coef.	T	Coef.	T
Involuntarily job separated from previous job	-.019	-1.95	.002	0.16	.002	0.29
Tenure previous job						
<=2 years	-	-	-	-	-	-
>2 & <=4 years	.005	0.71	.012	1.05	.012	2.14
>4 & <=6 years	.008	0.88	.047	3.43	.031	4.39
>6 years	.029	3.72	.019	1.74	.014	2.46
Non-employment duration						
<=1 month	-	-	-	-	-	-
>1 & <=6 months	-.0483	-3.69	-.031	-1.63	-.025	-2.61
>6 & <= 18 months	-.0551	-5.19	-.041	-2.67	-.033	-4.26
>18 months	-.063	-8.72	-.052	-5.04	-.028	-5.34
Tenure current job						
<=2 years	-	-	-	-	-	-
>2 & <=4 years	.019	2.44	.029	2.67	.016	2.86
>4 & <=6 years	.009	0.92	.032	2.24	.021	2.92
>6 years	.031	3.85	.047	4.09	.027	4.65
Age current job						
<=35 years-old	-	-	-	-	-	-
>35 & <= 45 years-old	.045	5.26	.045	3.69	.0278	4.39
> 45 years-old	.069	5.45	.082	4.43	.041	4.30
Constant	3.663	246.67	3.308	154.36	3.807	347.13

Notes: regressions control for individual fixed effects, as well as for three different temporary periods (up to the year 1950, from 1950 to 1975, beyond 1975). **Source:** British Household Panel Survey.
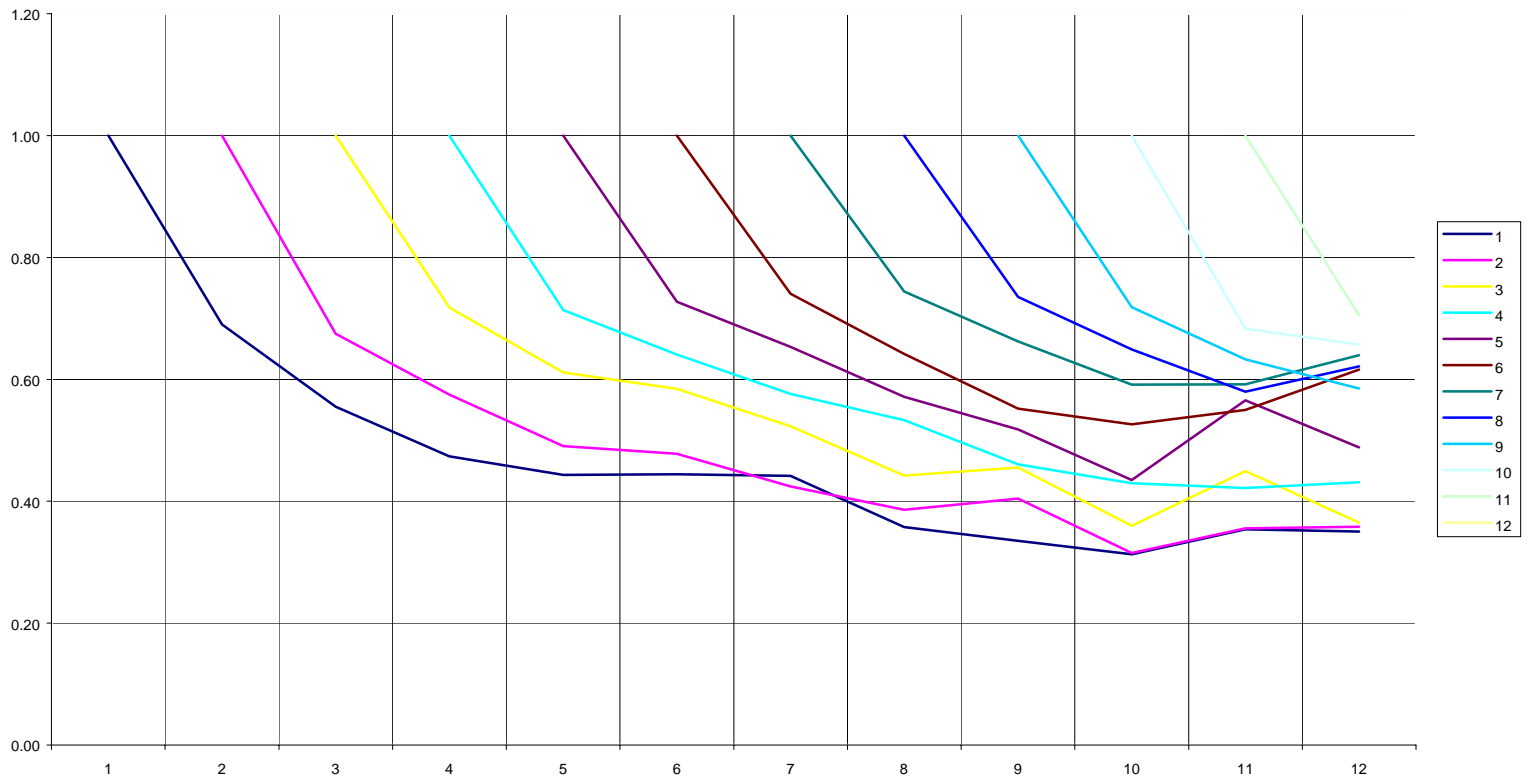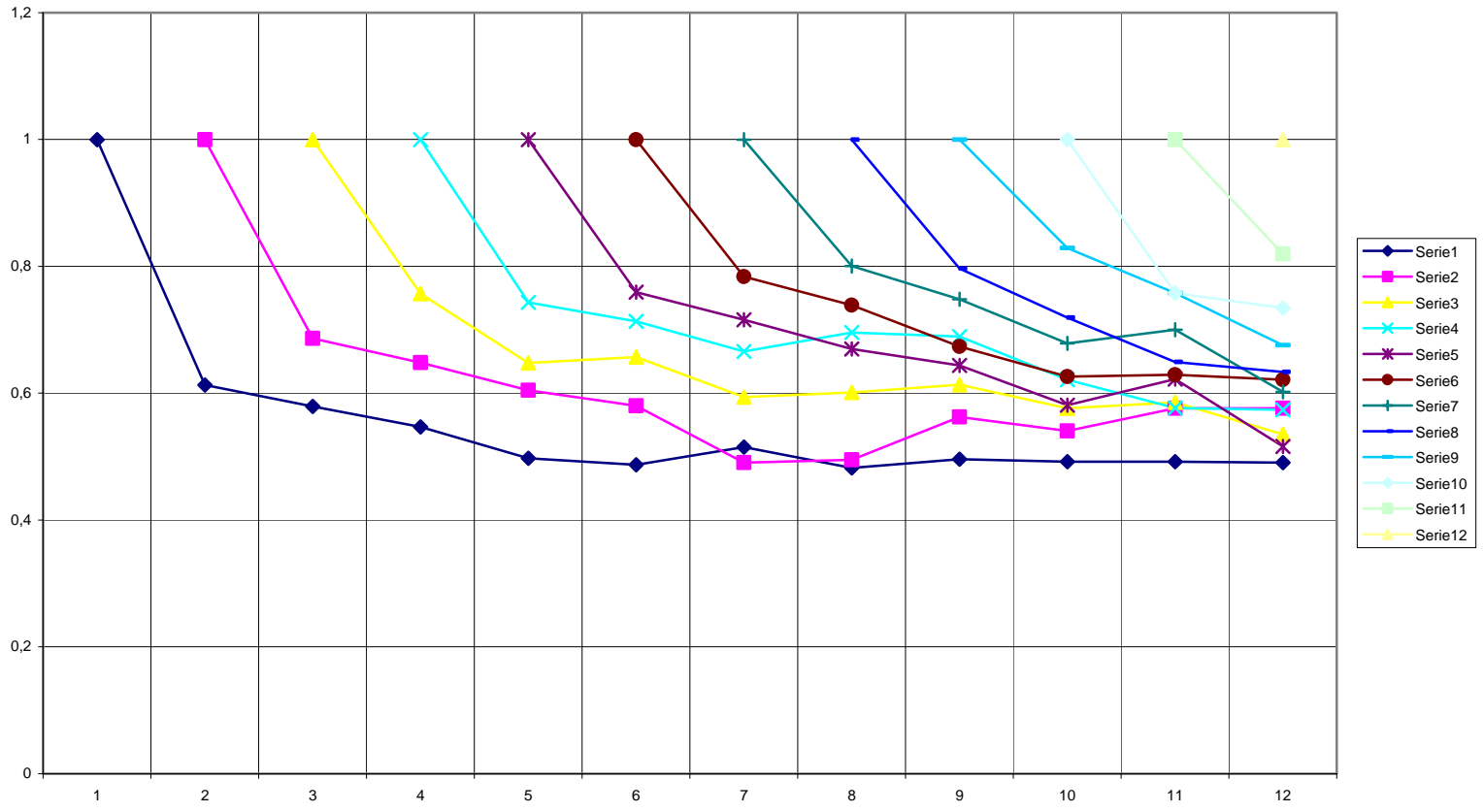
Figure 1. Correlations of the Hope-Goldthorpe scale in different employment spells (numbers denote the order of employment spells).
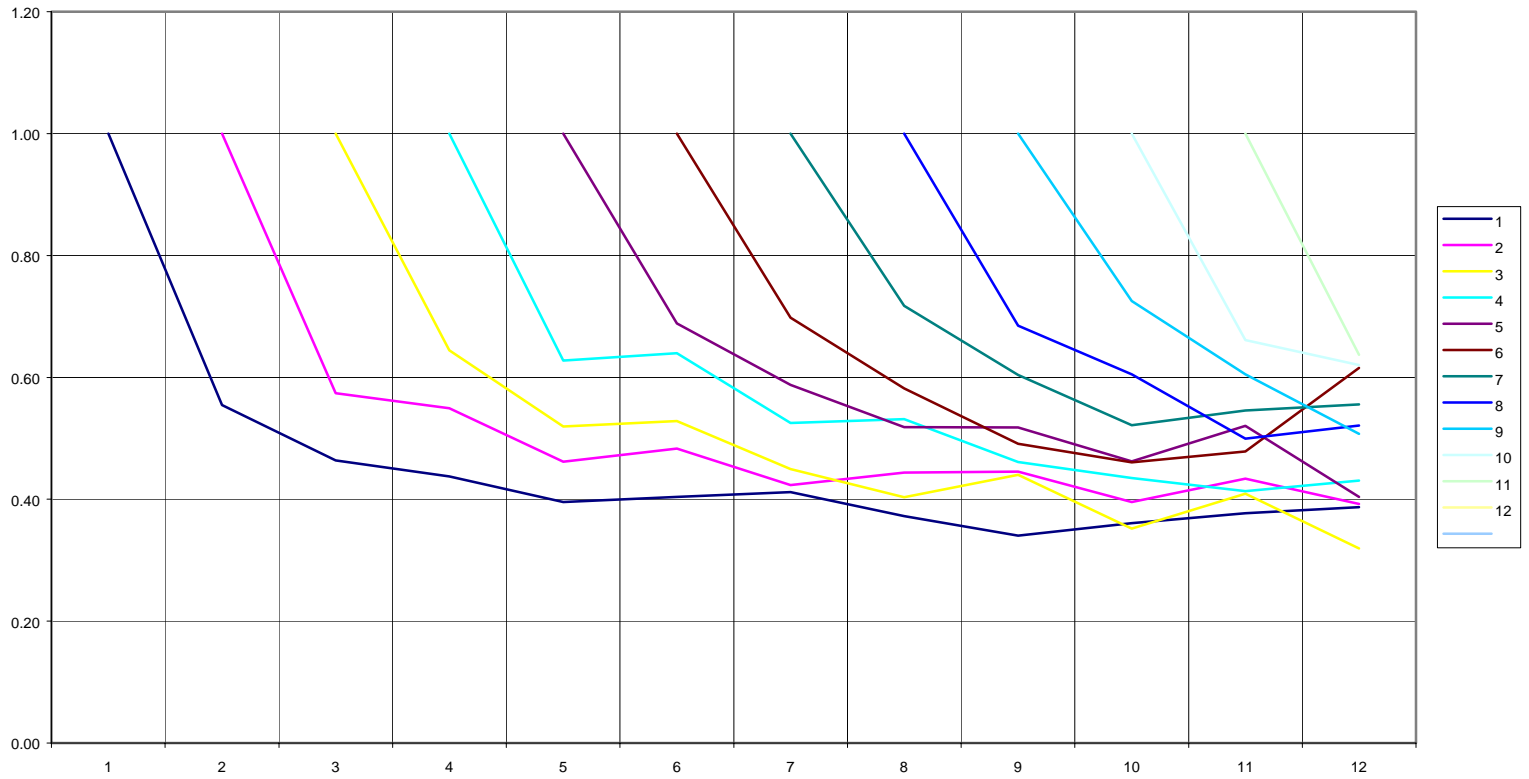
Figure 2. Correlations of the Hope-Goldthorpe scale in different employment spells (numbers denote the order of employment spells) for the subsample of those involuntarily job separated at least once.
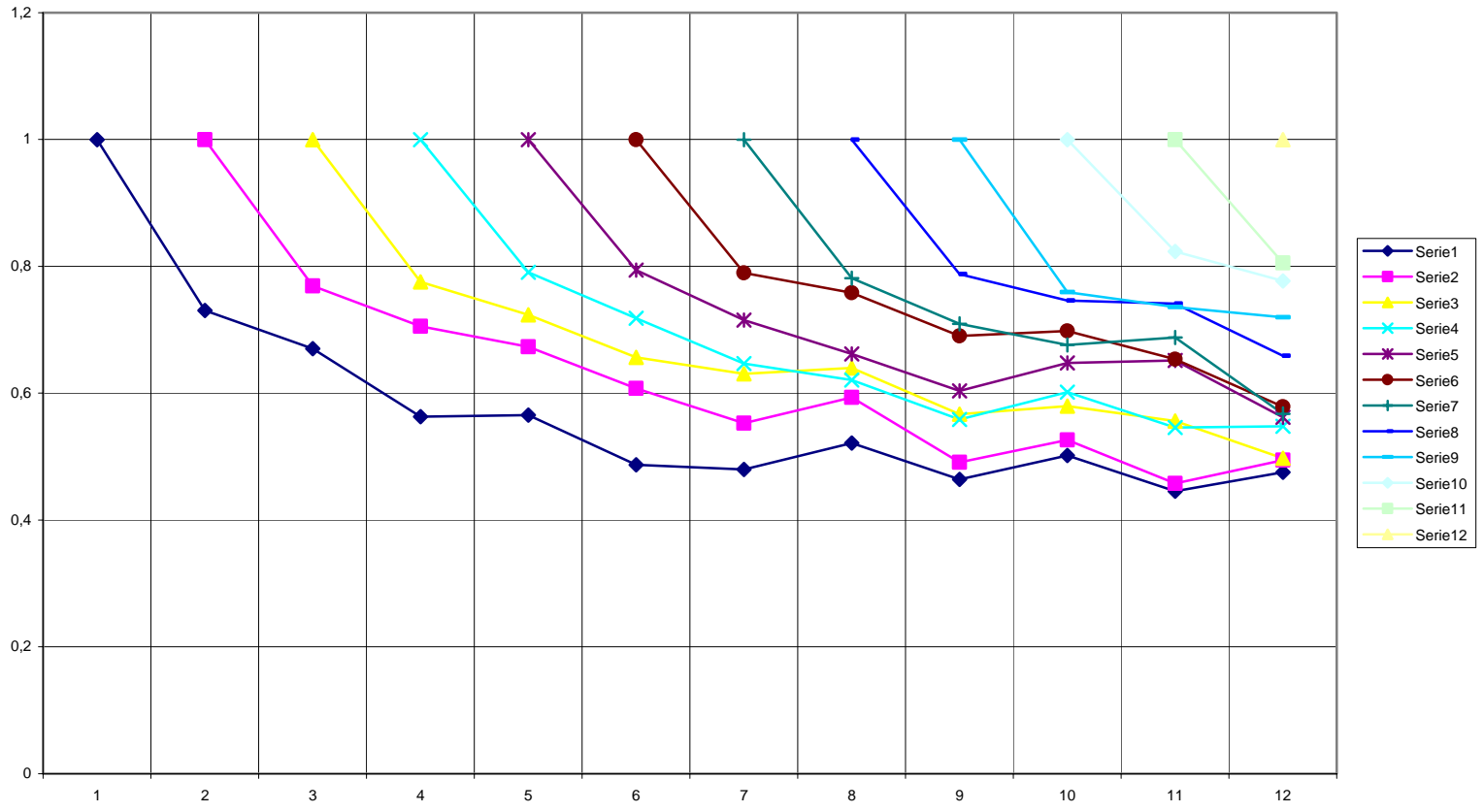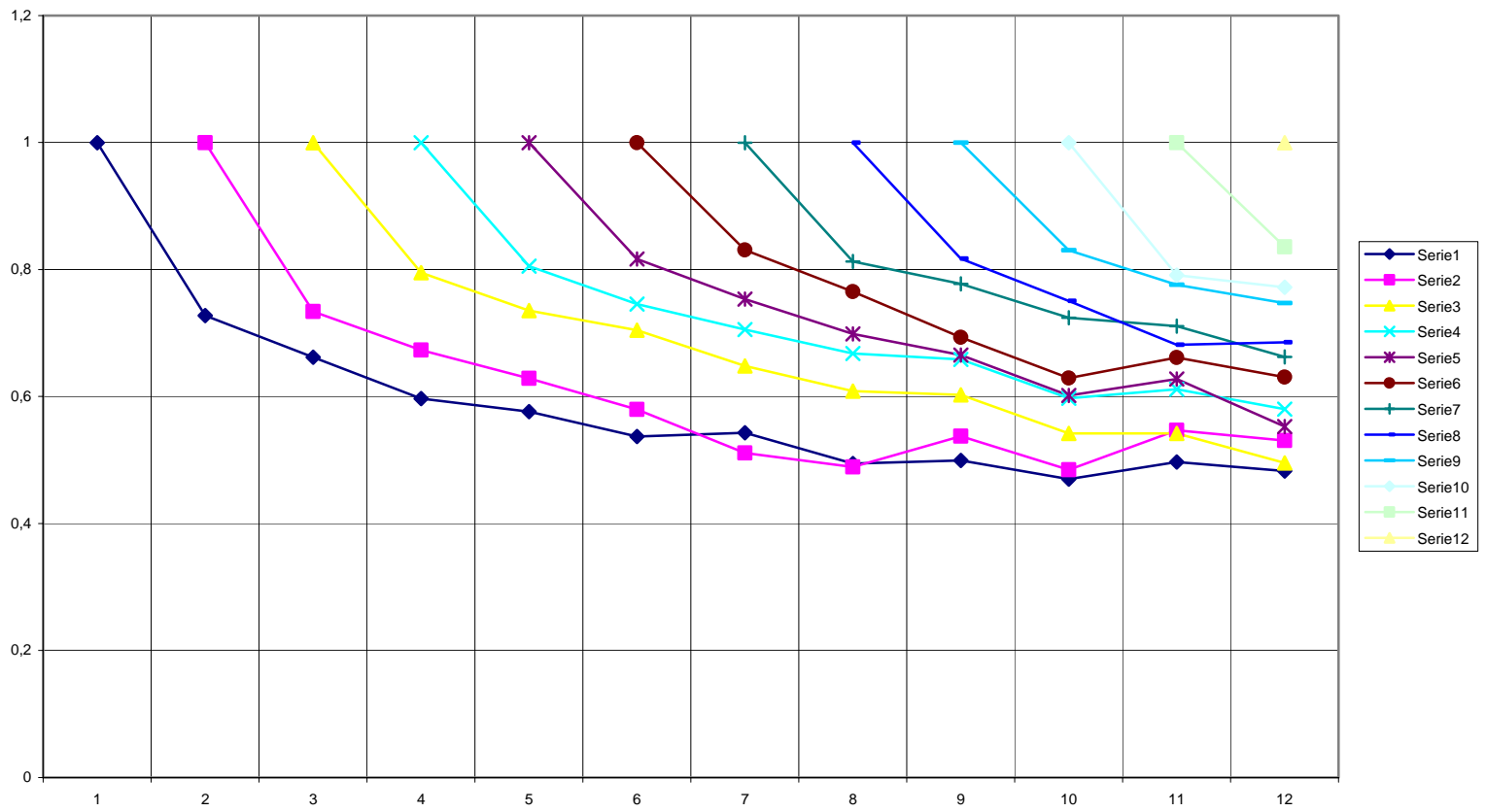
Figure 3. Correlations of the Cambridge Scale score in different employment spells (numbers denote the order of employment spells).

Figure 4. Correlations of the Cambridge Scale score scale in different employment spells (numbers denote the order of employment spells) for the subsample of those involuntarily job separated at least once.
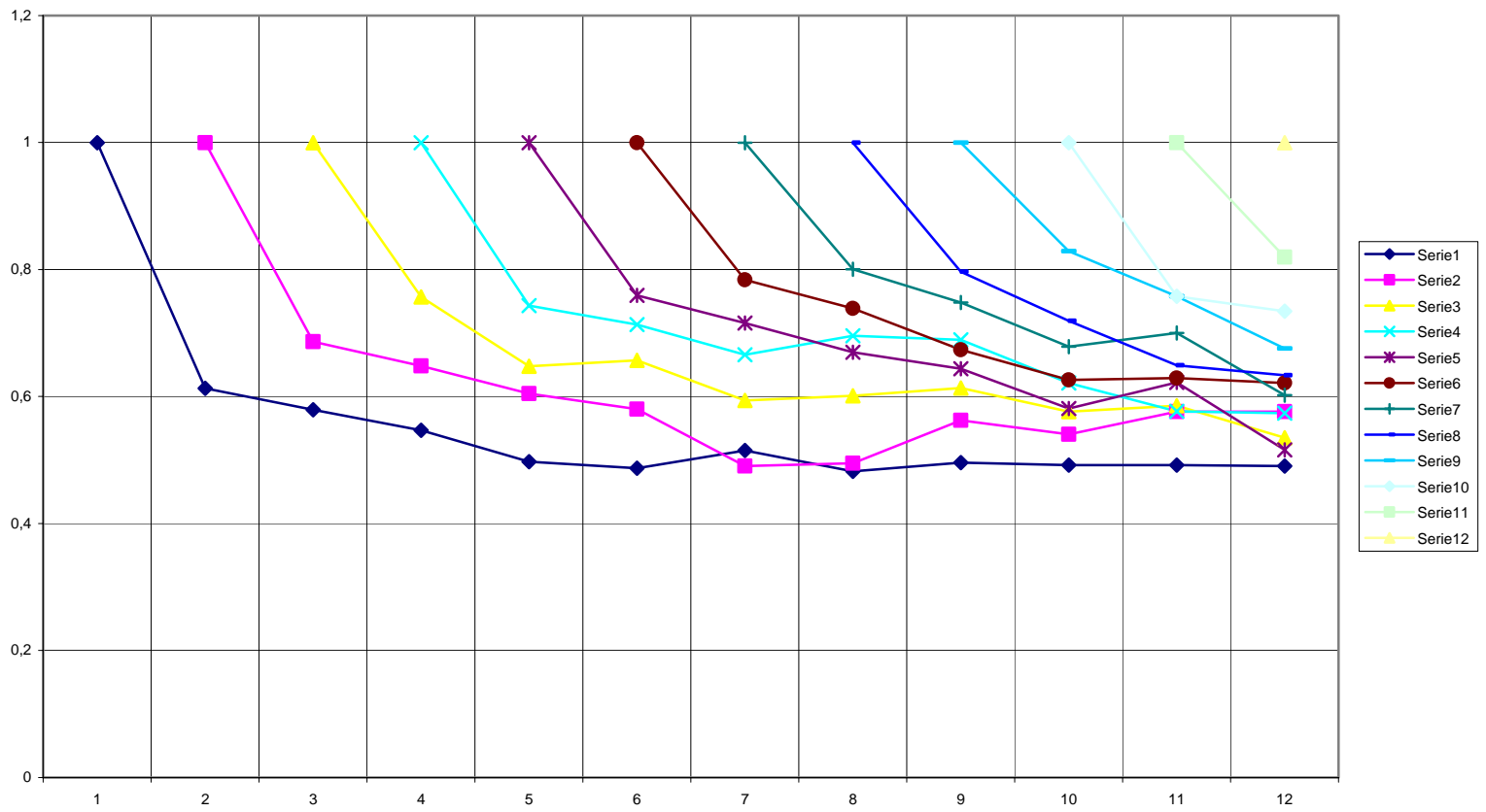
Figure 5. Correlations of the Camsis Scale score in different employment spells (numbers denote the order of employment spells).

Figure 6. Correlations of the Camsis Scale score scale in different employment spells (numbers denote the order of employment spells) for the subsample of those involuntarily job separated at least once.