

SNOVE: Supporting the Needs of Older and Vulnerable Employees

Leonardo da Vinci – Lifelong Learning Programme



LITERATURE REVIEW

Jessica Grandhomme
Toulouse Business School

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction.....	4
Project SNOVE	4
Methodology	4
The Literature Review.....	5
Vulnerable Groups: A Current View	8
Older Workers	8
Migrant and Returning Workers, and Ethnic Minorities	11
Ex-Offenders	14
High-Skilled, Specialised Workers.....	16
Workers Suffering from Long-Term Illness, and the Handicapped	17
Women Victims of Domestic Violence	18
The Homeless	19
Youth, Recent Graduates.....	21
The Long-Term Unemployed and Low-Skills Workers.....	24
Precarious Work	26
Looking Forward: Identified Needs of Vulnerable Groups	31
Older Workers	31
Migrant and Returning Workers, and Ethnic Minorities	32
Ex-Offenders	33
High-Skilled, Specialised Workers.....	34
Workers Suffering from Long-Term Illness, and the Handicapped	35
Women Victims of Domestic Violence	36
The Homeless	37
Youth, Recent Graduates.....	39
The Long-Term Unemployed and Low-Skills Workers.....	40

Precarious Work	42
Final Conclusions	44
Training Needs Analysis	46
References	48

INTRODUCTION

PROJECT SNOVE

Funded by the Leonardo da Vinci 'Lifelong Learning Programme', and coordinated by the General Federation of Trade Unions (London, UK), partners include the TES research group at Toulouse Business School, the Balkans Institute of Labour and Social Policy (Sofia, BU), Työväen Akatemia (Workers' Academy, FI) and the United Nations Staff Union representing employees of the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia at The Hague (NE).

The aims of the project are to develop an understanding of the needs – professional reintegration, training and otherwise – of vulnerable employees and job seekers, as well as the needs and views of current potential employers of the specified target groups. These groups are vulnerable to unemployment, insecurity in their employment, and financial instability through redundancy or other workplace change, particularly as a result of the global economic crisis. The purpose is to explore the scope for transfer of existing training materials for older and vulnerable employees. Where appropriate, these materials will be adapted and where gaps are identified more relevant life-long learning materials will be developed to enable the target groups to gain vocational skills relevant to modern labour markets and to plan for financial security in retirement.

METHODOLOGY

The project involves three phases, each with distinct methodologies: an exploratory phase; an adaptation and piloting phase; and an evaluation phase.

The exploratory phase examines the concept of vulnerability in relation to employment, evidence on the needs of vulnerable employees and initiatives developed to meet these in different countries. This entails a targeted literature review, interviews with employers and intermediary organisations, and focus groups with selected vulnerable groups. The literature review was driven by the requirement to identify what is happening and what works in terms of supporting the needs of older and vulnerable employees. A search strategy was developed for identifying published material through library databases using keywords. The term 'vulnerable employees' was employed as a generic term, which generated some of the specific vulnerable groups discussed in the literature review.

As far as possible, the quality and credibility of published material was assessed, primarily by focusing on conventional academic literature published in refereed journals. The literature review to date provides a reasonably comprehensive and contextualized picture of vulnerable employees and accounts of support initiatives that are reported in the public domain. At this stage the literature is exclusively Anglophone and Francophone but the intention is to enlarge the reach by incorporating literature reviewed by the project partners (effectively bringing in Scandinavian, German and Balkan literature).

Interviews are being conducted with employers, trade union officials and representatives of intermediary organisations, while focus groups are being conducted with members of the listed groups. The interviews to date in France have explored the views of employers and intermediary groups concerning what specific target groups they regard as vulnerable and motives for seeking to employ (or not) individuals from such groups. Particular attention is also paid to interviewees' perceptions of the training needs of specific groups and evidence of what mechanisms are effective in promoting labour market reintegration of individuals from the target groups. Once the interviews are completed, focus groups will be organised through the intermediary organisations with some 5-10 participants from each of the target groups.

The thematic analysis of the literature review is used to structure the analysis of interviews and focus groups, thereby grounding the analysis in the lived experience of practitioners and vulnerable groups. The purpose is to explore similarities and differences respectively between enterprises, unions and intermediary organisations, and between these institutions and individuals from the selected categories: in terms of how vulnerability and precarity are understood; and in relation to perceived needs and priorities for training.

Depending upon the outcomes of this investigative phase, we shall either adapt materials developed in the UK for use with older and vulnerable employees or develop new materials for specific groups. The adapted or developed training materials will be piloted with selected target groups in France, as will be done also in the other participating countries. In each case, the utility and effectiveness of the piloted materials will be evaluated by tutors and participants as well as some of the experts with whom the interviews were conducted.

THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of the literature review is to establish an evidence base for developing training to meet the needs of older and vulnerable employees, distilling the knowledge and experience of researchers and reflective practitioners. In immediate terms, the review should provide the LdV SNOVE project team with a summary of apparent good practice in designing training for the target groups and to explore its potential for transfer.

Who are 'vulnerable employees'?

Vulnerability in general refers to the 'inability to withstand the effects of a hostile environment' (*Wikipedia*). The duality of this definition is important: vulnerability is the result of an interaction between individual or personal factors and the environment in which individuals find themselves. In an employment context, vulnerability implies the risk of social exclusion through difficulty in accessing the labour market and/or of exploitation when in employment, regular or otherwise. The UK's *Health and Safety Executive* describes vulnerable workers as 'those who are at risk of having their workplace

entitlements denied, and who lack the capacity or means to secure them' (UK Health and Safety Executive, 4 June 2011). In considering the employment environment, increasing numbers of people who are in need of employment are at risk of becoming vulnerable as precarious work is generally on the increase throughout Europe (Broughton, Biletta and Kullander, 2010; Riso, 2010). *The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions* (Eurofound) suggested that 'the concept of vulnerable groups denotes the risk of marginalisation from the labour market and social exclusion' (Eurofound, 2002: 6) and that 'the multiple difficulties of people in vulnerable groups are often compounded by living in poor environmental conditions and in a local economy characterised by low growth and high unemployment' (Eurofound, 2002: 7).

In this literature review, we consider the following target groups as *potentially vulnerable employees*:

- Older workers
- Migrant workers and 'returning workers' (expatriates or migrants returning to home country)
- Ethnic minorities (country specific)
- Ex-offenders
- High-skilled/specialized workers
- Long-term illness, and the handicapped
- Women victims of domestic violence
- The homeless
- Youth/recent graduates
- Long-term unemployed and low-skills workers
- Precarious work (short-term and atypical contracts, risk of redundancy, etc.)

Global context

'People who work should be able to live decently', states Saunders (2006), demonstrating that modern society is failing to realise these objectives of decent living, adequate income, basic social protections, and career aspirations – at great cost. Global change over the last two decades has witnessed the opening the national boundaries, deregulation of labour markets, and the extraordinary challenge of a long-term global economic crisis. As a result, secure and long-term employment, professional (re)insertion, and vocational training have been considerably affected across the world.

'In advanced and developing economies, ageing populations and low birth rates are emphasizing the need for retaining and sustaining competent older workers,' (Billet *et al*, 2011). In 2009, the UK's Department of Work and Pensions reported that 'owing to the ageing population, by 2020 almost a third of the workforce will be over the age of 50'. With this in mind many developed countries have leaned towards major policy changes such as raising the age of retirement and limiting retirement schemes, leading to an increase in 'bridge jobs', allowing older workers a transition phase into full retirement (D'Amours, 2009). With the 'greying workforce' living longer and healthier lives, many 'will not have adequate income once they stop working', (Munnell, Sass and Soto, 2006), and governments will be increasingly unable to afford this long-term support. 'The ageing population and the consequent

increase in the share of older workers in the workforce have raised concerns among both policy makers and social partners across Europe.’ (Eurofound, 2011).

As the current economic crisis hits all areas of the workforce hard ‘people approaching retirement facing up to the reality of low annuity and savings rates and a massive fall in stock markets’ (Age Concern, *Economy in Crisis – ‘Coping with the crunch: the consequences for older people’* 2009). Ironically, at a time when many need to consider working longer ‘28% of older workers feel that, if the current economic crisis forces their employer to make cuts, they are at greater risk of redundancy because of their age.’ (Age Concern, 2009) With the labour market becoming tighter and employers being forced to restructure and tap into new sources, staying ‘on top of the game’ becomes tantamount, opening up the debate concerning the increased need for relevant training and retraining in order to remain competitive (Billet *et al*, 2011; Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003; Lissenburgh and Smeaton, 2003).

‘New employment opportunities in higher-quality and more productive sectors are frequently accompanied by job losses in less competitive sectors’, (European Commission, 2011). With employment opportunities becoming scarcer throughout most sectors, so the competition for positions increases, mounting further barriers to employment for vulnerable groups (Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003) and ‘the combination of recession, welfare reform and (presumably) readjusted government spending are sure to have repercussions for the low-wage labour market’ (Rogers, Anderson and Clark, 2009). The enlargement of the European Union has brought more competition to lower-quality job sectors and with increasing migration of workers across national boundaries (Mackenzie and Forde, 2009) more individuals may be entering precarious working environments due to a myriad of factors including limited choice and comprehension of rights.

The current global economic crisis, combined with political deregulation and economic globalization, not only brings changes that directly affect vulnerable workers in a myriad of forms, but also creates vulnerability across all population sectors simply from the lack of employment security.

Employers themselves are facing the challenge of keeping their businesses successful and competitive, being increasingly forced to consider organisational restructuring, itself leading to the vulnerability of many employees. Even the most socially responsible companies need to restructure to stay afloat, and in any case there has been little past research to help define what a ‘socially responsible’ employer should do as best practice in such a situation (Cedefop, 2010).

As reported by Le Deist and Winterton (2012), ‘job loss is the primary and most dramatic effect of restructuring for labour’, affecting the health of workers and adding to the challenge of long-term unemployment. Governments are cutting back funding where possible, with austerity measures hitting funding of social benefits, training and support in some areas, leaving those already vulnerable in an increasingly challenging position.

VULNERABLE GROUPS: A CURRENT VIEW

The challenges and needs of, and the support systems available to, older and vulnerable workers

Shifting the risk

Faced with the pressures of an economic crisis and global competition, employers are *shifting the risk* to employees (Saunders, 2006; Evans and Gibb, 2009; ILO, 2011; OECD, 2011). In the current climate of a recession and global competition it is vulnerable groups of employees who are feeling the crunch more than anyone.

OLDER WORKERS

As Foden and Jepsen (2002: 437) argue, 'the issue of the ageing workforce and its implications for social security spending and labour force availability has generated growing interest on the part of academics as well as decision-makers'. Across Europe, the increasing ageing workforce of 'babyboomers', adjustments to national retirement ages, and economic insecurity concerning pensions, have all contributed to the need for older workers to stay in the labour market longer, making retirement a much less attractive option now than it may have been just a decade ago (Age Concern UK, 2010), but 'if employees are asked to extend their working lives, equity requires that their conditions of work should be improved or at least maintained' (White, 2012: 447).

In such a competitive market, the greying workforce has become progressively vulnerable as it finds itself under threat from discrimination, precarious work and forced early retirement (Frazier and Sargeant, 2009). The UK's Age Concern (2010) believes voluntary retirement is an unattractive option for many in the current economic environment, but as employers associate a younger workforce with reduced labour costs, there is increasing evidence that older workers are experiencing vulnerability, age discrimination and job insecurity (White, 2012; Sheen, 2012; Foden and Jepsen, 2002; Campaign UK, 2007; Billett *et al*, 2011; EFILWC, 2002; Sargeant and Frazer, 2009; Ghilarducci, 2009), with the European Commission reporting a 2011 employment rate of just 46.4% for workers aged between 55 and 64 years old (European Commission, 2011), and Lissenburgh and Smeaton (2003) and Johnson (2010) similarly noting the current increase in economic inactivity and instability amongst this skilled and experienced workforce.

The encouragement of early retirement in the past has led to declining employment rates of older workers, putting pressure now on social benefit costs and 'threatening the long-term sustainability of public pension systems' (Lafoucriere, 2001). Until recently, many older workers in secure long-term positions across Europe were encouraged to enjoy early retirement 'golden handshake' packages, giving businesses the possibility to 'replace old, expensive skills with new, younger, cheaper ones' (Sheen, 2012). But this has left governments, employers and pension schemes buckling under the weight of the costs, and forced to rein in their pension rights and benefits to older workers (White, 2012). Whilst

some note that employers in the current climate are feeling the need to restructure – and replace – by enforcing (much less beneficial) early retirements for older workers (Foden and Jepsen, 2002), some feel that discrimination is not a recent subject, and that businesses have always preferred younger candidates (Capelli, 2009). Capelli (2009) argues that any such discrimination is unreasonable since ‘older workers perform better across the range; better skills, especially interpersonal skills, better attendance, more conscientious’. Older workers can feel ‘perpetually vulnerable to the next round of cost-cutting’ (Campaign UK, 2007: 22) when facing competition from younger employees, due to employers’ fear of higher salaries and benefits packages, and according to Billett *et al* (2011: 6) there are ‘both personal and societal costs of employer attitudes and practices that discriminate unreasonably against older workers. These costs include the limits in range of employment options for these workers’.

Knowing how best to conduct their job search is an added challenge to many in this group, who may not have been on the job market for some time, leading to a need for support and career advice relevant to them, their options and the current environment (Loukanova, 2012; Mays and Sloane, 2011).

In order to make themselves more competitive, older workers are looking increasingly towards training to which employers may have not given easy access (Canduela *et al*, 2012; EFILWC, 2002; Tones and Pillay, 2009) and assistance in skills-matching, with Munnell (2009) suggesting that ‘Older workers have a lifetime of preferences and skills – essentially unique-shaped pegs that can fit into a limited number of holes. Younger workers are malleable and can fit more easily into a variety of positions’. In a recent study on active ageing and lifelong learning held in Bulgaria for the European Employment Observatory – and with conclusions reflecting literature from across Europe in general – the *labour market situation* and the *employability* of older workers are blamed for the high decline in the local working age population (Loukanova, 2012). But an important challenge to increasing their employability is the fact that training may not only be difficult to access, but also inappropriate for their needs, and resulting in low participation of such lifelong training. The Bulgaria study showed a strong link between employment levels, employability and training:

An interesting fact is that only 7% of the unemployed and 6.5% of the economically inactive had participated in continuing education. This shows that they do not consider it as a prerequisite for changing their status. It can also be assumed that access to training is limited, the quality is low, it not geared to the specific requirements of older workers; the offer of courses does not meet the demand; the methodological and teaching materials used are inadequate, and teachers need special training in working with adults.

(Loukanova, 2012: 6)

Few older workers participate in adult learning or skills development. Indeed, persistent age discrimination, combined with changes in work organisation and incentives in social security policies, has increased the vulnerability of older workers to redundancy, lay-offs and pressure to withdraw completely from the labour market. (EFILWC, 2002)

Ironically, research shows the current generation of older workers to be healthier and more educated than any in the past (Johnson, 2010).

The employers' view

Most studies have found that employers prefer to offer training to younger workers, with the costs being amortised over a longer employment period. A 2006 OECD report urging the UK to 'do more to encourage older people to work longer' noted that an important disadvantage in employers' eyes is that of the supposed rise in costs with age, and the 'shorter expected pay-back periods on investments in the training of older workers' (OECD, 2006: 10). In a survey of business leaders and human resource professionals conducted in 2011 by the *EFILWC*, and through France's *Research and Statistics Department (DARES)*, responses concluded that 'higher labour costs of older workers is the most frequently expressed concern'. Foden and Jepsen (2002) and Ghilarducci (2009) make a similar point, Ghilarducci also suggesting that such an argument might also be used in a time of recession as a reason for employers to 'clean out' and 'rejuvenate' their workforce.

Prospective employers are acutely aware that older workers' health care costs are much higher than for younger workers – that alone might privilege the young. Worse, clever and nimble employers use recessions as an opportunity to shake up their work forces: they can get younger, cheaper, freshly trained workers for bargain-basement salaries and lower health care premiums. (Ghilarducci, 2009)

Research suggests that although employers site loyalty, experience and work ethic as positive aspects to employing older workers, they are concerned with the higher costs of recruiting from this generation, as well as the health insurance costs involved (Mermin, 2007). In a survey of private sector employers conducted by Munnell *et al* (2006) for the *Center for Retirement Research at Boston College*, it was found that although employers 'tend to see older workers as *equally or more* productive than younger workers, they also see them as expensive'.

Today's older workers are far better educated than older workers just a decade ago; they are more physically fit; and the shift from goods-producing to services-producing jobs has reduced the physical demands of work, which should enhance the employment prospects of older workers. (Munnell, Sass and Soto, 2006: 1)

The politics of older v. younger workers comes into play with some younger workers feeling uncomfortable supervising an older worker, marking an additional challenge for those trying to get a foot back in the door following redundancy. Munell (2009) notes that, 'For older workers, looking for a job is difficult in the best of times and worse today. Study after study has shown that older workers take a much longer time than their younger counterparts to find a new job'.

The real reason employers seem to prefer younger candidates has to do with perceptions of supervisors who often worry about how to manage older subordinates: How can I supervise someone who has more experience than I have, how do I motivate them when they are less concerned about the carrot of promotions or the stick of being fired? Managing older workers in fact doesn't require rocket science, but it does require a more collaborative approach that respects their expertise and engages their interests. (Capelli, 2009)

Ironically, fear of future accusations of discrimination at any point of management can also make employers wary of hiring vulnerable groups such as older workers. Certainly for older workers who are in the job market and looking to be hired, this is an added challenge.

MIGRANT AND RETURNING WORKERS, AND ETHNIC MINORITIES

The definition of 'migrant' is not self-evident, indeed it is highly politicized. When does a person stop being 'migrant' (and in some cases become re-categorised as an 'ethnic minority')? This question is key to understanding debates and statistics on immigration, and has important implications for policy and practice, but it is rarely addressed. (Rogers, Anderson and Clark, 2009: 16)

Many economies, especially developed European countries and the United States, rely heavily on migrant workers. As the opening up of communities means an increase in the movement and employment of migrant workers across more developed countries, they are indeed finding work, but very often in jobs that are not accepted by other workers (Mackenzie and Forde, 2009), with questionable working conditions and security, leading to the 'sensitive and contentious' issue (Dench *et al*, 2006), of migrant employment in an already tight labour market.

Migrants tend to be among the workers most hit by economic downturns for several reasons. Migrant labour is often used as a cyclical buffer, like other macroeconomic policies aimed at maximizing growth and minimizing unemployment. For migrants, this means they are often the last to be hired and the first to be fired and their employment relationships are frequently non-standard, and in poorly regulated sectors or activities. (Taran, 2009: 2)

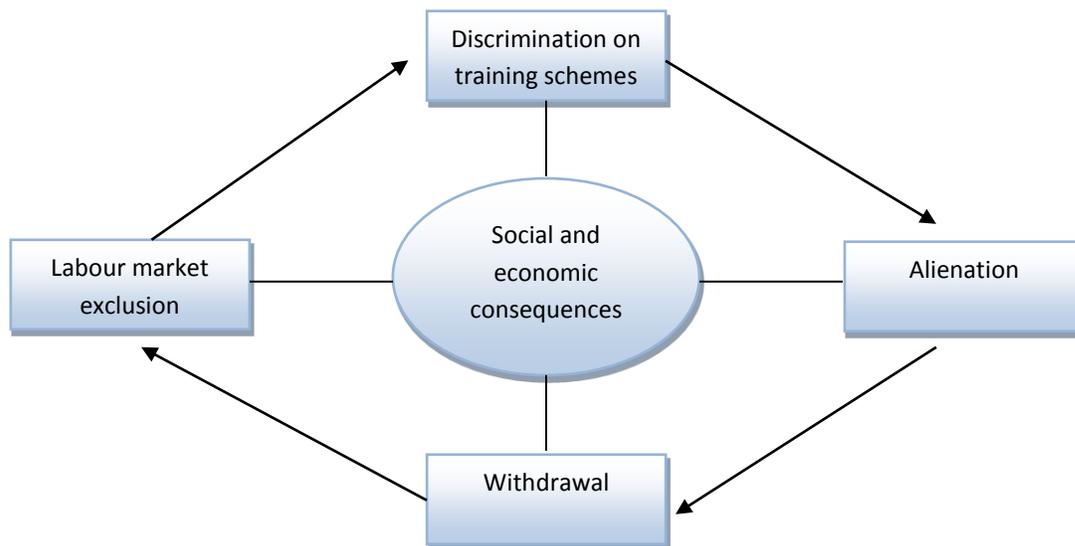
Placing this group high up the vulnerable hierarchy are also factors including language barriers, misunderstanding of rights, employers' non-recognition of foreign qualifications, and cultural differences – all of which can lead to job dissatisfaction and insecurity at best, and employer abuse at worst (Dench *et al*, 2006; EDNPAS, 2009; Griffin, 2008; Quinlan and Sokas, 2009; Rodriguez, 2004). Taran (2009: 1) also notes that 'It is often said that migrants – like other ethnic minority workers – are the last hired and first fired. This is certainly the case today as a consequence of the global economic and financial crisis'.

Ethnic minorities and migrants across Europe are faced with challenges including social and professional discrimination and as is the case across most developed countries, these groups are normally clustered in the more deprived urban areas; this itself brings challenges when searching for employment, and can lead to labour market exclusion (Ogbonna, 1998), as well as social discrimination from those who believe they are taking jobs that could be given to local nationals (Rogers, Anderson and Clarke 2009), confirming their vulnerable status. 'The geographical concentration of immigrant and ethnic minority populations into urban neighbourhoods is a notable and enduring feature of many advanced economies' (Clark and Drinkwater, 2002).

Ethnic minorities continue to experience higher unemployment rates, greater concentrations in routine and semi-routine work and lower earnings than do members of the comparison group of British and other Whites. There is an increasingly large evidence base supporting the existence and persistence of the 'ethnic penalty' in the UK labour force. The impact of discrimination, especially indirect discrimination, on ethnic minority labour market outcomes is difficult to quantify. However, the prevailing assessment in the literature

is that significant ethnic discrimination persists and is likely to account for a significant part of continuing employment gaps. (Bell and Casebourne, 2008: 2).

Ogbonna (1998: 28) argues that in the UK, 'training programmes designed to improve employment opportunities are failing members of the ethnic minority communities and are in some cases helping to extend their disadvantage', and suggests that the reasons for failure are 'the constant changes in government policies with the development of sometimes contradictory policies, and the inefficiency and prejudices of the training and employing organisations which are involved in the process'. Connecting the problem experienced by ethnic minorities in receiving adequate vocational training, Ogbonna (1998: 38) presents his '*Vicious Circle of Unequal Opportunities*':



Hundreds of thousands of migrant workers cross borders for work every year – at all levels, legally and illegally. But what happens on their return home? For many, return home can be a form of regression, as their dream of a new and 'better' life abroad, for whatever reason, comes to an end. Across developed countries over the last few years, two subjects have concerned many – immigration and the recession. The return to their country of origin is usually based on three reasons – non-renewal/granting of working papers; the termination/end of a seasonal/temporary contract; or the simple (and more recent) fact that they were unable to find work (Best, 2010). In these fast-changing times, some migrants return home as career prospects have become more promising in their country of origin than the country they migrated to. One example of this, cited by the International Labour Organisation in 2011, is the increasing number of Indians returning home from Europe: 'As global attention turns the spotlight on recession and unemployment ratios, a growing number of Indian are packing their international experience and degrees into their suitcases and heading home to a new, greener pasture' (International Labour Organisation, 2011). Yet going 'home' has its challenges. Adjusting back into a culture and society, especially after a long-term absence, can be difficult at best. Political changes and stability can also play an important role in a worker's reintegration (or lack of) into

their home country – some returning migrants finding themselves particularly ‘unwelcome’. A lack of experience, training and skills will do little to help.

The Employers’ View

Employers regularly cite that they are simply filling a market need, and taking the most cheap and reliable workers (Dench *et al*, 2006; EDNPAS, 2009; MacKenzie and Forde, 2009; Rodriguez, 2004), themselves facing a number of challenges in recruiting. In 2011, when the UK’s Work and Pensions Secretary Iain Duncan Smith urged businesses to stop relying on foreign labour, business leaders were quick to respond that they felt they had little choice (Smale, 2011). Smale cites David Frost, Director General of the British Chambers of Commerce as arguing that ‘many young British workers lack both skills and work ethic’ when compared to migrant workers, blaming both the UK education and benefits systems – ‘Many kids leave school who can’t read/write properly, can’t communicate, don’t have a good work ethic’, with Frost adding that ‘when you have these bright young Eastern Europeans who really want to work, and have very good customer service skills, then employers are going to turn to them’ (Smale, 2011).

The ‘*sensitive and contentious*’ issue of UK immigration is also argued by Dench *et al* (2006) in their report for the Home Office, ‘*Employers use of migrant labour*’, where they found that employers they interviewed relied considerably on the migrant workforce, particularly in low-skills positions, and that they believed their businesses would suffer if they didn’t.

They had tried hard initially (through job centres, local adverts, etc.) to attract domestic workers but they were unwilling to take these posts, as often the conditions, pay, hours or nature of the work were unfavourable to them and migrants were more amenable to these conditions. (Dench *et al*, 2006: vi)

Some employers argue that local workers were ‘unemployable’ and ‘unsuitable’ when compared with migrant workers, and feel that a multi-cultural workforce betters the global workforce (Dench *et al*, 2006; EDNPS, 2009; MacKenzie and Forde, 2009). ‘In the view of some employers, the more favourable work ethic of migrant workers encouraged domestic workers to work harder. Migrants also widened the horizons of domestic workers to understand more about other cultures.’ (Dench *et al*, 2006: vi). But vulnerability for migrant groups *and* employers is heightened when employers are unclear as regards to what procedures they are legally obliged to follow in order to properly select and recruit migrant workers, including employer/employee rights. Especially for smaller companies with little human resources experience or support, this can put up barriers and – in the worst case scenario – involve unclear contracts and potentially dangerous conditions for the employees and employers alike (Dench *et al*, 2006).

Interviewing and testing are hugely significant and both present challenges to immigrant candidates, particularly for those for whom English is not their first language. The extent of the difficulty that foreign candidates experience in relation to the interview process may not be fully appreciated by employers. (EDNPAS, 2009: 21).

Cost-savings when recruiting migrant workers are cited as an important advantage for employers. For many migrant workers, the ‘national minimum wage’ of a developed economy compares well to

possible earnings in their country of origin. Employers therefore are able to keep salary costs to a minimum, and the 'cost-saving' image of migrant worker recruiters is a popular one in particular sectors (especially low-skilled, high-production, low profit margin), keeping their businesses competitive.

Foreign migrant labor is a major advantage to employers because the costs of the production and reproduction of this labor is borne abroad by another social system. In this international arrangement, employers of migrant labor not only pay a lower wage bill but also avoid the tax liability for maintaining institutional resources (educational, health care, housing, etc.) necessary to produce and reproduce migrant labor. This arrangement is similar to the benefits of outsourcing work, but without actually having to contract with an external firm. The end result is that the employer saves on the costs of managing and maintaining a labour force, as the labour cost is reduced mainly to paying for work performed. Although employers may hail the often-assumed superior characteristics of immigration workers...there is a deeper motivation...This motivation is the capitalistic imperative to keep down the costs of production. (Rodriguez, 2004: 454)

EX-OFFENDERS

Reviewing the literature (and reflected in an interview with a representative from the French penitentiary service) this group seems to suffer from the most barriers to employment, resulting from three major disadvantages: their criminal record; their possible lack of a solid education history; and the paucity of available support on leaving prison (Brown, 2011; Clow, 2012; Johnson, 2011; Krell, 2012).

With governments counting the cost of re-offending levels, and the clear recognition that employment is an integral factor in rehabilitation and prevention of reoffending (Cockcroft, 2006; Graffam *et al*, 2004; Nacro, 2012), education support, work programmes and specific pre-release support are addressed across European countries. But this does little to compensate the fact that employers – especially in the current economic climate – prefer candidates without a criminal record and the envisaged associated risks. This is an important aspect confirming how vulnerable this group is, especially as employment is regularly cited as an integral part of rehabilitation for ex-offenders, and fills more than simply a financial need. Society as a whole benefits from the employment of ex-prisoners, bringing with it reduced crime levels and rates of re-offence, and therefore reduced costs to society through care, crime and re-incarceration. UK research suggests that employment on release reduces the risk of re-offending by over one third (Cockcroft, 2006; Nacro, 2012).

Employment is a key issue in the successful reintegration of ex-prisoners and ex-offenders. Employment provides more than the income necessary to support adequate material conditions. It also provides structure and routine, while filling time. It provides opportunities to expand one's social network to include other productive members of society. In addition to all of this, employment can contribute to enhanced self-esteem and other psychological health issues. (Graffam *et al*, 2004: 1).

Research has shown prisoners as being 'educationally disadvantaged compared to the general population', (Graffam *et al*, 2004: 3) with gaps in education and work experience regularly associated with a prison term meaning that many ex-offenders can only access low-skilled, low-paid jobs (Brown, 2011) – hardly a motivating factor. Training and educational needs are further hampered during a

prison sentence depending on how long the prisoner serves, and the level of education/training provided (Donat Decisier, 2006). Added to this, other possible challenges such as depression, low self-esteem and motivation, drug dependence, mental and physical health related issues, and behavioural problems reinforce the importance of an intensive pre- and post-release network of support. Reporting on female ex-offenders in particular Lafoucriere and Winterton (2001: 3) note that 'women offenders are not a homogeneous group but it is known that many of them have to cope with such social problems as addictions, abuse, anxiety and other forms of psychological distress', making it difficult to escape from the vicious cycle of re-offending without the necessary network of support.

It is likely that a large number of these men might be able to find some kind of work if they search long enough, but at jobs that pay very low wages and provide few benefits or chances of upward mobility. In these circumstances, many ex-offenders may simply choose to forego these employment options, in favour of illegal opportunities or more casual work. (Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003)

In a report on the re-insertion services in France for ex-offenders, the lack of cooperation between difference agencies and support groups did little to help an already challenging situation of reinsertion (Châles-Courtine, 2010).

The Employers' View

The employment challenges being faced by ex-offenders, and the knock-on effect for societies in general is a hot topic over recent years, with business leaders becoming increasingly involved. In discussing his recent pledge in the press to recruit more ex-offenders, Virgin Founder and CEO Richard Branson says, 'For people coming out of prison it's a vicious circle. If they can't get a job, the only thing they can do is reoffend. From society's point of view that can be very painful.' (James, 2011). In his article for *The Guardian* newspaper, James (2011) reported on this group of eight British business leaders, including Richard Branson, urging companies to employ more ex-offenders, noting that in their experience, well-selected ex-convicts could prove reliable and hard-working recruits, who should be given a second chance by being taken on their merits instead of their criminal records. James also noted that UK charity *Working Force* had placed a number of ex-prisoners with companies, and that their re-offending rate had been 'less than 5% compared with the general rate of about two-thirds of all adults released from prison, who are reconvicted within two years of being discharged'.

Employers are being urged to tap into non-traditional workforces, such as ex-offenders, with employers citing obvious concerns about doing so. Krell (2012) reports in his article in HR Magazine '*Criminal Background: Consider the Risks – and Rewards – of Hiring Ex-Offenders*' that although 'romantic' anecdotes about hiring ex-convicts are inspirational, in reality there are a myriad of concerns and complications for the employer: 'The larger story of employing ex-offenders is more complex and is often rife with plot twists, including looming federal policy changes, new legal precedents, and contentious recidivism research, evergreen concerns about hiring risks and growing competition for skills'. When considering the employment of ex-offenders, employers' concerns include work ethic, education, experience and – in some cases – concerns for workplace safety, ranging from physical safety

to high-level *virtual* theft (Rice, 2010), and the fear that an ex-offender may re-offend against their business (Graffam *et al*, 2004). The added fact that many employers would be held liable for any criminal activity in their workplace means that they would shy away from any risk to this effect (Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003).

So, in a highly competitive market, ex-offenders are a low priority candidate pool for employers, many of whom may not look beyond the fact they have served time, regardless of their skills, education and professional experience (Williams, 2007). Graffam *et al* (2004: 15) note that ‘the attitude of employers towards employment of ex-prisoners and ex-offenders is just one important potential impediment to employment’.

Employers may place a premium on the trustworthiness of employees, especially when the ability to monitor employee performance is imperfect. Jobs that require significant customer contact or the handling of cash or expensive merchandise will require dependable, honest employees. To the extent that past criminal activity signals something less, employers may take such information into account when making hiring decisions.” (Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003: 8).

HIGH-SKILLED, SPECIALISED WORKERS

It is clear that in a competitive market, workers with high-skills and top-level education have a better chance than most in securing a good long-term career, and over the last decade most developed countries have increased their demand for high-skilled workers (Bauer and Kunze, 2004). But for some this can be a double-edged sword, when high-skilled jobseekers can be pressured into taking less-qualified positions; and those whose skills are so specialised that it is hard to find the positions that match them, threatening their desired career path (Hirsh, 2006).

Migrant workers coming into more developed economies can often be victims of professional regression in their simple need to find employment and financial security. Employers who are recruiting ‘on demand’ cannot necessarily match the qualifications of migrant workers with available jobs – foreign qualifications (studied for and accredited abroad) are sometimes not transferable, undervalued or simply irrelevant to a specific post. ‘Employers appear to attribute less value to qualifications and work experience earned in a non-OECD country, so that immigrants arriving without jobs are having a harder time finding employment commensurate with their qualifications and experience’ (Chaloff and Lemaître, 2009: 4).

Unemployed high-skilled workers, and those who have migrated on temporary contracts which have come to their termination, can find themselves in a difficult position in a labour market with concentrated opportunities relevant to their skills and qualifications.

It is often assumed that because of their professional and skills capability, high skilled individuals are able to look after themselves. For example, they are perceived to have well developed professional and social networks that they can call on for support. They are often assumed to have more financial capability with which to respond to change. Anecdotal feedback suggests that many individuals are ill equipped to deal with the experience of being out of work and lacked the confidence and skills needed to get back into work. In

particular we found that those facing changes of occupation or sector can often find it quite difficult to identify their transferrable skills and sell themselves effectively. (London Skills and Employment Board, 2010: 3).

WORKERS SUFFERING FROM LONG-TERM ILLNESS, AND THE HANDICAPPED

Workers suffering from physical handicaps have had more employment choice over the last two decades, with strict anti-discrimination laws, financial incentives (or penalties) and government regulations encouraging employers to consider the bigger picture when recruiting. The education of the public in general and employers in particular has made society more sensitive and flexible concerning the needs of disabled employees (Hilpern, 2008). Strict disability anti-discrimination acts and increased campaigning across most developed countries have helped progress in regards to employment problems faced by this vulnerable group more than any others over the last two decades, and workplaces are becoming more sensitive, educated and flexible when it comes to the needs of disabled employees (Hilpern, 2008). Most anti-discrimination acts call for employers to make 'reasonable adjustments' in the workplace to cater for a disability – taking into account the employee's capabilities and the physical working environment. Some legislation, such as the Swedish Work Environment Act of 1977 obliges employers to ensure that work is adapted to *individual* workers' mental and physical capacities. Many larger companies now have more diverse recruitment and can make the 'reasonable adjustments' that most regulations demand, finding that it is simpler than imagined (Brachna, 2000). Being diagnosed with a serious illness is one thing – having to inform your employer, or find a position that can work around the illness is another battle (Ewing, 2006). For employees who are already vulnerable to their mental or physical handicaps, the trials they face in finding and keeping a sustainable professional role that can be adapted to their needs is a struggle.

Across many developed countries, the amount of people who are out of work due to illness is a cause for concern, with one case study in Sweden stating that in 2002 the long-term sick and disability pensioners represented 15% of their total workforce, with recent increasing unemployment rates in Sweden further challenging those who already face trials in returning to work and/or retaining their positions (Selander and Marnetoft, 2005). Workers interviewed for their case study, some of whom had been long-term unemployed, brought up another challenge: their mental health that is affected by their circumstances. 'Almost all the clients declared that they did not feel comfortable about *being on welfare*. A number of clients declared even friends and family members directly or indirectly questioned their situation as long-term sick and unemployed' (Selander and Marnetoft, 2005: 301), catapulting some towards depression. The vulnerability of this target group, coupled with de-motivation, further hinders an already challenging task. Selander and Marnetoft (2005: 302) found that most of the clients involved shared an 'aspiration to leave their passive life situation and get out in the real world, but that they need a push in the right direction'.

The Employers' View

For employees suffering from, or recovering after, a long-term illness, employment laws generally offer adequate protection, but it presents obvious problem for employers to have staff who need regular time off work for treatment, or flexibility when returning to work, even if larger companies are usually able to accommodate such needs (Leckie, 2011; Paton, 2011). Understandably, recruiting someone with a history of illness and regular absence from work is a risk that some employers are reluctant to take. In addition to the challenge of managing long-term or persistent employee absence, there is the risk of grievances and employment tribunal claims if things go wrong. As Salway *et al* (2007: 87) report in their findings for *The Joseph Rowntree Foundation*, 'there is clearly a tension between employers' needs for reliability, and the flexibility needed by those with a long-term health condition.' Paton (2011) similarly states that 'nearly half of employers consider long-term sick leave to be a problem for their business, with more than a quarter admitting that it gives them a major staffing headache'.

Long-term illness can also bring physical/mental limits, as well as frequent short and long-term absences needed for treatment or medical appointments, and therefore it is a challenge to find a position which could be sustainable in these circumstances, whatever rights and laws exist, and difficult for employers who need reliability (Ewing, 2006; Salway *et al*, 2007).

But with modern regulations and incentives, employers are discovering that it is much simpler than they originally thought to hire (and keep) a disabled employee, and are having their eyes opened to the rewards and benefits of hiring a talented employee if their disabilities can be managed. 'The actual process of implementing reasonable adjustments tends to force a culture change in organizations, enabling employers to start realizing that even a small adjustment...can enable someone to do their job' (Hilpern, 2008). Companies are now being educated and informed to discover that making simple adjustments opens the doors to high-quality employees with physical disabilities, and therefore getting the best out of workers with handicaps simply by being more flexible (Brachna, 2000; Hilpern, 2008).

That said, the limits of 'reasonable adjustments' will always depend on the physical or mental disabilities involved, how much the employer needs to invest in time, structure-change and costs, and how aware they are regarding the needs of the potential/current employee – the result of which may concern a potential employer when comparing with a non-disabled candidate. 'Often society can disable people more than health conditions or disability, with attitudes and assumptions preventing people from reaching their work-related goals' (The Shaw Trust, 2012).

WOMEN VICTIMS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

According to the Safe@Work Coalition (2012) which was created for employees and employers alike, one in four women across the world experience domestic violence in their lifetime, 50% of domestic violence victims have lost a job to (at least in part) the violence, and 96% of employed domestic violence

victims experience problems at work due to their abuse or abuser; all of this leading to 8 million days of paid work being lost (the equivalent of 32,000 full-time jobs) per year in the US alone.

In much of the literature available, absenteeism, and the effect on co-workers, is cited as a major strain on sufferers' abilities to keep up their work commitments, and can lead to victims being forced to eventually leave their position (Smith and Orchiston, 2011; Swanberg and Logan, 2005; Tolman and Wang, 2005). As many victims are also keen to keep their circumstances hidden from employers and co-workers, they risk becoming victimized at work, or losing their jobs, simply because the circumstances behind their low-output and absences are not understood (Smith and Orchiston, 2011). With most perpetrators knowing their victim's place of work, employees may also need to resign from a post or take regular absences simply in order to find safety (Swanberg and Logan, 2005; Tolman and Wang, 2005).

A sufferer becomes increasingly vulnerable in seeking precarious and/or temporary contracts and even to losing their own source of income completely if forced to leave their job, therefore becoming financially dependent either on their abusers or on social benefits. With little resources, and long waiting lists for social housing in many areas of the developed world, finding somewhere to live when you have left an abuser can be an added challenge (NCH, 2009).

The Employers' View

Employers of victims of domestic violence can witness regular absences and unreliability from the affected employee and – in the worst of cases – health and safety issues and fear from co-workers can eventually lead to employers' inability to retain workers (Swanberg and Logan, 2005). The fact that many victims feel the need to hide the truth of their domestic situation means that employers may simply see the absences and unreliability, not the cause. According to the Safe@Work Coalition (2012), domestic violence costs employers \$3 to \$5 billion a year in lost days' work.

Financial independence (through employment) can be the key to a woman leaving her abuser, but this can also be a simplistic view considering the myriad of problems a victim needs to get through before a 'normal' working life can be possible.

THE HOMELESS

There is a wide consensus in the literature that the homeless are extremely vulnerable in many aspects and in need of support in many other areas before professional (re)insertion can even be considered. The homeless need professional reinsertion as a route to long-term rehabilitation and survival since 'climbing out of homelessness is virtually impossible for those without a job' (NCH, 2009). *No home, no job*: it is clearly more complicated than that, but literature suggests that this is what it can come down to in the end. There is of course a myriad of reasons why a person finds themselves homeless, the possible multi-deprivation suffered (Robertson and Toro, 1998), and how this affects their employment is

important. The vicious cycle of needing a fixed address to gain employment, without the financial independence of such employment is obvious. This is a simplistic view – there are of course charities and support groups, government programmes and funding, skills training and benefits, and solutions that can be used in these circumstances, all which exist in order to combat these challenges and support those in need. But the problems associated with homelessness run deep, and an employer may question skills, values and reliability before considering a candidate who is, or who has recently experienced, homelessness. In a 2007 fact sheet published by the National Coalition for the Homeless (NCH), the connection between homelessness and unemployment, underemployment, low-skills and low wages is made.

With the global financial crisis has come an increase in precarious work, fuelling homelessness through a lack of work security, higher need for social housing, and a feeling of hopelessness for those affected (NCH, 2009). In particular is a concern for the rise in youth homelessness across the globe:

Policies have resulted in increased funding for housing, educational, and independent living skills support, such as employment skills, as well as broad recommendations for services provisions to providers. Yet, many of these new policies and resulting programs are not adequately funded and often do not address the specific needs of these youth. (Lenz-Rashid, 2005: 236).

Robertson and Toro (1998: 3-1) found that ‘many homeless youth have multiple overlapping problems including medical, substance abuse, and emotional and mental problems’, and literature suggests that comprehensive and tailored services are needed that address both the immediate and long-term needs of homeless youth.

These young people, who cannot return to their families or guardians, or have no family to turn to, may need crisis care, shelter educational and employment support, and transitional living in order to be given the opportunity to make changes in their lives. They are clearly a vulnerable population with diverse needs. (Lenz-Rashid, 2005: 256).

In recent years, studies have shown that a large percentage of the homeless have a lower level of educational achievement, having left school early or experienced extremely disrupted educational paths (European Research Area, 2011), and are therefore limited to low-skills and precarious work. Social exclusion and desperate times lead to desperate measures, with homelessness forcing some to turn to illegal activities in order to survive (Robertson and Toro, 1998), pushing their vulnerability increasingly higher.

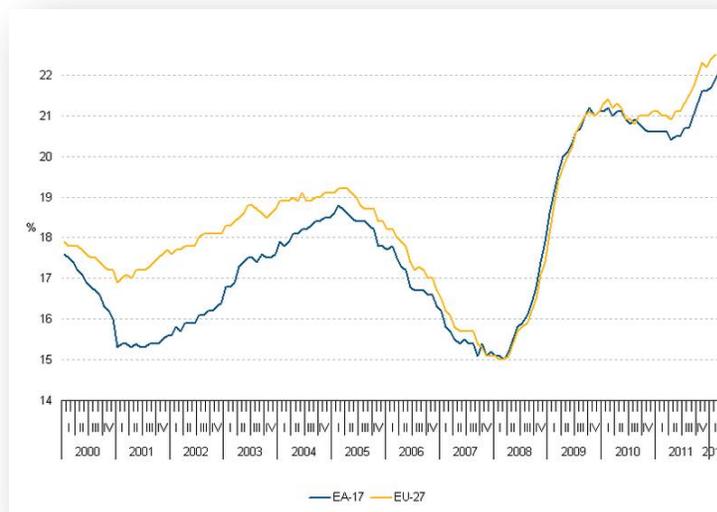
Communities are urged to help the homeless youth by taking a chance on them, with the belief that it would be those communities gaining in the end: ‘A cost-benefit analysis for providing job training to homeless foster youth found that the training increased long-term tax revenue as well as decreased government expenses on health services, welfare payments and housing’ (Little, 2010).

The Employers’ View

For an employer, any personal issues faced by an employee that may affect their performance and reliability is a concern. Employers who are urged to help homeless people by considering them for jobs, face concerns to do with the overlapping problems the candidate may have faced that led to their

becoming homeless in the first place – mental health issues, drug dependency, abuse etc. (Lenz-Rashid, 2005; Robertson and Toro, 1998), and therefore how and if these problems may affect their working abilities. These risks, added to the candidates' potential lack of education and work experience will not put them at the top of employers' candidate pool lists. It is for this reason, that much literature talks of the need for work training programmes, where a continuous support link between training provider, employee, and employer, is kept up (Business in the Community, 2011; European Research Area, 2011; Little, 2010; NCH, 2009), providing support and a much-needed safety net for all concerned.

YOUTH, RECENT GRADUATES



Youth Unemployment Rates, January 2000 – January 2012 (Eurostat, 2012)

The above recent figures on youth unemployment rates provided by Eurostat (2012) need little explanation. Youth unemployment has risen dramatically since the global financial crisis of 2008, by almost 10 percentage points in 4 years, and at the time of writing is in excess of 25% in several member states, making it 'one of the most pressing economic and social problems confronting those countries whose labour markets have weakened substantially' (Bell and Blanchflower, 2011).

The business leaders at WEF know why it matters: young people who were unemployed for a long time will earn less throughout their whole lives. They will be less employable. They won't have the skills that business needs. They are more likely to have long-term health problems. And it can cause social unrest. There's a term for it: Lost Generation. (Weber, 2012).

Referred to extensively as the 'Lost Generation', today's youth are meeting increasing difficulty in entering the labour market (Osborne, 2012; Wolf, 2011). As youth across Europe become increasingly exasperate (Salmon, 2011), 'unemployment and precarious jobs have left a young generation hard

pressed to see a bright future' (ILO, 2011), and the least educated have been hit hardest (Bell and Blanchflower, 2011; OECD, 2002).

Despite the higher levels of young people in education and training nowadays, some of them continue to face severe and multiple forms of exclusion, disaffected with school and having a poor educational attainment.

These young people are prone to homelessness, substance abuse and inadequate incomes. However, they may also be outside the reach of public employment or welfare services. (Eurofound, 2002: 7).

Recent graduates who have invested (at increasing cost) in university education are often obliged to take jobs that do not match their qualifications (Godofsky, Zukin and Van Horn, 2011). In a competitive labour market there's more chance for the better qualified, but disappointment comes to all, especially those trying to get a foot in the door in the first place and without work experience to sell. In a series of interviews with employers and recent graduates in Scotland employers and graduates alike expressed their opinion that a degree was required for certain jobs, but added little to a graduate's long-term employability (Lowden *et al*, 2011). With an increase in graduate numbers across Europe we are witnessing a 'shift from elite to mass higher education systems' (Scurry and Blenkinsopp, 2011).

The economic context and labour market situation have seen an increase in graduate unemployment and these issues, along with the ever-present challenge of global economic competition, mean that we cannot be complacent about the capacity of graduates to secure and maintain employment, to develop within a particular job and have the ability to move on to new sustainable employment if required. (Lowden *et al*, 2011).

The biggest concern for youth unemployment is the vicious circle leading to long-term un- or underemployment for youth and governments alike (Bell and Blanchflower, 2011; Gil, 2011). A poll recently taken by *The Guardian* newspaper revealed 'a lack of jobs, extended unpaid internships and being dubbed too inexperienced for graduate jobs are the biggest challenges in the graduate job market right now' (White, 2012).

Some feel that for those embarking on training (vocational or otherwise), the type of training, the experience gained, and the qualifications awarded at the end of it, are not always as targeted or relevant to the individual's career wishes and job market as they could be – with Scurry and Blenkinsopp (2011) reporting on a 'subsequent blurring of the boundaries between *graduate* and *non-graduate* employment' – and that more relevant courses, apprenticeships and work experience should be provided: 'The assessment of how well college prepared students for the job market is mixed. Part of this is due to the lack of quality jobs for those unfortunate enough to graduate during a recession of historic force, but part is also due to the disjuncture between educational experiences and occupational needs' (Godofsky, Zukin and Van Horn, 2011).

The staple offer for between a quarter and a third of the post-16 cohort is a diet of low-level vocational qualifications, most of which have little to no labour market value. Among 16 to 19 year olds...at least 350,000 get little to no benefit from the post-16 education system. The result is that many of England's 14-19 year olds do not, at present, progress successfully into either secure employment or higher-level education and training. (Wolf, 2011: 7).

With youth unemployment, comes social exclusion and desperate measures leading in some cases to youth crime (McNally and Telhaj, 2007; Salmon, 2011), and 'if the crime leads to prison, future employment prospects fall off a cliff' (Gil, 2011). This brings with it a large price tag, and long-term effects on both community and state. Research undertaken for the UK's *The Prince's Trust* noted the high costs connected with youth crime that derive from youth unemployment and social exclusion, and that the dangerous 'intergenerational cycle of poverty' which can be inevitable (McNally and Telhaj, 2007).

The Employers' View

For younger candidates who have not gone on to higher education, not having the 'qualifications' doesn't necessarily mean another challenge to finding work, but more the fact – cited by employers – of not having the right skills and experience, and employers argue that vocational training courses and higher education are not equipping young people to meet the needs of the labour market and that raising their employability brings additional training costs to employers (Gil, 2011; Scurry and Blenkinsopp, 2011; Wolf, 2011;). Employers find some 'qualified' candidates lacking vocational skills such 'team working, problem solving, self-management, knowledge of the business, literacy and numeracy relevant to the post, ICT knowledge, good interpersonal and communication skills, ability to use own initiative but also to follow instructions, leadership skills where necessary' (Lowden *et al*, 2011). A report conducted by The Gallup Organisation for the European Commission in 2010 reported that 'when asked to name the two most important challenges they faced in filling vacancies, almost half of graduate recruiters mentioned a shortage of applicants with the right skills and capabilities' (The Gallup Organisation, 2010), with research done on employers of recent graduates, for the UK's Edge Foundation, finding that 'employers expect graduates to have technical and discipline competences from their degrees but require graduates also to demonstrate a range of broader skills and attributes that include team-working, communication, leadership, critical thinking, problem solving and managerial abilities' (Lowden *et al*, 2011). So, Lowden *et al* ask, is higher education addressing employers' needs? Some of the employers interviewed for their 2011 study also stressed how many graduates appeared to lack the 'skill and motivation to impress' at the initial interview stage.

Employers recruiting recent graduates arguably have the pick of good pool of candidates, but with graduates taking roles that they feel (or are) over-qualified for, human resources experts are lent on to manage the structure of these employees in order to well place them and keep positions satisfying and relevant.

For employers, the review raises concerns about the employment of graduates to fill jobs previously held by non-graduates; despite the appeal to being able to employ better educated staff, there is a risk in recruiting individuals whose education gives them certain career expectations into jobs with no discernible career prospects. Within this context, there are potential consequences for performance of individuals, levels of satisfaction, commitment and overall engagement. Given that increasing numbers of graduates are finding themselves in these positions, HR professionals need to seriously consider this group, in particular the management of their expectations. (Scurry and Blenkinsopp, 2011: 654).

THE LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYED AND LOW-SKILLS WORKERS

In a UK welfare review undertaken before the global financial crisis, it was noted:

Greater global economic integration and unprecedented demographic change present both challenges and opportunities. The pace of change in the global economy will put pressure on existing jobs. Parts of the economy are likely to be exposed to international competition to an extent that they have not been before, and the evidence suggests that this exposure will tend to further disadvantage the lowest skilled. (Freud, 2007: 5).

The 'working poor' is a recurrent phrase in recent literature, reflecting the growth of people working on the breadline, skipping between temporary work and benefits in order to 'put food on the table' (Roberts, 2012; Saunders, 2006), or simply relying on benefits that pay more and provide increased support and terms of health care, sick pay and child care than the low-skilled jobs available. Matching this, recent Eurostat figures show that 20% of part-time workers in Europe said they were available to work more in 2011 (Eurostat, 2012) – an increase in 'underemployment' compared to previous years.

Across the globe social, economic, and labor market trends have 'transformed employment and the conditions of low-wage, lower-skilled jobs in particular' (Haley-Lock and Ford Shah, 2007), increasing long-term unemployment and underemployment. In the US, those who have been out of work for more than 27 weeks, added to those who have simply given up looking for work, has reached 6.6 million in 2012, and research shows that as these groups stay out of work longer, their opportunities for long-term professional security decrease with lack of experience, training, and length of time off the market making them increasingly unattractive to employers (Chen, Dwoskin and Weise, 2012), and forcing a vicious cycle of experience and skills loss which makes them 'unemployable', dropping out of the workforce (Owen, 2011). This is an easy vicious circle to fall into – unemployment labels you as a 'hard-sell', which in itself leads to longer unemployment, and the *sell* becomes increasingly challenging. Rampbell (2011) suggests that discrimination against the long-term unemployed clearly, with many companies openly advertising that they will only consider people currently or recently employed, but that 'legal experts say that the practice probably does not violate discrimination laws because unemployment is not a protected status, like age or race'.

A survey on the long-term unemployed published by *The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation* (2011: 5) confirms this knock-on effect as well as the mental and physical health effects connected, noting that 'most have a pessimistic outlook on their job future' and also that 'many of those who have been grappling with joblessness for a long time report negative impacts on their mental and physical health', and suffer from the social exclusion brought on by unemployment (Blyton and Jenkins, 2012). Machin and Manning (1999: 1) found that in Europe 'Long-term unemployment is felt to have disastrous effects on the individuals who suffer it both in terms of their labour market opportunities and their more general physical and mental well-being.' Kalleberg (2009: 1) similarly notes that 'work is a core activity in society. It is central to individual identity, links individuals to each other, and locates people within the stratification system.'

Skills-training is an important player here, with some suggesting that it is more the lack of (updated) skills that prevents the acquisition of a position, than lack of prior work experience, therefore confirming the link between low-skills and the long-term unemployed. In a study of the long-term unemployed in Edinburgh by Hollywood et al (2000: 5) interviewees were 'far more likely to emphasise their skills shortages than their lack of recent work experience'. Indeed, it is regularly noted that long-term unemployment leads to demotivation and eventually difficulty in being able to consider any kind of job search, being unsure as to *how* to job search in the current market and environment, and feeling even more unskilled out of the workforce (Cockcroft, 2006; Rampbell, 2011). In a fast changing world, the view that the long-term unemployed are purely low-skilled and de-motivated citizens is out of date though, argues Brady (2010). During such a large economic recession, managerial positions are severely shaved down, resulting in an increase in long-term unemployed highly qualified candidates who find it difficult to consider other roles than those they were forced out of. But, Brady argues, this has a positive side – employers should take advantage and see the high quality of potential workers out there, knowing that someone's potential being challenged if they have been out of work for a long period is no longer necessarily relevant. Brady (2010) goes on to suggest that it could be possible for the long-term unemployed to remain serious candidates if had easy access to skills training and job search support.

As job shortages increase, so does competition for available positions, and for those with low skills the chances of finding secure and satisfying permanent positions decrease (Heley and Leckie, 2011). With governments straining under the costs of a heavily lent-on benefits system, programmes to aid and prevent this continuous increase of un- and underemployment are put in place. One such incentive in the UK, for example, *The Work Programme (WP)* (Department for Work and Pensions, 2011) aims at reinsertion of the unemployed by using a *payment by results* scheme with employers who hire them. But Smedley (2011) questions whether a programme such as the *WP* will really be able to succeed where so many other programmes have failed: 'Getting long-term unemployed people off benefits and into work has been an endemic problem for decades'.

The group – also referred to as 'the core jobless' – is wide, and includes the long-term unemployed, the mentally ill, ex-offenders, parents who have been out of work while raising a family, and older people. All have one thing in common: the difficulty they face convincing an employer to take them on. (Cockcroft, 2006).

Whilst members of this group by definition share the characteristic of 'low skills', it is quite heterogeneous in terms of age and experience. The problems facing people who have not yet entered the labour market and are in the 'NEET' (not in employment, education or training) category are different from older workers who have substantial work experience but whose skills and qualifications offer few opportunities for re-employment when they are made redundant. In the current context of high levels of youth unemployment, much attention has been focussed on this first group. In a recent study undertaken by the European Restructuring Monitor network across 28 countries, it was found that most have adopted policy measures addressing various NEET sub-groups in order to provide more

tailored and personalised support because of the diversity of the NEET population (Eurofound, 2012). The main issue is that labour market exclusion carries the risk of social exclusion:

Young people have been hit hard by the recession and their transition from education to work has become very difficult. This disengagement from the labour market may have lasting effects. It is certainly resulting in a growing core of disaffected youth who are distanced to such an extent from the labour market and from society itself that they need considerable support to re-engage. (Eurofound, 2012: 2).

The Employers' View

Challenges facing employers considering this candidate pool include lower levels of education, work experience and vocational skills, leading to many employers looking elsewhere to recruit if possible. Reflecting the importance of training, Overman (1999) finds that 'businesses seldom have the time, resources and know-how to teach these basic rules of work'. With employers adhering to budget cuts, and shying away from risk, potential employees need to fight for each position and having gaps in a CV doesn't put someone at the top of an employer's interview list (Cockcroft, 2006; Hirsh, 2011). For employers, the reasons why a candidate has been long-term unemployed also raises questions.

There are legitimate reasons that many long-term unemployed workers may not be desirable job candidates. In some cases they may have been let go early in the recession, not just because business had slowed, but because they were incompetent. (Rampbell, 2011).

Reporting on a round-table meeting organized by the UK's *Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD)*, Syedain (2008: 22) states that employers present 'also concluded that many people lacked basic qualities for employability such as punctuality, reliability and the ability to communicate effectively', but it was also argued at the same meeting that employers were at risk of pinning too much on qualifications and thus excluding potential employees who may not have the qualifications, but were still capable of doing the jobs. In order to help this negative cycle, employers welcome support, especially from providers (including HR professionals, training centres and job centres) who offer a 'go-between' support service to both employers and employees, stressing the importance of 'employability' training (Smedley, 2011). 'Many employers really welcomed the concept of personalized tailored support that equips school-leavers and unemployed people with skills and job readiness' (*Gerwyn Davis, CIPD public policy adviser, 2008*).

PRECARIOUS WORK

Reflecting views mentioned in the above section, and as with many forms of underemployment, part-time, short-term or temporary contracts can be attractive to some workers, providing, for example, the flexibility often needed by young mothers, older workers and those seeking more autonomy in terms of work-life balance. But for others, for whom it is not by choice and do not receive the same rights as permanent employees, being forced to consider part-time and/or temporary work can be a negative and difficult experience. Research into factory workers recently made redundant, or forced from full-time to part-time employment, conducted by Blyton and Jenkins (2012) confirms that for many this is an undesirable consequence: 'The lower earnings that the part-time jobs generated and the variability and

unpredictability of many working patterns detracted from, rather than contributed to, the quality of workers' non-work lives.'

It has been argued whether flexibility, with appropriate safeguards for employment security (*flexicurity*) can contribute to combatting unemployment whilst giving workers a good enough level of security (Cedefop, 2010; Evans and Gibb, 2009; Letourneux, 1998). Tros and Wilthagen (2004: 169) describe *flexicurity* as:

A policy strategy that attempts, synchronically and in a deliberate way, to enhance the flexibility of labour markets, work organisation and labour relations on the one hand, and to enhance security – employment security and social security – notably for weaker groups in and outside the labour market, on the other hand.

A decade before the global financial crisis, this European study confirmed a link between precarious employment and poor working conditions but the results for part-time work depend upon the nature of the contracts involved: 'part-time work is primarily *chosen* by people on stable contracts and is primarily *imposed* on people whose employment status is precarious' (Letourneux, 1998; *emphasis added*).

Much research has debated the balance of temporary and part-time work being a stepping stone to more permanent and secure employment – especially for the LTU and underemployed – against its precariousness (O'Reilly *et al*, 2009; Månsson and Ottosson, 2011). In France, where the labour market is highly regulated, it has been long recognised that precarious jobs can be both 'a *preliminary to recruitment* at the same time as *prelude to unemployment*' (Maruani and Reynaud, 1993), and seasonal work has become increasingly used as a means to keep one's head above water financially than simple work experience (Rousseau, 2011).

Temporary contracts are often regarded as an important component of labour market flexibility. Temporary workers can be laid off without incurring statutory redundancy payments or restrictions imposed by employment rights legislation. This may explain the dramatic growth in temporary jobs in France, Italy and Spain, countries characterized by high levels of employment protection. (Booth, Francesconi and Frank, 2002: 189).

Across Europe and beyond, labour market deregulation, altered business practices, and employers seeking increased flexibility along with decreased risk and costs, has resulted in important changes in human resources management, an increase in temporary and part-time posts against a decrease of permanent, full-time posts (Haley-Lock and Shah, 2007; Kalleberg, 2009), a lack of clarity and loss of rights, exclusion from company-sponsored skills training, all of which undermine the meaning of job security, and shifts the risks onto the employees (Barbier, Brygoo and Viguier, 2002; Connell and Burgess, 2006; Eurofound, 2002; Evans and Gibb, 2009; ILO, 2011; Kalleberg, 2009; Kautone, Palmroos and Vainio, 2009; Keune, 2011; OECD, 2002; Tompa *et al*, 2007).

Due to some legal, technical differentiation between a contract for services and direct employment, most UK agencies are able to configure the employment relationship in order to prevent the employment of workers giving rise to an employment relationship in law. As a consequence of this legal definition, temporary workers may be excluded from such rights as those concerning statutory notice, unfair dismissal, redundancy, or return to work after maternity leave. (Evans and Gibb, 2009: 28).

Levels of training paid for or provided by the employer appear to be particularly low for employees holding a temporary contract and those having no contract. Given the limited duration and higher turnover of non-standard workers, employers appear to have fewer incentives to invest in training. (Riso, 2010: 6).

Like many OECD countries with labour market regulation (Evans and Gibb, 2009), strong French labour laws put in place to protect the employee are now scaring employers into abusing short-term contracts (Barbier, Brygood and Viguier, 2002; ILO, 2011; Sheen, 2012), ironically increasing the *précarité de l'emploi*. 'The attempts of firms to achieve more employment flexibility – facilitated by government intervention to deregulate the labour market – has contributed to the growth of precarious jobs such as, fixed-term, (certain types of) part-time jobs and self-employment' (Kim and Kurz, 2001: 1).

One of the most important trends over the past decades is undeniably the growth of insecurity in the world of work. Worldwide, unimaginable numbers of workers suffer from precarious, insecure, uncertain, and unpredictable working conditions. Unemployment figures alone are cause for concern, but even these fail to capture the larger majority of people who work, but who do not have a decent job, with a decent wage, a secure future, social protection, and access to rights. The universality and dimension of the problem call for coordinated and comprehensive action at the international level. (ILO, 2011)

Evidence on the effect of less permanent forms of employment and worker health is ambiguous, but many studies have demonstrated a strong association between employment insecurity and negative health outcomes. Lewchuk, Clarke and de Wolff (2008) developed the concept of 'employment strain' and identified key characteristics of the employment relationship associated with negative health outcomes, such as high employment relationship uncertainty associated with high employment relationship effort. Le Deist and Winterton (2012) note that 'workers with such atypical (which have become all too typical) contracts are more vulnerable than permanent, full-time employees, and, despite undertaking dangerous tasks in poorer working conditions they rarely receive the same level of occupational health and safety training'. What is clear is that precarious work can lead to other important forms of global insecurity in the lives of employees, affecting individuals' lives and society as a whole (Evans and Gibb, 2009; Kalleberg, 2009; Letourneux, 1998; Quinlan, Mayhew and Bohle, 2001; Quinlan and Sokas, 2009; Tompa *et al*, 2007).

Work is a key ingredient of social recognition, self-esteem, personal identity and participation in society. It is central to individual identity, links individuals to each other and helps to locate people within the system of social structures. Precarious work creates insecurity and leads to increases in inequality and poverty. Uncertainty about the future of employment and earnings affects a range of family decisions from whether to start a family, enrol in higher education, or attend training courses. In short, precarious work adversely affects society as a whole. (Evans and Gibb, 2009: 4).

Precarious work has far-reaching consequences that cut across many areas of concern to sociologists. Creating insecurity for many people, it has pervasive consequences not only for the nature of work, workplaces, and people's work experiences, but also for many non-work individual (e.g. stress, education), social (e.g. family, community), and political (e.g. stability, democratization) outcomes. (Kalleberg, 2009: 2).

Across Europe, women are more heavily represented in temporary, part-time and precarious work than men (ILO, 2011; Eurostat, 2012; Evans and Gibb, 2009). Traditionally this has most probably always been the case, with stay-at-home mothers taking long-term breaks from the workforce, and young

mothers returning to work taking lower-skilled and/or part-time roles in order to find a work/life balance. How precarious employment affects workers also depends on the country. French workers have a higher level of benefits and support if unemployed, compared to the US, where workers are arguably in a worse position than workers in other countries due to the employer-based system of unemployment benefits, insurance and other forms of social protection. The UK provides a complicated but at least 'minimal' benefits-system to most workers (whether temporary or not), but globally temporary workers can suffer from the lack of clarity when it comes to the contract between 'employer' and 'employee' (Evans and Gibb, 2009) and regulation of contracts is largely left to the employer (Connell and Burgess, 2006; Letourneaux, 1998). Kim and Kurz (2001: 1) note that the increase in precarious employment 'has been true in particular for the United Kingdom' and that 'employees in Western European countries increasingly face the risk of precarious employment relationships'.

A fear is that in the 'scramble for work everywhere' (Rousseau, 2011), an increasingly deregulated labour market, and pressure from employers leads to those more vulnerable being forced to accept short-term and possibly precarious contracts, or move into self-employment (Kautonen, Palmroos and Vainio, 2009; Kim and Kurz, 2001; Thornley, Jeffreys and Appay, 2010), and Europe in particular has witnessed the 'gradual decline of full-time open-ended contracts which were once the employment norm' (Givord, 2005). Since the global financial crisis, in particular, there is evidence of more precarious contracts and a general increase in precarious work (Riso, 2010). The Trade Union Advisory Committee to the OECD goes so far as to say that 'it is increasingly clear that one of the most challenging and threatening features of the new global economy has been the rise of precarious employment' (Evans and Gibb, 2009). Standing (2009) argues that such increasing precarity of work is creating a new social structure, an underclass that he has labelled the 'Precariat' (Standing, 2011).

There are three 'varieties' of precariat, all detached from old political democracy and unable to relate to twentieth-century industrial democracy or economic democracy. The first variety consists of those drifting from working-class backgrounds into precariousness, the second consists of those emerging from a schooling system over-credentialised for the flexi-job life on offer, and the third are migrants and others, such as the criminalised, in a status denying them the full rights of citizens. Each has a distinctive view on life and society. (Standing, 2012).

Vulnerable workers are often in labour-intensive work, where the pressure to increase hours and otherwise intensify work is significant. The ability to resist is correspondingly lower during periods of rising unemployment. They may not have any financial reserves or resources to withstand even short periods of joblessness, thereby reducing their bargaining power in the labour market. (Rogers, Anderson and Clark, 2009: 53).

The negative effect of precarious work on individuals' lives, and society as a whole, is a subject that researchers are beginning to debate.

Work is intimately related to other social, economic, and political issues, and so the growth of precarious work and insecurity has wide-spread effects on both work-related and non-work phenomena. Precarious work has contributed to greater economic inequality, insecurity, and instability. (Kalleberg, 2009: 8).

The Employers' View

The advantages to employers of short-term/temporary contracts include a workforce which adjusts with demand, cost-cutting through fewer charges per employee (social charges, paid holidays, health coverage etc), the ability to evade statutory obligations, decreased human resources risks – and if a temporary employee is hired through an agency, the risks are shifted away from the employer completely. In an economic crisis, with labour de-regulation and changing employment laws over the last 2 decades, human resources management has adjusted considerably in order to keep business competitive and risk-free (Barbier, Brygood and Viguier, 2002; Cochard, 2012; Evans and Gibb, 2009; OECD, 2002; Portugal and Varejão, 2003).

In order to adapt to the permanent readjustments required by a highly competitive market, business strategies have tried to make their workforce more flexible, whether by outsourcing their production or internally, by hiring more and more workers on a temporary basis. (Barbier, Brygood and Viguier, 2002: 85).

In countries where strict laws protecting employees exist, temporary contracts are ironically being used by risk-conscious employers, who see them as a safety net (Barbier, Brygood and Viguier, 2002; OECD, 2002) and the possibility to 'churning' worker turnover (Portugal and Varejão, 2003), meaning less hazardous management issues enabling employers the control they need (Standing, 2008), with some apparently going to the extent of 'circumventing regulations or finding loopholes in regulations to increase the profitability of their business at the expense of their employees' (ILO, 2011). Apart from the above cost- and risk-reduction aspects, having a largely temporary workforce can mean other management issues are less hazardous.

Bearing in mind that temporary workers also tend to be absent less often than other groups of employees and are less integrated into the life of the enterprise, the conclusion has to be that temporary employment provides an ideal tool for problem-free management of employment and labour flexibility. (Letourneux, 1998: 59).

But this situation can also cause long-term problems for employers, faced with a growing temporary workforce with less loyalty and commitment (Standing, 2008; Supiot, 1999; Taran, 2009).

LOOKING FORWARD: IDENTIFIED NEEDS OF VULNERABLE GROUPS

What is being proposed to meet the needs of, and combat the problems faced by, older and vulnerable workers?

OLDER WORKERS

A 'meet in the middle' approach is proposed in the much of the literature, demanding more **flexibility**, **training** and **anti-ageism reform**.

Flexibility is urged: from workers in considering positions and role changes, or 'bridge jobs' (OECD, 2006), including mentorship, consulting or teaching; and from employers in offering more flexible contracts to older workers to give them the liberty needed lifestyle benefits hoped for and deserved after along professional career, whilst supporting their job security (OECD, 2006; Foden and Jepsen, 2002; Lissenburgh and Smeaton, 2003; MacGregor and Gray, 2003; McIntosh, 2001; Pillay, Kelly and Tones, 2010).

A holistic approach is called for, in order to encourage all the various dimensions that contribute to effective age management. All agree that age management cannot be left solely to employers or to public policies. It is the responsibility of all actors on the labour market, i.e. policy-makers, employers, trade unions and older workers themselves. (Foden and Jepsen, 2002: 455).

Access to relevant training in order to update qualifications and skills is also seen as an important area for progress, in order to provide more flexibility and security to this group when changing their professional career or looking for employment (Canduela *et al*, 2012). Training, re-training and skills updating is an important factor for older workers – for the employed to keep competences updated, and for the unemployed to stay competitive in the job market. McIntosh (2001: 2) not only calls on society to 'change our strategies and practices in the 3 R's: *Recruitment, Retention and Retraining*' but also notes that 'Training and retraining are directly linked to retaining older workers and productivity'. What is important, it seems, is to make sure that any training – whether it be employers or intermediary agencies – is done on a more personal/individual basis, and particularly geared towards and relevant to older workers and their specific needs, moving away from the 'one size fits all' approach (Loukanova, 2012; McIntosh, 2001; Pillay, Kelly and Tones, 2009;).

Identifying appropriate governmental and human resource policies and practices to retain these workers and sustain their competence is becoming increasingly necessary to maintain these countries' social provisions and economic performance, including securing enterprise profitability and individual employability. (Billet *et al*, 2011: 1).

In order to combat ageism in companies, it is suggested that policies should be holistic in their approach, so to change the negative view of ageing in the workplace, and increase the willingness of employers to hire and/or retain older workers (Billet *et al*, 2011; Foden and Jepsen, 2002; McIntosh, 2001; OECD, 2006), and to promote career path changes for older workers within the company. 'By facilitating the breakdown of such profiles and encouraging job mobility within the organization, experienced workers

may be retained rather than retired on disability pensions, or due to skill shortages' (Pillay, Kelly and Tones, 2009). Companies should not be so fearful of the costs, says Capelli (2009): 'While one might assume that older workers cost more, in truth any premiums that older workers receive are related to experience – which affects performance.' Employers cannot shoulder all the responsibility, however, and governments are called upon to offer more support in funding, advice and pension reform in order for companies to restructure policies and working conditions and therefore retain older workers for longer (Foden and Jepsen, 2002; Lafoucriere, 2001).

These valuable measures must be accompanied by further public employment programmes, for both employed and unemployed old workers, such as job-creation schemes, personal guidance initiatives, anti-age discrimination policies and/or campaigns alongside strong integration and targeted subsidies, crucially involving all actors. (Lafoucriere, 2001: 3).

'The most important prerequisite is to improve their employability and mobility in the course of the projected economic restructuring and innovation. Continuous training and lifelong learning have a major role in this.' (Loukanova, 2012)

MIGRANT AND RETURNING WORKERS, AND ETHNIC MINORITIES

The call for **increased integration, protection** and improved **job-skills matching** is clear in recent literature with respect to the employment of migrant workers in developed countries.

The main problems faced by migrant workers seem to revolve around language barriers and misunderstandings (especially concerning employment rights), with more support called on from employment agencies and other intermediaries to combat this. In order to improve skills-matches and to give migrant workers the best possible chance of obtaining a position that suits their experience and qualifications, progress in the vetting-process of employers is seen as a necessary move forward. This not only helps workers have their qualifications and experience recognized and used, but would also help employers to better utilize these for human resources and structural purposes.

It is widely recognized that the vulnerability of migrant workers can lead to difficulties (and in the worst case scenario, abuse of their rights) by some employers, as well as challenges for employers themselves.

In a report for the ILO, Taran (2009: 13) suggested the following responses to the question of managing the employment and protection of migrant workers:

1. Avoiding any forced expulsions or returns of migrant workers, and maintaining intakes for agriculture and other sectors where labour and skills remain necessary and will be required for recovery
2. Increasing capacity and extending labour inspection, particularly to sectors and workplaces where migrant workers may be concentrated, to ensure decent treatment in the face of pressures to cut pay and increase exploitation –and thus prevent unfair competition with national workers.
3. Strengthening anti-discrimination measures and discourse
4. Explicitly repressing racist violence and xenophobia against foreigners, and prosecuting perpetrators of violent acts

5. Discouraging *scapegoating* of migrants
6. Expanding international support for employment intensive recovery measures, employment creation and extension of social protection measures to affected populations as well as returning migrants in home countries.

EX-OFFENDERS

The literature reviewed for this target group reinforces the importance of an intensive pre- and post-release network of support: **training, personal development** and **job search assistance**, as well as the need for more **partnerships and education for employers** to lower their perceptions or risk levels (Williams, 2007; Wodahl, 2006), to provide ex-offenders with the best possible long-term opportunities and professional reintegration and escape from the vicious cycle of recidivism (Lafoucriere and Winterton, 2001).

When labor markets are tight, the right combinations of incentives and interventions can make large differences in the employment outcomes of low-income adults. Given the magnitudes of the barriers faced by ex-offenders in the labor market and the social costs of not addressing them, a strong case can be made for a major new effort on behalf of these individuals. (Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003: 19).

The importance of bringing all parties together to work towards progress is also stressed by Brown (2011: 339) who notes that 'the vocational and social adjustment of ex-offenders will require that professional career practitioners both consider and strengthen multiagency partnerships that support ex-offenders in their transition into society. An additional area of activism includes a community-wide promotion of ex-offender reintegration.'

Employment advice and guidance *pre-release* is an extremely important factor, and job placement and training prior to release the top objective (Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003; Donat Decisier, 2006). Some ex-offenders may have little relevant experience on the job market, and many in this group need additional job search assistance and advice regarding CV writing, interview techniques, guidance on professional life (routines, expectations, body language), confidence building, and how to 'sell' themselves to potential employers and human resources decision-makers, who may have a negative view on a candidate with a criminal record (Krell, 2012). Temporary and/or part-time positions pre-release are seen (in literature and interviews conducted) to provide the best pre-release support to an offender: 'Transitional work experience (for 3-6 months) should not only provide some general work-readiness skills but also signal to employers their ability to hold a job and meet basic standards of responsibility' (Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003).

There can be no social or professional rehabilitation for offenders without action on the general conditions of detention, without adequate supervision and quality, without access to education and training, without access to work and the rights relating thereto, without real preparation and post-sentence support devices for those people who need it. (Donat Decisier, 2006: II-211) [translated from French].

Intermediary agencies are already working considerably to put ex-offenders into the job market, but cooperation between actors must be improved in some cases (Châles-Courtine, 2010), and Brown (2011: 340) says, 'Preparation of ex-offenders should begin with pre-release planning that incorporates all elements of reintegration, with particular attention to housing, employment, and social network support. Job skills and job placement are critical factors to a successful transition back to society'. Employment agencies with experience working with ex-offenders, and who understand their challenges as well as those of potential employers play a crucial role – one that should be increased and receive more funding and support (Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003).

Taking the necessary steps to limit risks and ensure a good candidate selection from this group can take time, work and money for employers (Krell, 2012), hence the need for inter-agency support and partnership (Nacro, 2012) and increased government and agency-supported incentives for employers who recruit from this candidate pool (Brown, 2011; Holzer, Raphael and Stoll, 2003). Pre-release preparation on the part of corrections departments is seen as part of the call for inter-agency partnership, not only in order to better prepare an ex-offender, but also a potential employer.

Corrections departments currently evaluate ex-offender risk for communities and have access to information far superior to that provided to employers in background checks. Thus...employers should be encouraged to rely on assessments by corrections officers of any workplace risk an ex-offender applicant might pose. This...goes further to suggest that corrections departments should have an even larger role to play in ex-offender employment: one based less on the sort of fear, discrimination, and avoidance of liability that drives our current system of risk evaluation by employers, and more on a commitment to re-entry success through accurate information and community partnerships. (Williams, 2007: 521).

Employers need to be informed of potential challenges faced by an ex-criminal, in order to appreciate the difficulties they may be facing outside of work (accommodation, transportation, reintegration), in order to make a fair judgment, and to be able to assist them within their limits (Brown, 2011; Krell, 2012). Therefore, once again, the importance in inter-linking work and communication between ex-offenders, recruitment professionals, intermediary agencies, pre-release support and the employers is confirmed. 'With support, ex-offenders are capable of re-integration and vocational scholars and practitioners can help to inform the community that successful reintegration saves money and also improves the quality of life within the community' (Brown, 2011: 339).

HIGH-SKILLED, SPECIALISED WORKERS

The London Skills and Employment Board (2010: 5) recommend the following steps in support of the high-skilled unemployed:

- Work with partners and influence policy makers to provide targeted and affordable re-training courses
- Work with partners and agencies to clarify and improve the information concerning training courses, careers services and professional networks for this group

- Provide internship opportunities to keep skills updated, provide opportunities to enter into different companies, and to prevent CV gaps
- Gain future insight into the needs, successes and challenges, or high-skilled unemployed professionals

WORKERS SUFFERING FROM LONG-TERM ILLNESS, AND THE HANDICAPPED

As the literature reviewed has shown, the long-term illness of an employee brings a myriad of challenges both to the individual and the employer. The need for ***recognition of their needs and flexibility (from employers), vocational training and rehabilitation (for employees), responsibility by all and support for all*** is paramount.

As with other groups, flexibility plays an important role in the professional reinsertion of those who may be living with a handicap, or suffering (or rehabilitating) from a long-term illness. Flexibility is needed from the employer to allow the employee the ability to work around their health limits, whether being physical, emotional, mental or logistical. For employers, support is needed in order to juggle workload demands and human resources management challenges which may come from long-term sick-leave or the regular absences and limits of an employee.

Supporting employment for those with long-term ill health requires recognitions of the need for flexibility that such conditions impose. Balancing these needs with employers' (particularly small employers') requirements for a reliable workforce requires strategic intervention to encourage and enable employers to recruit and retain such workers. Retention in existing work will be crucial for some, but will only be sustainable where adequate allowance is made for the individual's changed needs and capabilities. For others, a period outside employment may be more appropriate to allow time for mental adjustment and recovery, though this is likely to require professional support for an eventual successful return to work. (Salway *et al*, 2007: 4).

Sparrow (2005) discusses the question of responsibility, noting that this is much easier for managers in smaller companies who will know their employees better and be 'in a position to implement changes quickly'. Across most (developed) countries, it is the employer's responsibility to analyse the employee's needs, and Selander and Marnetoft (2005) propose that 'for optimal results, rehabilitation should be carried through in close contact with the employer, industrial health until and workplace'. The Swedish case study by Selander and Marnetoft (2005) proves the importance of *client empowerment*, the employee taking responsibility and drawing strength from this – additionally proving the importance of analyzing human behavior in reaction to illness, as agreed by Sparrow (2005) when discussing the role of OH experts.

For those who are recovering from long-term illness and/or treatment, how their reintegration into the workplace or job market is dealt with is paramount to their future long-term employment, and therefore vocational rehabilitation plays an important role. There is extensive evidence from Sweden of the importance of adequate vocational training provision for assuring the labour market re-integration

of workers suffering from long-term illness (Kärrholm *et al*, 2006; Selander and Marnetoft, 1999; Selander *et al*, 1998). For vocational rehabilitation, the roles of occupational health experts, human resources professionals (including employment agencies with an understanding of the clients' needs) and legal experts are increasingly important, as is the need for them to work together – especially in order to make sure that both employers and employees feel supported and protected (Leckie, 2011), and to decrease the fear and vulnerability apparent for both parties involved (Paton, 2011). Connecting human behavioral patterns concerning the employee and employer, vocational rehabilitation and responsibility, Selander and Marnetoft (2005: 298) urge that, when dealing with an employee suffering or recovering from a long-term illness, the following points and actions are considered:

- Focus on the client's strengths rather than pathology
- The case manager-client relationship is primary and essential
- Interventions are based on client self-determination
- The community is viewed as an oasis of resources, not as an obstacle
- Aggressive outreach is the preferred mode of intervention

WOMEN VICTIMS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

With these factors in mind, this group has multiple support needs in order to enable them to regain and retain employment. **Flexibility, training, and government and agency support** – these are all needed, and across most developed countries they all exist in some way or form – but the importance is that these needs must be treated together and not as a 'one size fits all' package.

Much like employees suffering from long-term illness, domestic violence can lead to a list of problems making employment difficult – long periods out of work, low levels of training and education, low work experience and negative track records with past employers. Flexibility and understanding from employers (those who are aware of their employee's situation) play an important role in retaining an employee who is suffering from domestic violence. But employers need a reliable, professional and productive workforce. This is where government agencies and support, as well as support from specific associations for domestic violence are relied on.

As noted in the literature reviewed, women in these circumstances depend on employment – or welfare system benefits – to provide the economic support needed to leave an abusive partner. Therefore, being able to stay in employment, or being able to rely on benefits, is paramount to their future independence and, one could argue, their ability to become a long-term, reliable and productive member of the workforce. With most systems requiring that recipients work to receive benefits (Riger and Staggs, 2004), one could conclude that special cases such as these need to be given more flexibility by the state. Many women escaping from abusive relationships become the sole carer for their children, and this can lead to further challenges which need financial and childcare support and guidance, itself preventing employment until all aspects are addressed – childcare, accommodation, transport and education among them. For example, childcare concerns need to be addressed before a single parent is able to take up employment and the bureaucracy involved, especially with mothers on low-income

and/or benefits, can put potential employment at risk, with Coulter (2004) noting that in her study 'women were frustrated that recertification requirements regarding childcare often forced them to miss work, possibly placing their jobs at risk'.

Many women in this situation have experienced regular periods of unemployment leading to low-skills positions and little training. Vocational training could mean a light at the end of the tunnel for sufferers attempting to gain their independence by professional reinsertion. In her study on the impact of domestic violence on employment, Coulter (2004: 6) found that 'employment success was more likely if the respondent had some technical training or skill'.

Given these complexities, education and training programs directed to women – especially low-income women – will need to respond in nuanced ways to women's needs. Due to the violence in their lives, some recipients may find it especially difficult to meet work and other requirements. For safety's sake, some may need exemptions from labor force participation or paternity establishment requirements. To the extent that some low-income women have used public assistance funds to avoid or exit abusive relations, it may be important to consider ways of preserving this option for women at risk of violence. (Lloyd, 1997: 162).

Some literature speaks of possible 'employment insurance' benefits for this group – in order to offer financial support for those forced to leave employment, until they are able to regain a position (NELP, 2003). 'To the extent that some low-income women have used public assistance funds to avoid or exit abusive relationships, it may be important to consider ways of preserving this option for women at risk of violence,' Lloyd (1997: 162). Advice regarding social and employment benefits that sufferers are unsure of and uncomfortable asking for (Goldsmith, 2012), and advice on professional reinsertion is seen as imperative.

Support for employers themselves is important, in order to know how to act when faced with a worker suffering from domestic violence (Lloyd, 1997; Swanberg and Logan, 2005).

Financial security is recognized as a major factor in the sufferer's ability to escape her situation and become independent (Lloyd, 1997; Smith and Orchiston, 2011; Tolman and Wang, 2005), and therefore having dependable employment is paramount. Without all these factors addressed together, it appears, sufferers of domestic violence find it extremely difficult to escape the vicious cycle of suffering and regain their independent lives.

THE HOMELESS

The reason why an individual becomes homeless in the first place and the multiple deprivation involved is the most urgent need to address, in a comprehensive and bespoke way. Homeless youth are a particularly worrying group that needs urgent support in order to re-enter society and address their professional future (European Research Area, 2011; Lenz-Rashid, 2005). As with victims of domestic violence, we are looking at a collection of 'crisis-care' needs involving accommodation, education, mental health care, and practical and vocational training. Business in the Community (2011) advises that

‘practical training and activities such as business-led workshops will raise aspirations and inspire people to take the next steps towards employment’. This vulnerable group needs to be helped quickly and intensely in order to get their feet back on ground, and aid their reintegration into the workforce.

(The homeless) who cannot return to their families or guardians, or have no family to turn to, may need crisis care, shelter, educational and employment support, and transitional living in order to be given the opportunity to make changes in their lives. (Lenz-Rashid, 2005: 256).

Tailored education and training, support from local businesses working in continuous partnership with homeless organisations, and support to address personal difficulties as a result of social exclusion, are crucial. Many who are homeless have struggled from a young age and their education has been severely affected (European Research Area, 2011; NCH, 2009; Shinn, Knickman and Weitzman, 1991).

To support young homeless people and to prevent youth homelessness, it is necessary to promote the autonomy of young people at risk...by investing in their education, assisting them in schools and other (informal) learning environments, and providing them with effective partnerships with key workers and role models. (European Research Area, 2011: 1).

‘Climbing out of homelessness is virtually impossible for those without a job’ (NCH, 2009), and for those with limited skills and qualifications, even more so. Literature focuses on the importance of enabling the homeless to feel that there is ‘light at the end of the tunnel’ (European Research Area, 2011), through constant support in the forms of housing, education/skills training and employment. It is universally recognized that a combination of issues lead to a person becoming homeless and that these need to be addressed together. It seems that although there is a number of programmes in place across developed countries, more are needed that take a holistic view of the circumstances that can lead to homelessness – mental/physical disabilities, past prison sentences, long-term unemployment and the linked lack of financial security, parental and/or domestic abuse, drug dependence issues, social skills problems, lack of education and more.

For the homeless, a need is not simply for employment, but of a job providing a living wage so that being able to cover the costs of living and housing is more attainable for the long-term – ‘Ending homelessness will require closing the gap between incomes and housing costs. In such an equation, jobs that pay a living wage are critical’ (NCH, 2009).

Agencies working with (the homeless) must be adequately resourced in order to provide education and training support as well as accommodation. The business community has an important role through offering mentoring and training opportunities. (European Policy Brief, 2011: 1).

Specifically for the homeless ‘youth’, training and educational support is paramount in ensuring their future.

The three most common aspects of successful job training programs are an atmosphere of support, mental health services, and the teaching of market-demanded, liveable-wage jobs. If these three components are applied to new job training initiatives, homeless youth may be given a chance to succeed in the workforce and in turn, be able to maintain a permanent residence. (Little, 2010).

YOUTH, RECENT GRADUATES

In such a challenging labour market, young candidates stepping into it for the first time are being met with a multitude of challenges – and therefore need to be as **prepared** and **relevantly qualified** as possible for each position.

Much literature concerning youth unemployment and the underemployment of recent graduates targets on employers' views that increasing numbers of candidates are unskilled for the workplace, and therefore the need for better targeted training in order to better form younger workers, increasing their **employability**. More work experience, vocational training, job search/interview skills and other career services, as well as communication and other skills relevant to individual posts are called for. 'Any young person's programme of study, whether 'academic' or 'vocational', should provide for labour market and educational progress on a wide front, whether immediately or later in life' (Wolf, 2011).

Although recruiters would prefer candidates with relevant work experience, for younger candidates this is obviously a challenge, therefore heightening the importance of it as part of their studies and/or training – something which many employers feel is not given enough attention by training or HEI institutions: 'Perhaps above all, the literature and our own findings have overwhelmingly highlighted that employers, students, graduates and HEI representatives value work-based learning (such as placements and internships) as particularly effective approaches to promote the employability of graduates' (Lowden *et al*, 2011).

Employers continue to value and reward employment experience and not just formal credentials. Good apprenticeships are valuable as much for the general skills they teach as for the specific ones; and employment of any sort has value for people's later careers and chances. Even though formal credentials are seen as increasingly important, they are not, in fact, all-determining. Work experiences still offer an alternative progression route, while many formal qualifications are not worth having at all. (Wolf, 2011: 10).

An increase in apprenticeships and work experience for younger workers/candidates is generally seen as being much in need, with Germany used as a best-practice example (Gil, 2011; Wolf, 2011), and Weber (2012) reported that WEF 2012 participants brought up the subject of youth unemployment repeatedly, and its connection to education:

The education system can be to blame, failing to give youngsters the skills that are needed for jobs in advanced economies. Then there are life skills, or rather the lack of it. Some youngsters don't know the basics, from getting on with co-workers to having basic entrepreneurial skills. (Weber, 2012).

Closer working ties between employers and higher education institutions (HEIs), and other training institutions (vocational or otherwise), are called on throughout the literature reviewed. This is especially important for those employers who feel that HEIs could do more to address employability, with many feeling that today's younger candidates are passing through courses and qualifications but arriving unprepared for the workforce – with employers needing to reinvest in training, or employing over-qualified workers in their place.

HEI and employer partnerships should be encouraged and strengthened with employers having a more active role in HEI employability strategies and policies. The literature and our research reveal that where partnerships are sustained, employers can have an impact on employability approaches, particularly when they are involved in course design. Employers' presence on HEI committees should not be a token measure but allowed to facilitate a meaningful contribution. Our study found that employers' impact was limited because their views on course design were often disregarded. (Lowden *et al*, 2011: viii).

In his review of the cross-national variation in youth unemployment Breen (2005) discusses the importance of strong employer/institution relationships, suggesting that a good model is when 'employers are involved in determining what is taught and training involves extended periods of time on an employer's premises', and cites Germany as an example of best-practice.

For those candidates who have not gone on to higher education, getting them motivated to apply themselves to vocational training is the first challenge. And since research has shown that children of parents who are unemployed, underemployed and/or did not attend higher education are more likely to follow the same route, this needs to be taken into consideration.

Too many young people were lacking role models in their own families. Sending successful university graduates back to school to teach for a couple of years would provide the inspiration that many teenagers were lacking. Some countries, especially the United States, had shocking high school drop-out rates. Mentorship programmes for entrepreneurs were proposed, as was help with job mobility. (Weber, 2012).

THE LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYED AND LOW-SKILLS WORKERS

Looking back on the literature reviewed, three main support needs seem to come to light – concentrated **reinsertion** into the job market, **skills training**, and **incentives**.

Employment agencies play a very important part in this need. It is widely recognized throughout the literature reviewed – and reflected strongly in the interviews conducted for this project – that the longer someone is out of work, the higher the chance they will remain there in the long-term. Intensive intervention and personalised support as soon as someone starts claiming unemployment benefits is imperative (Owen, 2011; Roberts, 2012), with Freud (2007) recommending this as the 'best way to help people to move back into sustainable employment'. Such support should include job search assistance, personalised vocational/skills training, and simple motivation, in order to give candidates the best chance of fast professional reinsertion. In order to help jobseekers in their transitional position Hollywood *et al* (2000: 9) suggest that 'a service advising job seekers of the specific consequences of taking up a particular job opportunity would clearly assist individuals to make better informed choices about re-entering work'.

For those with low-skills and/or little work experience, Freud (2007) recommends that employers take a role alongside employment agencies in an 'integrated approach for pre-work and early work experience', and notes that this approach is badly needed in order to help the most disadvantaged

groups enter into the job market (Cedefop, 2010). It is recognized that 'on-the-job' skills training helps not only the employee, but also gives employers the particular skills needed (Hollywood *et al*, 2000; Syedain, 2008), and reduces the long-term unemployment costs. Freud's (2007: 53) views reflect this in his report for the UK Department of Work and Pensions, saying that 'the combination of labour market contact, work experience and in-work training has been found to be most effective for people with low skills.' But companies regularly strain under these costs, and government-supported intermediary agencies could take on a more important role here. Training in vocational and social skills is an important factor, both for the workers and potential employers: 'businesses seldom have the time, resources and know-how to teach these basic rules of work' (Overman, 1999: 87).

The long-term unemployed are less likely to have a high level of formal education (The Henry J Kaiser Family Foundation, 2011), and those with low skills and/or little education can feel disparaged and demotivated by this fact. For those who have had negative learning experiences in the past, it is hard to accept training. Skills training needs to be constructed with this in mind, with governments reacting to this need through adult-learning associations and programmes (such as the UK's *UnionLearn*, Finland's *Noste Programme*, the US's *Office of Vocational and Adult Education*). Hollywood *et al* (2000: 6) go on to suggest that training 'should be designed in a manner so that very basic education and training can be integrated with other forms of provision and delivered so as not to stigmatise participants'.

The difficulties confronting older workers with few qualifications or in low-skilled jobs are different and there has been global media commentary concerning the vulnerability of low-skilled workers in the current recession. However, the problems facing low-skilled workers were already apparent when the European Employment Strategy was launched in 1997 with the recognition that to upgrade workforce skills in line with the needs of an increasingly knowledge-based economy, policy initiatives to promote the employability and adaptability of such workers was essential. Low-skilled workers are particularly vulnerable to increasing technological complexity (Machin, 2001) coupled with new forms of work organisation (Lindbeck and Snower, 2000), so that they need training to maintain employability (Sanders and De Grip, 2004). There is substantial evidence of an education premium and returns on training to individuals, employers and the state (Blundell *et al*, 1999; Groot and Massen van den Brink, 2000). However, those with low skills and few qualifications are also disadvantaged by the so-call 'Matthias principle' that qualified workers are more likely to be offered and to take up training opportunities (McCracken and Winterton, 2006). Clearly human capital development policies need to make special provision for the low skilled, particularly since this category also applies to many of the groups identified as vulnerable for other reasons (Heckman, 2000).

Literature calls on governments to provide more incentives to the jobless to put themselves back into the sustainable job market, as well as incentives for employers who are reluctant to recruit from this candidate pool but who cannot be accused of violating existing discrimination laws because unemployment does not have the protected status of age or race (Rampbell, 2011). Flexibility in the administration of benefits would assist those getting back into the job market, enabling them to meet

their short-term financial needs through continued or staggered benefits until they find themselves back on their feet (Hollywood *et al*, 2000; Roberts, 2012).

There is widespread agreement on the need to coordinate active and passive measures to ensure that those who become unemployed or who have been out of work for some time are properly advised concerning the active programmes available, as well as about their responsibility to find a job, an aspect increasingly emphasised in a number of countries. One of the aims is to put in place a preventative policy which stops people from becoming unemployed long term. (Eurofound, 2002: 12).

PRECARIOUS WORK

With challenges facing both employees and employers in these modern times of economic woe, it is difficult to find a simple answer to precarious work.

Temporary employment has been an area in which many OECD governments have felt the need to intervene, but the best way forward has not always been evident; there have been many legislative initiatives in each of these areas, but also considerable confusion surrounding the principles of best practice. (OECD, 2002: 129).

In addressing the needs of this growing, vulnerable and increasingly heterogeneous group, the literature calls for heightened **representation and protection of temporary employees**, increased **vocational training** to maintain their employability and compensate for the lack of long-term (re-)training, and a **review of state support** for those whose contracts change regularly and are at risk of becoming precarious.

Without a defined employment relationship, it is clear that it is a challenge for workers to access and understand their rights, including the right to join unions and benefit from collective bargaining actions, legal and occupational health protection, and improved working conditions. Reviewing labour regulations could also help by making precarious/short-term contract less attractive (and more expensive) for employers (ILO, 2011) and policies facilitating mobility from temporary to permanent positions greatly help those who are jumping between short-term contracts (OECD, 2002).

In order for economic recovery to be real and sustained, there is a need to go far beyond the regulation of risky practices in the employment of money so as to create stable financial markets. Governments should also address risky practices in the employment of people and take steps to create more stable and equitable employment, strengthen employment security and generate good jobs rather than precarious work. (Evans and Gibb, 2009: 6).

Should regulation and policies be concentrated, and enforced strongly enough so that they are taken seriously (Evans and Gibb, 2009) – and not left like an unused tool? The OECD (2002) found that in some countries policies such as these become ‘a potentially important cause of persistently high unemployment’ overall as employers continue to shy away from any unneeded costs and risks, and some criticize the OECD for promoting short-term contracts as a way of decreasing unemployment in the first place (Evans and Gibb, 2009). But most call for a stronger approach to regulation and policy change, in order to help those who suffer from long-term precarious employment and the resulting occupational health concerns that come with it: ‘without integration of employment standards and

regulation of contractual arrangements, supply chains will remain a conduit for expanding contingent work and resultant poorer health outcomes' (Quinlan and Sokas, 2009: 545).

As a low level of education is noted throughout the literature as largely associated with atypical/precarious work, it seems clear that skills development and vocational training, apprenticeships, and other forms of further education and training are needed in order to help employees have a more competitive standing for better contractual positions (Cedefop, 2010; Kim and Kurz, 2001) – once again, *employability*. 'Educational qualifications are one of the most important factors to determine occupational outcomes in modern societies by offering information on the skills of the potential employee to the employer' (Kim and Kurz, 2001: 12).

'Comprehensive social security systems in particular strengthen the ability of workers to reject precarious jobs' (ILO, 2011), but employers are trying to stay competitive and save costs, meaning short-term contracts and/or working through supply chains is seen as the best option for some. Considering the employees, Cochard (2012) calls for the French government to consider 'two main levers that are responsive and inexpensive: partial unemployment and subsidized jobs in the non-profit sector' and Evans and Gibb (2009: 6) agree that 'governments must extend coverage, as well as the duration of benefits in order to provide an adequate social safety net.' Surely this means more costs for governments? But Evans and Gibb (2009: 10) also argue that 'poor, low-quality jobs impose substantial costs on workers, families, government programs and society' much more in the long-term.

As it is a long road to paradise, and with such a diverse subject, it is agreed generally increased research is desperately needed on the subject of precarious employment, and the needs related to it.

A space for trade union experts, legal specialists and academics to share their work and knowledge on the issue of precarious work would provide an opportunity to identify common challenges, possible collaborations and effective strategies, and to reduce and even eliminate the precarious conditions of work. (ILO, 2011: 2).

FINAL CONCLUSIONS

From the public that we have identified as vulnerable, it is difficult to define a specific hierarchy of vulnerability, but the fact that certain particularities (e.g. unskilled seniors) exacerbate the vulnerability levels. However, the three categories which make up the largest proportion of the unemployed public are youth (aged less than 26 years), seniors (upwards from 50 years), and people with disabilities (Angotti, David-Alberola and Loones, 2007).

Our research for SNOVE to date has shown that state incentives for the employment of specific target groups are relatively effective, and labour regulation established to protect employees should be reflected with a good level of professional opportunities and job security for those deemed vulnerable. But with such a powerful global economic crisis being faced long-term, France – mirroring many of her European neighbours – has witnessed endless challenges to this security. With this, the increase in the vulnerability of our target groups has been matched by a decrease in employment security as employers feel forced to shy away from risk and secure job opportunities become ever more competitive, especially for those already facing challenges.

We have seen through the literature research that in Europe generally there is not so much a lack in programmes, associations, training and support, but more specific areas where more concentration and progress may be needed when considering training materials/support which could assist in the professional reinsertion of vulnerable groups. Three such areas which emerge are: personalized, relevant vocational training and job search support, with a concentration on psycho-social support and employability; multi-agency cooperation; accessibility (Dutton, Lindsay and McQuaid, 2008).

When considering SNOVE, the personalised support needed and the contextual country differences would limit the scope for transfer of generic material. To avoid exclusion, and multi-layered investment, existing programmes across partner countries could be compared and a generic template could be considered, allowing the possibility for adaptation as appropriate.

LdV SNOVE – The next steps

To date, this project has allowed us to begin exploring the literature and research behind the subject of the professional reinsertion of vulnerable employees, with the aim of putting in place the best and most relevant training materials which may assist the target groups.

In order to arrive at this objective, the next steps for project SNOVE include:

- completion of the exploratory phase and comparison with other national reports on the Training Needs Analysis;
- assessment of market need in each country and audit of existing provision for groups;
- adaptation/development and piloting of training materials for selected target groups;
- evaluation and accreditation of training materials;

- on-going dissemination activities.

The project will reach its conclusion with the dissemination of the established training materials and support, and its subsequent evaluation for confirmation of its level of effectiveness.

TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS

Target Group	Example of Current Programmes Available	Progress Needed in Training Provision
Older workers	<p>Age Concern/Help the Aged, Age Positive, New Deal 50 Plus, Experience Works (UK) – older workers Careersadvisedirect.gov (UK) Pole Emploi (France):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Workshops for seniors - CCD Senior (18 month contract with an employer – renewable one time – for workers aged 57 years plus, and unemployed for at least 3 months) - Contrat de Professionalisation (vocational training for senior jobseekers) 	<p>Vocational training to update and expand roles - flexibility Consultancy and mentorship roles Anti-discrimination education for employers and recruiters</p>
Migrant and returning workers, ethnic minorities	<p>Business in the Community 'Voluntary Code of Practice on Employing Migrant Workers' The Perspectywa programme (The Netherlands, The Hague) – helping Eastern European migrant workers return home: http://www.denhaag.nl/en/residents/to/Programme-to-help-immigrants-return-home.htm Ethnic Minority Employment Task Force www.emetaskforce.gov.uk – (UK)</p>	<p>Employment rights Language Vocational training for specific roles</p>
Ex-offenders	<p>CIPD (UK) Apex Scotland – for female ex-prisoners NACRO – www.nacro.org.uk SouthForty Corporation (US) The Right Step (UK) The Work Programme (UK) Working Force (UK) The Prince's Trust (UK) – open sessions in prisons Pole Emploi (France)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - ATA : <i>Allocation Temporaire d'Attente</i>, unemployment benefit and job search support for ex-prisoners in order to assist with professional reinsertion 	<p>Pre-release vocational training Pre-release social support Anti-discrimination education for employers and recruiters CIPD recommended actions</p>

	- The financial support currently stands at 11€ per day, or 330€ per month	
Long-term unemployed and low-skills workers	CIPD (UK) The Work Programme (UK) Assoc. of Labour Providers (www.labourproviders.org.uk), UK – trade association for orgs that provide and use temporary, contract and seasonal workers Train to Gain (www.traintogain.gov.uk), UK – training advice for employers Pole Emploi (UK)	Vocational training (job-specific) On-the-job training/paid work experience for lower skills and LTU with funding to employers to promote this (Freud report) Job search training (letter writing, CVs, search skills, interview practice and techniques) for jobseekers The Freud Report Winterton/Hollywood/Lindsay/McQuaid research project report CIPD recommended actions Kaiser Family Foundation
High-skilled, specialized workers	Careersadvisedirect.gov (UK) Prospects.ac.uk (UK) – Graduate Prospects, especially for higher-skilled workers	Targeted re-training programmes Careers services, professional networking
Long-term illness, the handicapped	Joseph Rowntree Foundation – long-term illness Pathways to Work (UK) – for long-term illness sufferers Disability Discrimination Act (UK) Handi'PME (France) – currently in experimental phase	Case management in vocational rehabilitation doc (Selander & Marnetoft) – long-term illness Phased rehabilitation into the workplace after long-term illness Anti-discriminatin education for employers and recruiters - flexibility
Women victims of domestic violence		Vocational training Job search support Temporary employment insurance/benefits for women sufferers of domestic violence who are forced to leave job Employee Assistance Programmes (Swanberg and Logan, 2005) and HR policies (flexible hours, vacation, sick time etc) for victims of domestic violence
The homeless	Working Zone Initiative/YMCA WAGES (US) Get Ready! (UK) – Homelessness Business in the Community – homeless programme	Personalised vocational and social training/support
Youth/recent graduates	The Prince's Trust (UK) – practical support in order to gain jobs, developing skills, qualifications: The Team Programme, Get into..., Business Programme	Job specific vocational training School/higher education work skills training
Precarious work		Job specific vocational training
General vulnerable groups	Noste Programme (Finland)	

REFERENCES

- Age Concern and Help the Aged (2010) 'Coping with the crunch: the consequences for older people', *Economy in Crisis*, London, August. Available from [http://www.ageuk.org.uk/documents/en-gb/professionals/research/coping%20with%20the%20crunch;%20the%20consequences%20for%20older%20people%20\(2009\)_pro.pdf?dtrk=true](http://www.ageuk.org.uk/documents/en-gb/professionals/research/coping%20with%20the%20crunch;%20the%20consequences%20for%20older%20people%20(2009)_pro.pdf?dtrk=true)
- Angotti, M., David-Alberola, E. and Loones, A. (2007) 'Entreprises ordinaires, entreprises solidaires? L'implication des entreprises dans l'insertion des personnes éloignées de l'emploi', *CREDOC : Consommation et modes de vie*, 207 (Nov). Available from <http://www.credoc.fr/pdf/4p/207.pdf>
- Barbier, J-C., Brygood, A. and Viguier, F. (2002) *Defining and Assessing Precarious Employment in Europe: A Review of Main Studies and Surveys, A Tentative Approach to Precarious Employment in France*, ESPE Project: Precarious Employment in Europe: A Comparative Study of Labour Market Related Risks in Flexible Economies, Work Package 1.1, European Commission. Available from http://www.cee-recherche.fr/fr/fiches_chercheurs/texte_pdf/barbier/wp11-Fra.pdf
- Bauer, T. K. and Kunze, A. (2004) *The Demand for High-Skilled Workers and Immigration Policy*, German Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA), Discussion Paper No.999, January. Available from <http://ftp.iza.org/dp999.pdf>
- Bell, L. and Casebourne, J. (2008) *Increasing Employment for Ethnic Minorities: a summary of research findings*, London: Centre for Economic and Social Inclusion. Available from http://www.cesi.org.uk/sites/default/files/publications/NAO_increasing_employment_ethnic_minorities_summary_0.pdf
- Bell, N. F. D. and Blanchflower, D. G. (2011) *Youth Unemployment in Europe and the United States*, German Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA), Discussion Paper No.5673. Available from: <http://ftp.iza.org/dp5673.pdf>
- Best, E. (2010) 'When Migrant Workers Return Home', *Pacific Standard*, 31 October. Available from <http://www.psmag.com/politics/when-migrant-workers-return-home-24836/>
- Billett, S., Dymock, D., Johnson, G. and Martin, G. (2011) 'Overcoming the paradox of employers' views about older workers', *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22 (6): 1248-1261. Available from http://www98.griffith.edu.au/dspace/bitstream/handle/10072/39802/69944_1.pdf?sequence=1
- Blundell, R., Dearden, L., Meghir, C. and Sianesi, B. (1999) 'Human Capital Investment: The Returns from Education and Training to the Individual, the Firm and the Economy', *Fiscal Studies*, 20 (1): 1-23.
- Blyton, P. and Jenkins, J. (2012) 'Life after Burberry: shifting experiences of work and non-work life following redundancy', *Work Employment and Society*, 26 (1): 26-41. Available from: Articles/Blyton%20and%20Jenkins%202012%20Burberry.pdf
- Booth, A. L., Francesconi, M. and Frank, J. (2002) 'Temporary Jobs: Stepping Stones or Dead Ends?', *Economic Journal*, 112 (480): F189-213. Available from: Articles/Booth%20Francesconi%20and%20Frank.pdf
- Brachna, S. (2000) 'Ohio firm gives disabled a chance to work', *Plastics News*, 11 (49): 24.
- Brady, D. (2010) 'Out of Work, Not Out of Oomph', *Companies and Industries: Bloomberg BusinessWeek*, 9 September. Available from: http://mobile.businessweek.com/managing/content/sep2010/ca2010098_547992.htm
- Breen, R. (2005) 'Explaining Cross-national Variation in Youth Unemployment: Market and Institutional Factors', *European Sociological Review*, 21 (2): 125-134. Available from http://www.sociologia.unimib.it/DATA/Insegnamenti/3_2293/materiale/breen%20entry.pdf

- Broughton, A., Biletta, I. and Kullander, M. (2010) *Flexible forms of work: 'very atypical' contractual arrangements*, Dublin: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Available from: http://www.employment-studies.co.uk/pdflibrary/ef_0310.pdf
- Brown, C. (2011) 'Vocational Psychology and Ex-offenders Reintegration: A Call for Action', *Journal of Career Assessment*, 19 (3): 333-342. Available from: <http://jca.sagepub.com/content/19/3/333.full.pdf+html>
- Business in the Community (2011) 'Business in the Community announces innovative new programme to help homeless people into work', Press Release 6 July. Available from: http://www.bitc.org.uk/media_centre/bitc_news_press_releases/get_ready_launched.html
- Business in the Community (2008) 'Voluntary Code of Practice on Employing Migrant Workers/Overseas Staff in Great Britain'. Available from http://www.bitc.org.uk/resources/publications/migrant_workers_1.html
- Campaign UK (2007) 'Adland needs to change its ageist attitude now', 42: 22, 19 October.
- Canduela, J., Dutton, M., Johnson, S., Lindsay, C., McQuaid, R. W. and Raeside, R. (2012) 'Ageing, skills and participation in work-related training in Britain: assessing the position of older workers', *Work Employment Society*, 26 (1): 42-60.
- Capelli, P. (2009) 'Older Workers Need Not Apply', *Room for Debate: The New York Times*, 12 April. Available from <http://roomfordebate.blogs.nytimes.com/2009/04/12/older-workers-need-not-apply/>
- Cedefop (2010) *Socially responsible restructuring: Effective strategies for supporting redundant workers*, Working Paper: 7, Thessaloniki: Cedefop.
- Châles-Courtine, S. (2010) *L'Initiative LOTU: Une démarche partenariale au service de l'insertion des personnes placées sous main de justice*, Ecole Nationale d'Administration Pénitencier, Paris : Ministère de la Justice. Available from http://www.enap.justice.fr/pdf/dossier_thematique_lotu.pdf
- Chaloff, J. and Lemaître, G. (2009) *Managing Highly-Skilled Labour Migration: A Comparative Analysis of Migration Policies and Challenges in OECD Countries*, OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers, No.79, OECD Publishing. Available from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/225505346577>
- Chen, V.L., Dvoskin, E. and Weise, K. (2012) 'Searching for America's Forgotten Jobless', *Global Economics: Bloomberg BusinessWeek*, 20-26 February. Available from <http://www.businessweek.com/articles/2012-02-16/searching-for-americas-forgotten-jobless>
- Clark, K. and Drinkwater, S. (2002) 'Enclaves, neighbourhood effects and employment outcomes: Ethnic minorities in England and Wales', *Journal of Population Economics*, 1: 5-29. Available from <http://www.humanities.manchester.ac.uk/socialchange/research/social-change/summer-workshops/documents/enclavesneighbourhoodeffects.pdf>
- Clow, S., (2012) 'Why it is a crime to miss out on skilled workforce – Businesses are being urged to consider employing ex-offenders', *Essex Chronicle Series*, 12 January.
- Cochard, M. (2012) 'What employment policy during a crisis?', ofce – The Collective Blog of the French Economic Observatory, 19 January. Available from <http://www.ofce.sciences-po.fr/blog/?p=1131>
- Cockcroft, L. (2006) 'Employing the Unemployable', *Personnel Today*, 8 August: 18-20.
- Connell, J. and Burgess, J. (2006) 'The influence of precarious employment on career development: The current situation in Australia', *Education + Training*, 48 (7): 493-507.
- Coulter, M. (2004) *The Impact of Domestic Violence on the Employment of Women on Welfare*, Report funded by US Department of Justice. Available from <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/205294.pdf>
- D'Amours, M. (2009) 'Non-Standard Employment after Age 50: How Precarious Is It?', *Relations Industrielles/Industrial Relations*, 64 (2): 209-229. Available from http://www.transpol.org/images/stories/DAmours-RIIR_6422009.pdf
- Dench, S., Hurstfield, J., Hill, D. and Akroyd, K. (2006) *Employer's Use of Migrant Labour*, London: RDS Online Report, The Home Office. Available from

<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20110218135832/http://rds.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs06/rdsolr0406.pdf>

- Department for Work and Pensions (2009) (UK) *Age isn't an issue: logistics employers' guide to a 21st Century workforce*, Age Positive. Available from http://www.dwp.gov.uk/docs/age_isnt_an_issue_logistics.pdf
- Department for Work and Pensions (2011) 'The Work Programme'. Available from: <http://www.dwp.gov.uk/policy/welfare-reform/the-work-programme/>
- Domesticviolence.org (2012) 'Introduction: Domestic Violence; It's Everybody's Business', Available from <http://www.domesticviolence.org/>
- Domesticviolencestatistics.org (2012). Available from www.domesticviolencestatistics.org
- Donat Decisier, M. (2006) *Les conditions de la réinsertion socioprofessionnelle des détenus en France*, Avis et Rapports du Conseil Economique et Social, Mandature 2004-2009, Séance des 21 et 22 février 2006, 2 (2006). Available from <http://www.ladocumentationfrancaise.fr/var/storage/rapports-publics/064000250/0000.pdf>
- Dutton, M., Lindsay, C. and McQuaid, R. W. (2008) 'Inter-agency Cooperation and New Approaches to Employability', *Social Policy and Administration*, 42 (7): 715-732.
- Employers' Diversity Network of the Public Appointments Service (EDNPAS) (2009) *Issues and Challenges in the Recruitment and Selection of Immigrant Workers in Ireland: Final Report*, Paper prepared by WRC Social Economic Consultants for the EDNPA. Available from http://www.publicjobs.ie/publicjobs/publication/document/PAS_diversity_report_Exec_summary.pdf
- Eurofound (2002) *Access to employment for vulnerable groups: Foundation paper*. Dublin: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Available from <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2002/44/en/1/ef0244en.pdf>
- Eurofound (2012) *Recent policy developments related to those not in employment, education and training (NEETs)*, Dublin: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Available from <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/docs/erm/tn1109042s/tn1109042s.pdf>
- Europa (2012) 'The Lisbon Treaty'. Available from http://europa.eu/lisbon_treaty/index_en.htm
- European Commission (2011) *Annual Growth Survey*, Annex 3, Draft Joint Employment Report. Available from http://ec.europa.eu/economy_finance/articles/eu_economic_situation/pdf/2011/com2011_11_annex3_en.pdf
- European Commission (2011) *Impact Assessment – Proposal for a Regulation of the European Parliament and of the Council Establishing the European Globalisation Adjustment Fund 2014-2020*. Available from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2011:0608:FIN:EN:PDF>
- European Commission (2012) 'Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion'. Available from <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=102&langId=en>
- European Research Area (2011) *European Policy Brief: Education, Training and Employment Needs of Homeless Young People', Combating Social Exclusion among Young Homeless Populations*, April 2011, Socio-Economic Sciences and Humanities Research, CSEYHP: Combating Social Exclusion among Young Homeless Populations. Available from http://www.movisie.nl/onderwerpen/homelessyouth/docs/PolicyBrief_Education.pdf
- Eurostat (2012) 'Unemployment Statistics - July 2012'. Available from http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Unemployment_statistics
- Evans, J. and Gibb, E. (2009) *Moving from Precarious Employment to Decent Work*, The Global Union Research Network: cooperating project of the International Trade Union Confederation, the Trade Union Advisory Committee to the OECD, the ILO's International Institute for Labour Studies, and the Bureau for Workers' Activities of the IL, Discussion Paper 13. Available from [http://www.uni-europa.org/Apps/UNIMeeting.nsf/vwLkpById/A39308B241690280C12578D9002DA22E/\\$File/Ref09_GURN%20o n%20Moving%20From%20Precarious%20Employment%20to%20Decent%20Work.pdf](http://www.uni-europa.org/Apps/UNIMeeting.nsf/vwLkpById/A39308B241690280C12578D9002DA22E/$File/Ref09_GURN%20o n%20Moving%20From%20Precarious%20Employment%20to%20Decent%20Work.pdf)

- Ewing, E. (2006) 'Long-term illnesses at work', *Money Section: The Guardian*, 6 September. Available from <http://www.guardian.co.uk/money/2006/sep/06/discriminationatwork.discrimination>
- Foden, D. and Jepsen, M. (2002) 'Active strategies for older workers in the European Union: A comparative analysis of recent experiences.' In M. Jepsen, D. Foden and M. Husebaut (eds), *Active strategies for older workers in the European Union*, Brussels: European Trade Union Institute: 437-460. Available from http://www.ouderenenarbeid.uhasselt.be/Documenten/Active%20strategies%20for%20older%20workers_european%20union.pdf
- Freud, D. (2007) *The Freud Report*, London: Department for Work and Pensions. Available from <http://www.dwp.gov.uk/policy/welfare-reform/legislation-and-key-documents/freud-report/>
- Ghilarducci, T. (2009) 'Older Workers Need Not Apply', *Room for Debate: New York Times*, 12 April. Available from <http://roomfordebate.blogs.nytimes.com/2009/04/12/older-workers-need-not-apply/>
- Gil, M. (2011) 'The jobless young: left behind', *The Economist*, 10 September. Available from <http://www.economist.com/node/21528614>
- Givord, P. (2005) 'Formes particulieres d'emploi et insertion des jeunes', *Economie et Statistique*, Vol.388-389 : 129-43. Available from http://www.insee.fr/fr/ffc/docs_ffc/ES388-389G.pdf
- Godofsky, J., Zukin, C. and Van Horn, C. (2011) 'Unfulfilled Expectations: Recent College Graduates Struggle in a Troubled Economy', *Work Trends: Americans' Attitudes about Work, Employers, and Government*, New Jersey: Rutgers University. Available from http://www.heldrich.rutgers.edu/sites/default/files/content/Work_Trends_May_2011.pdf
- Goldsmith, T. D. (2012) 'The Physical and Emotional Injuries of Domestic Violence', *Psych Central*. Available from <http://psychcentral.com/lib/2006/the-physical-and-emotional-injuries-of-domestic-violence/>
- Graffam, J., Shinkfield, A., Lavelle, B. and Hardcastle, L. (2004) *Attitudes of employers, corrective services workers, employment support workers, and prisoners and offenders towards employing ex-prisoners and ex-offenders*, Report to the Criminology Research Council, April, Grant 26/02-03. Available from <http://www.criminologyresearchcouncil.gov.au/reports/200203-26.pdf>
- Griffin, L. (2008) *Evaluation of the Vulnerable Work Pilots: Interim Report*, Department for Business Enterprise and Regulatory Reform (BERR), Employment Relations Research Series, 98, October. Available from <http://www.bis.gov.uk/files/file48482.pdf>
- Groot, W. and Massen van den Brink, H. (2000) 'Education, Training and Employability', *Applied Economics*, 32 (5): 573-581. Available from <http://dare.uva.nl/document/7891>
- Haley-Lock, A. and Shah, M. F. (2007) 'Protecting Vulnerable Workers: A Framework for Understanding How Public Policy and Private Employers Shape the Contemporary Low-Wage Work Experience', *Families in Society*, 88(3): 485-495.
- Health and Safety Executive (UK)(2011) 'Vulnerable workers/employees', 4 June. Available from <http://www.hse.gov.uk/diversity/vulnerable.htm>
- Heckman, J. (2000) 'Policies to Foster Human Capital', *Research in Economics*, 54 (1): 3-56.
- Heley, S. and Leckie, J., (2011) 'Employees on Long Term Sick Leave: an Employers Perspective', *Bytestart.co.uk*, October 2011. Available from <http://www.bytestart.co.uk/employees-on-long-term-sick-leave-an-employers-perspective.html>
- Hilpern, K. (2008) 'A new leaf: Why businesses need to invest in disabled employees', *Student Section: The Independent*, 20 November. Available from <http://www.independent.co.uk/student/career-planning/getting-job/a-new-leaf-why-businesses-need-to-invest-in-disabled-employees-1025469.html>
- Hirsh, M. (2011) 'The Left-Behinds', *National Journal*, 21 November. Available from <http://www.nationaljournal.com/magazine/america-s-left-behinds-the-long-term-unemployed-20111117>

- Hirsh, W. (2006) *Career Development for Knowledge Workers: Facing the Challenge*, Institute for Employment Studies, HR Network Paper MP60, April. Available from <http://www.employment-studies.co.uk/pdflibrary/mp60.pdf>
- Hollywood, E., Lindsay, E., McQuaid, R. and Winterton, J. (2000) *Research Project Report: Analysis and Profile of Long-Term Unemployment in Edinburgh*, Report prepared for City Development Department, City of Edinburgh Council by the Employment Research Institute, Napier University, Edinburgh, UK.
- Holzer, H., Raphael, S. and Stoll, A. (2003) *Employment Barriers Facing Ex-Offenders*, Employment Dimensions of Reentry: Understanding the Nexus between Prisoner Reentry and Work, Urban Institute Reentry Roundtable, May 19-20, New York University Law School. Available from http://www.urban.org/UploadedPDF/410855_holzer.pdf
- International Labour Organisation (2011) *Policies and Regulations to Combat Precarious Employment*, Report prepared for the Symposium: 'Regulations and Policies to combat precarious work', organized by the ILO's Bureau for Workers' Activities (ACTRAV). Available from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---actrav/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_164286.pdf
- International Labour Organisation (2011) 'Migrants return to India', *World of Work Magazine*, 73 (December). Available from http://www.ilo.org/global/publications/magazines-and-journals/world-of-work-magazine/articles/WCMS_170535/lang--en/index.htm
- James, E. (2011) 'Richard Branson champions employment of ex-offenders', *The Guardian*, 15 November. Available from <http://www.guardian.co.uk/society/2011/nov/15/richard-branson-champions-employment-ex-offenders>
- Johnson, M., (2011) 'Inside out: Employing ex-offenders is a result worth paying for', *Society Pages: The Guardian*, 15 February. Available from <http://www.guardian.co.uk/society/2011/feb/15/employing-ex-offenders-result-worth-paying-for?INTCMP=SRCH>
- Johnson, R. W. (2010) *Older Workers: Opportunities and Challenges*, Urban Institute: Fact Sheet on Retirement Policy, July. Available from <http://www.urban.org/UploadedPDF/412166-older-workers.pdf>
- Kalleberg, A. L. (2009) 'Precarious Work, Insecure Workers: Employment Relations in Transition', *American Sociological Review*, 74 (February): 1-22. Available from http://www.ntpu.edu.tw/social/upload/P_320110326164208.pdf
- Kärrholm, J., Ekholm, K., Jakobsson, B., Ekholm, J., Bergroth, A., and Schüldt, K. (2006) 'Effects on work resumption of a co-operation project in vocational rehabilitation. Systematic, multi-professional, client-centred and solution-oriented co-operation', *Disability and Rehabilitation*, 28 (7): 457-467.
- Kautonen, T., Palmroos, J. and Vainio, P. (2009) 'Involuntary Self-Employment' in Finland: A Bleak Future?' *International Journal of Public Policy*, 4 (6): 533-48.
- Keune, M. (2011) *Precarious employment in the EU: the role of trade unions*, Paper prepared for the International Labour Organisation's Workers Symposium on Policies and Regulations to Combat Precarious Employment, Geneva, 4-7 October 2011.
- Kim, A. and Kurz, K. (2001) *Precarious Employment, Education and Gender: A Comparison of Germany and the United Kingdom*, Mannheimer Zentrum Für Europäische Sozialforschung, Working Papers Nr. 39. Available from <http://www.mzes.uni-mannheim.de/publications/wp/wp-39.pdf>
- Krell, E. (2012), 'Criminal Background: Consider the Risks – and Rewards – of Hiring Ex-Offenders (Pre-Employment Screening)', *HR Magazine*, 57(2): 45-50.
- Lafoucriere, C. (2001) *The Application of Active Labour Policies and Programmes to Older Workers*, European Trade Union Institute, 14 December, Paper presented at the seminar on 'Active Strategies for Older Workers'

- Lafourcriere, C. and Winterton, J. (2001) *Good practice in activation at local level*, Paper presented at the seminar on Activation Policies for Young People in International Perspective: Monitoring the European Employment Strategy, European Trade Union Institute, Brussels, 8-9 November.
- Leckie, J. (2011) 'Employees On Long Term Sick Leave: An Employer's Perspective', *Bytestart*, 11 October. Available from <http://www.bytestart.co.uk/employees-on-long-term-sick-leave-an-employers-perspective.html>
- Le Deist, F. and Winterton, J. (2012) 'Les restructurations et leurs effets sur le travail et les travailleurs', in F. Le Deist (ed.) *Restructurations et santé au travail : une perspective multidisciplinaire*, Toulouse: Octarès.
- Lenz-Rachid, S. (2005) 'Employment experiences of homeless young adults: Are they different for youth with a history of foster care?' *Children and Youth Services Review*, 28 (2006): 235-259. Available from http://www.asu.edu/clas/transborder/documents/Employment_experiences_of_homeless_young_adults_Are_they_different_for_youth_with_a_history_of_foster_care.pdf
- Letourneux, V. (1998) *Precarious Employment and Working Conditions in Europe*, Dublin: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Available from: <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/1998/15/en/1/ef9815en.pdf>
- Lewchuk, W., Clarke, M. and de Wolff, A. (2008) 'Working without commitments: precarious employment and health', *Work, Employment and Society*, 22 (3): 387-406.
- Lindbeck, A. and Snower, D. (2000) 'Multi-Task Learning and the Reorganization of Work. From Tayloristic to Holistic Organization', *Journal of Labor Economics*, 18 (3): 353-376.
- Lissenburgh, S. and Smeaton, D. (2003) *Employment Transitions of Older Workers: The Role of Flexible Employment in Maintaining Labour Market Participation and Promoting Job Quality*, Transitions After 50, April, Bristol: The Policy Press. Available from http://books.google.fr/books/about/Employment_Transitions_of_Older_Workers.html?id=NeHsfPg9yUkC&redir_esc=y
- Little, C. (2010) 'Homeless Young Adults Need Specialized Job Training', *InvestigateWest*, 16 September. Available from: <http://www.invw.org/node/1091>
- Lloyd, S. (1997) 'The Effects of Domestic Violence On Women's Employment', *Law & Policy*, 19 (2): 139-167. Available from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/1467-9930.00025/pdf>
- London Skills and Employment Board (2010) *Helping the Highly Skilled Unemployed*, SOA Development, 20 April. Available from <http://www.london.gov.uk/lseb/docs/helping-high-skilled-unemployed.pdf>
- Loukanova, P. (2012) *EEO Review: Employment policies to promote active ageing, 2012: Bulgaria*, European Employment Observatory: February. Available from: <http://www.eu-employment-observatory.net/resources/reviews/Bulgaria%20EPPAA-Feb2012-final.pdf>
- Lowden, K., Hall, S., Elliot, D. and Lewin, J. (2011) *Employer's perceptions of the employability skills of new graduates*, London: The Edge Foundation. Available from: http://www.edge.co.uk/media/63412/employability_skills_as_pdf_-_final_online_version.pdf
- MacGregor, J. and Gray, L. (2003) 'Older Worker Employment Transition', Palmerston North (NZ): Massey University. Available from <http://live.isitesoftware.co.nz/neon/documents/Older%20Worker%20Employment%20Transition.pdf>
- Machin, S. (2001) 'The Changing Nature of Labour Demand in the New Economy and Skill-Biased Technology Change', *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 63 (s1): 753-776.
- Machin, S. and Manning, A. (1999) 'The Causes and Consequences of Long-Term Unemployment in Europe', In Ashenfelter, O. and Card, D. (eds), *Handbook of Labour Economics*, Edition 1, 3: 3085-3139, Elsevier.
- MacKenzie, R. and Forde, C. (2009) 'The rhetoric of the 'good worker' versus the realities of employers' use and the experiences of migrant workers', *Work, Employment and Society*, 23 (1): 142-159.

- Månsson, J. and Ottosson, J. (2011) 'Transitions from part-time unemployment: Is part-time work a dead end or a stepping stone to the labour market?', *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 32 (4): 569-589.
- Maruani, M. and Reynaud, E. (1993) *Sociologie de l'emploi*, Paris : La Découverte.
- Mays, T. and Sloane, B. (2011) 'Fifty and Forgotten: How to Find your Next Job When No One Wants to Hire You', *Contract Management*, December:10-72. Available from http://www.gsacncma.com/files/CM1112_Multi-Articles.pdf
- McCracken, M. and Winterton, J. (2006) 'What about the managers? Contradictions in lifelong learning and management development', *International Journal of Training and Development*, 10 (1): 55-66.
- McIntosh, B. (2001) *An employer's guide to older workers: How to win them back and convince them to stay*, University of Vermont: School of Business Administration. Available from http://www.doleta.gov/seniors/other_docs/emplguide.pdf
- McNally, S. and Telhaj, S. (2007) *The Cost of Exclusion: Counting the cost of youth disadvantage in the UK*, The Prince's Trust, with the Centre for Economic Performance, London School of Economics. Available from <http://www.princes-trust.org.uk/PDF/Princes%20Trust%20Research%20Cost%20of%20Exclusion%20apr07.pdf>
- Mermin, G. B. T. (2007) *Are Employers Willing to Hire and Retain Older Workers?*, The Retirement Project: Fact Sheets on Population Aging, The Urban Institute (December). Available from http://www.urban.org/UploadedPDF/411583_older_workers.pdf
- Munnell, A., Sass, S. and Soto, M. (2006) *Employer Attitudes Towards Older Workers: Survey Results*, Work Opportunities for Older Americans, Series 3, Center for Retirement Research at Boston College. Available from <http://calbooming.sdsu.edu/documents/EmployerAttitudesTowardOlderWorkers2006.pdf>
- Munnell, A. H. (2009) 'Older Workers Need Not Apply', *Room for Debate: The New York Times*, 12 April. Available from <http://roomfordebate.blogs.nytimes.com/2009/04/12/older-workers-need-not-apply/>
- Nacro (2012) 'Nacro comments on government's plans to help offenders get into work', 9 March. Available from <http://www.nacro.org.uk/news-and-publications/latest-news/nacro-comments-on-governments-plans-to-help-offenders-get-into-work,1509,NAP.html>
- NCH (2009) *Employment and Homelessness*, London: National Coalition for the Homeless. Available from <http://www.nationalhomeless.org/factsheets/employment.html>
- National Employment Law Project (NELP) (2003), *Unemployment Insurance for Survivors of Domestic Violence*. Available from http://nelp.3cdn.net/8ffcd6de3f649a187f_b2m6bn78c.pdf
- O'Reilly J., McInnes J., Nazio T. and Roche J. (2009) *The United Kingdom: From flexible employment to vulnerable workers*. In Vosko, L. F., MacDonald, M. and Campbell, I. (Ed.), *Gender and the Contours of Precarious Employment*, New York: Routledge. 108-126: [Link to publication](#)
- Ogbonna, E. (1998) 'British ethnic minorities and employment training: redressing or extending disadvantage?', *International Journal of Training and Development*, 2 (1): 41, March
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2002) '*OECD Employment Outlook*'. Available from <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/36/8/17652675.pdf>
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2006) '*Live Longer, Work Longer*'. Available from <http://www.oecd.org/employment/employmentpoliciesanddata/36218997.pdf>
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2011) *Strengthening worker protection in a difficult economy*, G20 Country Briefs, Meeting of Labour and Employment Ministers, 26-27 September, Paris. Available from <http://www.oecd.org/els/48725472.pdf>
- Osborne, H. (2012) 'Graduate unemployment levels on a par with school leavers', *Money Section: The Guardian*, 22 February. Available from <http://www.guardian.co.uk/money/2012/feb/22/graduates-unemployment-levels-school-leavers>
- Overman, S. (1999) 'Put Overlooked Labor Pools on Your Recruiting List', *HR Magazine*, 4 (2): 86-89, February.

- Owen, C. (2011) 'Long-Term Unemployment Becoming More Permanent', *Job Market Today: HireStrategy*, 14 December. Available from http://www.hirestrategy.com/job_market/feature_content.aspx?article_id=1058
- Paton, N. (2011) 'Employers raise long-term sickness absence concerns', *Personnel Today*, 22 April.
- Pillay, H., Kelly, K. and Tones, M. (2010) 'Perspective on Practice: Transitional employment aspirations for bridging retirement – Implications for training and development', *Journal of European Training*, 34 (1): 70-76. Available from <http://eprints.gut.edu.au/27805/1/27805.pdf>
- Portugal, P. and Varejão, J. (2003) *Why Do Firms Use Fixed-Term Contracts?*, Portugal: Research Center on Industrial, Labour and Managerial Economics. Available from: <http://www.fep.up.pt/investigacao/cete/papers/dp0310.pdf>
- Quinlan, M., Mayhew, C. and Bohle, P. (2001) 'The Global Expansion of Precarious Employment, Work Disorganisation and Occupational Health: A Review of Recent Research', *International Journal of Health Services*, 31 (2): 335-414.
- Quinlan, M. and Sokas, R. (2009) 'Community Campaigns, Supply Chains, and Protecting the Health and Well-Being of Workers', *Health Policy and Ethics: American Journal of Public Health*, 99 (S3): 538-546, November. Available from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2774194/pdf/S538.pdf>
- Rampell, C. (2011) 'Many With New College Degree Find the Job Market Humbling', *The New York Times*, 18 May. Available from http://www.nytimes.com/2011/05/19/business/economy/19grads.html?_r=0
- Rampell, C. (2011) 'The Help-Wanted Sign Comes With a Frustrating Asterisk', *Business Day: The New York Times*, 25 July. Available from <http://www.nytimes.com/2011/07/26/business/help-wanted-ads-exclude-the-long-term-jobless.html>
- Rice, A. (2010) 'In depth: Checking your employees' criminal record', *Microscope*, 9 March. Available from <http://www.microscope.co.uk/feature/In-depth-Checking-your-employees-criminal-record>
- Riger, S. and Staggs, S. L. (2004) 'Welfare Reform, Domestic Violence and Employment: What Do We Know and What Do We Need to Know?', *Violence Against Women*, 10 (9): 961-990. Available from <http://vaw.sagepub.com/content/10/9/961.full.pdf>
- Riso, S. (2010) *Very atypical work: Exploratory analysis of fourth European Working Conditions Survey – Background paper*, Dublin: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions. Available from <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/htmlfiles/ef1010.htm>
- Roberts, Y. (2012) 'Breadline Statistics', *Society: The Observer*, 18 March. Available from <http://www.guardian.co.uk/society/2012/mar/17/life-britain-working-poor>
- Robertson, M. and Toro, P.A. (1998) *Homeless youth: Research, Intervention and Policy*, 1998 Symposium on Homelessness Research: 3/1-3/32, USA. Available from <http://aspe.hhs.gov/pic/reports/aspe/6817.pdf#page=75>
- Rodriguez, N. (2004) "'Workers Wanted": Employer Recruitment of Immigrant Labor', *Work and Occupations*, 31 (4): 453-473.
- Rogers, A., Anderson, B. and Clark, N. (2009) *Recession, Vulnerable Workers and Immigration: Background Report*, Oxford: Centre on Migration, Policy and Society, April. Available from: http://www.compas.ox.ac.uk/fileadmin/files/Publications/Research_projects/Labour_markets/Labour%20Mrkt%20and%20Recession%20Full%20Report.pdf
- Rousseau, N. (2011) 'The changing face of the French seasonal worker', *Mediapart*, 24 August. Available from <http://www.mediapart.fr/journal/france/160811/changing-face-french-seasonal-worker>
- Safe @ Work Coalition (2012) 'Domestic Violence and The Workplace'. Available from <http://www.kajacircle.com/safeatwork/website/dv/whatisdv.htm>
- Salmon, F. (2011) 'The global youth unemployment crisis', *Opinion: Thomson Reuters*, 22 December. Available from <http://blogs.reuters.com/felix-salmon/2011/12/22/the-global-youth-unemployment-crisis/>

- Salway, S., Platt, L., Chowbey, P., Harriss, K. and Bayliss, E. (2007) *Long-term ill health, poverty and ethnicity*, York: The Joseph Rowntree Foundation. Available from <http://www.jrf.org.uk/sites/files/jrf/2060.pdf>
- Sanders, J. and De Grip, A. (2004) 'Training, Task Flexibility and Low-Skilled Workers' Employability', *International Journal of Manpower*, 25 (1): 73-89.
- Sargeant, M. and Frazer, A. (2009) *Older workers as vulnerable workers in the new world of work*, 15th World Congress of the International Industrial Relations Association (IIRA), Workshop Sessions, Track 5: Session 3, Sydney: IIRA. Available from <http://ro.uow.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1070&context=lawpapers>
- Saunders, R. (2006) *Risk and Opportunity: Creating Options for Vulnerable Workers*, Canadian Policy Research Networks, Vulnerable Workers Series 7. Available from: https://cupedocs.cupe.ca/docushare/dsweb/Get/Document-25260/41162_en.pdf
- Scurry, T. and Blenkinsopp, J. (2011) 'Under-employment among recent graduates: a review of the literature', *Personnel Review*, 40 (5): 643-659.
- Selander, J. and Marnetoft, S-U. (1999) 'Risk factors for disability pension amount unemployed women on long-term sick-leave', *International Journal of Rehabilitation Research*, 22 (4): 277-282.
- Selander, J. and Marnetoft, S-U. (2005) 'Case management in vocational rehabilitation: A case study with promising results', *Work: A Journal of Prevention, Assessment and Rehabilitation*, 24 (3/2005): 297-304, Sweden: IOS Press, Centre of Studies on National Social Insurance, Department of Health Studies, Mid-Sweden University.
- Selander, J., Marnetoft, S-U., Bergroth, A. and Ekholm, J. (1998) 'The process of vocational rehabilitation for employed and unemployed people on sick-leave: employed people vs unemployed people in Stockholm compared with circumstances in rural Jämtland, Sweden', *Scandinavian Journal of Rehabilitation Medicine*, 30 (1): 55-60.
- Sheen, V. (2012) 'Social policy can secure a better future for working women', *The Conversation*, 21 March, Australia: Monash University. Available from <http://theconversation.edu.au/social-policy-can-secure-a-better-future-for-working-women-5442>
- Shinn, M., Knickman, J.R. and Weitzman, B.C. (1991) 'Social Relations and Vulnerability to Becoming Homeless Among Poor Families', *American Psychologist*, 46 (11): 1180-1187.
- Smale, W. (2011) 'Business leaders defend employment of migrant workers', *Business Section: BBC News*, 1 July. Available from <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-13987212>
- Smedley, T. (2011) 'Back to Work?', *People Management*, September: 24-28.
- Smith, B. and Orchiston, T. (2011) *Domestic Violence Victims at Work: The Role of Anti-Discrimination Law*, Working Paper, 12 December, Sydney Law School, University of Sydney.
- Sparrow, S. (2005) 'A question of responsibility', *Personnel Today*, 25 October, pp.39-40.
- Standing, G. (2008) *Economic Insecurity and Global Casualisation: Threat or Promise?*, Social Indicator Research, 88: 15-30. Available from: http://sawyerseminar.web.unc.edu/files/2011/02/Standing_2008_insecurity_and_global_casualization1.pdf
- Standing, G. (2009) *Work after Globalization: Building Occupational Citizenship*, Cheltenham: Edward Elgar
- Standing, G. (2012) 'The Precariat: why it needs deliberative democracy', *openDemocracy*, 27 January. Available from <http://www.opendemocracy.net/print/63869>
- Supiot, A. (1999) 'The Transformation of Work and the Future of Labour Law in Europe: A Multidisciplinary Perspective', *International Labour Review*, 138 (1): 31-46.
- Swanberg, J. E. and Logan, T. K. (2005) 'Domestic Violence and Employment: A Qualitative Study', *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10 (1): 3-17. Available from [http://www.caepv.org/membercenter/files/Domestic%20Violence%20and%20Employment%20-%20A%20Qualitative%20Study%20\(2005\).pdf](http://www.caepv.org/membercenter/files/Domestic%20Violence%20and%20Employment%20-%20A%20Qualitative%20Study%20(2005).pdf)
- Syedain, H. (2008) 'Back in Business', *People Management*, 14 (21): 22-24.

- Taran, P. (2009) *The impact of the financial crisis on migrant workers*, ILO: Paper presented to the 17th OSCE Economic and Environmental Forum. Available from <http://www.osce.org/eea/36454>
- The Henry J Kaiser Family Foundation (2011) *Long-Term Unemployed Survey*. Available from <http://www.kff.org/kaiserpolls/8261.cfm>
- The Gallup Organisation (2010) *Employer's perception of graduate employability: Analytical report*, Flash Eurobarometer 304. Available from http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/flash/fl_304_en.pdf
- The Guardian (2011) 'Making plans for an ageing workforce', *Work: Life UK*, Tuesday 22 November. Available from: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/worklifeuk/making-plans-for-an-ageing-workforce?INTCMP=SRCH>
- The Shaw Trust (2012) *Disability and employment statistics*, Ability at Work. Available from http://www.shaw-trust.org.uk/disability_and_employment_statistics
- Thornley, C., Jefferys, S. and Appay, B. (2010) *Globalization and Precarious Forms of Production and Employment: Challenges for Workers and Unions*, Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Tolman, R. M. and Wang, H-C. (2005) 'Domestic Violence and Women's Employment: Fixed Effects Models of Three Waves of Women's Employment Study Data', *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 36 (1/2): 147-158, September.
- Tompa, E., Scott-Marshall, H., Dolinschi, R., Trevithick, S. and Bhattacharyya, S. (2007) 'Precarious employment experiences and their health consequences: Towards a theoretical framework', *Work: A Journal of Prevention, Assessment and Rehabilitation*, 28 (3): 209-224.
- Tones, M. J. and Pillay, H. K. (2009) *Stability of the learning and development survey: findings for mature aged local government and private healthcare organisations*, Melbourne: 8th National Conference of Emerging Researchers in Ageing, October 22-23.
- Tros, F. and Wilthagen, T. (2004) 'The concept of 'flexicurity': a new approach to regulating employment and labour markets', *European Review of Labour and Research*, 10 (2): 166-186.
- Weber, T. (2012) 'Davos 2012: Youth unemployment 'disaster'', *Business Section: BBC News: Business Section*, 28 January. Available from <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-16774301>
- White, A. (2012) 'The biggest challenges facing graduate jobseekers today – what you told us', *Careers: The Guardian*, Tuesday 7 February. Available from <http://careers.guardian.co.uk/challenges-graduate-jobseekers-face-today>
- White, M. (2012) 'Older employees under pressure? Theorizing reasons for declining commitment', *Work Employment and Society*, 26 (3): 447-463.
- Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia, <http://www.wikipedia.org>
- Williams, K. (2007) 'Employing Ex-Offenders: Shifting the Evaluation of Workplace Risks and Opportunities from Employers to Corrections', *UCLA Law Review*, 55 (2007): 521-558. Available from <http://www.uclalawreview.org/pdf/55-2-6.pdf>
- Wodahl, E. J. (2006) 'The challenge of prisoner reentry from a rural perspective', *Western Criminology Review*, 7 (2): 32-47.
- Wolf, A. (2011) *Review of Vocational Education – The Wolf Report*, London: Department of Education. Available from <https://www.education.gov.uk/publications/eOrderingDownload/The%20Wolf%20Report.pdf>