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**The prevalence and participants of Voluntary
Downward Job Mobility in Britain –
A quantitative investigation of secondary
longitudinal panel data**

David Angrave

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Abstract

Existing research has struggled to achieve consistent findings regarding the trends or participants of job mobility within the UK. Specifically the investigation of voluntary downward job mobility has been neglected and instead dismissed as an isolated or involuntary occurrence. This paper aimed to identify the prevalence and participants of voluntary downward job mobility within the United Kingdom between 1994-2008. To achieve this, quantitative analysis was conducted using secondary longitudinal panel data from the British Household Panel Survey.

This paper finds that VDJM is a significant mobility form within the UK and is steadily growing as an alternative to other forms of voluntary job mobility. Critically it determines that the participants of VDJM are not those conceptualised in the downshifting movement. Rather the participants of VDJM are not limited to a single segment of the population but many, specifically women with young children and those in positions of financial advantage.

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Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Term
BHPS	British Household Panel Survey
ONS	Office of National Statistics
LFS	Labour Force Survey
GHS	General Household Survey
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
OR	Odds Ratio
SE	Standard Error
SD	Standard Deviation
VDJM	Voluntary Downward Job Mobility
IJM	Involuntary Job Mobility
IDJM	Involuntary Downward Job Mobility
VUJM	Voluntary Upward Job Mobility
VLJM	Voluntary Lateral Job Mobility
VPTM	Voluntary Shift into Part-Time work
EXIT	Complete exit from the labour force
OVJM	Other Voluntary Mobility - Combination of VUJM and VLJM

Chapter 1-Introduction

Identifying the prevalence and participants of job mobility is of crucial importance to the management of labour at both the firm and national level (Gregg & Wadsworth 2002; Macaulay 2003; Sullivan & Baruch 2009). As a consequence of increasing globalisation, outsourcing, and technology, and the demise of manufacturing industries, employers have witnessed reduced organisational commitment and growing mobility among employees (Sullivan 1999; Hall 2004; Heitmueller 2004). Consequently, the study of job mobility has been a topic of considerable and increasing academic attention over the past three decades (Ng et al 2007).

Sullivan (1999) notes that in order for management research to remain relevant to policy makers and firm managers research must investigate the extent and dimensions of non-traditional career forms (see also; Dwyer 2004; Hall 2004; Baruch 2006). Existing mobility research and theory has however been severely limited by the assumption that the sole purpose of voluntary job mobility is to maximise wage and status through upward job progression (Markey & Parks 1989; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger 2004). Consequently existing research has focused almost exclusively upon the investigation of voluntary upward job mobility (Dwyer 2004). Despite growing recognition of non-traditional career movements, research continues to view any form of downward mobility as involuntary (Ng et al 2007; Clarke 2009). As such VDJM, the process whereby an individual undergoes a loss of wage during voluntary job mobility without shifting into part-time work, has remained greatly under-researched and continues to be dismissed as an unsupported social misconception (Dwyer 2004; Chhetri et al 2009).

Despite considerable research investigating job mobility levels within organisations, studies of national job mobility levels or trends have been rare within the UK (Booth & Francesconi 2000). Whilst existing research has noted overall increases in job mobility (Macaulay 2003), the overuse of cross-sectional data and a lack of distinction between the direction or nature of job mobility has prevented consistency in either the identification or interpretation of trends for specific forms of job mobility and the effects of structural factors upon them (Gregg & Wadsworth 2002; Ng et al 2007; Parrado et al 2007). Similarly, bound by the above assumptions, research investigating the characteristics of those engaging in job mobility has focused only on participant characteristics believed to

effect an individual's earnings potential (Sullivan 1999), denying the influence of wider demographic and occupational factors, or the subjective influence of an individual's own value system (Dwyer 2004; Hall 2004; Gesthuizen 2009; Krieshok et al 2009; Sullivan & Baruch 2009). Whilst recent studies have attempted to rectify this deficit, they too have failed to achieve consistent results, instead adopting simplistic investigations of single participant characteristics (Dwyer 2004; Mumford & Smith 2004; Gesthuizen 2009). Lastly, a lack of differentiation between the directions of voluntary job mobility has further prevented existing literature from identifying the participant characteristics specific to individual types of job mobility, rather than mobility overall (Ng et al 2007; Sullivan & Baruch 2009).

It is therefore the aim of this paper to explore the dimensions of VDJM within the UK. Specifically it will seek to answer the following questions;

- 1) What is the prevalence of VDJM within the UK and how has this varied over time?
- 2) How does the prevalence of VDJM compare to other forms of voluntary mobility?
- 3) What are the occupational and demographic characteristics of those engaging in VDJM
- 4) How do these characteristics affect the likelihood of engagement in VDJM?

This paper will conduct quantitative analysis of longitudinal panel data drawn from the BHPS to identify the incidences, trends and participants of VDJM within the UK between 1994 and 2008. Whilst drastically underused by current social science investigations, the BHPS provides this study with a nationally representative dataset (Booth et al 1999a; Lambert 2006). Consequently this research can identify not only the incidences and trends for VDJM over the period of study, but the prevalence and trends for upward and lateral mobility also, allowing comparisons to be drawn (Dwyer 2004). Similarly the detailed occupational and demographic data collected by the BHPS (BHPS n.d) will allow this research to identify the characteristics of those engaging in VDJM, comparing them to those who engage in OVJM. It is hoped that by differentiating between the directions of voluntary job mobility and examining the relationships between a wide range of participant characteristics and VDJM, that this research will not only identify the specific

incidences, trends and participants of VDJM, but also contribute to the study of general job mobility by demonstrating the interrelationship between many of these participant characteristics.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

The following chapter provides a review of the current literature within the field of voluntary job mobility. It will first examine the existing research investigating the incidences and trends for general job mobility at the UK level and the effect of structural factors upon these. It will then discuss the existing literature regarding the relationship between demographic and occupational characteristics and engagement in voluntary job mobility. Lastly it will examine the small quantity of existing research which has investigated forms of downward job mobility and address the dominant assumptions that have prevented investigations of VDJM.

2.1-National Level Analysis of Job Mobility

Sullivan & Baruch (2009) in their review of careers research note that increasing global competition, technology, and outsourcing has led the employer-employee relationship to become increasingly “transactional” (p.1543; See also Reitman & Schneer 2003). Such alterations are believed to have led traditional career paths to be less feasible in modern economies and non-traditional, non-upward, mobility to be increasingly prominent (Baruch 2004, 2006; Hall 2004; Sullivan & Arthur 2006). Whilst this has led to the general consensus that job mobility has dramatically increased in the last 30 years (Sullivan & Baruch 2009), investigations of job mobility at a national level have struggled to produce consistent interpretations of job mobility levels (Booth et al 1999a; Gregg & Wadsworth 2002; Dustmann & Pereira 2008). This inconsistency is in part due to the definition of a career. The traditional career definition is of a life-long process of upward progression through an organisation, in which an individual aims to achieve increasing financial reward and organisational status (Rhodes & Doering 1983; Kanchier & Unruh 1989; Markey & Parks 1989; Reitman & Schneer 2003). However as a result of this definition, job mobility studies continue to characterize job changes which remove an individual from their existing occupation as career changes (Parrado et al 2007; Longhi & Brynin 2010). Consequently, the majority of job mobility studies investigate intra- and inter-occupational mobility separately, with attention biased towards intra-occupational mobility (Kambourov & Manovskii 2006; Parrado et al 2007). Such a bias has led to over-simplistic and inaccurate estimations of the levels and trends for both intra- and inter-occupational mobility, and has denied research the opportunity to investigate the association of

occupational change with job mobility at both the national and individual level (Hachen 1992; Harper 1995; Huang & Sverke 2007; Parrado et al 2007).

A number of studies have analysed job mobility within the UK but have chosen to focus on specific segments of the population, often demographic extremes such as low earners or single parents (Harper 1995; Rindfuss et al 1999; Eby 2001; Heitmueller 2004; O'Neil et al 2008). However Gregg & Wadsworth (1995), using national level LFS data, estimated trends for mobility across the UK between 1975-1994, concluding that job mobility had increased over the period. This conclusion is supported by Jacobs (1999) who suggests that whilst job mobility had remained static for some demographic segments, it had risen overall (see also; Burgess & Rees 1996; Gregg & Wadsworth 2002). Operating under the traditional career view, these findings were interpreted as a sign that the UK labour market was becoming increasingly unstable, ending long-term employment security through increasing involuntary mobility (Burgess & Rees 1996; Sullivan 1999; Fuller 2008).

Poor availability of nationally representative longitudinal data regarding job mobility has led research to primarily utilise cross-sectional datasets in the investigation of the levels and trends for job mobility in the UK (Gregg & Wadsworth 2002; Dustmann & Pereira 2008). Reviews of the research literature highlight that, despite its dominance, the measurement of job mobility using cross-sectional data and tenure estimates fails to provide accurate results (Sullivan & Baruch 2009). Rather alternative careers research argues that accurate "...analysis of job mobility requires information on individuals' employment history over time" (Heitmueller 2004 p.334), and that cross-sectional study's inability to follow an individual over time prevents the accurate identification of changes in employment (Dustmann & Pereira 2008). Booth et al (1999a) and Booth & Francesconi (2000) go further and directly challenge cross-sectional estimates, by stating that the reliance upon job tenure and data sources which prevent disaggregation of job separation reasons has overestimated involuntary mobility levels, resulting in inconsistent findings (Also; Parrado et al 2007).

Empirical investigations using longitudinal panel data, which disaggregate reasons for job change, have allowed increased accuracy in the estimation of both involuntary and voluntary job mobility within the UK (Booth et al 1999a; Booth & Francesconi 2000; Dustmann & Pereira 2008). Whilst the results of these studies are similar to those using

cross-sectional data, confirming that job mobility increased in the UK up to 2001, such approaches reveal significant year-on-year variation (Booth et al 1999a; Macaulay 2003). Disaggregated approaches also demonstrate that levels of involuntary mobility have been greatly exaggerated and that it is voluntary mobility that has increased dramatically within the UK (Booth et al 1999a; Booth & Francesconi 2000; Gregg & Wadsworth 2002).

Ng et al (2007) propose that structural factors are crucial to understanding identified variations in national job mobility levels, in which government policy, labour market composition and stock market fluctuations both constrain and enable opportunities for job mobility (McCormick 1997; Macaulay 2003; Moscarini & Thomsson 2007). Specifically during weak economic climates, especially those in which unemployment is high, job mobility is expected to decrease due to increased labour market competition (McCormick 1997; Ng et al 2007). In contrast strong economic conditions are assumed to provide greater mobility opportunities and increase financial stability allowing individuals to pursue personal rather than financially motivated mobility options (Ng et al 2007; Gesthuizen 2009). Krieshok et al (2009) challenge the validity of these assumptions, stating that greater labour market competition increases the need for individuals to be mobile in order to increase their labour market skills, whilst economic strength provides increased job security, disincentivising individuals to change jobs. Similarly Longhi & Brynin (2010) argue that the linking of structural factors with mobility levels fails to consider the natural cyclicity of labour markets. Whilst Ng et al (2007) present that both structural influences and economic cyclicity can be accounted for, empirical support has been limited (Longhi & Brynin 2010).

2.2-Job Mobility at the Individual Level

Established theoretical frameworks present that whilst opportunities for mobility are enabled and constrained by the factors discussed above, the decision to engage in job mobility at the individual level is closely related to demographic and occupational characteristics (Ng et al 2007). However due to increasing multi-disciplinary inputs, the effect of participant characteristics upon job mobility is increasingly contested (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger 2004; Sullivan & Baruch 2009).

The investigation of participant characteristics under traditional career theory holds that job mobility represents an individual's "pursuit of material goals" (Dwyer 2004:111) specifically the maximisation of utility through extrinsic job attributes such as wage (Markey & Parks 1989; Rynes et al 2004). Building on human capital theory, traditional mobility perspectives argue that individuals will accumulate human capital during employment, through which increased earnings can be achieved (Becker 1962; Markey & Parks 1989; Topel & Ward 1992; Heitmueller 2004). However, increases in capital also result in increased mobility transaction costs and therefore only positions which provide an individual with utility in excess of their transaction costs is assumed to be pursued (Markey & Parks 1989; Macaulay 2003; Heitmueller 2004; Mumford & Smith 2004).

Studies operating under traditional career theory have identified a number of characteristics which may influence voluntary job mobility, such as age, educational level and tenure (Markey & Parks 1989; Sicherman & Galor 1990; Topel & Ward 1992; Rosenfeld 1992; Gregg & Wadsworth 1995; Harper 1995; Groot & Verberne 1997; Macaulay 2003; Heitmueller 2004; Parrado et al 2007; Fuller 2008; Longhi & Brynin 2010). However such research has failed to achieve consensus regarding the nature or strength of the influence these characteristics exert (Lee & Mitchell 1994; Sullivan 1999; Dwyer 2004; Mumford & Smith 2004; Sullivan & Baruch 2009).

Human capital theory is however perceived as an inaccurate method for determining voluntary job mobility (Dwyer 2004; Rynes et al 2004; Bonhomme & Jolivet 2009), as such investigations do not consider the mitigating effect of structural factors upon the influence of participant characteristics, most notably economic conditions (Meitzen 1986; Sullivan & Arthur 2006; Ng et al 2007). Further, the similarity of age and tenure effects have led the two to be researched synonymously (Macaulay 2003), oversimplifying the

relationship between these factors and engagement in job mobility (Smart & Peterson 1997; Mumford & Smith 2004; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger 2004). Finally the reliance of traditional investigations upon cross-sectional data has masked the effect of time upon participant characteristics and engagement in mobility (Booth et al 1999a;1999b; Mumford & Smith 2004).

In contrast, a growing body of contemporary literature proposes that the transaction costs of voluntary job mobility often exceed the extrinsic rewards achieved and that rather job mobility represents a process of compromise between demographic, occupational and structural constraints (Groot & Verberne 1997; Resick et al 2007). Contemporary perspectives present that traditional research has underestimated the effect of an employee's value system, leading to the inflated importance of extrinsic job attributes, such as wage (Lee & Mitchell 1994; Dwyer 2004; Ng et al 2007; Krieshok et al 2009). Instead contemporary research proposes that individuals will, based upon their own unique characteristics, assign different value to the achievement of extrinsic and intrinsic job utility (Dwyer 2004; Rynes et al 2004; Sullivan & Arthur 2006; Resick et al 2007; Bonhomme & Jolivet 2009; Clarke 2009). Further, specific combinations of demographic and occupational characteristics may lead individuals to trade extrinsic job attributes for intrinsic job attributes, such as flexibility of working or type of work, leading individuals to engage in non-traditional forms of job mobility, possibly including VDJM (Estes & Glass 1996; Tolbert & Moen 1998; Dwyer 2004; Thozhur et al 2006; Gesthuizen 2009; Green 2010).

Contemporary theoretical work also proposes that the assumption of a homogenous value system across the UK employment population has prevented the identification of possible non-linear relationships between participant characteristics and job mobility (Sullivan 1999; Thozhur et al 2006; Ng et al 2007; Corby & Stanworth 2009). Of particular relevance to this paper is research which has demonstrated that pressures to conform to perceived career norms of wage and status attainment are reduced in both very young workers and older workers, enabling them to prioritise intrinsic utility when choosing to engage in mobility (Super 1953; Thomas 1980; Judge & Bretz 1992, Rosenfeld 1992; Tolbert & Moen 1998; Rindfuss et al 1999; Segers et al 2008). Unlike traditional mobility studies, which have neglected investigation of gender (Meitzen 1986; Presser 1988), contemporary studies have demonstrated significant difference in value driven mobility

between gender groups (Booth et al 1999b, 2003; Munasinghe et al 2008). Specifically male employees have been found to prioritise the achievement of wage and status during mobility (Booth et al 2003; Heitmueller 2004; Mumford & Smith 2004; Connolly & Gregory 2008). In contrast female employees, often as a result of gender inequality in the workplace, are considered more likely to prioritise intrinsic forms of utility when engaging in job mobility (Loprest 1992; Jacobs 1999; Booth et al 2003; McDonald et al 2005; O'Neil et al 2008; Bowlus & Grogan 2009; Corby & Stanworth 2009).

Theoretical work has argued for the consideration of all demographic and occupational characteristics in the study of job mobility (Ng et al 2007). However the majority of empirical literature has focused on a limited number of characteristics, studying characteristics in isolation, preventing the identification of interrelationships (Rhodes & Doering 1983; Sullivan 1999; Dwyer 2004; Resick et al 2007; Sullivan & Baruch 2009). Whilst a select number of contemporary studies have attempted to investigate the effects of neglected characteristics, they have similarly failed to achieve consistent or statistically significant results (Mumford & Smith 2004; Sullivan & Baruch 2009). Rather these studies have suggested; home ownership, geographical relocation, marital status, partners employment status, number of children, contracted and overtime hours, trade union membership and current occupation have possible influence over individual engagement in voluntary job mobility (Jurgensen 1978; Lee & Mowday 1987; Glass 1988; Hachen 1992; Estes & Glass 1996; Glass & Estes 1996; Ommeren et al 1999; Parcel 1999; Eby 2001; Hakim 2002; Rose 2003; Mumford & Smith 2004; Huang & Sverke 2007; Battu et al 2008; Paull 2008; Green 2010). These studies have however failed to reach consensus about the effect that each of these factors may or may not have (Mumford & Smith 2004; Sousa-Poza & Henneberger 2004; Segers et al 2008; Chudzikowski et al 2009).

Studies of job mobility predominantly fail to disaggregate the direction of job mobility under study (Mumford & Smith 2004; Sullivan & Baruch 2009). Nicholson & West (1998), and more recently Ng et al (2007), provide typologies of job mobility direction emphasising the need to recognise the differences between individual forms of mobility. However failure to disaggregate mobility direction has prevented the identification of the factors unique to specific types of job mobility within the UK (Booth & Francesconi 2000). This is especially problematic as changes in the levels of contrasting mobility forms can disguise each other (Hachen 1992; Mumford & Smith 2004). It is particularly unclear

as to whether any of the identified characteristic effects would also influence VDJM (Dwyer 2004). As a result of both the lack of differentiation between mobility direction and assumptions which permeate both traditional and contemporary literature, discussed below, VDJM is not considered by the vast majority of these articles and therefore their findings cannot be reliably generalised to VDJM (Chhetri et al 2009). This research must therefore identify the demographic and occupational characteristics that lead individuals to engage in VDJM.

2.3-Voluntary Downward Job Mobility

Despite significant research investigating the incidences and trends for voluntary job mobility and the recognition that individuals are increasingly unlikely to remain with the same organisation throughout their working lives (Hall 1996; Hall 2004; McDonald et al 2005; Baruch 2006), research has predominantly neglected the study of VDJM (Dwyer 2004; Chhetri et al 2009; Sullivan & Baruch 2009).

The majority of literature within the job mobility and career fields has remained constrained by assumptions about the meaning of voluntary mobility (Dwyer 2004; Ng et al 2007; Gesthuizen 2009; Sullivan & Baruch 2009). Traditional job mobility research continues to hold the “implicit assumption” (Dwyer 2004:112) that individuals seek to achieve greater wage during voluntary mobility (Rhodes & Doering 1983; Markey & Parks 1989; Dwyer 2004). Consequently, even research which distinguishes between the directions of job mobility events continues to view downward mobility that does not result in a shift from full-time to part-time work as a negative and involuntary job transition (Lee & Mitchell 1994; Reitman & Schneer 2003; McBrier & Wilson 2004; Ng et al 2007). Such research is also dominated by the assumption that voluntary downward shifts are rare, if not non-existent, with perceived VDJM in reality masking aspects of labour market disadvantage which have prevented an individual from achieving upward progression (Dwyer 2004; McBrier & Wilson 2004; Ng et al 2007). This has resulted in much of the existing literature failing to distinguish between VDJM and IDJM, an issue further compounded by the lack of motivational data provided in nationally representative datasets used for estimations of job mobility levels and trends (Dwyer 2004; Ng et al 2007; Dustmann & Pereira 2008; Krieschok et al 2009). Consequently these failures have led to inaccurate reporting of levels for IDJM and the academic study of VDJM to be rare (Dwyer 2004; Sullivan & Baruch 2009). This research will therefore seek to identify the incidences of VDJM within the UK over a 15 year period.

VDJM has however entered popular consciousness due to an erroneous association with the concept of downshifting, a voluntary shift to part-time work or early retirement, as a result of dissatisfaction with consumer based cultures, and a desire to achieve greater work-life balance (Etzioni 1998; Schor 1998; Juniu 2000; Hamilton 2003; Dwyer 2004; Chhetri et al 2009). Despite this erroneous association, VDJM has undergone only limited

academic investigation, with studies investigating its prevalence or participants limited to small scale market research studies, or those lacking sufficient methodological rigour, leading its existence to be dismissed as an unpopular social fad (Juniu 2000; Hamilton 2003; Dwyer 2004; Chhetri et al 2009). In exception to this Dwyer (2004) & Chhetri et al (2009) have both challenged traditional career assumptions and located significant trends in voluntary downward mobility within the USA, finding that that voluntary downward mobility accounts for almost "30%" (Dwyer 2004 p.119) of all voluntary mobility within the United States, and is a mobility form distinct from IDJM. Dwyer (2004) & Chhetri et al's (2009) investigations have however, transferring the conceptualisation of downshifting to VDJM, focused upon downward job mobility that involves a shift into part-time work or complete labour market exit, preventing their limited results being used reliably to characterize those engaging in VDJM as defined by this paper (McBrier & Wilson 2004; Chhetri et al 2009; Sullivan & Baruch 2009). Similarly, the cultural transferability of demographic and workplace effects is severely limited, and therefore the influence of participant characteristics may not be transferable to the UK (Chudzikowski et al 2009). Lastly as noted above, due to the lack of consideration of VDJM in pre-existing research, their findings cannot be reliably generalised to individuals engaging in VDJM. This paper will therefore investigate the relationship between demographic and occupational characteristics unique to engagement in VDJM.

2.4-Summary

The review of current literature and research in the field of voluntary job mobility has highlighted a number of areas which require further research. Due to a lack of longitudinal data and a focus upon specific demographic segments of the UK population, nationally representative investigations of job mobility within the UK have been both rare and inaccurate (Gregg & Wadsworth 2002). Similarly research investigating the relationship between job mobility and participant characteristics has failed to achieve consistent results (Mumford & Smith 2004). It has also failed to distinguish the direction of voluntary mobility under study, assuming all mobility is motivated by wage (Dwyer 2004). Critically existing literature has neglected the study of VDJM which does not incur a shift into part-time work, rather viewing all downward mobility as involuntary (Dwyer 2004). Existing studies are also considered too simplistic in design, choosing only to investigate a limited range of participant characteristics, preventing research from identifying the interrelationship between participant characteristics and voluntary job mobility (Sullivan & Baruch 2009). This paper will therefore seek to identify the incidences and changing incidences of VDJM, which does not involve a shift into part-time work, within the UK. It will also seek to investigate how the prevalence of VDJM compares to other forms of voluntary job mobility. Lastly this research will seek to explore the demographic and occupational characteristics of VDJM participants.

Chapter 3-Methodology

3.1-Research Aims

This research aims to investigate VDJM within the UK. Based upon the review of the literature the research will seek to answer the following research questions;

- 1) What is the prevalence of VDJM within the UK and how has this varied over time?
- 2) How does the prevalence of VDJM compare to other forms of voluntary mobility?
- 3) What are the occupational and demographic characteristics of those engaging in VDJM?
- 4) How do these characteristics affect the likelihood of engagement in VDJM?

3.2-Research Philosophy

In order to answer the above questions this research will adopt a critical-realist ontology (Bhaskar 1978; Tsang & Kwan 1999; Fleetwood 2005). From this perspective a mind independent reality exists (Bhaskar 1978). Social research can identify and develop understanding of a social event, such as VDJM, through exploration of the structures and mechanisms, which generate and influence it (Porter 1993; Tsang & Kwan 1999). This ontology, unlike positivism, allows this research to adopt a position of epistemological relativism, in which research cannot produce infallible or complete reflections of reality (Fleetwood 2005). Rather partial knowledge of social events can be obtained through objective observation of regularities and trends, whilst recognising the presence of mechanisms such as institutional sexism and value systems, which influence social events but cannot be directly or objectively observed (Tsang & Kwan 1999; Patomaki & Wight 2000; Mir & Watson 2001; Fleetwood 2005). Such a philosophy is therefore appropriate for this research, recognising that the methods employed by this paper can be used to meet its research objectives but cannot be used to provide explanations of VDJM (Patomaki & Wight 2000; Fleetwood 2005).

3.3-Research Approach

This paper will utilise quantitative longitudinal panel analysis as it requires its data analysis to be representative of, and generalisable to, the UK full-time employment population (Hakim 2002). Lofland and Lofland (1995) note that research which requires results which can be generalised beyond their original sample are best explored using quantitative methods, as they allow research to achieve large sample sizes. Consequently, quantitative research is the most effective way to objectively investigate empirical social mechanisms, such as job mobility at the national level (Fleetwood 2005; Baruch 2006; Bryman 2008). Quantitative methods will enable this research to achieve standardized and consistent data, essential when attempting to identify and compare the individual characteristics of those engaging in VDJM to other job mobility behaviours (Booth & Francesconi 2000; Mumford & Smith 2004; Halaby 2004; Bryman 2008). Qualitative research methods would be unsuitable for this research, as whilst providing increased data detail and explanation, it would prevent a large and representative sample size from being achieved by the research (Neuman 2006; Anderson 2009).

As noted in chapter 2, the dominance of cross-sectional research in the study of job mobility has led to inaccurate and simplistic reporting of mobility levels, notably through the use of the LFS and GHS datasets (Booth et al 1999a; Gregg & Wadsworth 2002). Therefore, longitudinal panel data will allow the research to collect accurate employment and demographic data from an individual over time, without reliance on respondent memory (Booth et al 1999b; Hakim 2000; Hsiao 2007; Bryman 2008). Longitudinal research also allows the examination of the effect of time and context upon a social phenomena (Pettigrew 1990; Hakim 2000; Hsiao 2007), specifically to this research, the trends of VDJM and the effect of changing economic climates (Ng et al 2007). The requirement for nationally representative longitudinal data across a large time scale means secondary data analysis is the only viable method for this research (Hakim 2000; Bryman 2008).

3.4-Data

In consideration of the above, the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS n.d) is the best dataset available for this research, as it is the only longitudinal panel study of its kind in the UK (Lambert 2006). The BHPS collects demographic, occupational and economic data annually from a nationally representative sample of 10,000 individuals across the UK (ESDS n.d.a; Dustmann & Pereira 2008), allowing this research to accurately generalise to the UK full-time employment population (Lambert 2006). The BHPS also includes detailed occupational information for an individual's current and previous employment (ESDS n.d.a; Booth & Francesconi 2000). This data has been successfully used, notably by Booth et al (1999a), to measure job mobility trends (Lambert 2006).

The panel nature of the BHPS is particularly beneficial to this study as it allows the same individuals to be followed over time by this research, allowing the effect of changes in an individual's circumstances to be accurately measured (Pettigrew 1990; Booth et al 1999b; Hakim 2000; Lambert 2006; Hsiao 2007). As such, this research will be able to move beyond identification of associations between VDJM and participant characteristics, to establishing causality between variables (Hakim 2000; Zouwen & Tilburg 2001; Field 2009). Panel data also allows increased accuracy in the identification of participant characteristics effect upon VDJM, by identifying change within an individual over time and differences across a group of individuals within a cross-sectional sample (Hakim 2000; Greene 2002; Lambert 2006).

It must however be noted that the BHPS's use of structured interviews to collect data increases the likelihood of interviewer effects (ESDS n.d.a; Lambert 2006), in which respondents provide responses which conform to expected social norms (Stronach & MacLure 1997; Rynes et al 2004). This issue is of particular relevance to this research's assessment of the reasons for job mobility. Respondents may feel uncomfortable revealing involuntary job change reasons to strangers, particularly those related to health, familial, or discriminatory issues and therefore refuse to, or inaccurately respond (Dwyer 2004; Rynes et al 2004; Corby & Stanworth 2009). However, in comparison to questionnaires, this method increases the reliability of data collected, particularly those regarding income (Lambert 2006; Anderson 2009; Silverman 2010).

3.5-Sampling

This research will use BHPS waves E-R/September 1993-April 2009 (BHPS n.d). In order to provide a complete years mobility behaviour, only data from Jan/1994-Dec/2008 was analysed. Whilst data is available from 1991, the first 2 waves of the dataset are not utilised due to the inconsistent availability of wage and job separation variables (ESDS n.d.a). Data regarding labour market size and unemployment levels was also drawn from Eurostat (Eurostat n.d).

As this research seeks to investigate VDJM, which does not involve a shift into part-time work or exit from the labour force, its estimating sample only includes individuals in permanent full-time - defined in the BHPS as working greater than 30 hours a week (ESDS n.d.a)- non-self-employment (Booth & Francesconi 2000). These inclusion criteria allowed the research to control for inconsistencies in the measurement of working hours, income and mobility behaviour of part-time, self-employed and temporary workers (Sullivan 1999; Booth & Francesconi 2000; Parrado et al 2007). Similarly, in order to maintain a strictly longitudinal approach and avoid poor reliability due to missing data, an issue common to panel data (Hakim 2000), only individuals who provided two fully completed consecutive surveys were included (Booth et al 1999b; Dustmann & Pereira 2008). A consequence of this is that the sample is likely to underestimate levels of involuntary job mobility, as involuntary shifters are more likely than voluntary shifters to refuse to provide previous job information (Booth & Francesconi 2000; Dwyer 2004). Figures 1 and 2 indicate the final sample characteristics. The yearly increase in the sample size reflects BHPS implemented panel increases designed to maintain data representativeness in response to changes in the UK demographic makeup (ESDS n.d.a; Lambert 2006). Despite the sampling restrictions imposed, this research will maintain its external validity, as representative of the UK labour market population in full-time, non-self-employment (Booth & Francesconi 2000).

Figure 1: Sample Size by Year

Year	Sample Size
1994	1403
1995	1602
1996	1773
1997	1876
1998	2139
1999	1936
2000	2311
2001	3272
2002	2681
2003	3182
2004	2776
2005	2757
2006	4595
2007	4493
2008	4419

Figure 2: Sample Characteristics

Sample Characteristics	
No. Responses	41215
No. Unique Individuals	9857
Average No. Responses per Individual	4 (Hi: 6 Lo:2)
Male	5382 (54.6% of sample)
Female	4475 (45.4% of Sample)
Average Age	Mean=38.51 yrs

3.6-Methods

Construction of this research's dataset and preliminary analysis were conducted using the software package PASW. This was used to merge the individual employment and household questionnaires from BHPS waves C (Sep 93) to R (April 09) into a dataset suitable for panel data analysis (Lambert 2006). The use of secondary data did however require the computation or re-coding of a number of variables, which were either not included within the original BHPS dataset or unsuitable in their original form. Figure 3 provides details of these, further details of specific variable constructions can be found in Appendix 1.

Figure 3: Constructed or re-coded variables

Variable Name	Variable Description
Gender	Binary Variable denoting persons sex, coded as 0=male 1=female
Age	The age of the individual computed from their date of birth, a squared term was also computed in order to establish the presence of a non-linear relationship
Married or Cohabiting	A binary variable denoting the relationship status of an individual, coded as 0=single or living alone, 1=married or cohabiting with a partner
No of children ()	3 scale variables denoting the number of dependent children within an individual household aged 0-4, 5-11 & 12-15
Tenure	Scale variable indicating how long an individual was employed in a job before they were mobile
Weekly-Hours	The total hours an individual would usually work in a standard working week at the job they were mobile from, a squared term was also computed
Hours-Changed	Categorical variable indicating whether the total weekly hours worked by an individual changed by more than 5% after mobility, coded as 0=No change, 1=Increased Hours, 2=Decreased Hours
Owned Home	Binary Variable denoting the home ownership status, Coded as 0=rented, mortgaged or state provided 1=Owned Outright
Moved House	Binary Variable indicating whether an individual had moved house in the last year 0=did not move 1=did move house
Highest Educational Qualification	Categorical Variable, denoting highest educational achievement, coded as 0=GCSE or Equivalent, 1=A-Level or college award, 2= Degree level or Higher
Changed Occupation	Binary Variable indicating whether an identified job change involved an occupational change at the 4 digit level (using ISCO-88)(Parrado et al 2007)
National Unemployment Rate	Percentage rate of UK unemployment at the time of job change
Job Change	Indicated whether an individual had changed job
Nature of Job Change	A Binary variable denoting whether a job change was voluntary or involuntary. (Discussed further below)
Monthly Wage	The log of usual monthly wage in an individual' previous job. (Discussed further below), a squared term was also computed
Type of Mobility	A multinomial variable denoting the type of mobility engaged in by an individual, 0=Voluntary lateral, 1=Voluntary upward 2 =VDJM 3=Involuntary Full-Time Shift 4=Shift to part-time, 5=Shift to self-employment 6=Labour Market Exit
VDJM	Binary variable used as dependant variable in all analyses, Coded as 0= Other voluntary job mobility, 1 = VDJM (As in Dwyer 2004)

Of key importance to this research was the conceptualisation and construction of VDJM. For the purposes of this study VDJM is defined as voluntary job mobility which involved a reduction of more than 10% in gross wage (as in Dwyer 2004 p.118), but did not incur a shift out of full-time work. The construction of two key variables also requires further comment. In order to ascertain whether job mobility was voluntary or involuntary, BHPS variable 'Reasons for leaving previous job' was re-coded (ESDS n.d.a). All firm-initiated shifts were classified as involuntary, whilst shifts initiated by the individual are considered voluntary (as in; Booth & Francesconi 2000). Job changes as a result of family or health problems, as well as voluntary redundancy, were coded as involuntary to prevent misidentification of mobility as a result of coercive influences (Rapley 2001; Booth & Francesconi 2000). Despite these considerations, in the absence of detailed motivational data, this research may overestimate levels of voluntary mobility (Dwyer 2004; Corby & Stanworth 2009). Specifically, identified VDJM may disguise involuntary mobility, particularly among women (Dwyer 2004; Corby & Stanworth 2009).

The BHPS does not provide hourly wage data, it must instead be computed from hours worked and usual monthly wage (ESDS n.d). Preliminary analysis did however reveal inconsistencies in the use of an hourly wage computed in this way, specifically a high number of outliers (people earning below £1 per hour) (Dustmann & Pereira 2008) were found, indicating that the computed hourly wage figure may have disguised unpaid and possibly involuntary overtime (Bell & Hart 1999). Consequently monthly wage data was utilised within all analyses, although all wage values were converted to \log_{10} form in order to improve the accuracy of the analysis (Blackburn 2007). Square terms were also computed for wage, age and total hours in order to investigate the existence of a non-linear relationship between certain characteristics and job mobility, as suggested by contemporary literature (Thozhur et al 2006).

3.7-Data Analysis:

In order to answer this papers research questions two stages of analysis were conducted using STATA v11IC. In order to identify the trends for VDJM within the UK over the period of study (research questions 1 and 2), this research employed a series of descriptive statistics. Using time series graphs and cross-tabulation, the prevalence of VDJM was identified as a proportion of the UK full-time employment population and was compared to the prevalence of other forms of job mobility (as in Dwyer 2004). This also allowed the

research to assess the impact of structural fluctuations, specifically unemployment levels. Throughout this analysis 95% confidence intervals were applied to assess whether statically significant differences exist between the levels and trends of the different mobility forms (Field 2009).

In order to answer the third research question, demographic and occupational characteristics identified in the literature review were first examined for a basic association with VDJM compared to OVJM using a combination of descriptive statistics and visual analysis (as in Dwyer 2004). Where graphs were utilised 95% confidence intervals were applied throughout (Field 2009).

Consequently stepwise logistic regression was applied to assess the nature of any identified associations or relationships between participant characteristics and engagement in VDJM, using the dependent variable 'VDJM' which compared VDJM to other forms of voluntary mobility (as in Dwyer 2004). Demographic and occupational characteristics identified by the literature review were added to the regression model in steps, along with appropriate theory driven interactions (See Figure 4).

Whilst the BHPS also provides data for partner employment status and household income, which were noted as possible influences over mobility in chapter 2, initial analysis revealed these characteristics dramatically reduced the reliability of the regression models due to high multi-collinearity (Field 2009). Consequently these were excluded from the analysis as their inclusion required significant alteration and statistical processing beyond the scope of this paper (see; Mumford & Smith 2004).

Figure 4: Stepwise Regression Stages

Stepwise Regression Stages
Step 1 - Core Variables: <i>Age, Age², Relationship Status, Children, Job Tenure, Total Weekly Hours, Total Weekly Hours², Hours change after Mobility?, Monthly Wage & Monthly Wage²</i>
Step 2 - Step 1+ Interactions between Core Variables
Step 3 - Step 2+ Home Ownership, Moved House, Education, Occupational Change and Unemployment Rate + Interactions Between Core and Additional Variables

The panel nature of the data used in this research required the application of alternative analysis techniques to ensure result reliability (Halaby 2004; Hsiao 2007; Field 2009). Specifically, the analysis was required to account for autocorrelation, in which the

accumulation of standard errors caused by multiple observations upon a single individual led yearly variables to be dependent upon each other (Hakim 2000; Diggle et al 2003; Halaby 2004). Consequently the research utilised Stata's `svy` and `xt` logistic regression functions, which are designed to account for the panel nature of the data used, by allowing multiple responses to cluster on an individual over time (Diggle et al 2003; Stata 2007). Further all dependent variables included within the analysis were tested for heteroskedasticity, using Stata's `xttest3` for heteroskedasticity (Stata 2007). This test returned a significant result indicating that heteroskedasticity was present and needed to be accounted for within the analysis (Hsaio 2007). Stata does not however provide a method of controlling for heteroskedasticity when applying panel sensitive logistic regression (Stata 2007). Rather Stata's `xtgee` function which uses generalized estimating equations, was performed to act as a control (Stata 2007). Whilst `xtgee` cannot produce results suitable for this papers analysis due to the production of population averaged coefficients, rather than referenced odds ratio, it is robust to heteroskedasticity (Stata 2007). Consequently, comparisons between `xtgee` and `xtlogit` models, specifically which independent variables were significant, were conducted to provide an indication of whether heteroskedasticity had negatively affected the validity of the regression analysis (Kohler & Kreuter 2005). Throughout the analysis coefficients were consistently significant across both logistic and `xtgee` models, consequently heteroskedasticity is assumed not to have affected the analysis (Kohler & Kreuter 2005; Stata 2007).

For all steps of the regression analysis pooled-cross-sectional, fixed-effects and random-effects models were produced and the results compared in order to check for result consistency (Greene 2002). Pooled-models, examining the data as a cross-section, allow the research to identify difference in participant characteristics across a time static sample (Podestà 2002). This does not allow for change within individuals over time to be considered (Podestà 2002; Allison 2005). Rather fixed-effects models, which focus only upon change within an individual, allow this research to identify how changes in individual characteristics over time effect engagement in VDJM whilst also controlling for the effect of unobserved heterogeneity, specifically the influence of subjective factors upon VDJM, which could bias results (Allison 2005; Kohler & Kreuter 2005; Snijders 2005). Fixed-effect models do however exclude time-invariant variables, such as gender, and risk the production of biased results for independent variables with minimal variability, such as the number of children in a household (Kohler & Kreuter 2005;

Snijders 2005). Lastly random-effects models average the variance of predictor variables within individuals, allowing the examination of the effect of difference both across a population of individuals and within individuals overtime (Greene 2002; Snijders 2005). Random-effects models also allow the findings of this research to be generalised beyond this research's sample (Greene 2002; Allison 2005). A Hausmann test determined that whilst each of these models account for influences upon VDJM engagement, the random effects model provided the greatest predictive accuracy of the three models (Podestà 2002; Stata 2007).

3.8-Ethical Issues:

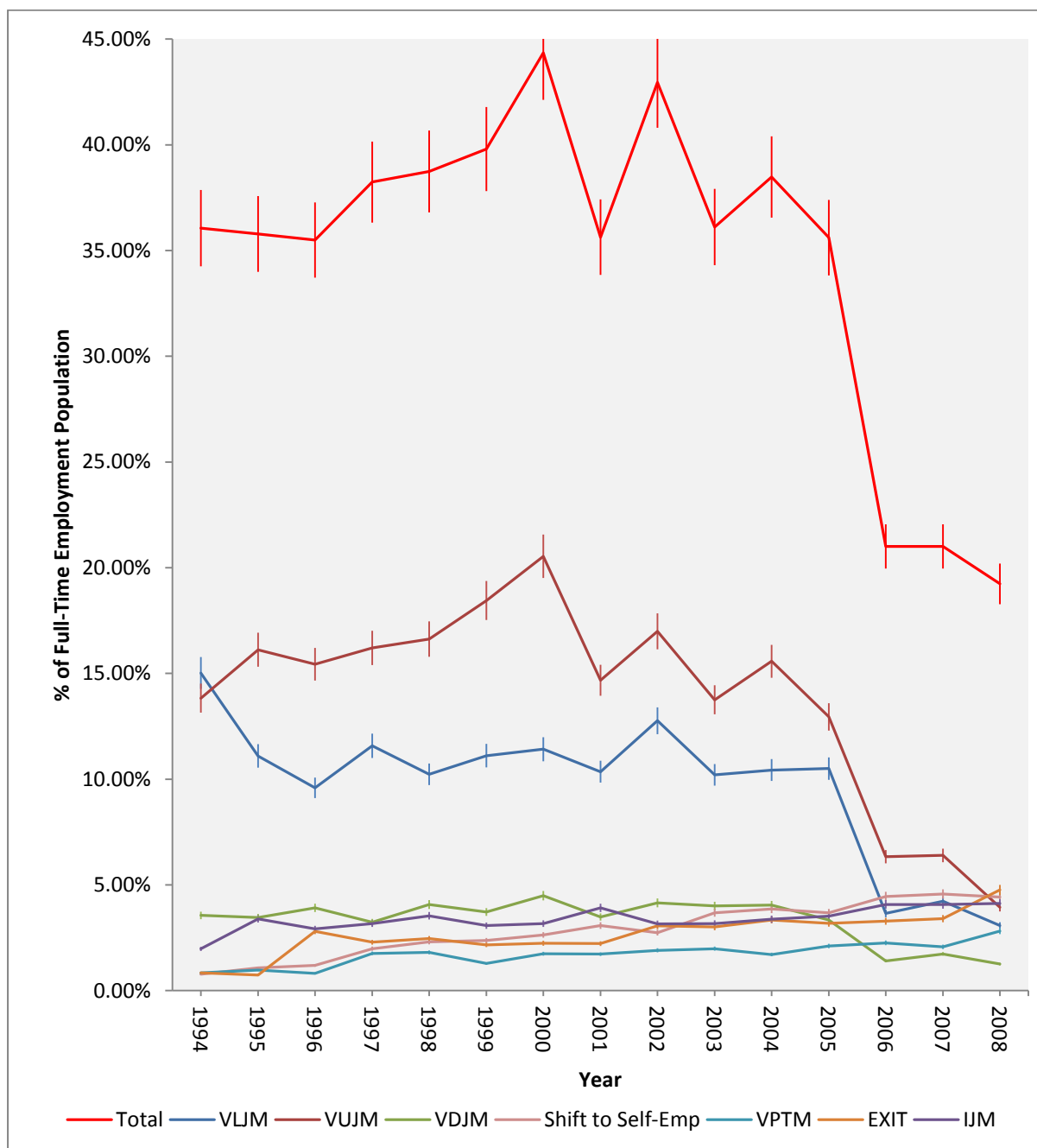
The use of secondary quantitative data within this research presents no ethical concerns, as it will not require interaction with human participants (Neuman 2006). Rather all BHPS data obtained is provide for public and academic use and is anonymised (ESDS n.d.a).

Chapter 4-Analysis and Discussion

4.1-The incidences and trends of VDJM-Analysis and Discussion

This chapter will begin by establishing the prevalence of general job mobility within the UK full-time employed population between 1994-2008, before examining the incidence and trends for VDJM within this context.

Figure 5: Graph showing job mobility within the full-time employment population



The data shows that between 1994-2008 an average of 34.57% of the full-time employed population engaged in job mobility. Figure 5 shows the incidences and trends for total and individual forms of job mobility undertaken by full-time employees as a percentage of the full-time employment population. It is immediately clear that the levels of both total and individual forms of mobility are not static over the period of interest. Rather in 1994 36.06% of the sample engaged in job mobility, which tentatively extrapolated to the total full-time employed population of 16.25 million individuals (Eurostat n.d, np) indicates that 5.86 million employees engaged in job mobility. In line with existing empirical work which suggests that job mobility increased within the UK until 2001 (Macaulay 2003; Heitmueller 2004), figure 5 indicates that total job mobility steadily increased from 1994, peaking in 2000 at 44.35% of those in full-time employment or 7.93 million individuals. However total job mobility can be seen to drop dramatically to a low of 19.24%, approximately 3.65 million individuals, in 2008.

Figure 6: Graph showing VDJM relative to full-time employment

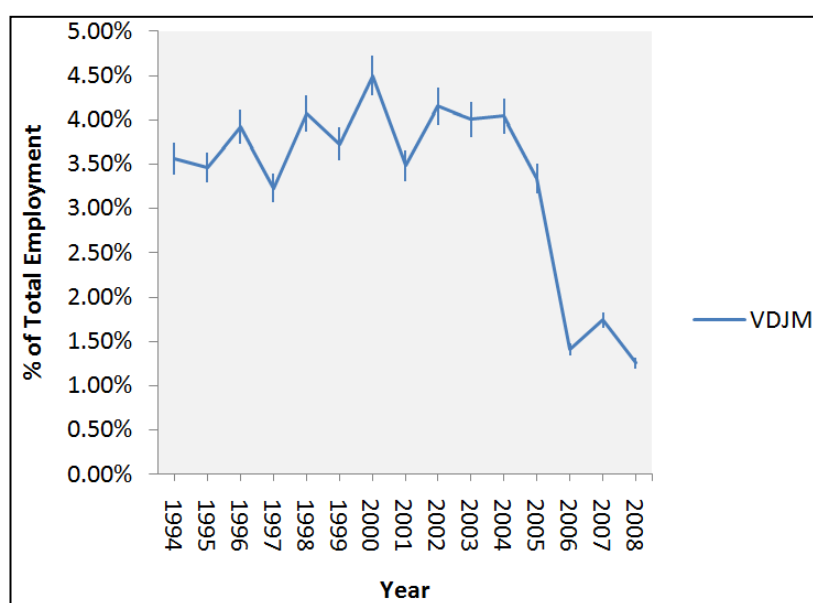


Figure 6 provides the same data but highlights VDJM. It indicates that, like total mobility, the prevalence of VDJM varies over the period of study. In 1994 3.56% of the working population, approximately 577,000 individuals, engaged in VDJM. VDJM appears to increase steadily, peaking in 2000 when 4.49% of the employed population, approximately 804,000 individuals, engaged in VDJM. However, like total mobility, the prevalence of VDJM falls dramatically from 2006 to a low of 1.25%, approximately 240,000 individuals in 2008. These results show that VDJM is far from rare within the UK full-time employed

population, with an average of 3.32% of those in full-time employment engaging in VDJM each year, whilst 9.12% of individuals within the sample engaged in VDJM at some point between 1994-2008. These findings are consistent with similar work by Dwyer (2004) in the USA, who finds that downward mobility is a significant alternative mobility path for many within the working population. These findings also contradict the work of Markey & Parks (1989) and more recently Ng et al (2007) who claim that VDJM does not exhibit a significant prevalence beyond shifts into part-time work.

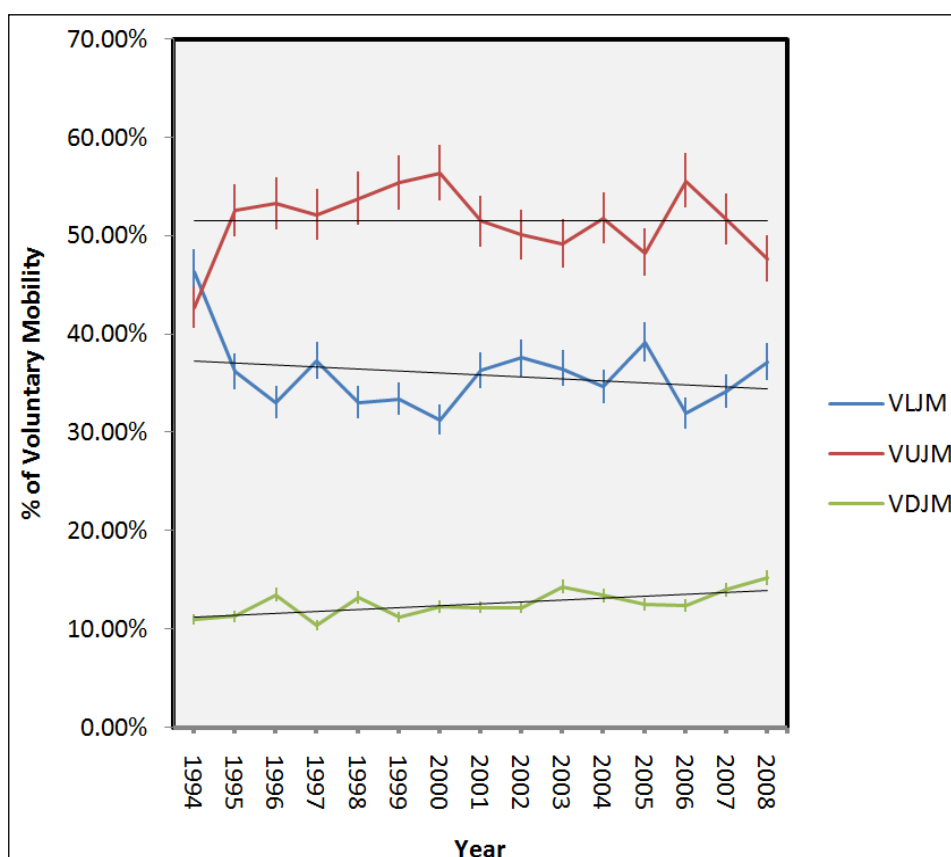
Of particular interest is that that the levels of VDJM as a percentage of the employed population appear to follow the same general trends as both voluntary upward and voluntary lateral mobility (figure 5), be it in a less pronounced form due to its generally lower prevalence. These findings indicate that despite its definition as a non-traditional career movement (Dwyer 2004), national levels of VDJM proportional to the full-time employment population are affected by structural factors in the same way as other voluntary job mobility. This supports empirical work by Rhodes & Doering (1983) and Longhi & Brynin (2010), which finds that structural factors exert differing influences upon mobility levels based upon the nature of the job separation, i.e. involuntary or voluntary, not between the national levels of individual mobility forms. The trends for VDJM also provide support for Ng et al's (2007) proposal that national job mobility levels are affected by structural factors. Specifically, VDJM can be seen to sharply decline in 2001 during the US recession whose effect was felt in the UK (Macaulay 2003). The dramatic reduction in all three forms of voluntary full-time mobility, including VDJM, between 2005-2008 also coincides with increasing UK unemployment, which rose from 4.6% in 2005 to 6.3% 2008 (Eurostat n.d, np), as well as general economic instability in the lead up to, and first year of the financial crisis of 2007 (Moscarini & Thomsson 2007; Clegg 2010). This is also reflected in increases in labour market exits, shifts into part-time employment, involuntary mobility and shifts into part-time work. These findings support previous work by Ng et al (2007) and Moscarini & Thomsson (2007) which indicates that weak or uncertain economic conditions reduce national levels of voluntary full-time job mobility due to a reduction in favourable opportunities, whilst individuals may choose to enter self-employment in anticipation of low job security.

The observed reduction in national VDJM levels as a proportion of the full-time employment population may also be due to a 3.75 million person increase in the size of the

labour market between 2005-2008 (Eurostat n.d, np). This can be in part attributed to continuing government action from 2003 onwards which has increased the state retirement age and reduced state pensions forcing many previously retirement age individuals to remain in employment (Dixon 2003; DWP 2011).

The incidences and trends for VDJM will now be considered in relation to, and as a proportion of all voluntary mobility. Supporting the above findings, the data confirms that VDJM is a prominent form of voluntary mobility. Specifically 12.7% of individuals engaging in voluntary mobility engaged in VDJM, compared to 35.3% and 52% engaging in VLJM and VUJM respectively. Figure 7 shows the changing incidences of each voluntary mobility form relative to total voluntary job mobility over the period of study.

Figure 7: Graph Showing trends for VDJM proportional to total voluntary mobility



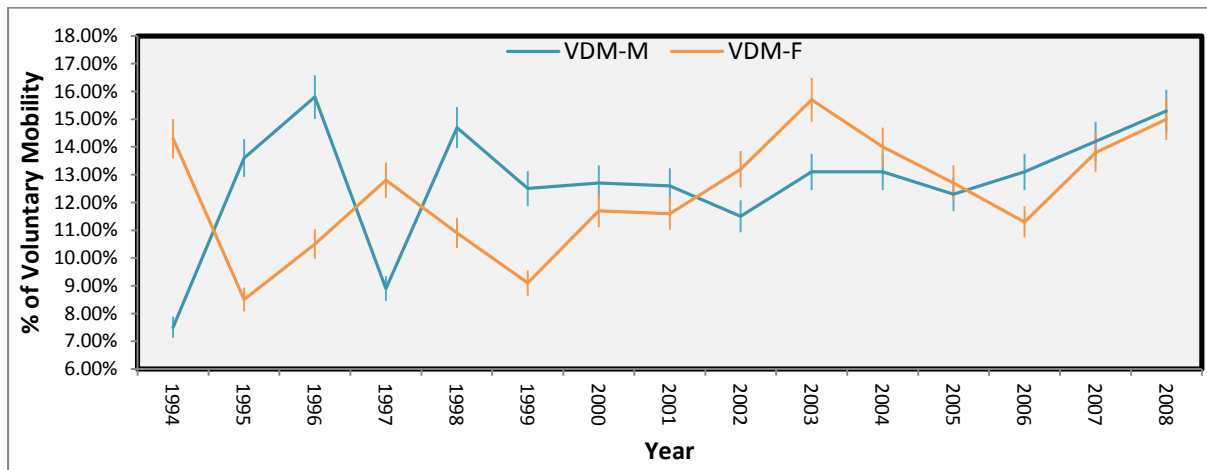
Whilst this research finds minor year-on-year variation in the level of VDJM relative to other voluntary mobility, trend lines within figure 7 indicate that in contrast to the decrease in the prevalence of VDJM relative to the full-time employment population, VDJM relative to other voluntary mobility increased over the period of study, possibly absorbing the decline in the proportion of VLJM. Figure 7 also indicates that upward mobility

maintained a level trend over the period. These findings appear to corroborate contemporary job mobility research which proposes that modern employment climates have led to increasing levels of non-traditional career paths (Sullivan & Arthur 2006). Specifically VDJM has grown at the expense of lateral mobility, previously undertaken to benefit from employer provided training, a provision now in decline (Clarke 2009). Similarly increases in the proportion of VDJM during periods of labour force aging suggest that VDJM may represent a viable alternative for individuals unable to retire in modern economic climates (Barnes et al 2004).

These findings indicate that whilst national levels of VDJM relative to the full-time employment population are affected in the same way by fluctuation in structural factors, structural factors do impact VDJM as a proportion of voluntary mobility. Crucially, figure 7 indicates that VDJM's prevalence proportional to other voluntary mobility forms increases during periods of economic instability and high unemployment, notably increasing from 12.4% to 15.1%, in the lead up to the financial crisis (Clegg 2010). These results do however corroborate the findings of existing research investigating non-traditional mobility. Both Dwyer (2004) and Chhetri et al (2009) found individuals engaged in downward, rather than upward, mobility during periods of high unemployment. It must be considered however that the increasing prevalence of VDJM during periods of economic instability may, in line with work by Ng et al (2007), be pre-emptive acts by employees who anticipate redundancy, or provide mobile individuals with a method of increasing their job security during periods of economic instability by reducing their financial drain upon an employer, neither of which is truly voluntary. Therefore future research must seek to investigate the extent of this behaviour within identified VDJM.

It must however be noted that VDJM's prevalence is less consistent when it is differentiated by gender (Figure 8). Rather significant year-on-year variation can be seen between the two gender groups suggesting that gender may play a crucial role in VDJM participation.

Figure 8: Graph showing VDJM share of voluntary mobility by gender



4.2-The Participants of VDJM-Analysis

This chapter will identify the demographic and occupational characteristics associated with VDJM participants and their effect upon engagement in VDJM. It will begin by examining the descriptive statistics for VDJM and OVJM participants.

Figure 9 reports the mean values of the scalable participant characteristics for both VDJM and OVJM, whilst figure 10 highlights the categorical participant characteristics for both VDJM and OVJM. Detailed cross tabulation can be found in Appendix 2.

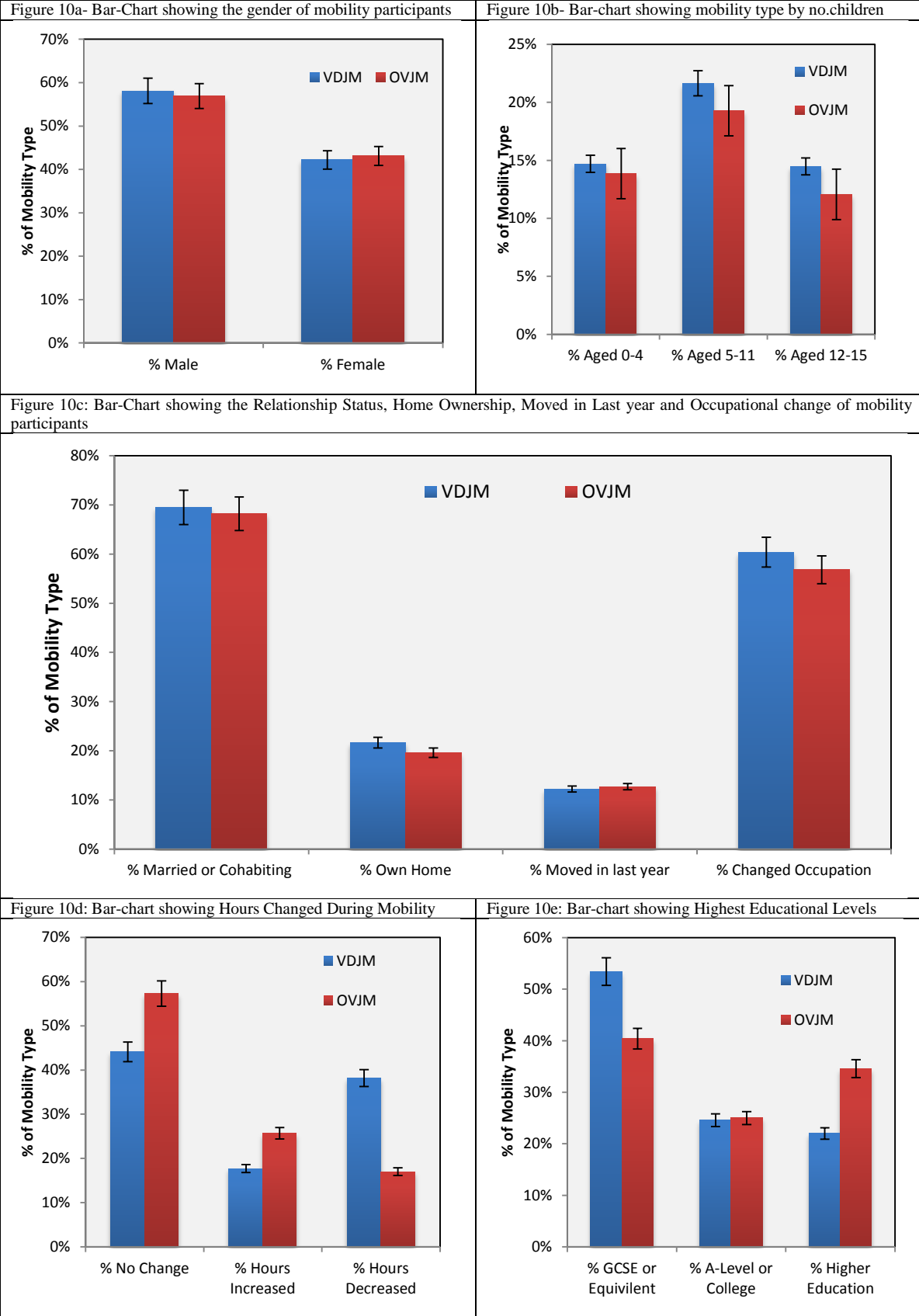
Figure 10a indicates no statistically significant gender differences between VDJM and OVJM. This chart is however unable to consider the significant difference between male (54.6%) and female (45.4%) representation within the sample, which may bias these results. Similarly figures 10a-10c indicate no statistically significant differences between VDJM and OVJM participants for the number of dependent children, relationship status, home ownership, geographical relocation or occupational change, suggesting that these characteristics are common to all voluntary mobility participants (Field 2009).

Crucially figure 9 indicates that the wage sacrificed during VDJM is significant, whereby VDJM participants sacrifice an average £547.33 a month, a reduction of almost 30%. Similarly figure 9 indicates that on average VDJM participants worked approximately three hours longer in their previous jobs than individuals who engaged in OVJM, although VDJM participants decreased their working hours during mobility almost twice as much as other shifters. Similarly VDJM participants earned an average of £316.98 more weekly in their previous job than individuals engaging in OVJM. VDJM participants are also on average 4 years older than those engaging in OVJM. Lastly, whilst figure 10e indicates no statistically significant differences for individuals with A-level educations, both extremes of educational attainment indicate significant differences in VDJM and OVJM engagement, specifically VDJM participants have significantly lower educational levels than OVJM participants.

Figure 9: Scale variable descriptive statistics

Variable	VDJM		OVJM	
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Age (Years)	35.29	10.879	31.14	10.176
Monthly-Wage (Previous Job)	£1895.79	1524.66	£1578.81	978.11
Wage Reduction After Mobility	£547.33	1047.40	-	-
Weekly-Hours	46.276	11.044	43.38	8.756
Tenure (Years)	3.47	4.232	3.32	3.717

Figure 10: Categorical variable descriptive statistics



Whilst these results identify a number of VDJM participant characteristics, they provide only a basic indication of a relationship between the two, and provide no indication of the effect these characteristics have upon the likelihood of VDJM engagement.

Figure 11 shows the results of stepwise regression of VDJM versus OVJM using the same participant characteristics examined above. The three results columns denote pooled-cross-sectional, random-effects and fixed-effects models respectively (for summary statistics see Figure 13-Appendix 3). Throughout the analysis all models and steps achieved high levels of statistical significance, $p < .0001$, as predictors of VDJM. Similarly key characteristics were consistently significant across both pooled-cross-sectional and random-effects models, indicating that the analysis produced accurate results (Greene 2002). However, a number of characteristics achieve different significance across random and fixed-effect models. Notably the fixed-effect model achieved smaller odds-ratios for demographic characteristics which changed rarely, and larger odds-ratios on occupational characteristics which indicated change within an individual, as will be noted below.

Figure 11: Stepwise Regression Outputs

VDJM compared to OVJM						
Variables	Pooled Cross-Section		Random-Effects		Fixed-Effects	
	OR	SE	OR	SE	OR	SE
Step 1						
Gender(Female)	1.435***	0.144	1.454***	0.152		
Age	0.900***	0.032	0.894***	0.031	0.313***	0.059
Age ²	1.001***	0.000	1.002***	0.000	1.009***	0.002
Married or Cohabiting (MCH)	1.158	0.122	1.167	0.126	0.685	0.248
No.Children Aged 0-4 (NC04)	1.167	0.119	1.168	0.122	1.189	0.298
No.Children Aged 5-11 (NC511)	1.077	0.082	1.083	0.083	1.072	0.242
No.Children Aged 12-15 (NC1215)	1.224	0.126	1.228	0.129	0.894	0.273
Tenure (Years)	1.000	0.011	1.000	0.011	0.928	0.029
Weekly-Hours (HRS)	1.033	0.027	1.030	0.029	0.792***	0.055
Weekly-Hours ²	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.002***	0.001
Hours-changed(vs.no-change)						
Hours-Increased	0.899	0.108	0.890	0.109	0.743	0.203
Hours-Deceased	2.680***	0.284	2.794***	0.325	4.207***	1.222
Monthly-Wage	7.663	274.0	8.736	316.5	18.830	279.0
Monthly-Wage ²	0.627	0.347	0.631	0.351	0.710	1.628
Constant	0.000*	0.000	0.000*	0.000		
Step 2						
Gender(Female)	1.147	0.403	1.143	0.421		
Age	0.880***	0.038	0.872***	0.037	0.336	0.075
Age ²	1.002***	0.000	1.002***	0.000	1.009	0.002
Married or Cohabiting (MCH)	1.116	0.127	1.124	0.131	0.730	0.282
No.Children Aged 0-4 (NC04)	0.064***	0.066	0.053***	0.060	0.000	0.000
No.Children Aged 5-11 (NC511)	1.153	0.630	1.163	0.688	0.0790	0.138
No.Children Aged 12-15 (NC1215)	0.483	0.356	0.460	0.368	7.233	16.170

The prevalence and participants of Voluntary Downward Job Mobility in the United Kingdom

Tenure (Years)	1.120**	0.073	1.126**	0.074	1.077	0.189
Weekly-Hours (HRS)	1.034	0.027	1.032	0.029	0.745***	0.060
Weekly-Hours ²	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.002***	0.001
Hours-changed(vs.no-change)						
Hours-Increased	0.909	0.110	0.900	0.111	0.737	0.209
Hours-Deceased	2.700***	0.287	2.819***	0.330	4.518***	1.367
Monthly-Wage	7.895	294.0	8.860	325.7	10.240	162.0
Monthly-Wage ²	0.629	0.363	0.635	0.358	0.438	1.063
Gender*Age	1.006	0.010	1.007	0.010	0.960	0.069
Gender*Tenure	0.966*	0.025	0.966*	0.026	0.996	0.070
Age*Tenure	0.998	0.001	0.998	0.001	0.996	0.003
MCH*NC04	3.704*	2.747	3.976*	3.231	14.706	14100
MCH*NC511	0.950	0.246	0.949	0.261	1.142	0.936
MCH*NC1215	1.235	0.384	1.251	0.446	0.184	0.210
Gender* NC04	2.090***	0.559	2.192***	0.582	2.713	1.725
Gender*NC511	1.206	0.237	1.230	0.241	2.786	1.967
Gender*NC1215	1.086	0.246	1.114	0.277	0.892	0.752
NC04*hrs	1.016	0.010	1.017	0.011	1.047**	0.024
NC511*hrs	0.995	0.007	0.994	0.007	1.025	0.019
NC1215*hrs	1.014	0.011	1.014	0.011	0.991	0.029
Constant	0.000*	0.000	0.000*	0.000		
Step 3						
Gender(Female)	1.540	0.626	1.594	0.698		
Age	0.905**	0.040	0.899**	0.041	0.345	0.081
Age ²	1.001***	0.000	1.002***	0.000	1.008	0.002
Married or Cohabiting (MCH)	1.071	0.126	1.070	0.131	0.687	0.270
No.Children Aged 0-4 (NC04)	0.069***	0.071	0.056**	0.064	0.000.0	0.000
No.Children Aged 5-11 (NC511)	1.336	0.748	1.373	0.850	0.208	0.383
No.Children Aged 12-15 (NC1215)	0.475	0.386	0.436	0.374	3.362	7.843
Tenure (Years)	1.086**	0.071	1.091**	0.073	1.020	0.185
Weekly Hours (HRS)	1.022	0.029	1.018	0.031	0.736***	0.060
Weekly Hours ²	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.002***	0.001
Hours-changed(vs.no-change)						
Hours-Increased	0.883	0.110	0.872	0.111	0.794	0.231
Hours-Deceased	2.825***	0.314	2.989***	0.369	5.240***	1.676
Monthly-Wage	2.216**	453.50	2.230**	889	1.488	243.0
Monthly-Wage ²	0.498	0.284	0.476	0.288	0.164	0.409
Gender*Age	1.003	0.011	1.003	0.011	0.979	0.075
Gender*Tenure	0.965*	0.025	0.954*	0.026	1.019	0.075
Age*Tenure	0.999	0.001	0.999	0.001	0.997	0.003
MCH*NC04	3.336*	2.535	3.622*	3.005	17.526	186.46
MCH*NC511	0.905	0.242	0.893	0.257	0.853	0.752
MCH*NC1215	1.320	0.423	1.375	0.516	0.383	0.466
Gender* NC04	2.109***	0.566	2.234***	0.619	2.072	1.333
Gender*NC511	1.098	0.223	1.113	0.232	1.725	1.285
Gender*NC1215	1.058	0.259	1.085	0.287	0.968	0.836
NC04*hrs	1.015	0.010	1.016	0.011	1.045*	0.025
NC511*hrs	0.994	0.007	0.993	0.008	1.022	0.019
NC1215*hrs	1.013	0.011	1.013	0.012	0.989	0.029
Own Home	1.526***	0.227	1.550***	0.252	1.627	0.898
Moved House	0.908	0.158	0.916	0.172	0.903	0.401
Highest Qualification-vs-GCSE						
A-Levels (EDU1)	0.773*	0.112	0.753*	0.112	0.416*	0.685
Higher-Education (EDU2)	0.271***	0.042	0.247***	0.043	0.651*	1.131
Changed Occupation (OCC)	3.166***	1.086	3.445***	1.255	7.074*	7.106
Unemployment Rate	1.090**	0.045	1.104**	0.050	1.078	0.163
Gender*EDU1	0.662	0.153	0.641	0.157	0.231	0.472

Gender*EDU2	1.228	0.278	1.226	0.295	0.113	0.250
Constant	0.000***	0.000	0.396***	0.231		
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1						

Throughout the data analysis there was clear evidence that demographic characteristics have a significant influence upon the likelihood of engagement in VDJM. Specifically figure 11 shows that the age of an individual is highly and consistently influential in determining engagement in VDJM. Whilst initially age appears to have a negative impact upon the likelihood of VDJM ($Exp(B)=0.899$, $p<.05$), the positive and significant value of age^2 ($Exp(B)=1.002$, $p<.05$) indicates that a non-linear relationship exists. Specifically the likelihood of VDJM decreases with age until an individual is approximately 37 years of age (Analysis shown in Figure 14-Appendix 3), after which the likelihood of VDJM increases with age.

Whilst age appears to have a direct influence over VDJM, a number of demographic characteristics appear to only have an indirect or moderated influence. Within both pooled and random-effect models in step 1 gender is a significant predictor of engagement in VDJM (gender is excluded from the fixed-effects model because it is time invariant (Allison 2005)). Women are found to be 45% more likely to engage in VDJM than men ($Exp(B)=1.454$, $p<.001$). After step 1 gender is no long significant but instead exerts an indirect influence upon VDJM through its interaction with a number of predictor variables.

No other demographic characteristics are significant in step 1. Only when gender and relationship status are added as interaction effects in step 2 does the presence of children aged 0-4 become significant, suggesting that children's influence upon VDJM engagement is moderated by these characteristics. The influence of children aged 5-15 remains insignificant throughout the analysis. Both pooled and random-effects models show that every additional child aged 0-4yrs reduces the probability of an individual engaging in VDJM by approximately 95% ($Exp(B) = 0.056$, $p<.05$). However, the interaction of children aged 0-4yrs with gender shows the likelihood of female respondents engaging in VDJM more than doubles when young children are present ($Exp(B)=2.235$, $p<.01$), suggesting that the negative influence of young children is limited to males. This is also reflected in the interaction between relationship status and children aged 0-4yrs, which shows that an additional young child increases the likelihood of VDJM by nearly 3.5 times

($Exp(B)=3.336$, $p<.1$) for married or cohabiting individuals, suggesting that the negative effect of children is also limited to single parents.

Both educational predictors when added in step 3 have a highly significant effect upon VDJM. Figure 11 shows that as educational levels increase, engagement in VDJM decreases, with respondents who possessed higher degrees being 75% ($Exp(B)=0.247$, $p<.01$) less likely to engage in VDJM than individuals with only GCSE or equivalent qualifications. These results are in-line with existing research by Thozhur et al (2006), who found that the expectation of extrinsic rewards, and therefore the likelihood of downward mobility, decreases as education does.

Lastly home ownership is also found to be significantly related to engagement in VDJM, individuals who own their own home outright are over 50% more likely to engage in VDJM than those who are either renting or paying a mortgage ($Exp(B)=1.550$, $p<.05$).

Figure 11 also shows that the occupational characteristics of an individual were a significant influence upon VDJM engagement. Figure 11 shows that total hours worked significantly affected VDJM engagement. Specifically as hours worked increases, an individual is less likely to engage in VDJM than OVJM ($Exp(B)=0.736$, $p<.01$). The significance of Hours² indicates however that this effect only continues up to 48 hours a week (See Figure 14-Appendix 3), after which VDJM engagement is more likely. Similarly VDJM participants are 5 times ($Exp(B)=5.240$, $p<.01$) more likely to work fewer hours in their new positions than OVJM participants, with an average reduction of 10.32 hours by VDJM participants (analysis not shown). It is beyond the scope of this analysis to determine whether working time reductions were part of an individual's contracted or overtime hours. The effect of hours was also moderated for parents of children aged 0-4yrs, where every additional hour worked increase the likelihood of VDJM by a further 5% ($Exp(B)=1.045$, $p<.1$) for parents with children aged 0-4yrs. It must however be noted that total hours is only significant within the fixed-effects model, and that 'Hours-Reduced', whilst significant across all models, achieves larger coefficients within the fixed-effects model.

The influence of some occupational characteristics also appeared to be indirect and heavily moderated. Specifically whilst not significant in step 1, in step 2 job tenure is positively associated with VDJM, increasing the likelihood of VJDM by 9% ($Exp(B)=1.09$, $p<.01$)

for every additional year of tenure. However this effect is reversed for female employees who are almost 5% less likely than men to engage in VDJM for every year of tenure ($Exp(B)=0.964, p<.1$). Similarly, wage does not have a statistically significant impact upon VDJM until step 3 when home ownership and educational variables are added, suggesting an underlying interaction. An increase in the likelihood of VDJM was found as an individual's wages rose ($Exp(B)=2.230, p<.05$). This result must however be interpreted with caution due to the high standard error.

Lastly, as highlighted by the trend analysis in chapter 4.1, figure 11 indicates a highly significant relationship between an individuals' engagement in VDJM and the national unemployment rate, whereby a percentage point rise in the national unemployment rate increases the likelihood of VDJM by 10% ($Exp(B)=1.104, p<.05$).

4.3-The participants of VDJM-Discussion

The analysis above has identified a number of demographic and occupational characteristics common to individuals engaging in VDJM. Whilst a number of these have been shown to exert a direct influence upon engagement in VDJM, the influence of the majority of characteristics is indirect or moderated. A number of these results warrant greater discussion.

The results of the analysis indicate that participant characteristics both enable and constrain VDJM engagement. The positive relationship between wage and VDJM engagement contradicts traditional views that individuals will not willingly sacrifice wage, especially at higher pay levels (Markey & Parks 1989). However, that wage only achieves statistical significance upon the addition of the home-ownership variable is crucial. This suggests that the influence of wage upon VDJM represents the effect of income after housing costs/disposable income, rather than direct wage (Longhi & Brynin 2010), and that VDJM may be enabled by lower financial outgoings. This is further supported by the positive effect of home-ownership upon VDJM, although this contradicts existing research which suggests that home-ownership provides financial stability and therefore disincentive to change jobs (Battu et al 2008; Longhi & Brynin 2010). Rather this paper's findings suggest that the stability of home ownership and the removal of financial costs, such as rent or mortgage payments, enables individuals to pursue non-extrinsic rewards through VDJM. Therefore, despite existing research suggesting that all downward mobility is the result of disadvantage or inability to progress within a field (Markey & Parks 1989; Ng et al 2007), these results suggest that VDJM engagement is highly dependent upon a favourable and stable financial position. These results also suggest that unlike the downshifting movement, which emphasises large changes in consumption and lifestyle as a result of downward mobility (Schor 1998), VDJM will only take place when a reduction in living standards can be avoided, as found in Angrave's (2010) qualitative investigation of VDJM motivations.

Conversely this research finds that some demographic characteristics appear to restrict VDJM engagement. Specifically the negative effect of young children upon VDJM engagement supports claims by Connolly & Gregory (2008) that the presence of children dramatically increases the need for income during mobility, especially during the first 4

years after birth when a child exerts the greatest financial cost (Estes & Glass 1996; Rindfuss et al 1999; Paull 2008), which would restrict the feasibility of VDJM for parents. However, the presence of a partner increases the likelihood of VDJM as an option for parents, supporting qualitative investigations which find that married or cohabiting couples feel more able to engage in VDJM due to the financial support provided by a working partner (Corby & Stanworth 2009; Angrave 2010). The lack of a significant difference between VDJM and OVJM participants for parents of children above age 5 suggests that the financial effect of these children is significantly reduced. Future research should investigate the effect of dependent children aged 16-18, not included in this research, as Estes & Glass (1996) note that children of this age exert a similar financial drain to young children.

The quadratic relationship between age and VDJM engagement encapsulates the suggested underlying effect of financial and familial stability. The alteration of VDJM likelihood as age increases reflects the changing levels of financial responsibility and dependency over the period of an individual's life. Specifically, finding that VDJM decreases as an individual approaches middle age may reflect where family, housing and social costs are at their highest (Parcel 1999). In contrast, young workers are less likely to have familial costs, whilst older workers are less likely to have young dependent children and are likely to own their own home or be close to doing so (Parcel 1999; Fuller 2008). This allows both groups to prioritise intrinsic measures of utility, reflected in increases in the likelihood of VDJM. Higher VDJM as age increases also supports the suggestion in chapter 4.1 above, that VDJM may represent a viable alternative to early retirement.

The regression results detailing the effect of gender upon VDJM engagement also warrant further discussion. Surprisingly, in contrast to contemporary theory which assumes that women value intrinsic utility forms over wage (McDonald et al 2005), the analysis revealed no direct differences in VDJM engagement based on gender alone beyond the first stage of analysis. Rather this paper finds that genders influence over VDJM is indirect. Specifically it is the fact that VDJM participants are highly likely to be female with young children, which is of particular interest. This finding conflicts with common perceptions of downshifting which characterise downshifter as older couples nearing retirement who do not have dependent children (Schor 1998; Hamilton 2003; Dwyer 2004).

The highlighted gender differential between the effects of young children upon VDJM, decreased for fathers and increased for mothers, does however support contemporary gender studies. Rindfuss et al (1999) and Booth et al (2003) found that due to the stereotypically perceived role of male provider, fathers often feel stigmatized to pursue increased wage when a young child is present, whilst the presence of a young child often leads mothers to value greater flexibility in their work and prioritise care for family (Booth et al 1999b). Exits from the labour market or shifts into part-time work to care for young children are increasingly perceived as unfeasible for career oriented women who cannot risk being considered unreliable (Dwyer 2004; Connolly & Gregory 2008; O'Neil et al 2008). Therefore, these results may indicate that VDJM represents an alternative to labour market exit for women with young children, allowing a greater work-life balance (discussed below) without exiting full time work, especially for those who have the financial support of a partner. The limited quantity or depth of motivational data available to this research does however complicate the interpretation of the differential effect of children and gender upon VDJM (Dwyer 2004). Specifically, how truly voluntary female shifts as a result of young children are, cannot be accurately determined. VDJM may therefore not be truly voluntary for women with young children, and may be the result of gender stereotyping which restricts female parents to a family carer role, limiting their employment mobility options (Fuller 2008; Corby & Stanworth 2009).

The last result of note from the analysis was that of the non-linear relationship between VDJM engagement and working hours. A reduction in hours was up to 5 times more likely during VDJM than OVJM. Whilst it is unsurprising that a reduction in earnings is more likely when an individual's working hours are reduced, the highly significant effect of an hours reduction during VDJM does support existing work which suggests that wage is often traded for greater flexibility in working hours (Greve & Fujiwara-Greve 2003; Dwyer 2004; Huang & Sverke 2007; Bonhomme & Jolivet 2009). Specifically working hours are often considered a proxy to an individual's attachment to, or enjoyment of, their work (Sousa-Poza & Henneberger 2004). Based upon this, the regression results indicate that as individuals work longer hours, individuals who enjoy their work are likely to be satisfied with their working time and therefore less likely to engage in VJDM. However when a point of excessive work is reached, the likelihood of VDJM increases as individuals seek a reduction in hours. This supports qualitative findings from Angrave

(2010) which found that the intrinsic utility from enjoyment of work can be exceeded by the disutility of working excessively long hours, particularly overtime. This research is unable to distinguish between contracted and overtime hours, but it is vital that future research investigate the individual effect of these. Interestingly however, the influence of total weekly hours was only significant within the fixed-effects regression model, which only examined the effect of change within an individual (Greene 2002). This suggests that the excessive work turning point is unique to each individual (Greene 2002; Plassmann & Neha 2007). This interpretation is further supported by the regression results interacting young children with working time, which indicates that the presence of young children reduces the turning point by 10.89 hours to 37.11 hours (Figure 14-Appendix 3). This also re-enforces the suggestion above that VDJM may represent an option for career orientated parents to achieve greater work-life balance and flexibility to care for their children.

Chapter 5-Conclusion

Despite the importance of understanding job mobility and growing academic interest in non-traditional forms of job mobility, VDJM has been severely under studied (Dwyer 2004). Existing research has failed to achieve consensus regarding the incidences and trends of specific forms of job mobility, and due to simplistic study designs has been unable to establish the effect of participant characteristics upon engagement in job mobility (Mumford & Smith 2004). Using longitudinal panel data this paper attempted to rectify this deficit and contribute to wider understanding of job mobility in the UK by identifying the incidences, trends and participant characteristics of VDJM within the UK.

This research has show that VDJM cannot be dismissed as a social fad. Rather it has found that VDJM has been consistently engaged in by a significant proportion (3.36%) of the UK working population between 1994-2008, and at its peak was undertaken by approximately 804,000 individuals in a single year. By examining the trends for VJDM within the UK, the research identified increases in national levels of VDJM up to 2005, and, in line with other forms of voluntary mobility, decreases from 2005 onwards as a result of growing economic uncertainty and increasing labour market size and competition. The research was however unable to disaggregate separate levels or trends for intra- and inter- firm VDJM. This may represent a potential avenue for future research as Booth & Francesoni (2000) show that the internal and external mobility are affected in different ways by both structural and demographic variances.

This paper has also demonstrated that VDJM's prevalence relative to other forms of voluntary mobility is also significant, accounting for an average of 13% of all voluntary full-time to full-time mobility in the UK. Crucially this research has found that VDJM steadily grew in its proportional share of voluntary mobility between 1994-2008, suggesting that VDJM is increasingly becoming a more feasible mobility option for individuals in modern employment climates. Equally surprising was that both trend and regression analysis revealed that VDJM's proportional share of voluntary mobility significantly increased during periods of high unemployment. This suggests that future research would benefit from the investigation of how VDJM's prevalence has altered in the final years of the global recession.

This research has also identified a significant relationship between a number of demographic and occupational characteristics and VDJM engagement. By investigating a wide range of participant characteristics in parallel, this research was able to identify a number of key inter-relationships between participant characteristics and their moderated effects upon VDJM engagement, such as between gender and children. Whilst it is unlikely that these specific interrelationships can be generalised to wider forms of job mobility, this paper's results add weight to arguments that in order for future research to capture the complexity of the job mobility processes it must move beyond examination of single participant characteristics (Dwyer 2004; Mumford & Smith 2004; Ng et al 2007).

Crucially this research has identified that the participant characteristics of those engaging in VDJM are far from those conceptualised by traditional career theory or the downshifting movement. Notably this paper found little evidence to support the general perception that VDJM is the result of economic and social disadvantage (Ng et al 2007). Rather a significant proportion of VDJM is enabled by financial stability and low financial dependencies. Again this suggests that future research would therefore benefit from the investigation of how VDJM's prevalence has altered in the final years of the global recession. Specifically financial security and home ownership, both of which appear crucial to enabling VDJM, are perceived to have become increasingly difficult to realise during this time (Clegg 2010), which may have restricted the opportunities for VDJM.

Similarly this paper found, contrary to assumptions within the downshifting literature (Schor 1998), that VDJM participants are highly likely to be female with children aged 0-4 years. This is especially important for the literature investigating female career paths and the effect of children and family upon job mobility (Huang & Sverke 2007). As noted above, VDJM may represent an important alternative mobility path for women with young children who cannot afford, financially or due to career goals, to completely exit the labour market or shift into part-time work (Estes & Glass 1996). It would be beneficial for future research to examine this trend in greater detail, particularly examining how VDJM among women with children has changed over time as a result of increased employment protection for parents, including greater maternity and paternity leave provisions, and increased employer sponsored childcare (Lewis & Campbell 2007).

This research did however suffer from a key limitation. As noted in chapter 3, the reliance upon secondary quantitative data prevented the research from ascertaining how truly

voluntary identified incidences of VDJM were (Dwyer 2004). This may have led the research to overestimate the levels of VDJM within the sample (Dwyer 2004; Chhetri et al 2009). This is of particular relevance to the identified increase in VDJM during periods of economic uncertainty, which may have masked involuntary shifts in anticipation of redundancy (Gregg & Wadsworth 2002; Dwyer 2004). Similarly this paper may have overestimated the levels of VDJM among women with young children, due to, as noted above, stereotypical gender roles which may have restricted their mobility options (Corby & Stanworth 2009). This issue is further compounded because this paper's analysis was unable to assess the influence that the employment status and income of an individual's spouse had upon engagement in VDJM. Existing research has found that spousal employment can play an important role in mobility, particularly of women, in which traditional household dynamics prioritise male work, leading female employment to accommodate necessary changes (Dwyer 2004; Connolly & Gregory 2008). Therefore, given the high proportion of female participation within identified VDJM it should be considered crucial for future research to ascertain what proportion of this was due to the accommodation of spousal employment or gender discrimination, and was therefore not truly voluntary.

The lack of in-depth motivational data has also prevented this data from providing explanations for engagement in VDJM, as it has been unable to account for subjective influences upon an individual's job mobility decisions (Krieshok et al 2009). It is therefore essential that future research, utilising qualitative methods (Neuman 2006), take place to ascertain how truly voluntary identified incidences of VDJM are and the motivations for them, especially focusing on the demographic and temporal segments whose voluntary engagement in VDJM is most in question.

This research has confirmed contemporary proposals that previous research investigating job mobility from a perspective of wage maximisation has obscured the presence of alternative mobility paths (Dwyer 2004; Baruch 2006). VDJM can no longer be dismissed by job mobility literature; rather it is a significant and growing mobility option for a large proportion of UK job changers. It seems only logical that as modern economies and labour markets evolve so too should the perspectives under which we conduct our investigations of job mobility (Dwyer 2004; Baruch 2006; Sullivan & Baruch 2009).

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Appendices

Appendix 1-Additional Variable Construction Details

In addition to the details provided in Figure 3 (Chapter 3), the following paragraphs detail the construction and computation of a number of additional key variables used within the data analysis.

In order to identify mobility of any form, this research compared the start date of an individual's current job, with their response to the same question in the previous years interview (ESDS n.d.a; Dustmann & Pereira 2008). Job mobility was identified when the two dates were different (Booth et al 1999a; Dustman & Pereira 2008). The year of job mobility was taken as the year that an individual started their most recent job, assuming no gap in employment (Booth & Francesconi 2000). In order to ensure that only new jobs were coded as incidences of mobility, only start dates after the previous year's employment start date were taken as indications of a job change (Gregg & Wadsworth 2002; Dustmann & Pereira 2008).

In order to construct the 'Type of Mobility' variable a number of analysis procedures were employed. First, in order to estimate the direction of any voluntary mobility, the value of 'gross monthly income' was compared for an individual's current and previous job, once it had been identified they had engage in voluntary mobility (As in; Booth & Francesconi 2000; Dwyer 2004). In order to account for small variations in employer remuneration systems, and shifts in currency valuation (Hwang et al 1998; Dwyer 2004), only earnings changes greater than 10% of the previous monthly wage were included (as in. Dwyer 2004 p118).Whereby wages increases of greater than 10% were classified as VUJM, wage reductions of more than 10% as VDJM and the remaining full-time voluntary shifters as VLJM.

Lastly shifts into part-time work, self-employment or labour market exit were identified using the BHPS variable 'JBSTAT' (ESDS n.d.a) which indicates the employment status of an individual. Where individuals were in full-time employment during their previous job changes in the JBSTAT variable were used to indicate either, a shift into part-time work, a shift into self-employment or an exit from the labour market (Booth et al 1999a).

Appendix 2 -Descriptive Statistics for Participant Characteristics

Table 12: - Detailed descriptive statistics for VDJM and OVJM participants

Variable	VDJM		OVJM	
	Mean Value	S.D	Mean Value	S.D
Scale Characteristics				
Age (Years)	35.296	10.879	34.34	10.176
Monthly Wage in Last Job	1895.797	1524.664	1578.81	978.113
Wage Reduction After Mobility	£547.33	1047.40	-	-
Total Weekly Hours in Last Job	46.276	11.044	43.38	8.756
Job Tenure (Years)	3.478	3.232	3.32	3.717
Categorical Characteristics				
% Male	58%		56.90%	
% Female	42%		43.10%	
% Married or Cohabiting	69.50%		68.20%	
% Own Home	21.64%		19.60%	
% Moved in last year	12.20%		12.70%	
% Changed Occupation	60.40%		56.80%	
Have Children				
% Aged 0-4	14.70%		13.86%	
% Aged 5-11	21.64%		19.28%	
% Aged 12-15	14.48%		12.07%	
Highest Education				
% GCSE or Equivalent	53.40%		40.40%	
% A-Level or College	24.60%		25.00%	
% Higher Education	22.00%		34.60%	
Hours Changed During Mobility				
% No Change	44.10%		57.30%	
% Hours Increased	17.70%		25.70%	
% Hours Decreased	38.20%		17%	

Appendix 3 -Regression Model Summaries

Figure 13: Table showing stepwise regression model summary statistics

Model Summary Statistics	
Pooled Cross-Section	
Step 1	F(14)=16.69, p<0.001 Number of respondents =5182
Step 2	F(26)=9.54, p<0.001 Number of respondents =5182
Step 3	F(36)=9.97, p<0.001 Number of respondents =5151
Random Effects	
Step 1	Wald Chi ² (14)= 382.44, p<0.001 Number of respondents =5182
Step 2	Wald Chi ² (26)= 395.66, p<0.001 Number of respondents =5182
Step 3	Wald Chi ² (36)= 405.17, p<0.001 Number of respondents =5151
Fixed Effects	
Step 1	Wald Chi ² (13)= 181.43, p<0.001 Number of respondents =1115
Step 2	Wald Chi ² (25)= 192.54, p<0.001 Number of respondents =1115
Step 3	Wald Chi ² (35)= 245.38, p<0.001 Number of respondents =1106

Figure 14: Table showing turning point of non-linear variable effects

Quadratic Variable Turning Point Estimation	
Pooled Cross-Section	
Age & Age²	35.930 years
Random Effects	
Age & Age²	36.525 years
Fixed Effects	
Total Weekly Hours & Total Weekly Hours²	48.002 hrs
Children aged 0-4 *Total Weekly Hours	37.110 hrs
Estimated using NLCOM (Stata 2007)	
Turning Point = Coefficient/(2*Coefficient ²) (Both coefficients are centred)	
From: Plassmann & Neha (2007)	