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Income gap starters

A comparative analysis of starter's earnings in eleven occupations and fourteen countries, based on the Wage Indicator dataset.

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Executive summary

According to data gathered by Wage Indicator websites, labour starters – those who are beginning their careers as wage earners - earn twice or three times more in developed countries than in emerging nations. It is found that there is a high growth in income during the first half of their working career, which then flattens (or even decreases in some cases). It is also found that the economic reward derived from having a tertiary or university degree grows throughout working life, and that living in a big city and earning high wages are linked because of the concentration of wealth around metropolitan areas. Finally, there is a positive relation between income and satisfaction in life as-a-whole.

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1. Introduction

How much do youngsters earn in different countries and occupations, how important is work experience in the determination of wages, and how big is the education gap? These are some of the questions this report aims at answering. The impact of firm size, types of contracts and location of work on the level of wages are other topics of analysis, along with the study of labour starters' levels of satisfaction with life and work.

For the wage comparison hourly earnings corrected by Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) rates were used. So, if a wage corrected by PPP in a given country is \$ 1.000 it means that this wage has the same purchasing power as \$ 1.000 in the United States.

Wage Indicator surveys completed up to the first quarter of 2010 comprised the data set for the study of the working conditions of the labour starting population. Out of 100,000 responses, those surveys that had been completed by people aged between 18 and 25 were selected for analysis. This resulted in approximately 4,200 youngsters' surveys. These were then grouped according to the country in which they were completed.

To avoid sample problems, only the national data sets that gathered more than 35 responses for those ages were selected. This means that Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, Belarus, Colombia, France, Germany, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, Mexico, Netherlands, Spain, United Kingdom and the United States qualified for inclusion in this report.

The same criterion was used to choose the most representative occupations for labour starters. This resulted in selection of the following occupations: Advertising and marketing professionals, Shop sales assistants, Receptionists, General office clerks, Cooks, Draughtspersons, Secretaries, Waiters, Applications programmers, Accounting associates professionals, Support technicians, and Statistical, finance and insurance clerks.

Regarding the education gap, the distinction between qualified and unqualified workers was determined by the possession of a tertiary or university degree.

In relation to the firm size distinction, enterprises that had less than 10 employees were defined as small, while those with more than 100 workers were considered large. Medium firms were those with a labour force of between 11 and 100 people.

The youngsters' level of satisfaction in relation to their job, pay, leisure time and life in general was also analysed, along with social indicators about household members and family.

A main result of the survey is that labour starters earn two to three times more in developed countries than in emerging economies.

Another outcome is that starters' wages grow rapidly in the first half of their working career, after which the pace slows down.

Thirdly, the economic reward of having a tertiary or university degree is small in the starting period, but it in the longer term earning capacity of higher education is considerable.

2. Wages and work experience

The relation between wages and work experience was studied in two phases.

The first phase consists of a cross-country analysis in which the wages earned by youngsters were compared to the income earned by workers aged 32 to 40 and older than 50, to examine the evolution of wages throughout working life in each country. It also enables a comparison between the wages earned in developed and emerging economies.

Fourteen countries were selected for this purpose: Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, Belarus, Colombia, France, Germany, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, Mexico, Netherlands, Spain, United Kingdom and the United States.

The first general conclusion is that labour starters in developed economies earn twice or three times more than those in emerging economies. While the hourly wage (corrected by PPP) ranges in the emerging countries from \$ 1.85 to \$ 5.06, it goes from \$ 8.78 to \$ 13.05 in developed nations. Out of the fourteen countries, Belgium pays the most generous wages: on average \$ 13.05 per hour, closely followed by the United Kingdom. By contrast, Indonesia exhibits the lowest average hourly salary of the sample: \$ 1.85. Youngsters in the United States are paid round \$ 11.88 per hour, two to four times more than in Latin America, Kazakhstan and Belarus, and six times more than in Indonesia.

Another interesting point is that wages tend to grow as workers gain working experience. The explanation behind this phenomenon is that workers improve their productivity as they acquire hands-on knowledge from experience. This is what the economic literature calls the learning-by-doing process.

Moreover workers benefit from considerable salary increases between their starting years and middle age. In fact, wages get doubled in this period in Brazil, Mexico and Indonesia. Wages tend to increase at a slower pace (or even decrease) between middle and elderly ages. In Kazakhstan the salary decrease that occurs in this last period is so strong that it negates the initial increase. Therefore labour starters in Kazakhstan, exceptionally, earn higher wages than elderly people.

The second analysis refers to the evolution of wages by occupation, again focusing on labour starters. The occupations selected for this purpose were those with a high representation in the labour starting population according to Wage Indicator data: Advertising and marketing professionals, Shop sales assistants, Receptionists, General office clerks, Cooks, Draughtspersons, Secretaries, Waiters, Applications programmers, Accounting associates professionals, Support technicians, and Statistical, finance and insurance clerks.

As in the first analysis, it was found that wages grow rapidly in the first half of the career and then growth slows down. This finding is in accordance with economic literature, which says that workers' productivity increases greatly in the first part of their careers due to the incorporation of knowledge derived from practice, while it grows at a slower speed or even decreases in the second part as workers tend to lose some of their strengths and skills.

When we take a closer look at individual occupations application programming emerges as, by far, the best-paid occupation in the starting years of adult life, three times more than a starting receptionist, who gets the lowest starters wages of the sample. The application programmer's best pay may be due to the demanding IT sector where most find employment. However, in this occupation the wage growth over time may be considered modest compared to that shown by other occupations. In particular, advertising and marketing professionals are paid four times the wage of their starting colleagues in the last years of their career. Other occupations that show extraordinary wage growth are receptionists, support technicians, secretaries, draught persons and accounting associates professionals, with salary increases in the range of 200 to 300 per cent.

Cooks are lowest rewarded. Even though their earnings rise more than 100 per cent between the first and the second period, they fall nearly 10 per cent in the last part of their career. All in all, cooks' incomes grow approximately 87 per cent only throughout their career.

3. Education Gap

The education gap is seen as the economic reward for having a tertiary or university degree. The main finding is that the education gap tends to increase throughout the working life. While in the starting period the wage difference between the qualified and the unqualified population is narrow, in the following phases it expands to significant levels. An explanation might be that, in order to get broad work experience, qualified youngsters start working in unqualified occupations despite their educational skills; as the years pass, they switch to qualified and much more productive occupations, which leads to substantial wage rises, not obtainable by the unqualified population.

Considering the starting period only, it was found that in Indonesia and the United States non-qualified starters are better paid than qualified ones.

Kazakhstan has the widest education gap in the novice period: qualified labour starters earn almost twice the wage of unqualified starters. The education gap in Belgium is the narrowest, as only three percentage points separate both income groups.

Comparing wages earned by the qualified population only, the United Kingdom pays the largest amounts per hour: more than \$ 14, nearly twelve times the wage paid for qualified labour in Indonesia. On the other hand, the United States offers the highest salaries to unqualified starters: \$ 13.39 per hour.

The economic reward for a university or tertiary degree cannot be distinguished by region as there is not one distinguishing behavioural pattern within Europe, North and South America, or Asia regarding the education gap. For instance, while Belgium exhibits considerable rises along time in the salary difference, Germany presents decreases and the United Kingdom and the Netherlands show modest variations in the education gap, comparing the first and the third working period.

What is absolutely striking is how the gap widens in Argentina and Belgium. In the last part of the working career the wage difference is eleven times the one seen in the early stage. Particularly in the South American nation, the gap reaches a top level of 39.7 percentage points in the second period, which implies a 1,116 per cent expansion from the starting stage gap. Unlike the previous cases, Kazakhstan shows a steady reduction of its gap, as it narrows 11 per cent first and nearly 15 per cent more in the final stage of the working career.

4. Starting wages and firm sizes

With reference to the influence of firm sizes on youngsters' wages, it was found that the larger the size of the firm the higher the pay in nearly every country of the sample.

Young Indonesian's earnings in a large enterprise triple those paid in small companies. British labour starters who work in large companies have a purchasing power 50 and 82 per cent higher than those who work in small and medium enterprises, respectively. The impact of firm size is weaker in other countries, like in for example Belgium and Colombia, where the wage difference due to firm size is 14 per cent maximum.

Although it was expected to see an overall correlation between firm sizes and wages, Mexico and the United States are the exception. In Mexico wages decline as the number of employees in the firm increases. In the US small companies pay the highest while medium firms pay the lowest wages.

In Europe France presents an atypical picture with middle sized companies paying young starters the least.

5. Youngsters' households

Based on the Wage Indicator survey, more than a third of labour starters live by themselves and earn on average \$ 7.73 per hour. Furthermore, nearly a quarter of them share their household with a partner and earn \$ 6.59 per hour. And approximately 42 per cent live in a household with three or more members and get \$ 5-6 per hour.

Five per cent of workers aged 18 to 25 have children and earn \$ 5.5 per hour to fulfil their economic parental responsibilities. Compared to labour starters without children, the young parents exhibit a lower level of satisfaction with life as-a-whole. In fact, levels of dissatisfaction are 19 per cent higher, the feeling of life fulfilment is 2.27 per cent lower in the parents' group. The reason for their relative unhappiness does not primarily due to their household income – as might have been expected - but to the scarce leisure time young parents say they have.

The wage difference that exists between young parents and childless couples could be explained by the different sectors each group tends to work in. While young parents work largely in agriculture, manufacturing, education, construction, the public sector or health care, child-free couples are mainly found in trade and commercial services, activities relatively more lucrative than the former ones.

6. Location of work

The region of work is another factor that determines the level of wages. For instance, a labour starter would probably earn a higher salary if he/she works in a big city than in a small town because there is a bigger concentration of wealth around metropolitan areas.

Based on the results from the survey, youngsters in big cities earn on average \$ 10.36 per hour. Those who work in a medium sized town earn \$ 5.82 hourly, 78 per cent less than the metropolitan group. But those who have jobs in small towns get \$ 9.21 per hour, whereas those who work in rural areas earn \$ 9.76 hourly.

The relatively high wages that are paid in small towns and rural areas may be related to the commodities boom, which started several years ago and was interrupted in 2008-9 only, due to the world financial crisis.

7. Types of contracts, working hours and overwork

Temporary and permanent contracts are rewarded differently in the labour starting market. On the one hand, temporary workers have a median wage of \$ 5.86 per hour. Most of them are between 18 and 22 years old and have a medium level of education. Presumably, while taking tertiary or university degrees, they work temporarily as waiters/waitresses, receptionists, secretaries, office clerks, cooks or sales assistants.

On the other hand, permanent young workers range in age mostly from 22 to 25 and earn on average \$ 7.30 per hour; 25 per cent more than the first group of temporary workers. Similar to temporary workers, their level of education is mainly medium. However, the permanent group presents a higher proportion of starters with both basic and advanced levels of education who work in very different activities in terms of productivity.

With reference to the impact of working hours on youngsters' wages, the main finding is that hourly salaries decline as working hours increase. A reason that may explain this point is that overtime is commonly seen in higher proportions in underdeveloped countries, where trade unions' power is relatively weak and labour laws are more flexible.

Furthermore, economic activities like agriculture, manufacturing and construction are more related to overtime than commercial services, health care and education. According to the data, a quarter of the starters that work more than 48 hours a week do so in agriculture, the manufacturing and construction industry. Those who work less than 35 hours a week make up only 7.6 per cent in these sectors.

8. Income and satisfaction with life

Also the relation between income and satisfaction with life as-a-whole has been analysed. For that purpose, three income groups were selected from the data: workers who earn less than \$ 5 per hour, those who earn between \$ 5 and \$ 10 hourly, and lastly those who get paid more than \$ 10 an hour. Each group indicated its level of satisfaction with life along a scale that went from one (very dissatisfied) to ten (which represents absolute satisfaction). As the scale included ten numbers, the first five could be considered as the dissatisfaction area, the last five as the satisfaction area.

The three income groups presented higher levels of satisfaction than of dissatisfaction. Nevertheless, it must be said that the percentage of starters that showed satisfaction (levels from 6 to 10 of the scale) in the group that earned more than \$ 10 per hour was higher than the percentages that exhibit both the middle and the lower income groups. This means that there is a positive correlation between income and satisfaction with life as-a-whole, or, in other words, between money and happiness.

In some greater detail, 73.24 per cent of the starters who earn less than \$ 5 per hour claim to be satisfied with life as-a-whole. This proportion climbs to 77.83 per cent in the middle income group, and up to 85.22 per cent in the high-earning group.

The same conclusion can be also arrived at if the analysis focuses only on the extreme values of the scale. The three most intensive levels of dissatisfaction represent 7.41 per cent of the low-paid starters, 6.33 per cent of the middle-income ones, and 6.04 per cent of the youngsters who earn more than \$ 10 hourly. Similarly, the three highest levels of satisfaction represent 48.07 per cent of the high-wage starters, 39.83 per cent of the youngsters who get paid from \$ 5 to \$ 10 an hour, and 26.05 per cent of the group that gets the lowest earnings.

9. Other types of satisfaction

The last analysis of this report involves labour starters' levels of satisfaction with their pay, job and leisure time. In a scale that goes from one (the degree of absolute dissatisfaction) to five, the youngsters' level of happiness in relation to their working conditions, wage and free time was examined.

Regarding the levels of satisfaction with pay, 48.39 per cent of the labour starters are dissatisfied with the wage they earn. Nearly half of them, that is, 22.4 per cent of the workers aged between 18 and 25, claim to be very dissatisfied with their income. By contrast, 21.2 per cent are happy with their earnings and a quarter of them - 5.67 per cent of the youngsters - are delighted with their wages. Finally, 30.41 per cent of labour starters feel indifferent about their pay. Therefore, there is a higher proportion of dissatisfaction than satisfaction with regard to starters' earnings.

Nevertheless, 49 per cent of the youngsters express satisfaction with their jobs. In fact, 18.55 per cent show full satisfaction with their working conditions. By contrast, only 22 per cent are dissatisfied with their jobs and 29 per cent express indifference.

Finally, with reference to the levels of satisfaction with leisure time, the distribution of the answers is even. A third of the youngsters are dissatisfied with their free-time, whereas 36 per cent of the answers claim satisfaction in this area. The other 30 per cent shows indifference with regard to leisure time.

10. Appendix - Statistics

Table 1 – Evolution of hourly wages by country in terms of PPP

Country	Hourly wage controlled by PPA			Wage growth (1)-(2)	Wage growth (2)-(3)	Wage growth (1)-(3)
	Labour starters aged 18 to 25 years (1)	Workers aged 32 to 40 (2)	Workers older than 50 (3)			
Argentina	5,06	8,64	10,31	70,75%	19,33%	103,75%
Belgium	13,05	18,36	20,61	40,69%	12,25%	57,93%
Brasil	3,24	6,82	11,34	110,49%	66,28%	250,00%
Belarus	4,43	7,39	7,11	66,82%	-3,79%	60,50%
Colombia	3,04	5,82	8,9	91,45%	52,92%	192,76%
France	11,23	19,08	17,69	69,95%	-7,31%	57,52%
Germany	10,27	17,81	19,34	73,42%	8,59%	88,32%
Indonesia	1,85	3,88	5,03	112,47%	28,32%	172,63%
Kazakhstan	4,49	5,71	2,95	27,17%	-48,34%	-34,30%
Mexico	4,62	9,90	11,77	114,29%	18,89%	154,76%
Netherlands	10,01	18,02	18,94	80,02%	5,11%	89,21%
Spain	8,78	15,29	17,83	74,15%	16,61%	103,08%
United Kingdom	13,01	23,66	21,06	81,86%	-10,97%	61,91%
United States	11,88	21,74	27,16	83,00%	24,93%	128,62%

Table 2 – Evolution of hourly wages by occupation in terms of PPP

Country	Hourly wage (in \$ PPP)			Wage growth (1)-(2)	Wage growth (2)-(3)	Wage growth (1)-(3)
	Labour starters aged 18 to 25 years (1)	Workers aged 32 to 40 (2)	Workers older than 50 (3)			
Advertising and marketing professionals	5,62	17,28	22,86	207,47%	32,29%	306,76%
Shop sales assistants	5,98	10,96	12,45	83,43%	13,59%	108,37%
Receptionists	3,44	7,17	12,91	108,73%	80,06%	275,84%
General office clerks	6,36	13,01	15,46	104,72%	18,83%	143,27%
Cooks	7,04	14,73	13,16	109,38%	-10,66%	87,06%
Draughtspersons	5,92	15,18	18,67	156,42%	22,99%	215,37%
Secretaries	4,55	8,43	14,42	85,27%	71,06%	216,92%
Waiters	4,26	9,58	10,12	124,88%	5,64%	137,56%
Applications programmers	9,68	19,7	21,29	103,51%	8,07%	119,94%
Accounting associates professionals	6,16	12,79	18,71	107,63%	46,29%	203,73%
Support technicians	4,76	10,82	15,345	127,31%	41,82%	222,37%
Statistical, finance and insurance clerks	6,65	14,42	18,25	116,84%	26,56%	174,44%

Table 3 - Hourly wages of the qualified and unqualified starting population, by country in terms of PPP

Country	Hourly wage of unqualified starters (in \$ PPP)	Hourly wage of qualified starters (in \$ PPP)	Unqualified wages as % of the qualified wages
Argentina	5,04	5,21	96,74%
Belgium	12,91	13,32	96,92%
Brazil	2,70	3,73	72,48%
Belarus	3,95	4,67	84,58%
Colombia	2,90	3,82	76,02%
France	10,30	11,71	87,96%
Germany	7,60	10,27	74,00%
Indonesia	1,70	1,23	138,21%
Kazakhstan	2,48	4,88	50,82%
Mexico	3,07	5,55	55,32%
Netherlands	9,56	13,10	72,98%
Spain	7,77	9,70	80,10%
United Kingdom	11,36	14,52	78,26%
United States	13,39	11,40	117,46%

Table 4 - Hourly wages of the qualified and unqualified workers aged 32 to 40, by country in terms of PPP

Country	Hourly wages of unqualified 32-40 workers (in \$ PPP)	Hourly wages of qualified 32-40 workers (in \$ PPP)	Unqualified wages as % of the qualified wages	Education Gap Increase
Argentina	6,91	11,46	60,30%	1116,79%
Belgium	16,23	20,58	78,86%	586,70%
Brazil	4,31	9,58	44,99%	99,92%
Belarus	4,99	7,94	62,85%	140,98%
Colombia	4,16	7,68	54,17%	91,10%
France	14,43	20,39	70,77%	142,75%
Germany	15,73	18,77	83,80%	-37,70%
Indonesia	2,80	3,92	71,43%	174,77%
Kazakhstan	4,18	7,37	56,72%	-11,99%
Mexico	6,82	11,51	59,25%	-8,81%
Netherlands	16,38	26,12	62,71%	37,99%
Spain	12,74	17,66	72,14%	40,02%
United Kingdom	18,20	27,96	65,09%	60,59%
United States	18,24	22,21	82,13%	202,40%

Table 5 - Hourly wages of the upper 50 qualified and unqualified workers, by country in terms of PPP

Country	Hourly wages of the upper 50 unqualified workers (in \$ PPP)	Hourly wages of the upper 50 qualified workers (in \$ PPP)	Unqualified wages as % of the qualified wages	Total Education Gap Increase
Argentina	8,33	13,50	61,70%	1073,67%
Belgium	17,21	27,11	63,48%	1086,39%
Brazil	5,86	21,73	26,97%	165,41%
Belarus	5,51	7,20	76,53%	52,24%
Colombia	4,54	11,41	39,79%	151,04%
France	15,75	19,97	78,87%	75,50%
Germany	17,12	20,20	84,75%	-41,35%
Indonesia	2,23	7,83	28,48%	287,17%
Kazakhstan	2,90	4,54	63,77%	-26,33%
Mexico	9,02	16,64	54,21%	2,48%
Netherlands	17,50	26,58	65,84%	26,42%
Spain	11,94	18,71	63,82%	81,86%
United Kingdom	16,52	22,86	72,27%	27,59%
United States	13,10	36,09	36,30%	464,93%

Tables 6, 7 and 8 – Youngster's hourly wages and firm sizes

Firm size/Country	Hourly wage (in \$ PPP)				
	Argentina	Belgium	Brazil	Belarus	Colombia
Up to 10 employees	3,83	12,24	2,7	3,77	2,98
Between 11 and 100	5,57	12,9	3,18	4,43	3,01
More than 101 employees	6,41	13,86	3,94	4,59	3,4

Firm size/Country	Hourly wage (in \$ PPP)				
	France	Germany	Indonesia	Kazakhstan	Mexico
Up to 10 employees	11,19	7,63	0,76	3,07	5,41
Between 11 and 100	9,58	9,58	1,94	4,3	4,62
More than 101 employees	12,43	12,2	2,29	5,47	3,07

Firm size/Country	Hourly wage (in \$ PPP)			
	Netherlands	Spain	United Kingdom	United States
Up to 10 employees	9,55	7,63	8,64	18,13
Between 11 and 100	9,76	9,42	13,01	10,54
More than 101 employees	11,08	10,46	15,77	13,18

Table 9 – Location of work and hourly wages

Location of work	Hourly wage (in \$ PPP)
Big city	10.36
Small city	9.21
A town	5.82
Rural area	9.76

Table 10 – Household members and hourly wages

Household members	Frequency	Percentage	Hourly Wage (in \$ PPP)
Single	1467	34,76%	7,73
Child-free couple	976	23,13%	6,55
Young parents	1777	42,11%	5,50

Table 11 – Impact of types of contract in hourly wages

Type of contract/wage	Hourly wage (in \$ PPP)
Temporary	5,86
Permanent	7,30
Temporary contract wage as % of permanent contract wage	80,27%

Table 12 – Working hours and hourly wages

Weekly hours worked	Hourly wage (in \$ PPP)
Less than 35 hours	6,78
Between 35 and 48 hours	6,45
More than 48 hours	6,03

Tables 13, 14 and 15 – Working hours and industries

Less than 35 hours per week	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
Agricult, manufacturing, construction	7,57	7,57
Trade, transport, hospitality	52,19	59,76
Commercial services	19,52	79,28
Public sector, health care, education	20,72	100,00

Between 35 and 48 hours per week	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
Agricult, manufacturing, construction	22,59	22,59
Trade, transport, hospitality	38,10	60,69
Commercial services	22,34	83,03
Public sector, health care, education	16,97	100,00

More than 48 hours per week	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
Agricult, manufacturing, construction	24,63	24,63
Trade, transport, hospitality	43,70	68,33
Commercial services	21,41	89,74
Public sector, health care, education	10,26	100,00

Table 16 – Levels of satisfaction in life as-a-whole of the labour starters who earn less than \$ 5 PPP

Level of satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
1- Very dissatisfied	34	2,57	2,57
2	18	1,36	3,93
3	46	3,48	7,41
4	84	6,35	13,76
5	172	13,00	26,76
6	187	14,13	40,89
7	324	24,49	65,38
8	275	20,79	86,17
9	105	7,94	94,10
10 -Very satisfied	78	5,90	100,00
Total	1323	100,00	

Table 17 – Levels of satisfaction in life as-a-whole of the labour starters who earn between \$ 5 and \$10 PPP

Level of satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
Very dissatisfied	13	1,58	1,58
2	8	0,97	2,56
3	31	3,78	6,33
4	41	4,99	11,33
5	89	10,84	22,17
6	112	13,64	35,81
7	200	24,36	60,17
8	197	24,00	84,17
9	81	9,87	94,03
10 -Very satisfied	49	5,97	100,00
Total	821	100,00	

Table 18 – Levels of satisfaction in life as-a-whole of the labour starters who earn more than \$10 PPP

Level of satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
Very dissatisfied	8	0,83	0,83
2	12	1,25	2,08
3	38	3,95	6,04
4	34	3,54	9,57
5	50	5,20	14,78
6	120	12,49	27,26
7	237	24,66	51,93
8	306	31,84	83,77
9	105	10,93	94,69
10 -Very satisfied	51	5,31	100,00
Total	961	100,00	

Table 19 – Labour starters' levels of satisfaction with pay

Level of satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
1 - Very dissatisfied	632	22,40	22,40
2	733	25,98	48,39
3	858	30,41	78,80
4	438	15,53	94,33
5- Very satisfied	160	5,67	100,00
Total	2821	100,00	

Table 20 – Labour starters' levels of satisfaction with job

Level of satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
1 - Very dissatisfied	267	9,42	9,42
2	357	12,59	22,01
3	824	29,07	51,08
4	861	30,37	81,45
5- Very satisfied	526	18,55	100,00
Total	2835	100,00	

Table 21 – Labour starters' levels of satisfaction with leisure time

Level of satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage	Aggregate percentage
1 - Very dissatisfied	182	14,62	14,62
2	234	18,80	33,41
3	382	30,68	64,10
4	309	24,82	88,92
5- Very satisfied	138	11,08	100,00
Total	1245	100,00	



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