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Much ado about nothing? The wage penalty of holding a Ph.D. degree but not a Ph.D. job position

Giuseppe Lucio Gaeta*, Giuseppe Lubrano Lavadera**, Francesco Pastore[∇]

Abstract[#]

This paper contributes to the literature on overeducation by empirically investigating the wage penalty of job-education mismatch among Ph.D. holders who completed their studies in Italy; a country where the number of new doctoral recipients has dramatically increased over recent years while personnel employed in R&D activities is still below the European average. We use cross-sectional micro-data collected in 2009 and rely on different definitions of education-job mismatch such as, overeducation, overskilling and dissatisfaction with the use of skills. We find that overeducation and skills dissatisfaction are associated with significantly lower wages but there is no wage penalty from overskilling. Furthermore, those who simultaneously report overeducation and skills dissatisfaction experience a particularly high wage penalty.

Jel codes: C26; I23; I26; J13; J24; J28

Keywords: job-education mismatch, overeducation, overskilling, job satisfaction, wages, Ph.D. holders

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1. Introduction

This paper aims to contribute to the literature on overeducation by empirically investigating the wage penalty associated with overeducation among Ph.D. holders, whose case is understudied.

The analysis of Ph.D. holders extends the existing literature that investigates the effects of overeducation on wages among university graduates (for recent surveys of this literature, see, among others, Leuven and Oosterbeek, 2011; Caroleo and Pastore, 2013 and 2016). This extension seems particularly appropriate since, considering the time that university students take to get a tertiary degree, the effort they have to make to enter a Ph.D. program and to obtain the Ph.D. title, the question arises of whether they actually get a sufficient reward for the effort made.

To the best of our knowledge, there is only a limited number of recent empirical contributions that specifically inspect wage differentials between overeducated Ph.D. holders and their perfectly matched counterparts. These contributions only concern few countries such as the USA (Bender and Heywood, 2009 and 2011) and Spain (Canal Domínguez and Rodríguez Gutiérrez, 2013), including a study of one region of Spain, namely Catalonia (Di Paolo and Mañé, 2016).

Our analysis extends this literature by analyzing Italian data collected in 2009 by the Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT) through a large cross-sectional survey of Ph.D. recipients in all fields of scientific research, who were interviewed a few (3 and 5) years after the completion of their doctoral studies.

The focus on Italy is particularly appropriate for the study of the wage effect of overeducation among doctoral recipients. Indeed, available figures show that the annual number of new Ph.D. holders has dramatically increased in Italy from 2002 until 2012 (+300%) and this increase happens to be higher than the one reported by other OECD countries (Auriol, 2010). During the same period, the number of R&D personnel in Public Administration has increased slightly, while a decrease has been reported by the Universities personnel. Although R&D personnel has grown in private enterprises, its 2012 value is still lower than the EU(28) average. In this framework, previous research found that overeducation is widespread among Ph.D. holders few years after their completion of doctoral studies (Gaeta, 2015). In this perspective, inspecting the existence of wage gap associated to the overeducation status can contribute to the understanding of private returns arising from investing in doctoral education. Furthermore, recent reforms are trying to increase the number of Ph.D. holders and an attempt is on-going of opening up research to the private sector, in the sense that we should find ways of making research a new step of the university career for students. These reforms are being implemented also in other EU countries, where the economic structure is quite steady. This makes the case of Italy interesting for many countries within and outside of the EU, who are implementing similar reforms but have a quite stable economic structure, as it is the case of Italy.

Our analysis relies on different definitions of Ph.D. holders' education-job mismatch combining self-reported opinions concerning the usefulness of the Ph.D. title in order to get their current job with two self-assessments concerning the usefulness of skills acquired during

doctoral studies in carrying out their job and the satisfaction for the use of doctoral skills in their current job.

The interaction between overeducation (where Ph.D. title is not required nor useful) and overskilling (where the use of Ph.D. skills is not required), which has been proposed by Mavromaras et al. (2013), Pecoraro (2014) and has been used by Di Paolo and Mané (2016) for the analysis of Catalan Ph.D. holders, allows us to distinguish four hypothetical situations. Firstly, genuine matching (GM) that arises when respondents declare themselves to be neither overeducated nor overskilled. Secondly, apparent matching (AM) that arises when respondents declare to be not overeducated but to be overskilled. Thirdly, apparent overeducation (AO) that arises when respondents declare to be overeducated but not overskilled. Finally, genuine overeducation (GO) that is the condition arising when both overeducation and overskilling are simultaneously reported and therefore Ph.D. holders report uselessness of their education title as well as of the related skills.

Nevertheless, even those who make use of doctoral skills in carrying out their job might have heterogeneous levels of satisfaction for the extent of this use. Therefore, by interacting evaluations concerning the uselessness of the Ph.D. title to get the current job (overeducation) and satisfaction for the use of doctoral skills (skills satisfaction) we provide a deeper investigation of the education-job mismatch of Ph.D. holders. This measure is similar to the one proposed by Chevalier (2003) who interacts self-reported overeducation and satisfaction for the job-education match when analyzing university graduates. To the best of our knowledge, it has not been used in previous contributions focused on the wage penalty of overeducation among Ph.D. holders. The interaction between these two variables allows us to identify four alternative conditions; those who obtained their job thanks to their Ph.D. title and are satisfied about doctoral skills' utilization (we labeled this condition GM1 since it recalls genuine matching); those who feel that they were not able to exploit their education title and are unsatisfied about doctoral skills' utilization (we labeled this condition GO1 since it recalls genuine overeducation); those who are in intermediate conditions characterized by usefulness of the job title and dissatisfaction about skills' use (AM1) and vice versa (AO1).

In order to inspect the link between Ph.D. holders' wages and these alternative definitions of their job-education mismatch, our study relies on OLS regression analyses. While our survey data allowed us to consider a wide set of possible covariates of wages, we are aware of the possible endogeneity of the overeducation status that may arise from omitted variable bias. Nevertheless, the efforts that we carried out for finding any suitable instrumental variable unfortunately did not achieve any satisfactory result. For this reason, in line with previous contributions (Bender and Heywood, 2009 and 2011; Canal Domínguez and Rodríguez Gutiérrez, 2013; Di Paolo and Mañé, 2016), our results have to be interpreted as robust *ceteris paribus* correlations.

Our findings suggest that overeducation as well as dissatisfaction with the use of doctoral skills are correlated with lower wages (approximately -11% and -10% respectively) while the same does not apply to overskilling. When both overeducation and overskilling are reported, a wage penalty similar to the one determined by overeducation alone is found. Instead, when both

overeducation and dissatisfaction are reported, the wage penalty experienced by the Ph.D. holders is very remarkable (between -17% and -22% according to the specification considered).

The outline of this paper is as follows. Section 2 motivates the paper by documenting the explosion of Ph.D. graduates in Italy and the contemporary evolution of demand for experts in the field of R&D. Section 3 reviews the existing literature on the overeducation of Ph.D. holders. Section 4 illustrates the data and the methodology used in the empirical analysis. Section 5 presents the main results of the analysis and some robustness checks. Concluding remarks follow.

2. Ph.D. education and career prospects in Italy

Doctoral education was set in Italy in 1980¹ and the first Ph.D. titles were awarded in 1985 (Ballarino and Colombo, 2010). According to the available evidence, which is reported by fig. 1 in Argentin et al. (2014, p.2), the yearly number of new Ph.D. holders (all fields of study considered) has been quite stable until the beginning of the 1990s. Since then, it has recorded a slight increase over the 1990s while an impressive expansion started from the beginning of the 2000s. Indeed, over the period 2002-12 the yearly number of new doctoral recipients tripled and reached 12,000.

International comparisons reveal that this growth was particularly steady. Data collected for the period 1998-2006 (Auriol, 2010) shows that in Europe only Portugal and the Slovak Republic reported a higher average annual growth of doctoral degrees awarded. Comparing OECD countries' graduation rates at doctoral level in 2000 and 2011, Italy turns out to be one of the countries that report the highest increase (OECD, 2013).

Nevertheless, the 2011 Italian graduation rate at doctoral level, as a percentage of population in the reference age cohort, was still lower than the OECD average (OECD, 2013).

[FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]

This remarkable expansion of the number of Ph.D. holders has generated much concern about the employability of new doctoral graduates and about the existence of working opportunities suitable for people who are specifically trained in carrying out R&D work. These concerns are motivated by data reported in Figure 1 that shows that both in 2002 and in 2012 the share of people employed in R&D activities was definitely lower than the EU average, even if on the rise.

The size of the Italian academic sector and its evolution over the 2000s suggests that Universities cannot be considered any more as the main professional destination for most of these new doctoral recipients. This is consistent with the idea that doctoral studies are becoming a third-cycle education (Berlin Communiqué, 2003) and, therefore, shall prepare for professional activities to be carried out in various sectors also outside higher education. Figure 2 shows the total number of Assistant Professors (first step of the academic career) and the total personnel (Assistant Professors + Associate Professors + Full Professors) hired by Italian

¹ Decree of the President of the Republic n. 382, 11 November 1980.

Universities over the years 2002-14. While the total personnel definitely decreased starting from 2006; a 16% increase (approximately 3,500 new positions) is reported for Assistant Professors over the years 2002-12, but this period is followed by a decline in 2013-14.

[FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE]

The R&D personnel employed in the Italian Public Administration (PA) remained quite stable over the 2000s (Figure 3) and this suggests that also the PA cannot be considered as a crucial destination for new Ph.D. holders.

R&D employment in private enterprises, instead, reveals some dynamism over the 2000s. Indeed, after a small decline in 2002-2004, the number of people that the private sector employed in R&D has increased from about 70,000 in 2002 to about 120,000 in 2012. Still it is a matter of concern whether the private sector has been able to provide jobs that are fully exploiting the skills of Ph.D. graduates.

According to evidence provided in Gaeta (2013 and 2015), the employability of doctoral graduates is rather high in Italy since 3-5 years after graduation only 7% is still unemployed. Nevertheless, approximately 20% of doctoral recipients report that their Ph.D. was not useful to get the job they hold a few years after completing their doctoral studies and 46% report that their doctoral competences are not used in the job they carry out.

[FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE]

3. Overeducation and wages among Ph.D. holders: literature review

Research on the incidence and effects of over-education among Ph.D. holders is only at its infancy stage and represents an important part of an increasing literature devoted to the analysis of doctorate holders' career outcomes (Lee et al., 2010; van de Schoot *et al.* 2012; Schwabe, 2011; Auriol, 2010). To the best of our knowledge, the number of contributions covering this issue is limited and the most important papers have been published only rather recently.

Bender and Heywood (2009) provide an analysis based on survey data collected in the USA between 1997 and 1999 and related to Ph.D. holders who specialized in a wide set of study fields. In order to assess the Ph.D. – job mismatch, they rely on a primary indicator that is built by looking at respondents' self-assessment of the consistency between the job they carry out and the level of education they achieved. Alongside this indicator, they rely also on two secondary indicators. One of them is built by looking at respondents' evaluation of the consistency between expectations about future jobs upon completing the doctoral degree and the job they actually found some years later. A second one, instead, is based on respondents' opinions about the perceived goodness of their field of study choice *a posteriori*. According to their data, mismatch is more likely to occur in the non-academic sector (43.6% declared that their job is not very closely related to their education) than in the academic one (16%). Furthermore, they observe a high heterogeneity in the overeducation incidence among fields of study; Computer Science, Management and Health are those majors that report the highest share of not perfectly matched doctorate holders.

Their analysis of the wage effects of overeducation is carried out by using both cross-sectional estimates which are based on single waves of the American survey of Ph.D. holders and panel data estimates that exploit the longitudinal design of this survey. The cross-sectional estimates allow controlling for a wide set of possible covariates but are not corrected for the possible endogeneity of overeducation. These estimates report that overeducated individuals approximately earn between 7% and 14% less than their well-matched colleagues, according to sectors of employment. The panel data estimates, instead, allow accounting for individual fixed effects but do not allow controlling for some possible covariates since some of them are not available in all the waves of the survey. The findings obtained by using this empirical approach reveal that overeducation does not simply reflect individuals' unobserved heterogeneity. Nevertheless compared with the cross-sectional estimates, the effect of overeducation on wages is found to be roughly half. As the authors emphasize, great caution has to be used when interpreting this evidence since the cross-sectional and panel estimates are based on different specifications.

Canal Domínguez and Rodríguez Gutiérrez (2013) investigate determinants of earnings among Spanish Ph.D. holders who completed their doctoral studies between 1990 and 2006 and were surveyed in 2006. Their empirical elaborations reveal that those doctoral recipients holding a non-academic job that requires doctoral or post-doctoral education earn more than those holding a non-academic job that only requires professional training. The size of this difference ranges between +18% and +25%. This confirms that being overeducated implies a wage penalty for Ph.D. holders.

Di Paolo and Mané (2016) present an empirical study focused on a survey of doctoral recipients from the Catalonia region of Spain that has been carried out in 2011 and included a sample of individuals who obtained a Ph.D. diploma 4/5 years earlier. Their analysis includes two measures of overeducation that are respectively based on respondents' self-assessment of the usefulness of their Ph.D. title to get their current job and on the usefulness of their Ph.D.-specific skills in their current job. According to their findings, approximately 28% of respondents are not adequately matched in terms of skills (overskilling) while 47% of them are not adequately matched in terms of qualifications (overeducation). Both these overeducation measures as well as their interaction are included as regressors when estimating wages. According to these estimates only those Ph.D. holders who are both overeducated and overskilled report a significant income penalty (approximately -11%).

To the best of our knowledge, research based on Italian Ph.D. holders has been mainly focused on measuring the incidence and determinants of overeducation. According to the data provided by Gaeta (2013 and 2015) the share of doctorate holders who declare that their title was not useful to get their current job is 19% while those who report that their Ph.D. skills are not useful in order to carry out their current job is markedly higher (over 40%). Furthermore, approximately 25% of respondents are totally dissatisfied with the use of their doctoral skills. Nevertheless, no contribution is specifically devoted to the impact of overeducation on wages in Italy.

4. Data and methodology

Our analysis is based on data provided by the cross-sectional survey of Italian Ph.D. holders that ISTAT carried out in 2009. These survey data have been used also by Gaeta (2013 and 2015) for the study of the incidence of overeducation and its determinants. To the best of our knowledge, only cross-sectional surveys of Ph.D. holders are available in Italy.

The 2009 ISTAT survey involved 8,814 Ph.D. holders who completed their studies in 2004 or in 2006. The surveyed Ph.D. holders were interviewed three or five years after graduation, according to their Ph.D. completion year. All the existing fields of study were considered and the survey covers approximately 50% of the whole population of 2004 and 2006 doctoral recipients.

Among the rich set of variables that are available in the database, there are also data concerning the respondents' self-assessment of their working conditions and measures of their net hourly wage. According to the data, most of the respondents were employed at the time of the interview (93.05%, 8,201 in total), which suggests that there is only little self-selection into employment. This non-employment figure is particularly low. Indeed, ISTAT (2009) suggests that in 2007 the unemployment rate among university graduates that completed their studies three years earlier was approximately 14% and 16% according to whether M.Sc. or BA is considered. 2007 was a pre-economic crisis year and this suggests that in 2009 the employment differential between university graduates and Ph.D. holders could be even higher than this.

Looking at those Ph.D. holders in our survey who declared to be employed, the average net monthly wage is about €1,540; those whose current job started before the beginning of the Ph.D. report an average net monthly income which is surprisingly higher (€ 1,680). These figures are higher than the one reported by university graduates interviewed in 2007, which approximately report €1,300 euros of net monthly income (ISTAT, 2009).

With the purpose of investigating the correlation between wage and overeducation, we modeled the log of net monthly wage ($\ln W$) reported by the i -th individual as follows:

$$\ln W_i = \beta X_i + \gamma O_i + \varepsilon_i \quad [1]$$

Where X is a vector of control variables, O is a vector of variables that measure the overeducation status of respondents, ε is the error term, β and γ are vectors of parameters to be estimated.

As has been already reported in the introductory section of this paper, our analysis relies on different alternative strategies in order to measure the overeducation status of the Ph.D. holders under investigation.

First, similar to Dolton and Silles (2008), we use the respondents' self-assessment of overeducation that is based on a specific question included in the survey: "In order to get your current job, was your Ph.D. title explicitly required, was it at least useful or was it totally useless?" (Question n. 2.33 in the original questionnaire). Answers to this question are coded into a dummy variable that takes the value of one when respondents declare that their Ph.D. title was not explicitly required and was totally useless (this variable is labeled

OVEREDUCATION in the following analyses). As already reported in Gaeta (2015), the incidence of OVEREDUCATION among Ph.D. holders in the 2009 ISTAT survey is approximately 19%. Comparisons with the figures reported by Bender and Heywood (2009) and by Canal Domínguez and Rodríguez Gutiérrez (2013) are difficult due to significant differences in the measure of overeducation. Our figure is definitely lower than the one reported by Di Paolo and Mané (2016) for the Catalonia region of Spain (over 50%) whose overeducation variable is very similar to ours. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the ISTAT survey only asked this question for those Ph.D. holders whose current job started after the end of their doctoral studies. Indeed, those respondents whose current job started earlier than their doctoral graduation were surely in an overeducation condition. This shrinks the sample under scrutiny in our paper down to 5,923 observations from the original 8,201 employed respondents. The following analyses are based on this restricted sample.

Second, similar to Dolton and Silles (2008), we also rely on a variable that specifically focuses on the concept of overskilling. This variable observes respondents' self-assessment of the usefulness of skills acquired during their Ph.D. training when carrying out their current job. The following question in the survey covers this aspect. "Are the skills acquired during your Ph.D. studies essential in order to carry out your current job?" (Question n. 2.34 in the original questionnaire). Possible answers to this question are coded into a dummy variable that takes the value of one for those who declared that there is no match between skills and current job. This variable is labelled OVERSKILLING hereafter. The incidence of OVERSKILLING in our data is approximately 45% which is higher than what has been calculated for Catalonia by Di Paolo and Mané (2016) which is approximately 28%. Again, when comparing our figures with other studies, one has to bear in mind that data reported in this contribution are calculated by looking at those who started their job after the completion of doctoral studies.

Third, we use one dummy that measures respondents' satisfaction for the use of Ph.D. skills in carrying out their current job (this variable is labelled SATISFACTION). This variable is built by looking at question n. 2.38D in the original ISTAT questionnaire that specifically asks to all those who hold a job "How much are you satisfied with the use of skills acquired during your Ph.D. studies?" Answers are coded into a dummy that takes the value of one in case of high or of average satisfaction and zero in the case of partial or total dissatisfaction. This variable allows observing something that is slightly different from what OVERSKILLING reports. Indeed, when carrying out their job, respondents might use the skills acquired during doctoral studies (and this would translate into OVERSKILLING=0) but they might be dissatisfied about this use. In this perspective, SATISFACTION allows us better investigating the extent of overskilling. Approximately 83% of respondents in our sample declare to be satisfied about skills' use. It follows that 17% are not satisfied with it.

Fourth, we interact OVEREDUCATION and OVERSKILLING. This approach has been proposed by Mavromaras et al. (2013) and Pecoraro (2014) in their analysis of the career outcomes of university graduates, and is also followed by Di Paolo and Mane (2016) in their paper on doctorate holders from the Catalonia region in Spain.

Table 1 shows the interaction between OVEREDUCATION and OVERSKILLING in our sample. 52.1% of the respondents report to be in a genuine matching condition (GM), i.e. they

declare themselves to be neither overeducated nor overskilled. This is higher than what Di Paolo and Mane (2016) found by using Catalonian data (45%). By contrast, 17.3% of our sample reports to be in a genuine overeducation condition (GO) which is lower than the equivalent Catalonian figure which is approximately 26%. Apparent Matching (AM) is rather frequent in our data (approximately 29%) while apparent overeducation (AO) is definitely rare (1.8%).

[TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]

Fifth, based on Chevalier (2003) we build a categorical variable that is calculated by interacting OVEREDUCATION and SATISFACTION. This variable has four alternative modalities that might be labelled similarly to what is done when interacting OVEREDUCATION and OVERSKILLING. First, those respondents who declare themselves to be overeducated dissatisfied with the use of their doctoral skills are considered to be genuinely overeducated (this condition is labelled GO1). The opposite condition is reported by those who hold a job perfectly matched with their education title and who are satisfied by the use of the competences acquired during the doctoral studies (this condition is labelled GM1). Intermediate conditions arise when one holds a job in line with his educational title but is unsatisfied by skills' use (AM1) and vice versa (AO). Data reveal that the GM1 condition is unquestionably the most frequent one since it is reported by approximately 74% of respondents. Only 3.6% of respondents, instead, are in the GO1 condition in our sample, which is definitely less than what is reported by GO. This condition, which we label GM1, is reported by 73.9% of respondents.

[TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE]

Table 3 provides descriptive statistics regarding our dependent variable and the aforementioned variables used to measure the overeducation condition of respondents. Detailed definitions of variables are provided in Table A1.

[TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE]

Tables 3 and A1 also include summary statistics and definitions concerning the control variables included in the X vector in equation (1). These control variables might be grouped into four sets.

The first group is made up by individual-level variables and includes the following dummy variables. Age of respondents when they completed their Ph.D. is observed by five dichotomous variables, from less than “30 years” (reference category in the following estimates) to “33 years and more”. Unfortunately, a continuous variable measuring age is not included in the original dataset. The dummy variable labelled FEMALE identifies gender, MARRIED observes the Ph.D. holders' marital status, PARENTLIVE takes the value of 1 for those who live with their parents. Furthermore, the highest educational title achieved by parents is

measured by a variable whose modalities are “undergraduate”, “graduate” and “M.Sc. or more”, all represented by dummies in the estimates. We exclude “undergraduate”, which is treated as the baseline. Finally, FROMDTOPHD is a count variable that measures the years from graduation to the beginning of the Ph.D.

A second group includes those variables that measure education-related covariates. First, we include a variable (MSC_GRADE) which measures respondents’ M.Sc. final grades. Second, in order to observe some specific features of the activities carried out during the Ph.D., we include three dummy variables that respectively observe whether respondents attended any summer school (SUMMERSCHOOL), whether they attended any other specialization course (COURSES) and whether they taught in an undergraduate class during their doctoral studies (TAUGHT). Finally, two variables attempt to catch respondents’ financial and educational difficulties during the Ph.D. FINANCIALSUPPORT equals one if they needed to receive any other form of financial support apart from the official grant. EXTENSION, instead, indicates whether the Ph.D. respondent needed a time extension (additional to the curricular 3-years) to obtain the Ph.D. title. While we are aware of the fact that some Italian scholars achieve more than one Ph.D. (one in Italy and a second one abroad), unfortunately the ISTAT survey does not provide any useful data on this specific aspect².

The third group of variables includes job-related covariates. First, we are able to identify respondents’ sectors of activity by observing whether they work in a University (ACADEMY) or, alternatively, in the manufacture, agriculture or service sector (MANUFACTURE, SERVICES or AGRICULTURE). Service is used as baseline in the estimates. Specific features of their job position are captured by the dummy variables SELFEMPLOYED that identifies self-employed, PERMANENT that identifies those who hold a permanent position and PARTTIME that takes the value of one for those whose job is part-time. We also identify whether the respondents’ job is totally (ONLY RD), partially (PARTIALLY RD) or not at all focused on R&D (NOT AT ALL which is the reference category in the estimates). In order to measure the productivity level of respondents we rely on the number of publications, patents and other scientific products released after the Ph.D. completion. Moreover, we also include in this group of covariates one variable that measures the number of working experience years acquired by respondents (YEARSWORKEXPERIENCE) and one dummy that takes the value of one for those who were working also one year after gaining their title (PHDYRJOB).

A fourth group of variables includes a set of regressors which is used in all the specifications we use in our analysis. This set of regressors includes one variable that observes whether respondents obtained their Ph.D. in 2004 or in 2006. Furthermore, it includes a set of dummy variables that observe respondents’ fields of study among 14 scientific fields; Math and Statistics (which is the baseline), Physics And Astronomy, Earth and Environmental Sciences, Chemistry, Biological Science, Medical Science, Agriculture and Veterinary, Architecture, Engineering Science, Human Sciences, History and Philosophy, Law, Economics and Statistics, Political Science. Finally, it includes dummy variables that identify respondents’ region of residence by distinguishing among North-East, North-West, Centre and South, the baseline being represented by all Ph.D. holders living out of Italy.

² We thank one of the anonymous referees for suggesting us to check this hypothesis.

Starting from a sample of 5,923 observations, we eliminate observations with missing values to obtain the final sample of 5,778 observations, which we analyse.

Before turning to our results, it is worth noting that the cross-section empirical analysis presented so far aims to observe the conditional association between overeducation and earnings, but cannot identify any causal relationship between these variables. Indeed, several contributions in the literature have highlighted that over-education may reflect unobserved ability heterogeneity across the individuals who experience it (Leuven and Oosterbeek, 2011; McGuinness, 2007; Sloane, 2003). Other studies argue that overeducation may also reflect heterogeneity in personality characteristics (Blázquez and Budría, 2012). Finally, also unobserved Ph.D. quality may be theoretically considered as an important omitted variable.

Even if the ISTAT survey makes available an impressive number of individual characteristics of respondents, and this allows us to consider an extensive number of covariates in the OLS estimates of wages – including proxies for ability and for Universities where doctoral studies were completed - the endogeneity problem arising from omitted variable bias may not be totally ruled out.

In order to address endogeneity we tried to implement an instrumental variable approach. A reliable instrument must simultaneously respect two main conditions. On the one hand, it must be correlated with the endogenous variable after controlling for other exogenous and confounding factors. On the other hand, it must exert its influence on the outcome variable only through the endogenous variable; in other words, it must be uncorrelated with errors resulting from the wage equation (so-called exclusion restriction).

Bearing in mind these requirements, a number of attempts were run by alternatively and simultaneously considering a wide set of possible instrumental variables. First, we started by using family background variables such as parents' educational titles and parents' occupations. Our rationale is the following: On the one hand, background might affect respondents' decisions to accept a mismatched job since the individuals coming from wealthier families might get financial help from their parents until they find a matched job. In other words, a better family background increases the reservation wage of candidates, allowing them to take all the time that is needed to find the best job-worker match. On the other hand, conditional on our set of covariates, which also includes some proxy of personal ability of respondents as well as one channels of access to the current job, family background should not exert any direct impact on respondents' wages.

We then moved to considering variables that concern the regional and provincial context where Ph.D. holders live. The share of R&D expenditure of local GDP as well as indexes capturing firms' innovations at a local level were used as instrumental variables for each respondent's overeducation status. The idea is these variables contribute to finding career prospects in the R&D sector, which are well matched to the profile of doctorate holders. At the same time, a direct link between these features of local economies and respondents' wages is not certain.

Finally, we consider as a possible instrumental variable the share of overeducated Ph.D. holders who reside in the same province where respondents are. The reasoning behind this idea is that this might explain the overeducation probability of individuals residing in that area, but not necessarily their wages.

Unfortunately, all these instrumental variables turned out to be highly questionable since none of them passed the usual tests for the reliability of instrumental variables. The reason of this failure in finding a reliable instrumental variable probably lies in the fact that overeducation is a characteristic of a job-worker match, which cannot be separated from wages, and there is no variable able to fully satisfy both the conditions mentioned above, but above all the exclusion restriction. Any variable which is correlated to overeducation must be correlated also to wages and therefore with the error term.

For this reason, the following estimates have to be considered as robust *ceteris paribus* correlations, rather than measuring the causal impact of overeducation on wages.

5. Results

In the first step of the analysis, we focus on the relationship between wages and each of the definitions of education-job mismatch (OVEREDUCATION, OVERSKILLING and SATISFACTION) separately. In the second step of the analysis, instead, we focus on the interaction between OVEREDUCATION and OVERSKILLING (GO, AM, AO, GM) and on the interplay between OVEREDUCATION and SATISFACTION (GO1, AM1, AO1, GM1).

Alongside the main variables of interest, we include each of the groups of covariates presented in section 4: individual-related variables, education-related variables, job-related variables. This stepwise inclusion of groups of controls aims to test whether the estimates of the main variables of interest vary according to the set of regressors considered.

We also obtained estimates by excluding from our set of regressors the variable RD, which captures how much respondents' job, is focused on R&D. The inclusion of RD among regressors allows us to estimate the wage penalty associated to the overeducation status conditional on employment in the R&D sector. Nevertheless, working in a research context (as in the R&D sector) enhances one's ability to use one's research skills. As a consequence, the R&D sector dummies may capture part of the skill utilization effect and therefore may determine an underestimation of the penalty associated to overeducation and especially overskilling.

Furthermore, we also obtain estimates after excluding the self-employed from the sample, which is rather common in empirical investigations devoted to the inspection of the effects of overeducation on wages. Finally, we also run one specification by considering sample weights provided by the ISTAT survey. These weights are provided by ISTAT to correct for non-response bias. They are figured out from the post-stratification in classes specified for each year, for citizenship, field of study, gender and University.

In order to save space, the complete set of results is not shown but is available upon request. Instead, findings are synthetized in Table 4 and Table 6. Each column in these tables reports the estimates obtained for a specific variable of interest. Each row, instead, represents a different set of regressors included in the analysis alongside the main variable of interest. Therefore, each cell reports the coefficient calculated for a specific variable of interest when a particular set of controls is taken into account.

[TABLE 4 AND 6 ABOUT HERE]

Before turning to the results, it is worth mentioning that in order to check whether the statistical significance of our estimates is biased by multicollinearity, the variance inflation factor (VIF) was calculated for each specification. Table 5 and 7 respectively report the average VIF values related to the estimates presented in Table 4 and 6. All values are lower than thresholds commonly considered.

[TABLES 5 AND 7 ABOUT HERE]

The estimates in column (1) of Table 4 reveal that OVEREDUCATION has a negative and highly statistically significant correlation with wages that only emerges when job-related variables are considered among covariates. This is not surprising, since the exclusion of job-related variables does not allow comparing the earnings of well-matched and overeducated individuals especially when the incidence of overeducation is highly heterogeneous among job sectors and positions.

When the full set of covariates is considered, the wage penalty associated to OVEREDUCATION is -11.4%. This value drops to -7.6% when R&D is omitted from the set of covariates. This is somehow unexpected according to the reasoning presented so far, but the higher penalty found when R&D is included among the covariates may reflect the greater importance of appropriate matching in job positions linked to R&D.

Column (2) reveals a different story with regards to OVERSKILLING. Indeed, when job characteristics are included among the set of covariates, OVERSKILLING turns out to be only slightly negatively correlated with wages but the coefficient is not statistically significant at any conventional level. The effect of OVERSKILLING on wages is even positive and statistically significant in those specifications where job-related controls are excluded and where RD is excluded. This result may depend upon the fact that those employed in jobs not based on research, where the skills acquired during doctoral studies presumably are less important, earn more than the other Ph.D. holders. Nevertheless, once the comparison between overskilled and non- overskilled is carried out by considering equal job characteristics, these wage differences do not exist anymore. According to this result, there is no difference in wages between those who employ their doctoral skills in their current job and those who are in the opposite condition. In other words, there are no wage differentials due to doctoral skills' utilization.

Column (3) presents the result obtained for the SATISFACTION variable. As in the case for OVEREDUCATION, in models where job-related controls are taken into account, this variable turns out to be highly statistically significant in explaining heterogeneity of Ph.D. wages. The wage premium associated with satisfaction for skills' use is approximately +10%. Therefore, the wage penalty associated to skills dissatisfaction is approximately -10%, which is very close to the one reported by OVEREDUCATION.

Overall, results reported in Table 4 reveal that a wage penalty exists only when the Ph.D. title is not useful to get the job. Instead, simply using Ph.D. skills does not correlate with wages. Nevertheless, the inclusion of SATISFACTION among regressors provides useful insights in order to better understand the link between skills utilization and wages. Indeed, when dissatisfaction for the use of doctoral skills is reported, wages appear to be lower.

In Table 6, the interplay between OVEREDUCATION and OVERSKILLING is considered. The coefficients calculated for AM (Apparent Matching), AO (Apparent Overeducation) and GO (Genuine Overeducation) have to be interpreted as the wage penalty determined by these statuses as compared with the GM (Genuine Matching) condition. AO is never statistically significant, while AM is statistically significant and surprisingly positive which, nevertheless, disappears with including job-related variables among the covariates. GO turns out to be negative and highly statistically significant when the job-related control variables are taken into account. This negative effect is approximately -11% and significantly drops to -3.6% when the RD variable is excluded. This finding is in line with those obtained for OVEREDUCATION.

The second part of Table 6 shows the results obtained when the interplay between OVEREDUCATION and SATISFACTION is considered. Also in this case, the estimated coefficients for AM1, AO1 and GO1 have to be interpreted as the wage penalty relative to GM1. These results are particularly interesting and in line with expectations. Indeed, in all the specifications that consider job-related covariates AM1, AO1 and GO1 are found to be correlated with lower wages than GM1 and these findings are highly statistically significant. The wage effect of AM1 ranges between -5% and -8% according to the specification considered. Coefficients are lower for AO1, ranging between -6% and -10% . Finally, GO1 is associated with a notable wage penalty that ranges between -17% and -22% . Compared with the results reported in Table 4 this finding reveals that the sum of overeducation and dissatisfaction for skills-use leads to a wage penalty, which is more or less equal to the algebraic sum of the single effects of OVEREDUCATION AND SATISFACTION.

Our results present some similarities with those obtained by previous contributions. Even if Bender and Heywood (2009) and Canal Domínguez and Rodríguez Gutiérrez (2013) adopted different definitions of overeducation from the ones used in this paper, the size of the wage penalty associated to this condition that they found in the USA and in Spain is quite similar to the one estimated here. In addition, our results for OVEREDUCATION and OVERSKILLING are mostly in line with the ones that Di Paolo and Mané (2016) report. Indeed, we confirm that a wage gap is associated to the overeducation plus overskilling condition, and the dimension of this gap is close to the one found by these authors in the data from Catalonia.

Overall, our results reveal that the wage gap reported by overeducated Ph.D. holders should not be understated, especially because in Italy the wage structure is typically compressed because of collective agreements and other pervasive systems of wage fixing (Brunello, Comi and Lucifora, 2001). Furthermore, our findings suggest that the overskilling defined as self-reported level of Ph.D. skills' uses does not correlate with wages. Instead, satisfaction for Ph.D. skills' uses allows us to better disentangle the link between competences acquired during doctoral studies and earnings. Indeed, those who are dissatisfied for doctoral skills' uses and those who present both overeducation and dissatisfaction, report a remarkable wage penalty.

5.1 Robustness checks

As it has been highlighted in section 4, non-employed respondents as well as those respondents whose current job started before the end of doctoral studies, are excluded from the empirical elaborations presented in section 5 due to data restriction in the ISTAT survey. As a consequence, there are two forms of selection. If employed people and those who started their current job before the completion of doctoral studies are systematically different from the sample analysed with respect to some unobservable characteristics, this might lead to a bias of our estimates.

The unemployed are a small percentage of the whole original ISTAT sample (6.9%) and this suggests that the sample selection bias determined by their exclusion might be not particularly sizeable. Instead, selection due to restriction of the sample only to those whose current job started after completion of the Ph.D. might be sizeable because approximately 26% of the Ph.D. holders surveyed by ISTAT keep on doing the same job they had before starting doctoral studies.

In order to take into account the possible bias arising from these selections, we rely on the approach suggested by Heckman (1976, 1979). According to it, we use a two-step procedure that is based on two equations; in the first equation, we estimate the probability of selection through a probit regression whose predicted values are used to calculate the inverse mills ratio, which measures the probability that an individual is selected into our sample. In the second step of the analysis, this term is included in the Mincerian equation presented in section 4, which allows correcting for sample selection bias.

Two alternative analyses are carried out. One controls for selection into employment; a second one, instead, controls for selection into job started after the completion of doctoral studies.

The identification of the sample selection model relies on the existence of an exclusion restriction, which explains selection but is not directly linked to wages. In both our analyses, we use as instrument the variable `MARRIED` (a dummy that takes the value of one for those who are married). Indeed this variable is strongly correlated with the probability of being employed, consistent with a number of contributions in the literature, but also with the probability of carrying out a job started before the end of doctoral studies. This is not surprising since the decision of marrying and creating a family is linked to having a job that allows one to financially support it. Meanwhile, the effect of being married has no direct effect on wages. Another variable usually used in the literature as an exclusion restriction in cases similar to ours is the presence of `CHILDREN`, but unfortunately, in our case this variable is found to be correlated with the level of income.

Results obtained through the Heckman estimates are presented in Table 8 and Table 9. The analysis presented in Table 8 controls for selection into employment. The analysis presented in Table 9, instead, controls for selection into job started after the completion of Ph.D. In both cases, the main equation is of a Mincerian type, while the selection equation is a probit model whose dependent variable is respectively the probability of being employed and the probability of holding a job started after the completion of Ph.D. studies.

[TABLES 8 AND 9 ABOUT HERE]

As before, each column of these tables reports the estimates of the coefficient of the specific variable of interest, namely different components of overeducation as based on different definitions. Each row, instead, represents a different set of regressors included in the main equation alongside the main variable of interest. Complete results are not reported but are available upon request.

Comparing the coefficients reported in Tables 8 and 9 with those presented in the previous section, we do not find any significant bias on our estimates due to the sample selection generated by the exclusion either of the non-employed only (Table 8) or also of the Ph.D. holders who were working at the time when they studied to obtain their degree (Table 9). Indeed, a bias arising from selection is only found in some of the specifications considered but, even in these cases, the size of the coefficients estimated for the main variables of interest is not remarkably affected.

6. Concluding remarks

The R&D-focused education provided by doctoral studies makes Ph.D. holders possible innovation-drivers and, therefore, crucial actors in the knowledge economy. Consistent with this perspective, if a Ph.D. holder cannot find a job that allows her to fully exploit her title and skills, this has to be considered detrimental for the society as a whole. In this paper, we empirically analyze the nexus between overeducation and wages among doctoral recipients who completed their studies in Italy. Over the last 15 years, doctoral education has notably expanded in OECD countries and the evidence shows that in Italy this growth has been remarkable. In this perspective, our analysis provides some insights about the career outcomes of doctoral graduates in a context where a remarkable expansion of doctoral studies has been observed. Therefore, the case of Italy is of much interest to all the countries, which are experiencing a similarly massive increase in the number of Ph.D. graduates.

Using cross-sectional survey data collected by the Italian National Institute of Statistics in 2009, our findings reveal that lower wages are reported by overeducated Ph.D. holders and by those who are dissatisfied with the use of the skills acquired during their Ph.D. Simply being overskilled, instead, shows no connection with wages. When both overeducation and overskilling are simultaneously reported, Ph.D. holders are in a genuine overeducation condition and a wage penalty arises, which, nevertheless, is mainly driven by overeducation. This penalty becomes notable, instead, when overeducation and dissatisfaction for doctoral skills use are simultaneously reported.

While these results call for public policies aimed at promoting jobs which are adequate for a Ph.D. holder's educational title and competences, further research is needed in order to disentangle the causal link between education-job mismatch at the doctoral level and the wage penalty. It seems very important, indeed, to verify that our results are not driven by unobserved heterogeneity in a Ph.D. holder's ability and/or in the quality of the doctoral education Ph.D.s receive. However, this is impossible in estimates based on cross-section data. Longitudinal data should be made available to draw any sound and robust conclusion on this matter.

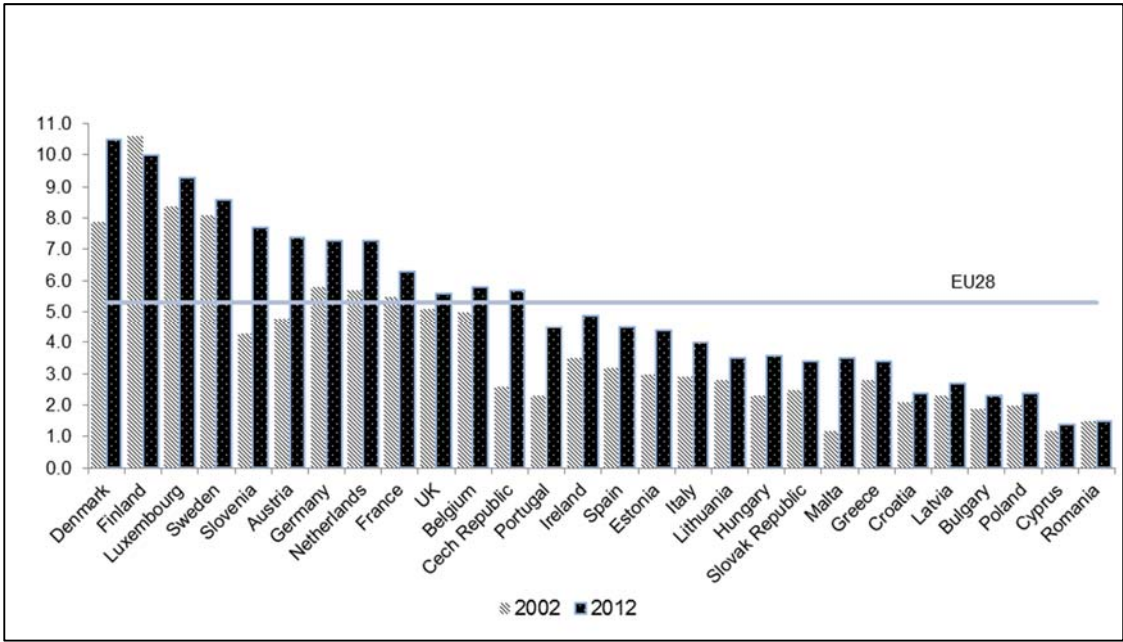
Furthermore, these results suggest that more precise measures of overskilling might be useful in order to better explore the link between skills' uses and wages. Our analysis points out that satisfaction for skills' uses provides more valuable information than simply looking at self-reported skills' uses. Further research might investigate more in detail which skills (theoretical skills, technical skills, general skills, specific skills, etc.) are used by Ph.D. holders in carrying out the job they hold after the completion of doctoral studies.

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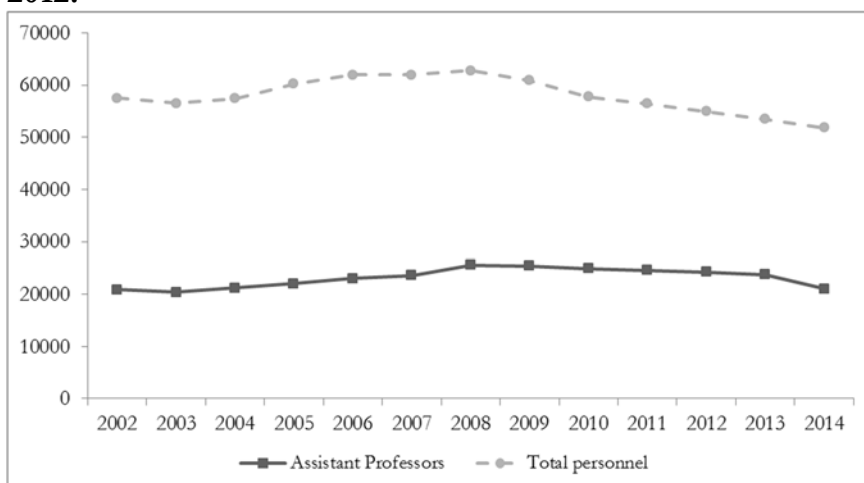
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Fig. 1: personnel employed in R&D activities per 1000 inhabitants. European countries' and EU(28) data.



Source: own elaboration on data provided by Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).

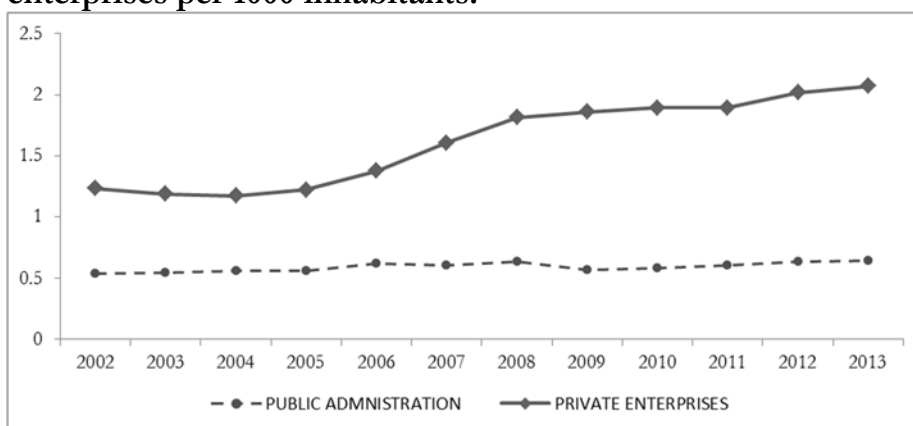
Fig. 2: number of Assistant Professors and total personnel in Italian Universities, 2002-2012.



Note: The total personnel is the sum of Assistant Professors, Associate Professors and Full Professors.

Source: MIUR Italian Ministry of Education, Universities and Research.

Fig. 3: personnel employed in R&D by the Italian Public Administration and by private enterprises per 1000 inhabitants.



Source: Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).

Tab. 1: overeducation and overskilling. Absolute frequencies and % in parentheses.

OVEREDUCATION	OVERSKILLING		TOTAL
	0	1	
0	3084 (52.1%) (GM)	1705 (28.8%) (AM)	4789
1	109 (1.8%) (AO)	1025 (17.3%) (GO)	1134
TOTAL	3193	2730	5923

Note: GM= genuine matching, AM= apparent matching, AO= apparent overeducation, GO=genuine overeducation. Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.

Tab. 2: overeducation and satisfaction for skills' use. Absolute frequencies and % (in parentheses).

OVEREDUCATION	SATISFACTION		TOTAL
	0	1	
0	410(6.9%) (AM1)	4376(73.9%) (GM1)	4786
1	211(3.6%) (GO1)	923 (15.6%) (AO1)	1134
TOTAL	621	5299	5920

Note: satisfaction equals 1 when the individual is satisfied with the type of matching that there is in her job with the skills acquired during the Ph.D. training; 0 otherwise. GM1= genuine matching, AM1= apparent matching, AO1= apparent overeducation, GO1=genuine overeducation. Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.

Tab. 3: summary statistics of variables. The definition of variables are provided in table A1 in the annex.

VARIABLE GROUP	VARIABLES	MEAN	SD	MIN	MAX
Dependent variable	LNHWAGE	3.705	0.44	2.12	6.215
Variables of interest	OVEREDUCATION	0.191	0.39	0	1
	OVERSKILLING	0.449	0.5	0	1
	SATISFACTION	0.833	0.37	0	1
	GO	0.173	0.38	0	1
	AM	0.288	0.45	0	1
	AO	0.018	0.13	0	1
	GO1	0.036	0.19	0	1
	AM1	0.069	0.25	0	1
	AO1	0.156	0.36	0	1
Variables included in all the specifications	YEAR=2004§	0.446	0.5	0	1
	YEAR=2006	0.554	0.5	0	1
	NORTHWEST	0.209	0.41	0	1
	NORTEAST	0.166	0.37	0	1
	CENTRE	0.244	0.43	0	1
	SOUTH	0.318	0.47	0	1
	ABROAD§	0.063	0.24	0	1
	MATH and STATISTICS§	0.0351	0.18	0	1
	PHYSICS and ASTRONOMY	0.0537	0.23	0	1
	EARTH and ENVIR. SC.	0.0644	0.25	0	1
	CHIMESTRY	0.0313	0.17	0	1
	BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE	0.124	0.33	0	1
	MEDICAL SCIENCE	0.0909	0.29	0	1
	AGRIC. and VETERINARY	0.0803	0.27	0	1
	ARCHITECTURE	0.0912	0.29	0	1
	ENGINEERING SCIENCE	0.0575	0.23	0	1
	HUMAN SCIENCE	0.102	0.3	0	1
	HISTORY and PHILOSOPHY	0.0962	0.3	0	1
	LAW	0.0764	0.27	0	1
	ECONOMICS and STATISTICS	0.0643	0.25	0	1
	POLITICAL SCIENCE	0.0326	0.18	0	1
Education-related variables	MSCGRADE	0.708	0.46	0	1
	EXTENSION	0.102	0.3	0	1
	COURSES	0.808	0.39	0	1
	SUMMERSCHOOL	0.263	0.44	0	1
	FINANCIALSUPPORT	0.151	0.36	0	1
	TAUGHT	0.338	0.47	0	1
Individual variables	AGECOMPLETE=LESS THAN 30§	0.283	0.45	0	1
	AGECOMPLETE=30 YEARS	0.151	0.36	0	1
	AGECOMPLETE=31 YEARS	0.139	0.35	0	1
	AGECOMPLETE=32 YEARS	0.108	0.31	0	1
	AGECOMPLETE=33 AND MORE	0.319	0.47	0	1

	FEMALE	0.538	0.5	0	1
	MARRIED	0.607	0.49	0	1
	PARENTLIVE	0.138	0.35	0	1
	FROMD'TOPHD	2.68	2.63	0	28
	famgrade1§	0.249	0.43	0	1
	famgrade2	0.35	0.48	0	1
	famgrade3	0.401	0.49	0	1
Job-related variables	SELFEMPLOYED	0.136	0.34	0	1
	PRODUCTS	3.058	1.97	0	10
	PERMANENT	0.396	0.49	0	1
	JOB SECTOR= UNIVERSITY	0.364	0.48	0	1
	JOB SECTOR= AGRICULTURE	0.016	0.13	0	1
	JOB SECTOR= MANUFACTURE	0.0773	0.27	0	1
	PARTIME	0.103	0.3	0	1
	TEACHING	0.536	0.5	0	1
	PhDYRJOB	0.822	0.38	0	1
	YEARSWORKEXP	1.994	1.85	0	6
	RD=PARTIALLY RD	0.458	0.5	0	1
	RD=ONLY RD	0.241	0.43	0	1
	RD=NOT AT ALL§	0.232	0.42	0	1
	Weights	2.115	2.18	1.24	32.28

Note: table A1 in the annex provides the variables' definition. § indicates reference category in regression analyses. Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.

Tab. 4: the effect of OVEREDUCATION, OVERSKILLING and SATISFACTION on wages, conditional on different set of covariates. Coefficients obtained through OLS estimates. The log of net hourly wage is used as the dependent variable.

Set of covariates considered	Main variable of interest		
	(1) OVEREDUCATION	(2) OVERSKILLING	(3) SATISFACTION
EDUCATION	0.016 (0.015)	0.160 ^{***} (0.011)	0.049 [*] (0.021)
INDIVIDUAL	0.016 (0.015)	0.160 ^{***} (0.011)	0.041 [*] (0.021)
EDUCATION + INDIVIDUAL	0.014 (0.015)	0.160 ^{***} (0.011)	0.041 [*] (0.021)
JOB	-0.109 ^{***} (0.016)	-0.004 (0.014)	0.106 ^{***} (0.019)
EDUCATION +JOB	-0.109 ^{***} (0.016)	-0.005 (0.014)	0.106 ^{***} (0.019)
INDIVIDUAL + JOB	-0.114 ^{***} (0.016)	-0.007 (0.014)	0.101 ^{***} (0.019)
ALL	-0.114 ^{***} (0.016)	-0.007 (0.014)	0.101 ^{***} (0.019)
ALL but RD variable excluded	-0.077 ^{***} (0.015)	0.036 ^{**} (0.013)	0.084 ^{***} (0.019)
ALL and weighted observations	-0.122 ^{***} (0.016)	-0.001 (0.014)	0.102 ^{***} (0.020)
ALL but self-employed excluded from the sample	-0.115 ^{***} (0.016)	-0.003 (0.014)	0.090 ^{***} (0.019)
# Observations	5778	5778	5778
# Observations when self-employed excluded	5289	5289	5289

Note: ***=p-value<0.01 **=p-value<0.05 *=p-value<0.10. Variables included in the sets of covariates are as follows: INDIVIDUAL= age, dummy for female, married and living with parents, parents' highest educational title achieved, years from graduation to the beginning of the Ph.D.; EDUCATION= M.Sc. final grade, attendance of summer schools and attendance of special courses during doctoral studies, dummy for teaching activities during the Ph.D., dummy for financial support during the Ph.D. apart from the official grant, dummy for time extension for completing the Ph.D.; JOB: sector of activity (University, Manufacture, Services, Agriculture), dummy for permanent job and part-time job, number of working experience years, dummy for holding a job also one year after gaining their title, dummy

for job totally, partially or not at all focused on R&D; ALL: INDIVIDUAL+ EDUCATION+JOB +survey year dummy, macro-regions dummy, dummy for field of study. Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.

Tab. 5: average VIF values calculated when running the analyses whose results are reported in Table 4. § indicates that there is one variable whose VIF is higher than 5, but lower than 6.

Set of covariates considered	Main variable of interest		
	OVEREDUCATION	OVERSKILLING	SATISFACTION
EDUCATION	2.48	2.49	2.48
INDIVIDUAL	2.41	2.41	2.4
EDUCATION + INDIVIDUAL	2.37	2.39	2.35
JOB	2.22	2.23	2.22
EDUCATION +JOB	2.19	2.21	2.18
INDIVIDUAL + JOB	2.17	2.19	2.15
ALL	2.06	2.08	2.05
RD excluded	2.05	2.06	2.04
ALL + Weighted observations§	2.11	2.12	2.1
NO Self employed	2.04	2.06	2.04

Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.

Tab. 6: the wage effect of the interplay between OVEREDUCATION and OVERSKILLING and of the interplay between OVEREDUCATION and SATISFACTION, conditional on different set of covariates. Coefficients obtained through OLS estimates. The log of net hourly wage is used as the dependent variable.

Sets of covariates considered	Main variables of interest					
	OVEREDUCATION x OVERSKILLING			OVEREDUCATION x SATISFACTION		
	AM	AO	GO	AM1	AO1	GO1
EDUCATION	0.195*** (0.013)	-0.029 (0.045)	0.100*** (0.016)	-0.034 (0.024)	0.030 (0.016)	-0.060 (0.037)
INDIVIDUAL	0.196*** (0.013)	-0.024 (0.044)	0.099*** (0.016)	-0.024 (0.024)	0.030 (0.016)	-0.057 (0.036)
EDUCATION + INDIVIDUAL	0.196*** (0.013)	-0.025 (0.044)	0.099*** (0.016)	-0.025 (0.024)	0.028 (0.016)	-0.058 (0.036)
JOB	0.022 (0.014)	-0.051 (0.044)	-0.100*** (0.020)	-0.081*** (0.022)	-0.095*** (0.017)	-0.217*** (0.035)
EDUCATION +JOB	0.016 (0.014)	-0.057 (0.044)	-0.111*** (0.020)	-0.074*** (0.022)	-0.099*** (0.017)	-0.215*** (0.035)
INDIVIDUAL + JOB	0.019 (0.014)	-0.056 (0.042)	-0.107*** (0.020)	-0.074** (0.022)	-0.100*** (0.016)	-0.219*** (0.034)
ALL	0.019 (0.014)	-0.055 (0.042)	-0.108*** (0.020)	-0.075*** (0.022)	-0.100*** (0.016)	-0.218*** (0.034)
RD excluded	0.062*** (0.013)	-0.041 (0.043)	-0.039** (0.018)	-0.054* (0.022)	-0.060*** (0.016)	-0.174*** (0.034)
ALL and weighted observations	0.030* (0.015)	-0.053 (0.043)	-0.111*** (0.020)	-0.071** (0.023)	-0.106*** (0.017)	-0.209*** (0.036)
ALL but self-employed excluded from the sample	0.020 (0.014)	-0.068 (0.038)	-0.106*** (0.020)	-0.072** (0.022)	-0.104*** (0.016)	-0.202*** (0.036)
# Observations	5778	5778	5778	5778	5778	5778
# Observations when self-employed excluded	5289	5289	5289	5289	5289	5289

Note: ***=p-value<0.01 **=p-value<0.05 *=p-value<0.10. Variables included in the sets of covariates are as follows: INDIVIDUAL= age, dummy for female, married and living with parents, parents' highest educational title achieved, years from graduation to the beginning of the Ph.D.; EDUCATION= M.Sc. final grade, attendance of summer schools and attendance of special courses during doctoral studies, dummy for teaching activities during the Ph.D., dummy for financial support during the Ph.D. apart from the official grant, dummy for time extension for completing the Ph.D.; JOB: sector of activity (University, Manufacture, Services,

Agriculture), dummy for permanent job and part-time job, number of working experience years, dummy for holding a job also one year after gaining their title, dummy for job totally, partially or not at all focused on R&D; ALL: INDIVIDUAL+ EDUCATION+JOB +survey year dummy, macro-regions dummy, dummy for field of study. *Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.*

Tab. 7: average VIF values calculated when running the analyses whose results are reported in Table 4. § indicates that there is one variable whose VIF is higher than 5, but lower than 6.

Sets of covariates considered	Main variables of interest	
	OVEREDUCATION x OVERSKILLING	OVEREDUCATION x SATISFACTION
EDUCATION	2.39	2.38
INDIVIDUAL	2.32	2.33
EDUCATION + INDIVIDUAL	2.17	2.16
JOB	2.34	2.29
EDUCATION +JOB	2.18	2.14
INDIVIDUAL + JOB	2.16	2.12
ALL	2.06	2.03
RD excluded	2.03	2.01
ALL and weighted observations §	2.12	2.11
ALL but self-employed excluded from the sample	2.04	2.01

Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.

Tab. 8: the effect of OVEREDUCATION, OVERSKILLING and SATISFACTION on wages, conditional on different set of covariates. Coefficients obtained through Heckman two-step procedure that controls for selection into employment. The log of net hourly wage is used as the dependent variable.

	OVEREDUCATION x OVERSKILLING			OVEREDUCATION x SATISFACTION		
	AM	AO	GO	AM1	AO1	GO1
EDUCATION [§]	0.191*** (0.013)	0.023 (0.044)	0.094*** (0.017)	-0.039 (0.024)	0.024 (0.016)	-0.070 (0.036)
INDIVIDUAL ^{§§}	0.197*** (0.013)	0.022 (0.044)	0.098*** (0.016)	-0.029 (0.024)	0.027 (0.016)	-0.066 (0.036)
EDUCATION + INDIVIDUAL ^{§§}	0.197*** (0.013)	0.024 (0.044)	0.100*** (0.016)	-0.028 (0.024)	0.024 (0.016)	-0.066 (0.036)
JOB	0.022 (0.014)	-0.051 (0.043)	-0.100*** (0.020)	-0.081*** (0.022)	-0.095*** (0.017)	-0.217*** (0.035)
EDUCATION +JOB	0.021 (0.014)	-0.049 (0.043)	-0.102*** (0.020)	-0.082*** (0.022)	-0.095*** (0.017)	-0.217*** (0.035)
INDIVIDUAL + JOB	0.021 (0.014)	-0.055 (0.043)	-0.106*** (0.020)	-0.076*** (0.022)	-0.099*** (0.016)	-0.222*** (0.034)
ALL	0.020 (0.014)	-0.054 (0.042)	-0.107*** (0.020)	-0.076*** (0.022)	-0.100*** (0.016)	-0.220*** (0.034)
RD excluded	0.064*** (0.013)	-0.040 (0.043)	-0.038* (0.018)	-0.055* (0.022)	-0.059*** (0.016)	-0.176*** (0.034)
ALL and weighted observations	0.028 (0.015)	-0.050 (0.043)	-0.111*** (0.020)	-0.080*** (0.023)	-0.110*** (0.017)	-0.216*** (0.035)
ALL but self-employed excluded from the sample	0.022 (0.014)	-0.069 (0.038)	-0.104*** (0.020)	-0.074*** (0.022)	-0.103*** (0.016)	-0.204*** (0.036)
# Observations	5778	5778	5778	5778	5778	5778
# Observations in the selection equation	6391	6391	6391	6391	6391	6391

Note: § Selection is significant in all regressions. §§ Selection is relevant for all regression except for OVEREDUCATION x OVERSKILLING. Variables included in the sets of covariates are as follows: INDIVIDUAL= age, dummy for female, married and living with parents, parents' highest educational title achieved, years from graduation to the beginning of the Ph.D.; EDUCATION= M.Sc. final grade, attendance of summer schools and attendance of special courses during doctoral studies,

dummy for teaching activities during the Ph.D., dummy for financial support during the Ph.D. apart from the official grant, dummy for time extension for completing the Ph.D.; JOB: sector of activity (University, Manufacture, Services, Agriculture), dummy for permanent job and part-time job, number of working experience years, dummy for holding a job also one year after gaining their title, dummy for job totally, partially or not at all focused on R&D; ALL: INDIVIDUAL+EDUCATION+JOB +survey year dummy, macro-regions dummy, dummy for field of study. *Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.*

Tab. 9: the effect of OVEREDUCATION, OVERSKILLING and SATISFACTION on wages, conditional on different set of covariates. Coefficients obtained through Heckman two-step procedure that controls for selection into job obtained after the completion of Ph.D.. The log of net hourly wage is used as the dependent variable.

	OVEREDUCATION x OVERSKILLING			OVEREDUCATION x SATISFACTION		
	AM	AO	GO	AM1	AO1	GO1
EDUCATION [§]	0.183*** (0.013)	0.022 (0.043)	0.087*** (0.016)	-0.045 (0.023)	0.021 (0.016)	-0.084* (0.036)
INDIVIDUAL [§]	0.191*** (0.013)	0.020 (0.044)	0.094*** (0.016)	-0.037 (0.023)	0.028 (0.016)	-0.073* (0.035)
EDUCATION + INDIVIDUAL	0.197*** (0.013)	0.024 (0.044)	0.100*** (0.016)	-0.025 (0.024)	0.028 (0.016)	-0.059 (0.036)
JOB [§]	0.021 (0.014)	-0.057 (0.042)	-0.104*** (0.020)	-0.082*** (0.021)	-0.097*** (0.017)	-0.225*** (0.035)
EDUCATION +JOB [§]	0.020 (0.014)	-0.054 (0.042)	-0.105*** (0.020)	-0.082*** (0.021)	-0.097*** (0.017)	-0.225*** (0.035)
INDIVIDUAL + JOB	0.021 (0.014)	-0.057 (0.042)	-0.107*** (0.020)	-0.076*** (0.022)	-0.099*** (0.016)	-0.222*** (0.034)
ALL	0.020 (0.014)	-0.054 (0.042)	-0.107*** (0.020)	-0.076*** (0.022)	-0.100*** (0.016)	-0.220*** (0.034)
RD excluded	0.064*** (0.013)	-0.040 (0.043)	-0.038* (0.018)	-0.055* (0.022)	-0.059*** (0.016)	-0.176*** (0.034)
ALL and weighted observations	0.028 (0.015)	-0.050 (0.043)	-0.111*** (0.020)	-0.080*** (0.023)	-0.110*** (0.017)	-0.216*** (0.035)
ALL but self-employed excluded from the sample [§]	0.022 (0.014)	-0.070 (0.037)	-0.104*** (0.020)	-0.076*** (0.022)	-0.102*** (0.016)	-0.211*** (0.035)
# Observations	5778	5778	5778	5778	5778	5778
# Observations in the selection equation	8056	8056	8056	8056	8056	8056

Note: § Selection is significant in all regressions. Variables included in the sets of covariates are as follows: INDIVIDUAL= age, dummy for female, married and living with parents, parents' highest educational title achieved, years from graduation to the beginning of the Ph.D.; EDUCATION= M.Sc. final grade, attendance of summer schools and attendance of special courses during doctoral studies, dummy for teaching activities during the Ph.D., dummy for financial support during the

Ph.D. apart from the official grant, dummy for time extension for completing the Ph.D.; JOB: sector of activity (University, Manufacture, Services, Agriculture), dummy for permanent job and part-time job, number of working experience years, dummy for holding a job also one year after gaining their title, dummy for job totally, partially or not at all focused on R&D; ALL: INDIVIDUAL+ EDUCATION+JOB +survey year dummy, macro-regions dummy, dummy for field of study. Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.

Annex

Tab. A1: Variables' definition. § indicates reference category in regression analyses.

VARIABLE LABEL	VARIABLE DESCRIPTION
LNWAGE	Natural logarithm of hourly net wage: ln(Monthly net wage/hours)
OVEREDUCATION	Takes the values of 1 when the Ph.D. title was not required nor useful to obtain the current job, 0 otherwise.
OVERSKILLING	Takes the values of 1 when respondents do not use their doctoral skills in their current job, 0 otherwise.
SATISFACTION	Takes the values of 1 when respondents are satisfied for the use of their doctoral skills in their current job, 0 otherwise.
GO	Takes the values of 1 when OVEREDUCATION=1 & OVERSKILLING =1, 0 otherwise.
GO1	Takes the values of 1 when OVEREDUCATION=1 & SATISFACTION=0, 0 otherwise.
AGECOMPLETE: LESS THAN 30§	Takes the values of 1 when Ph.D. achieved at less than 30, 0 otherwise.
AGECOMPLETE: 30 YEARS	Takes the values of 1 when Ph.D. achieved at 30, 0 otherwise.
AGECOMPLETE: 31 YEARS	Takes the values of 1 when Ph.D. achieved at 31, 0 otherwise.
AGECOMPLETE: 32 YEARS	Takes the values of 1 when Ph.D. achieved at 32, 0 otherwise.
AGECOMPLETE: 33 AND MORE	Takes the values of 1 when Ph.D. achieved at 33 or more, 0 otherwise.
FEMALE	Takes the values of 1 for females, 0 otherwise.
MARRIED	Takes the values of 1 for married, 0 otherwise.
FAMGRADE1§	Takes the values of 1 for those whose parents' higher education is undergraduate, 0 otherwise.
FAMGRADE2	Takes the values of 1 for those whose parents' higher education is graduate, 0 otherwise.
FAMGRADE3	Takes the values of 1 for those whose parents' higher education is M.sc M.Phil. or Ph.D., 0 otherwise.
PARENTLIVE	Takes the values of 1 for those who live with parents, 0 otherwise.
MATH and STATISTICS§	1=Ph.D. in Math or Statistics, 0 otherwise.
PHYSICS and ASTRONOMY	1=Ph.D. in Physics and Astronomy, 0 otherwise.
EARTH and ENVIR. SC.	1=Ph.D. in Earth and environmental sciences, 0 otherwise.
CHEMISTRY	1=Ph.D. in Chemistry, 0 otherwise.
BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE	1=Ph.D. in Biological Science, 0 otherwise.
MEDICAL SCIENCE	1=Ph.D. in Medical Science, 0 otherwise
AGRIC. and VETERINARY	1=Ph.D. in Agriculture and Veterinary, 0 otherwise
ARCHITECTURE	1=Ph.D. in Architecture, 0 otherwise
ENGINEERING SCIENCE	1=Ph.D. in Engineering, 0 otherwise
HUMAN SCIENCE	1=Ph.D. in Human Sciences, 0 otherwise
HISTORY and PHILOSOPHY	1=Ph.D. in History and Philosophy, 0 otherwise
LAW	1=Ph.D. in Law, 0 otherwise
ECONOMICS and STATISTICS	1=Ph.D. in Economics and Statistics, 0 otherwise
POLITICAL SCIENCE	1=Ph.D. in Political Science, 0 otherwise
COURSES	Takes the values of 1 for those who took part to specialization courses during Ph.D. , 0 otherwise
SUMMERSCHOOL	Takes the values of 1 for those who took part to summer school(s) during Ph.D. , 0 otherwise
FINANCIALSUPPORT	Takes the values of 1 for those who used financial aid other than grant in order to complete the Ph.D. , 0 otherwise
TAUGHT	Takes the values of 1 for those who taught courses during Ph.D., 0 otherwise.

EXTENSION	Takes the values of 1 for those who needed time extension to conclude Ph.D. (more than the three years normally accorded), 0 otherwise.
YEAR=2004§	1=Ph.D. earned in 2004, 0 otherwise.
YEAR=2006	1=Ph.D. earned in 2006, 0 otherwise.
FROMDTOPHD	Number of years between M.Sc. degree and Ph.D..
MSCGRADE	M.Sc. final grade.
SELFEMPLOYED	Takes the values of 1 for those who are self-employed, 0 otherwise.
PRODUCTS	Number of products (publications, patent) realized after Ph.D. completion.
PERMANENT	Takes the values of 1 for those whose current job is permanent, 0 otherwise.
JOB SECTOR= ACADEMY	Takes the values of 1 for those whose current employer is a University, 0 otherwise.
JOB SECTOR= AGRICULTURE	Takes the values of 1 for those who work in the agriculture sector, 0 otherwise.
JOB SECTOR= MANUFACTURE	Takes the values of 1 for those who work in the manufacture sector, 0 otherwise.
PARTIME	Takes the values of 1 for those whose current is part time job, 0 otherwise.
TEACHING	Takes the values of 1 for those who teach university courses, 0 otherwise.
PhDYRJOB	Takes the values of 1 for those who were working one year after their completion of Ph.D., 0 otherwise.
YEARSWORKEXP	Number of years of work experience after Ph.D..
RD=PARTIALLY RD	Takes the values of 1 for those whose current job is partially focused on R&D, 0 otherwise.
RD=NOT AT ALL§	Takes the values of 1 for those whose current job is does not include R&D at all, 0 otherwise.
RD=ONLY RD	Takes the values of 1 for those whose current job is entirely focused on R&D, 0 otherwise.
NORTHWEST	Takes the values of 1 for those who live in the NW of Italy, 0 otherwise.
NORTEAST	Takes the values of 1 for those who live in the NE of Italy, 0 otherwise.
CENTRE	Takes the values of 1 for those who live in Centre Italy, 0 otherwise.
SOUTH	Takes the values of 1 for those who live in Southern Italy, 0 otherwise.
ABROAD§	Takes the values of 1 for those who live outside Italy, 0 otherwise.

Source: own elaborations from the ISTAT survey of doctoral recipients carried out in 2009.