Employment and labour market in Central European countries

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Introduction

In 1999 Eurostat started a semi-annual publication focussing on developments of employment and the labour market in the countries of Central Europe. Under the title "Central European Countries' Employment and Labour Market Review" two issues were produced with the objective to provide policy makers, enterprises, researchers and the general public with relevant data, analyses and methodological information.

"Employment and labour market in Central European countries" is a continuation of the "Review", but there will be three issues per year with some changes in structure and content.

The overall objective of this publication is to present up-to-date reports of the latest employment trends and labour market developments in the CECs, based on the compilation of a consistent and comparable set of statistical data.

More specifically, it is intended:

– to promote convergence of labour market statistics in CECs according to European standards,
– to supply up-to-date, consistent and comparable information to policy makers, researchers, business, interest groups and the general public,
– to provide statistical data on comparative performance in the CECs.

The geographic coverage now includes the 10 Candidate Countries in Central Europe (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia) and the 3 countries also participating in the PHARE programme (Albania, Bosnia and Hercegovina, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia).

In contrast to the "Review", which for the most part structured both its national and regional analyses in the form of country reports, this publication generally takes a comparative approach by discussing the various aspects of employment and labour market developments across nations and regions.

While the "Review" obtained its information from a number of sources (mainly aggregated statistics from the CECs in Eurostat databases, but also supplementary data from individual national statistical offices and research institutions, and only to a limited extent labour force survey results from microda-

ta transmitted to Eurostat), it was decided that the goal of consistent and comparable statistics would be best served if the information presented in this publication were primarily based on national LFSs which by now are carried out in 11 of the 13 countries and planned in the other 2.

The data used from the national LFSs normally are from the second quarter of each year. The main reason for this choice is the availability of LFS results even for countries with only one or two surveys per year. Apart from that, it also is common statistical practice to use this quarter for annual reports.

The decision to use the national LFSs as its main database also is reflected in the concept of this publication:

– The section "Data sources and methods" mainly describes EU LFS standards and national compliance with them.
– The three analytical sections "Recent labour market trends", "Regional labour markets", and "Special topic" will treat different aspects of employment and the labour market in each issue, including separate data annexes. In this first issue, the national and regional analyses will be devoted to a general overview, while the special topic is "Youth unemployment".
– Finally, the LFS database made it possible to present both a national and a regional time series with additional indicators and distributions of principal variables.

However, due to the fact that data for previous years is presently not available for all countries and recent changes in administrative structures could not be taken into account retroactively on short notice, national comparisons at this stage had to be limited to the years 1999 and 2000, and the regional analysis to the year 2000 only. For earlier national data the reader is therefore referred to the two issues of the "Review", which have a fairly complete coverage until 1998, or to the annual publication on "Employment in Europe". Information on selected regional labour markets for either 1998 or 1999 also can be found in the second issue of the "Review".

In general it is nevertheless hoped that the greater emphasis given to the presentation of statistical data from a common standardized base and the restriction of analyses to clearly delimited topics will make this publication a valuable source of information on employment trends and labour market developments in the CECs.

Executive summary

The objective of "Employment and labour market in Central European countries" is to monitor relevant trends and developments in 13 CECs (the 10 CCs BG, CZ, EE, HU, LT, LV, PL, RO, SI, SK and the three PHARE participants AL, BA, FYROM). Rather than presenting separate country reports, however, this publication takes a comparative approach, discussing the various aspects of employment and labour market developments across nations and regions.

Data sources and methods

The information used here is primarily based on national LFSs, which all CECs (except AL and BA) introduced within the last decade, undertaking great efforts since to adapt them to EU standards. These technical standards, set by Eurostat in cooperation with country representatives (incl. CECs) and then incorporated into Council and Commission Regulations, apply among others to the type and frequency of the survey, sampling methods, the list of questions and response categories, definitions, classifications, and data transmission.

The fundamental classification in any LFS is that of persons aged 15+ by their labour status as employed, unemployed, or inactive. From this, a number of central groups and rates are derived including the working age population, dependency rates, the labour force, and the employment and unemployment rates. In addition, the EU LFS standards refer to some specific aspects of employment and unemployment considered as important indicators such as the incidence of temporary or part-time work, youth and long-term unemployment.

The implementation of these standards largely falls under the responsibility of the NSIs. Although considerable progress has been made in this regard, there still are a number of individual problems or details requiring further attention. On the whole, however, the CECs' LFSs provide the most consistent and comparable set of data for the analysis of employment and the labour market in these countries.

Recent labour market trends

The central indicators for the development of the labour market in a country are the employment and unemployment rates, but they also must be seen against the background of underlying demographic structures as well as the overall economic situation and further differentiated according to gender, age, economic sectors, professional status and other specific conditions of work or unemployment.

Thus, the greatest variation between CECs is based on the sheer size their population, ranging from 38.1 million in Poland and 22.3 million in Romania to a group of countries with about 2 million and Estonia at just 1.4 million. Both the absolute numbers of employed and unemployed generally follow this population ranking.

In relative terms, the working age population (15-64) is practically the same in almost all CECs at about two thirds of the total, with little variation between countries regarding the demographic burden imposed on this group by the young and old. Only Albania and the FYROM have higher dependency rates for youth (52.5 and 33.4) and lower ones for the old (9.5 and 13.9). The "effective" dependency rate, in contrast, not only shows that on the average there are almost 100 not employed persons aged 15+ per every 100 in employment, but it also ranges over a wide span from 66.8 in Romania to 150.0 in Bulgaria and 179.0 in the FYROM.

The overall development in the CECs has lately been marked by declining tendencies either in absolute or relative terms. While GDP growth still is positive in most of the countries, its pace has slackened in all except Slovenia, the Czech Republic and Romania, with the greatest deceleration in the three Baltic states. In contrast, the development of employment has been negative in all CCs for 1999 and 2000 except in Hungary (both years), Lithuania (1999), and Slovenia (2000), though the trend for the year 2000 was more favourable than for 1999 in seven of the ten CCs. The development of unemployment was even worse as the absolute figures became less favourable from 1999 to 2000. Only Hungary and Slovenia continued to show a decrease in the number of unemployed, and of the eight countries with an increase only the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Estonia were able to slow down that trend.

The Czech Republic, Romania, and Slovenia had the highest employment rates of all CECs in the year 2000 with almost two thirds of the working age population, the FYROM and Bulgaria the lowest not even reaching 50%, while the other countries were fairly close around the average. Only Hungary, Slovenia, Romania, and the Czech Republic had unemployment rates under 10% in the year 2000, while in all other countries this rate was already above average, the FYROM again at the bottom of the list with a rate of over 30%, joined by Bulgaria and Slovakia with close to 20%.

About three quarters of the population aged 25-54 are employed in the CECs, the most in the Czech Republic and Slovenia with over 80%, the least in the FYROM and Bulgaria with just over 53 and 67%. In the ten-year age groups below and above, the employment rates are only around 30%. There is little variation between countries in youth employment with the exception of the FYROM and Bulgaria, where it barely reaches 15 and 20%. In older age, the rates range from high values for Romania, where more than half of the persons aged 55-64 and even 38% of those beyond the normal working age are still employed, to over 40% in Estonia and Lithuania, down to about 20% in Bulgaria, Hungary, Slovenia and Slovakia. Unemployment rates generally are highest in youth and lowest in the upper age group. Youth unemployment is particularly pronounced in the FYROM, where six out of ten young people are looking for a job, and still high in Bulgaria, Slovakia, and Poland with rates

of 35-40%. In the older age group, in contrast, unemployment apparently is largely evaded by an earlier exit from working life.

The employment rates of women in the CECs in the year 2000 were about ten percentage points lower than those of men, with the greatest difference in the Czech Republic (56.8 vs. 73.1), the lowest in Lithuania (58.5 vs. 61.8). Except for Romania where this gap remains relatively narrow, these differences tend to increase with age, reaching an extreme of almost 30 percentage points in the Czech Republic (22.1 vs. 51.6). As a result of this, the employment rates for older women even drop below those for young ones, while the opposite is true for men. There are only minor differences in the unemployment rates for men and women, both also showing a decrease with age. Only in the Czech Republic and Poland the unemployment of women was higher than that of men over most or all age groups, while only in the Baltic states the unemployment rates for women are persistently lower.

The economic structure of the CECs in the year 2000 still is characterized by a sizable primary sector (21.2% for the CEC-10) and an underdeveloped tertiary sector (47.4). Both Albania and Romania continue to be dominantly agricultural with over 72 and 45% of the employed in this sector. While Poland, Lithuania, and Latvia still had an agricultural employment of more than 10%, the Czech Republic already has reduced it to just over 5%. However, the Czech Republic together with Slovenia and Slovakia also possesses the largest industrial sector with a share of up to 40%. In all CCs except Romania the service sector accounts for between 50 and 60% of the employed, at the same time exhibiting the typical pattern that female employment is dominantly in services rather than industry, while industrial employment is dominantly male, although the share of men working in the tertiary sector often already is the same as or even higher than in the secondary sector.

Traditionally, self-employment has been widespread in the agricultural sector, and this is confirmed by the figures for Romania (25.4) and Poland (22.5). In a more recent tendency, many employees turn freelance or establish their own mini-enterprise, typically in the service sector, which may be reflected by the high incidence of self-employment in the Czech Republic (14.5) and Hungary (14.6). There also is a distinct gender difference, with male self-employed in the CECs outweighing females at a ratio 23.8 to 14.2, with little variation between countries.

Part-time employment, although not very widespread in the CECs at an average of less than 10%, varies substantially between the individual countries, ranging from a share of 16.4% in Romania to 1.7% in Slovakia. Women make use of this kind of arrangement more often than men (11.8% vs. 7.5% for the CEC-10), with the difference tending to be relatively greater in countries with lower overall rates and relatively smaller in countries with higher overall rates.

At an average of 4%, temporary employment is not very widespread in the CECs either, but it also varies considerably between the individual countries, being highest in Slovenia with 12.9% and lowest in Estonia with 2.3%. In this case, however, the gender differences are not very pronounced or systematic.

In contrast, long-term unemployment, like youth unemployment, is a serious problem in all CECs. In the year 2000, about half of all unemployed in the CCs found themselves in this situation, with the proportion varying only over a fairly limited range between a high of 62.7% in Slovenia and a low of 44.6% in Poland. In Albania even nine out of every ten unemployed in 1999 had been looking for work for more than a year. Generally, men and women are affected equally, the only notable exceptions being Lithuania, Hungary, and Slovenia, where the share for men is considerably higher than that for women, and Poland, where this relation is reversed.

Regional labour markets

The regional disparities within a country often are larger than those between countries. The level-2 regions in six countries (BG, CZ, HU, PL, RO, SK) and four countries taken as a whole (EE, LT, LV and SI) vary considerably according to their size by population, area and density. The most populous region is Mazowieckie with the centre Warsaw (about 5 million), the smallest Bratislava (615 000). The three largest regions are the Baltic states with 40-60000 sq.km, the smallest Prague with just 500. The resulting density is highest in the capital regions, especially Prague and Bucharest, lowest in the Baltic states.

The comparison by economic structure shows that the share of the agricultural sector ranges from 61.3% in South-West Romania to less than 1% in Prague, and in seven regions represents the majority of the employed. There is a belt of regions with strong agricultural activities (above 15%) along the eastern border of the CECs. The share of industry varies between 47.7% in Slaskie (PL0C) and less than 20% in North-East Romania. Twelve of the 14 regions with an industrial share over 40% are arranged in the form of a half-moon along the Austrian border, while industry is weakest in the agricultural regions of Romania and around the countries' capitals, which feature the highest share of services. Employment in the tertiary sector ranges from less than 20 to nearly 80%, representing the strongest sector in almost all regions. Based on their economic structure, the regions can be classified by four types: AG – 21 regions with an agricultural share over 14%, IN – 13 regions with industrial employment over 40%, SC – five regions with a service share over 60%, and SM – 14 regions with a mixed structure.

The rate of self-employment extends from 7.1 in eastern Slovakia to 35.1 in Swietokrzyskie (PL0D), with high rates largely restricted to agriculturally dominated regions or service centres.

The regional employment rates differ even more than the national ones, ranging from 71.4% in Prague to 42.3% in South-East Bulgaria. But apart from Slovakia, where Bratisla-

va (70.2%) outperforms the eastern regions by 18.5%, the differences between regions in a country generally are smaller than those between countries. The values for the central age group 25-54 show a regional variation from 57.6-93.5% for men and 54.1-84.8% for women. The differences in youth employment are even larger, ranging from 28.5-43.5% in the Czech Republic and 20.6-39.8% in Romania, for example. The largest differentials are found in the age group 55-64, particularly between regions in Poland (16-44%) and Romania (26-70%), but in Prague and Bratislava, too, this rate surpasses that of neighbouring regions by 20-30%. With an average gender difference of over 10%, the male employment rate peaks at 77.3% in Prague and that for women drops to 37.5% in South-East Bulgaria. The gap can be as narrow as 3% in Bulgaria and the Baltic states and as high as 19% in some regions of the Czech Republic and Hungary. In a combined differentiation by region, age and sex, the values actually range from 5 to 95%.

The lowest regional unemployment rate is found in Prague with 4%, the highest in North-West Bulgaria with 27.9%. There also are considerable differences within countries, for example between Bratislava (7.3%) and Eastern Slovakia (24.6), or Sofia (11.7%) and North-West Bulgaria (27.9%). The lowest rates are found in service centres and agricultural regions. The direction and extent of regional gender differences generally follows the country pattern, with an extreme gap observed in the region Opolskie with 10% for men and 20.7% for women. The highest youth unemployment is found in South-West Bulgaria with 51.7%, but other regions in Bulgaria and Poland also reach levels over 40%. Only 3 regions in Hungary have youth unemployment of under 10%. Long-term unemployment, finally, varies regionally between 70% in North-East Bulgaria and 25% in Opolskie, with Prague and Bratislava the only other regions under 30%. This share also differs considerably between regions in a country, for example, from 25.3-54.4% in Poland, 29.4-56.8% in the Czech Republic, and 29.7-57.3% in Slovakia.

Youth unemployment

While the ultimate scale of youth-related issues varies with the absolute size of this age group, and hence a country's population, the variation in the proportion of young people appears relatively limited among the CECs. But the group of new entrants (15-24) into the working age population always outnumbers that of future leavers (55-64) by up to 190 (SK), 170 (PL) and 150 (RO), with 120-130% in the other CECs.

The highest rates of youth unemployment are reported in Bulgaria (39%), Poland (36%) and Slovakia (37%), the lowest is found in Hungary (12%). The countries already with high rates also experienced the largest further increases from 1999 to 2000. This variation is greatly reduced in the activity rate, which ranges between 36 and 39% for most countries, with only Bulgaria falling considerably below the average, while the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Romania

exceed it due to the low educational enrolment of under 50%, a rate almost reached in Slovenia by the age group 20-24 alone. Compared to the prime working age population, the unemployment rate of young people is twice higher for all CECs, the gap being under 200% only in the Baltic states and the widest in Slovenia and Romania. The worst possible situation though exists in Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia, where the relatively poor labour market performance comes on top of already high general unemployment.

Young women generally fare better in the labour market than their male counterparts, the largest female advantage being observed in Slovakia and Bulgaria, while only in Poland and Slovenia their unemployment rate is worse. A major reason for this difference seems to lie in the longer and, hence, more advanced education of women, which first delays their entry into the labour market and then enhances their chances of finding a suitable job.

With the number of long-term unemployed increasing even faster than overall youth unemployment, the respective proportion now is highest in Slovenia and Lithuania (47%), followed closely by Bulgaria and Slovakia (over 40%), and lowest in Estonia and Poland. However, in all countries the proportion of long-term unemployed in the age group 15-24 is lower than in the prime working age population.

On the average, two in every three young unemployed are registered at public employment offices, but this rate varies widely across countries from 90% in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, 75% in Poland and Slovenia, down to about 25% in Estonia and Latvia. This proportion also never exceeds the corresponding one for the prime working age population in any CEC. At the same time the growth in youth unemployment has been accompanied by a decline in the proportion of benefit recipients, which ranges from every third in the Czech Republic and Romania, every fifth in Slovakia and Hungary, to as little as 7% in the Baltic states and Slovenia. Yet nearly two thirds of youths turn to the public employment offices in their search for a job, half of them ask friends, relatives, etc., two fifths collect information in newspapers or journals, and slightly fewer contact employers directly.

A characteristic feature of unemployed young people is that the majority of them (60%) are looking for their first job, in Romania and Slovenia even four fifths to three fourths, in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary and Latvia fewer than half. Women generally have less prior work experience than men due to longer educational enrolment or domestic responsibilities.

Temporary and part-time employment, particularly if involuntary, also can represent some degree of labour underutilisation and job insecurity. With both work arrangements reaching a level of 13 to 14%, however, only Slovenia in temporary and Romania in part-time employment exhibit a significantly higher incidence of the respective work forms, including a sizable involuntary component.

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Data sources and methods

The primary source of statistical information presented in this publication are the national labour force surveys, which are carried out in all CCs and the FYROM. For Albania, the limited data available largely come from administrative records, while none could yet be made available from Bosnia and Hercegovina; but even in these countries there are plans to introduce a national LFS as early as next year.

Supplementary figures for all CECs on GDP growth (Statistics in focus, Theme 2 – 5/2001), registered unemployment and total or regional area were provided by Eurostat. Special circumstances concerning data sources or methods in individual countries are noted in the text or in the section on "Abbreviations and methodological notes". The discussion following here only is designed to describe some of the more important aspects of national labour force surveys.

The nature of labour force surveys

A labour force survey characteristically involves personal interviews carried out in a sample of households to periodically obtain relevant information for a given reference week. This approach has certain advantages in comparison with other sources of information.

Thus, statistics from civil registers or social insurance records are by-products of administrative processes, which may widely differ in their definition and coverage of employment and unemployment according to the legal and organisational provisions of the respective systems. Establishment-based surveys are restricted to the persons and activities in individual sectors and do not provide data on the not employed. A census, finally, with its complete and comprehensive coverage of the basic statistical parameters requires resources, which can be mobilised only at greater intervals.

National LFSs, in contrast, are designed for the specific purpose of collecting information on employment and unemployment across the entire economy and at minimal costs. Due to their inherent flexibility, they also can be more easily harmonized in terms of topical content, concepts, definitions, data processing and analysis to ensure comparability according to internationally accepted standards.

However, the sample base of LFSs also is their main limiting factor. In general, the reliability of results derived from a sample decreases with its size as well as with the frequency with which the measured characteristic occurs and the evenness with which it is distributed in the population. Thus, there are limits to the use of LFSs on relatively rare phenomena, in detailed regional or sectoral disaggregation, and for monitoring trends over small time intervals or involving only minor movements.

CECs' labour force surveys

In the CECs, LFSs only were introduced during the transition process from a planned to a market-oriented economy within the last decade. Since then, however, the LFS has become the main instrument for assessing the characteristics and developments of their national labour markets.

After starting with an initial pilot or annual survey in the first year(s), all CECs except Latvia, Lithuania and the FYROM, which still were on a semi-annual schedule, conducted their year 2000 LFS on a continuous, monthly or quarterly basis. Details on the introduction of national LFSs in the CECs as well as their periodicity and sample sizes in the year 2000 are listed in Table 1. More information on the history and methodology of LFSs in the ten Central European CCs can be found in the Eurostat publication "Labour Force Survey in Central and Eastern European Countries: Methods and definitions, 1999".

That publication also documents the efforts of the CECs to adapt their LFSs to EU standards. These efforts have since been intensified through the "PHARE Multi-Beneficiary Programme for Statistical Cooperation: Pilot Projects on Statistics", which assessed the compliance of national LFSs with EU regulations, provided some assistance with data transmission, and made recommendations for further harmonisation.

Table 1: **Main data on CECs' LFSs**

Country	Starting date	Type of survey	Frequency of results	Sample size in the year 2000	
BG	1993	quarterly	quarterly	24000	households
CZ	1992	continuous	quarterly	26000	households
EE	1995	continuous	quarterly	2000	households
HU	1991	monthly	quarterly	37000	dwellings
LT	1994	semi-annually	semi-annually	3000	households
LV	1995	semi-annually	semi-annually	8000	households
PL	1992	continuous	quarterly	24000	dwellings
RO	1993	continuous	quarterly	18000	dwellings
SI	1993	continuous	quarterly	7000	households
SK	1993	continuous	quarterly	10000	dwellings
MK	1996	semi-annually	semi-annually	7200	households

Data sources and methods

EU LFS standards

The first attempt to carry out a LFS in its member states was already made by the then EC in 1960, but it was not until 1983 that a harmonised LFS was instituted. The latest regulations applying to the time period covered in this publication are the Council Regulation (EC) No.577/98 of 9 March 1998 and the corresponding Commission Regulation (EC) No.1571/98 of 20 July 1998.

The technical aspects of these regulations are determined by Eurostat in cooperation with representatives from the NSIs (incl. CECs) at meetings of the Employment Statistics Working Party. The main EU LFS standards set in this process apply to:
– type, frequency and reference period of the survey (continuous survey providing quarterly and annual results, with the reference week preceding the interview week),
– units and scope of the survey, observation method (persons in private/collective households, interviews),
– sample (relative sampling error, rotation, weighting),
– survey characteristics (list of questions and response categories, definitions and classifications),
– transmission of data to Eurostat (individual records within 12 weeks for continuous surveys and 9 months for an annual spring survey).

The principal definitions and classifications used in the EU LFS represent international or EU conventions and include:
– employment and unemployment (ILO, 13th ICLS),
– international classification of status in employment, ICSE (ILO, 15th ICLS),
– international classification of occupations, ISCO-88 (ILO),
– statistical classification of economic activities, NACE Rev.1 (EU, adaptation of ISIC Rev.3, UN),
– international standard classification of education, ISCED 1997 (UNESCO),
– regional classification, NUTS 2 (EU).
A detailed presentation of the EU LFS standards can be found in the Eurostat publication "Labour force survey: Methods and definitions, 1998 edition".

The implementation of these standards largely falls under the responsibility of the NSIs. They design their own survey sample and a national questionnaire, conduct the interviews, compute the weighting factors, and convert the data to the prescribed record structure for transmission to Eurostat. Eurostat, in turn, checks and processes the data for EU Member States, CECs and other cooperating countries and makes the results available for dissemination.

Basic concepts and definitions

While the LFS is intended to cover the whole resident population of a country, the results are compiled only for persons living in private households (but excl. persons in compulsory military or community service surveyed in these households), because some countries do not cover collective households.

The central distinction in any LFS is the classification of persons aged 15 years or more by their labour status:

Employed are those who, during the reference week:
– did any work for pay or profit, or
– were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent.
Family workers are included.

Unemployed are those who:
– had no employment during the reference week, and
– had actively sought employment during the previous four weeks, and
– were available to start work within the next two weeks.
Persons who already had found a job, which was to start later, are also classified as unemployed.

Inactive are all those not classified as either employed or unemployed.

Graph 1 shows a flowchart classifying the population according to these definitions. In this context, persons temporarily absent from work present certain difficulties. The accepted criterion for their classification as employed is a formal attachment to their job, which in turn is defined by:
– the continued receipt of pay,
– the assurance of return to work, or
– the elapsed duration of absence.

Another problem is the classification of unemployed by LFSs as opposed to the registration in public employment offices. Due to differences in the criteria used, the respective figures for a given country can differ considerably, and while the definition applied to all CECs' LFSs is the same, the figures on registered unemployment are rarely comparable between countries due to different national regulations. The latter are therefore included in this publication only for information purposes. For a discussion of the differences involved the reader is referred to the first issue of the "Review", p.13ff and to "Employment in Europe", 1999, p.51.

Based on age and labour status, a number of groups and rates are derived:
– ***Working age population:*** 15-64
– ***Youth dependency rate:*** under 15/15-64
– ***Old age dependency rate:*** 65+/15-64
– ***Effective dependency rate:*** not working 15+/employed
– ***Labour force:*** employed + unemployed
– ***Activity rate:*** labour force 15-64/working age population
– ***Employment rate:*** employed 15-64/working age population
– ***Unemployment rate:*** unemployed/labour force

In addition, there are a number of concepts relating to specific conditions of employment, unemployment, or inactivity:

The permanency of a job only refers to employees. Temporary employment, work contracts of limited duration or fixed-term contracts are characterized by the agreement between employer and employee on objective conditions

Graph 1: **Labour force classification in the European Union Labour Force Survey**
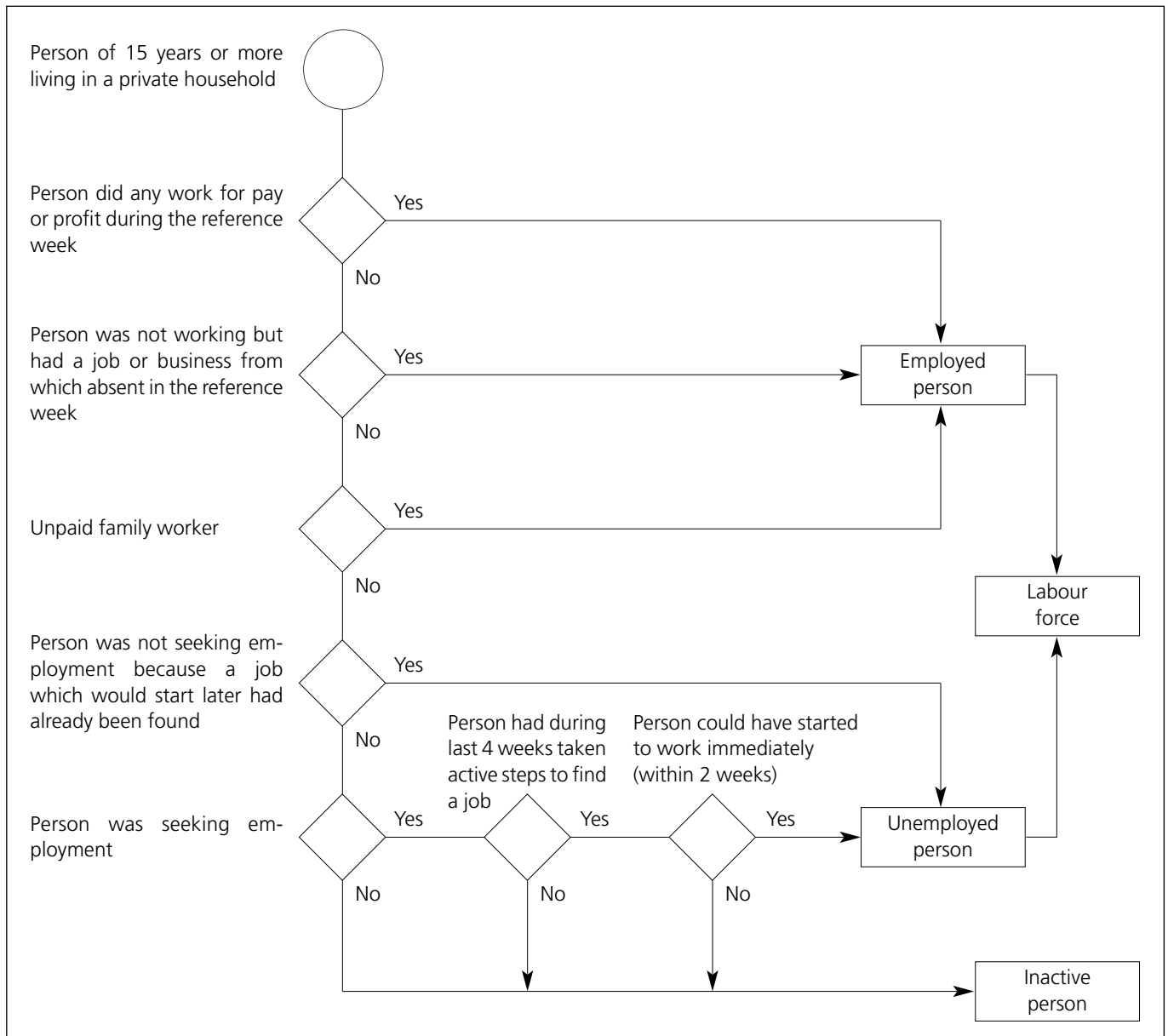
under which a job ends, such as a specific date, the completion of a task or the return of another employee who has been temporarily replaced. In particular, this applies to:
– persons with seasonal employment,
– persons engaged by an agency or employment exchange and hired to a third party to perform a specific task (unless there is a written contract of unlimited duration with the agency or employment exchange),
– persons with specific training contracts.
If there are no objective criteria for the end of a job or work contract, then this is considered as permanent or of unlimited duration.

The distinction between full-time and part-time work is based on the subjective declaration of the respondent. A more precise, objective definition is not possible since

working hours differ from country to country and from one branch of activity to the next.

Involuntary part-time work is assumed for persons who declare that they work part-time because they were unable to find a full-time job.

The number of hours usually worked per week in the LFS only refers to the usual number of hours in the main job, including paid or unpaid overtime, but excluding travelling time between home and workplace or time for the main meal break. Apprentices or trainees should exclude any time spent at college or in other special training centres. Persons unable to provide a figure for their usual working hours may replace it by the average number of hours actually worked per week over the past four weeks. Some persons, particularly self-employed and family workers may not have a usual

timetable because their working hours vary widely from one week or month to the next.

The duration of unemployment is operationally defined by the shorter of the following two periods:
– the duration of search for work, or
– the length of time since last employment.

Youth unemployment refers to the unemployment of persons aged 15-24.

Long-term unemployment is defined by a duration of 1 year or more.

Discouraged workers are defined as persons who are not employed and not seeking work because they believe that none is available.

Willingness to work refers to persons who are not employed and not seeking employment, but would nevertheless like to have work.

In education or training only applies to persons who attended any course or programme during the previous four weeks regardless of its relevance for the respondents' present or possible future job. Thus, this includes initial and further education, continuing and further training, training within the company, apprenticeship, on-the-job training, seminars, distance learning, evening classes, self-learning, etc. as well as any courses followed out of personal interest and all forms of education and training in such subjects as languages, data processing, management, art and culture, health and medicine.

Problem areas in CECs' LFS data

While the guidelines given by the EU LFS standards, concepts and definitions are quite clear, their implementation in the national LFS of CECs still is far from complete.

A first problem area is the *survey coverage*. In some countries the LFS excludes the population under 15 or over 74 so that the necessary figures for computations involving the whole population have to be derived from other sources. Several countries also include persons living in collective households through their private household of origin but cannot identify them as such due to the lack of corresponding questions or response categories. In some CECs persons in compulsory military or community service, who should be omitted from LFS results, are excluded from the national LFS from the very outset, in others they are included, but not identifiable.

A second problem area are *missing items or responses*. In the years 1999 or 2000 none of the CECs with a national LFS covered all EU items. Such gaps exist, among others, with regard to the willingness to work of persons without employment, persons in education or training, the full-time/part-time distinction, the permanency of jobs, the number of hours usually worked, or the situation of unemployed before they started their job search. But it also happens that responses are missing even though an item is included in the questionnaire, because some persons simply are not asked that question due to the filter applied to it.

Another area of concern is the basic classification of respondents by their *labour status*. There are considerable differences from country to country in terms of the type and number of questions as well as the criteria used to determine this status.

General methodological discrepancies also occurred with respect to:
– the *professional status*, where members of co-operatives have been variably coded as employees and self-employed with or without employees;
– the *methods used to find work*, which according to the EU standard are supposed to be taken up in separate questions, but instead were reduced to response categories in one question of which only a limited number (sometimes only one) could be selected, thus changing the character of the resulting distributions and possibly affecting the classification of unemployed or inactive.

In sum, it should be reiterated, however, that despite all of these reservations the CECs' LFSs still provide the most consistent and comparable set of statistical data for the analysis of employment and the labour market – if properly treated with the necessary caution.

Recent labour market trends

Employment and the labour market both reflect and determine the economic and social situation of a country. This is particularly evident for countries in transition as Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia, which as Candidate Countries (CCs) are in the accession process toward joining the EU, as well as Albania, Bosnia and Hercegovina and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM), which also participate in the PHARE programme and are subsumed here together with the former under the label of Central European Countries (CECs). For all of these states the last decade has been a period of change from a planned to a market-oriented economy which has affected and continues to affect the structure of economic activities in each country as a whole and the employment chances of its individual members.

Of course, the analysis in this section cannot presume to portray the complex pattern of causes and effects on either of these two levels, but instead should be seen as an attempt to present a number of key indicators which are suited to capture major characteristics and developments of employment and the labour market in the CECs as evidenced by the data from national labour force surveys (LFSs) from the years 1999 and 2000. Moreover, the emphasis of this presentation will not be on a description of individual countries, but rather on comparisons between them.

The central indicators used in this analysis are the employment rate and, to a lesser degree, the unemployment rate. Developments in both rates, however, have to be seen against the background of underlying demographic structures, on the one hand, and overall economic growth, on the other. In addition to the general comparative overview, distributions by sex, age, economic sectors, and professional status will be used to differentiate the situation in which the CECs find themselves with regard to employment and the labour market. More detailed analyses taking into account further factors and specific conditions will be deferred to subsequent issues of this publication.

The demographic framework

The greatest variation between CECs is in absolute terms, i.e. the differences in sheer size as measured by their total population. With 38.1 million in the year 2000 Poland is by far the most populous country, followed by Romania with 22.3 million, and these two countries alone account for more than half of the population in all CECs. Of the countries with an intermediate population size, the Czech Republic, (10.9 million), Hungary (9.9 million), and Bulgaria (8.1 million) make up a first group at the upper end, Slovakia (5.4 million), Bosnia and Hercegovina (3.8 million), Lithuania (3.7 million), and Albania (3.4 million) a second group at the lower end. In the group of countries with the smallest size – Latvia (2.4 million), Slovenia (2.0 million), the

FYROM (2.0 million), and Estonia (1.4 million) – each only has an individual share of between 1 and 2% of the overall CECs' population.

Although the rates and percentage distributions subsequently used in this article, through their standardisation effect, make the countries directly comparable to each other regardless of their unequal size, these differences should be kept in mind mainly under two aspects. Firstly, any weighted average of CECs will be dominated by the respective figures of the bigger countries. Secondly, a minor rate or percentage difference in a big country often involves a larger absolute number of persons than a corresponding major difference in a small country.

The distributions of the population by age and sex (Graph 1, for detailed statistics see Section Annex) provide a reference base for the most important indicators used to characterize the situation and developments of employment and the labour market in a country. Thus, the number of persons aged between 15 and 64 defines the population of working age, an internationally accepted concept representing the reservoir of people who potentially are available for or may seek work. In the year 2000, this reservoir has practically the same relative size in almost all CECs, amounting to just over two thirds of the population. There are only three exceptions: In Slovenia and the Czech Republic the share of the working age population is slightly larger around 70%, while it is unusually low in Albania (61.7%) due to its high proportion of persons aged under 15.

Graph 1: **Population by age groups, 2000**
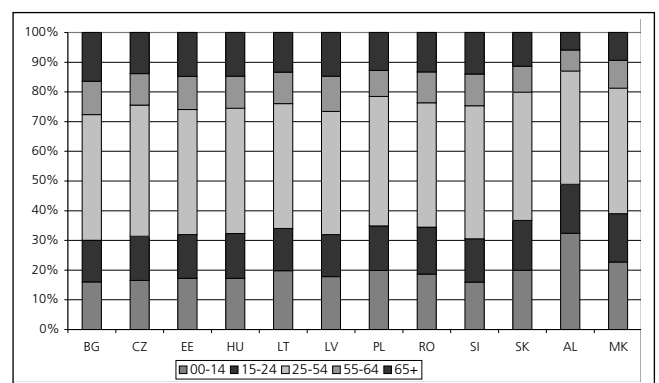
The numerical relation between the three main age groups is captured in the youth and old age dependency rates, which show how many children aged under 15 and how many persons 65 years or older there are per 100 working age population. In all CECs except Bulgaria this so-called demographic burden for the young was higher than that for the old. In general, the variations between CECs stay within fairly narrow limits for both rates (CEC-10 averages 27.3 and 19.9 for youth and old age, respectively) so that a closer inspection would not seem to be warranted at this point. The

only major exception again is Albania with an extremely high youth dependency rate (52.5) and a correspondingly low old age dependency rate (9.5) typical for a relatively "young" population structure. Similar deviations from the CECs' average, though to a much lesser extent, also can be observed for the FYROM with a youth dependency rate of 33.4 and an old age dependency rate of 13.9.

The picture of generally low variation among the CECs changes dramatically, however, if the "theoretical" dependency rate based exclusively on population shares is replaced by the "effective" dependency rate which relates all persons aged 15 years or more who are not in work (and therefore not contributing to the funding of social protection) to those in actual employment. Although this rate does not even include the demographic burden of children below working age, the effective dependency for the population aged 15 years or more is not only almost 100 on the CECs' average, but also ranges over a wide span from 66.8 in Romania to 150.0 in Bulgaria and 179.0 in the FYROM (Graph 2).

Graph 2: **Effective dependency rates, 2000**
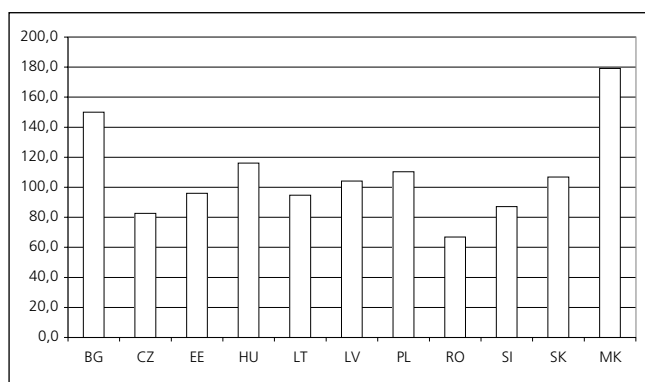
The great differences in the effective dependency rate between individual countries are not surprising if one considers the various factors which can contribute to it. Firstly, the timing of the transition from school to working life determines the possible entry into employment. Secondly, and conversely, the regulations concerning the official retirement age determine the normal exit from employment. Thirdly, any tendency to retire before the official retirement age would decrease the number of employed, while any tendency to work beyond it would lead to a corresponding increase.

Thus, the main reason for the low effective dependency in Romania seems to be the high number of employed above 55, but especially above the international working age limit of 65. In contrast, there are relatively few employed beyond retirement age in both Bulgaria and the FYROM, coupled with a high incidence of unemployment in the age group 15-24.

In conclusion, it may be said that at present demographic parameters as such with few exceptions only seem to play a minor role for employment and the labour market in the CECs. This does not preclude that they may be relevant in specific contexts and especially in a long-term perspective. In order to characterize the situation and developments in employment and the labour market of the CECs, however, the analysis will have to concentrate foremost on the respective employment and unemployment rates and their differentiation by relevant distribution factors such as sex, age, professional status, employment conditions, and economic sectors.

Overall developments

To assess the overall development in the CECs since 1998, the annual changes in the three macroeconomic indicators GDP, employment and unemployment are used. Since the effects of GDP growth generally reach the labour market with a delay of about two quarters, the figures given for this indicator always refer to the preceding year, i.e. the changes shown for the year 2000 actually refer to the comparison of 1999 relative to 1998.

In general, the overall development in the CECs is characterized by declining tendencies either in relative or even absolute terms. While GDP growth still was positive in the majority of the countries for both reference periods, its pace has slackened in all except Slovenia (from 3.8 to 5.0), the Czech Republic (from –2.2 to –0.8), and Romania (from –5.4 to –3.2). The greatest deceleration of economic development took place in the three Baltic states Lithuania (from 5.1 to –4.2), Estonia (from 4.7 to –1.1), and Latvia (from 3.9 to 1.1).

In contrast to GDP growth, the trend in employment has been negative in all but two CCs for 1999 as well as 2000, the exceptions being Hungary in both years (3.3 and 5.8, respectively), Lithuania in 1999 (1.9), and Slovenia in 2000 (0.6). This seems to indicate that the processes of restructuring and rationalization continue to take their toll on employment, whereas the production of goods and services still profit from them. It therefore is not surprising that no systematic relation can be found between GDP growth and the change in employment for the CECs in the reference years.

There is a sign of hope, however, which can be detected by comparing the changes in employment for the year 2000 with those for 1999. Although the trend in the CECs remains negative with the noted exceptions, the total number of employed has increased at a higher rate or decreased at a lower or the same rate in the year 2000 in seven of the ten CCs in comparison to the year 1999.

The two countries with an increase in total employment, Hungary and Slovenia, also were the only ones with an absolute decrease of over 5% in the number of unemployed between 1999 and 2000. Between 1998 and 1999, four countries including Hungary, Slovenia, Lithuania and Latvia had shown an absolute decrease in unemployment, but in all cases the figures were less favourable the following year. Of the eight countries with an increase in unemployment from 1999 to 2000, only the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Estonia were able to slow down the pace of further deterioration

on the labour market. In all other cases it seems that, due to their different magnitude, even a smaller loss in employment is multiplied to result in a substantial rise of unemployment.

The relative incidence of employment and unemployment

The current incidence of employment and unemployment in the CECs is captured in the total number of persons with the respective work status. In absolute terms, both of these figures largely are proportional to each country's population. Thus, the most populous countries Poland and Romania also account for about 60% of the employed and unemployed.

Together, the employed and unemployed represent a country's labour force, which in the CECs generally constitutes between two thirds and 70% of the working age population, with three exceptions. In Bulgaria, Hungary, and the FYROM the labour force barely reaches a share of 60%. In Hungary, this is mainly due to very low unemployment on top of a below average employment. The other two countries, in contrast, have a very low number of employed which is partly compensated by a high number of unemployed – a combination that to a lesser degree also can be observed in Poland and Slovakia.

The comparative performance of countries regarding employment and the labour market is assessed by their employment and unemployment rates. Within the internationally accepted working age limits of 15-64, the Czech Republic, Romania, and Slovenia had the highest employment rates of all CECs in the year 2000 amounting to almost two thirds of the working age population (Graph 3). The lowest employment rates were registered for the FYROM and Bulgaria, where not even half of the working age population had some kind of job during the reference period. The remaining countries were fairly close above or below the average employment rate for all CECs.

Graph 3: **Employment rates, 2000**
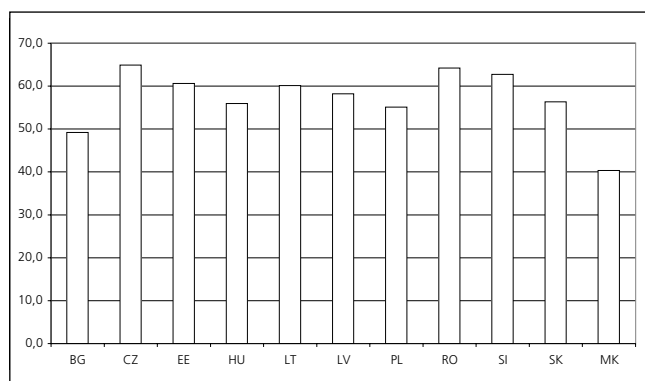
Corresponding to their comparative employment performance, Slovenia, Romania, and the Czech Republic also had relatively low unemployment rates between 7-9% in the year 2000, but they were even surpassed in this respect by

Hungary. In all other countries the unemployment rate was already above the CECs' average (Graph 4), again with the FYROM at over 30% and Bulgaria joined by Slovakia at almost 20% bringing up the rear.

Graph 4: **Unemployment rates, 2000**
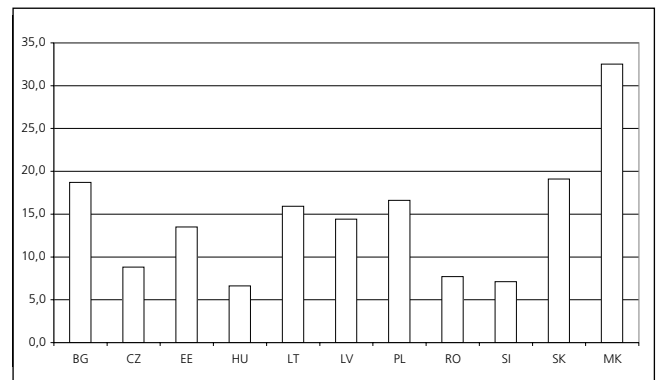
Age-specific employment and unemployment rates

A country's overall employment and unemployment rates are by no means uniform over all ages or for men and women. The variation among these groups within as well as between the individual CECs can, in fact, be seen as a reflection of different national conditions, problems, and behaviour patterns. A closer inspection thus may reveal to what extent such tendencies determine both the resulting rates in each country and its comparative employment and labour market performance.

In general, about three quarters of the population in the central age group 25-54 is employed in the CECs. In the ten-year age groups below and above, in contrast, only about 3 out of ten youths and one third of the older people are working. The lower youth employment can be traced to mainly two factors, a delayed entry into working life due to continuing education, on the one hand, and difficulties in finding a first job, on the other. In the case of the upper age group, the lower employment seems to be almost entirely determined by the timing of the exit from working life, with unemployment playing hardly any role.

An analysis along these lines shows, for example, that the high employment rate of the working age population in the Czech Republic is based on above average rates for each age group (Graph 5). While youth employment also is high in Romania, that country owes its favourable situation above all to its upper age group in which still more than half of the people are working – as are almost 40% of those beyond the normal working age. In Slovenia, the third country with relatively high employment, it mainly is the top value of the central age group (82.6), which accounts for the high overall rate, with a yet better comparative performance being prevented by one of the lowest rate for the older age group.

At the other end of the spectrum, in both the FYROM and Bulgaria the employment rates for all age groups are below

Graph 5: *Deviation of age-specific employment rates from the CEC-10 average, 2000*
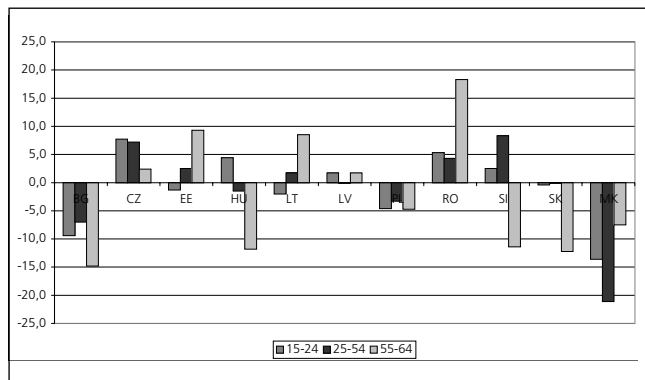
average. While the differences in Bulgaria are in the order of 7-15 percentage points, the deviations for the FYROM are greatest (over 20 percentage points) for the central age group, in which hardly more than half of the people are employed, and lowest for the older.

Among the countries in average employment situations, Hungary and Poland have about the same overall rates, but in Hungary this results from a fairly high youth employment and a very low employment in the upper age group, while Poland consistently lies below average in all age groups by about 3-5 percentage points. It also is interesting to note that, apart from Romania (52.0), only the Baltic states and the Czech Republic have above average employment rates for the age group 55-64.

The relation of age-specific and overall unemployment rates is far less complex both within individual CECs and in terms of their comparative performance than was the case for employment. In general, unemployment is highest in youth and lowest in the upper age group, the only exception being Slovenia where the unemployment rate for the central age group is slightly lower than for those of older age.

The problem of youth unemployment is particularly pronounced in the FYROM where six out of ten young people are looking for a job, but is also must be taken seriously in Bulgaria, Slovakia, and Poland where still more than every third youth is unemployed.

In the older age group – which, after all, is on about the same employment level as the young – possible unemployment problems apparently are largely evaded by an earlier exit from working life. A special case in this regard seems to be posed by the Baltic states where relatively high older age unemployment of 8-9% is found in conjunction with an (above) average employment level. As a rule, however, the age-specific unemployment rates in the CECs follow the same pattern of variation as the overall rates.

Gender differences

The participation of women in the labour force is strongly influenced by their position in society. In effect, their em-

ployment rate in the CECs for the year 2000 on the average is about 11 percentage points lower than that of men. Greater overall differences are only found in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland, with only Lithuania exhibiting an unusually low one of about 3 percentage points.

Looking at the age groups for women and men, these differences tend to increase from youth on upward, reaching an average gap of almost 20 percentage points in the upper age group with an extreme of almost 30 percentage points in the Czech Republic (Graph 6). Only in Romania this gap did not widen further, which no doubt is related to the high share of employment in the agricultural sector in this country. A second notable exception can be observed in Lithuania where the employment rate of women in the central age group actually exceeds that of men slightly.

Graph 6: *Difference in age-specific employment rates, men - women, 2000*
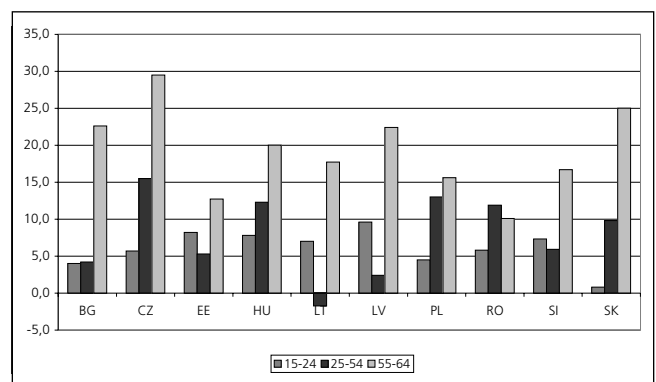
The widening of the gender gap with age has another effect. While the employment rates for men in the upper age group usually are higher than for youths, the opposite applies to the corresponding groups of women. While at the lower at end of the age scale men and women probably are equally affected by the transition from school to working life, the main factor determining the employment rates of older men seems to lie almost entirely in the regulation of retirement or the patterns that have evolved around it. Thus, the ten CCs can be clearly divided into two groups according to the employment rates of men at older age, one consisting of the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia, and Romania with rates in the 50% range, the other consisting of Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, and Slovakia with rates in the 30% range.

Women in the upper age group often are not only subject to lower retirement limits, but in the wake of their family role and possible inequality of opportunity also tend to take an earlier exit from working life than men, and as a result their employment rates drop even below that of youths. There only are four exceptions to this pattern, the Baltic states and Poland, in all of which the employment level at older age is higher than or equal to those at youth.

As was the case in the comparison of age-specific rates, the relations of male to female unemployment are much less

complex than with regard to employment. In general, there are only minor differences in the overall rates for men and women with the CECs' averages being 12.4 and 13.4, respectively. Also, like the overall rates, both the male and female patterns show a decrease of unemployment with age. In only two countries, the Czech Republic and Poland, the unemployment of women was higher than that of men over most or all age groups, while only in the Baltic states the employment rates for women are persistently lower.

Employment by economic sectors

The distribution of employment by broad sectors gives a first indication of the progress of a country towards a viable market economy. On the whole, the CECs in the year 2000 still have a structure with a sizable primary sector (21.2% for the CEC-10) and an underdeveloped tertiary sector (47.4%), even though the latter already occupies more than half of the employed with two major exceptions (Graph 7).

Graph 7: **Employment by economic sectors, 2000**
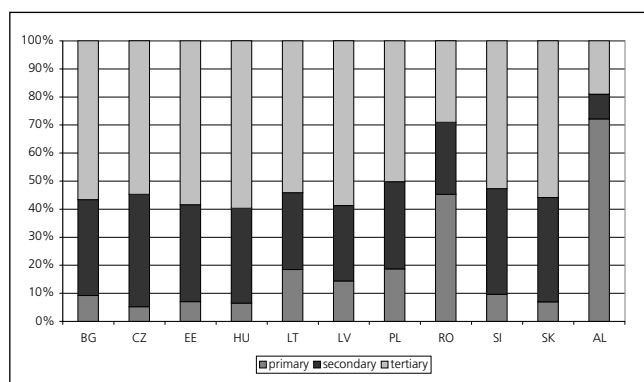
Both Albania and Romania continue to be dominantly agricultural economies employing almost three quarters respectively half of the working population in this sector.

Of the other countries, Poland and Lithuania still had an agricultural employment of almost 20%, while Slovenia and Bulgaria already had fallen under 10%. The greatest progress towards a reduction of the agricultural sector has been made in the Czech Republic, followed by Hungary, Slovakia and Estonia with shares between 5-7%.

It is interesting to note that the size of the primary sector in the CECs, apart from Albania and Romania, apparently is irrelevant for the development of the tertiary sector, which generally is considered to be distinctive for a service-oriented economy. In fact, Latvia has the second largest service sector behind Hungary, although its employment in agriculture still was relatively high. Looking at the emerging structures it actually seems as if many of the CECs in the transition process would skip the industrial stage and shift their labour resources directly from the primary to the tertiary sector.

The only marked exception from this tendency is the country which has made the greatest progress in reducing its

agricultural employment, the Czech Republic, which possesses the biggest industrial sector of all CECs (40.0%). Here, and to a slightly lesser extent in Slovenia and Slovakia, industrialization already before the transition had reached a level, which now is only gradually lowered.

Finally, all CECs exhibit the typical pattern that female employment is dominantly in service sectors rather than in industry, while industrial employment is dominantly male, although the share of men working in the tertiary sector often already is the same as or even higher than in the secondary sector. A more detailed analysis of employment by branches of economic activity will have to be deferred to a later issue of this publication.

Self-employment

The restructuring process of an economy normally also is reflected in the shifts in the professional status of the employed, especially with regard to the share of self-employment. Traditionally, the agricultural sector has in the past been characterized by a relatively high incidence of self-employment, and this is confirmed by the figures for Romania (25.4%) and Poland (22.5%), which also had the largest primary sector employment of the ten CCs (Graph 8). Apart from that, this case also provides a good example for the dominant influence of the two largest countries on the CEC-10 average (19.4%), as all other countries already fall below that mark.

Graph 8: **Share of self-employment, 2000**
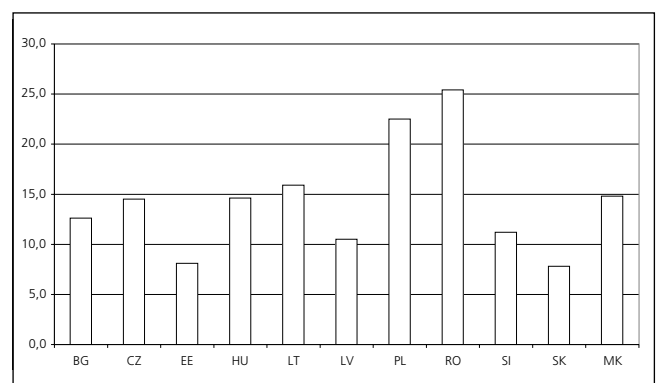
More recently, however, there is another tendency for employees to change into the status of self-employed while continuing to do the same type of work – even for the previous employer – on a freelance basis or in their own mini-enterprise. These changes, many of which actually may be made only for legal or fiscal reasons, typically occur in the service sector. The relatively high incidence of self-employment in the Czech Republic and Hungary may reflect that new tendency. The lowest shares of self-employment are found in Slovakia and Estonia with about 8%.

The incidence of self-employment generally also is characterized by a distinct gender difference, with male self-employed by far outweighing female self-employed. In the CECs as

a whole, the share of men in this status is about 10 percentage points higher than that of women, with little variation between countries.

It should be noted that the above figures do not include family workers. Technically, persons with that status belong to the self-employed, too, but except for Romania (20.7%) and the FYROM (10.9), they mostly represent a negligible share of the employed. Opposite to self-employment, however, this status is a little more frequent among women than men.

Part-time employment

Work on a part-time basis can have two basic reasons. Some people take this kind of a job because they cannot find full-time employment, but most only want to work part of the time because they have other priorities.

In the CECs part-time employment was not very widespread in the year 2000 with less than 10% of the employed working under such arrangements (Graph 9). The extent of part-time employment varies substantially, however, between the individual countries, ranging from a share of 16.4% in Romania to 1.7% in Slovakia, but there is no discernible relation between the level of part-time employment, on the one hand, and either employment or unemployment rates, on the other.

Graph 9: **Share of part-time employment by sex, 2000**
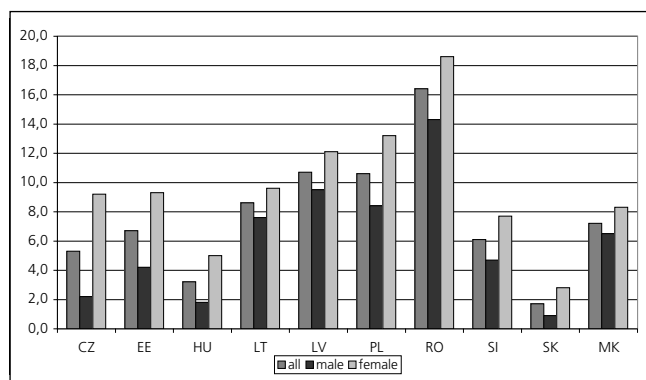
In contrast, there again is a distinct gender difference with regard to part-time employment over all CECs. As might be expected, women make use of this kind of arrangement more often than men (11.8 vs. 7.5% for the CEC-10), with the difference tending to be relatively greater in countries with lower overall rates of part-time employment, i.e. Slovakia, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Slovenia or Estonia, and becoming relatively smaller in countries with higher overall rates, i.e. Romania, Latvia, Poland, Lithuania or the FYROM.

This observation not only seems to suggest that men increasingly make use of this working arrangement, too, when the chance presents itself, but it also may mean that the increase in part-time jobs itself constitutes the creation of additional employment opportunities.

Temporary employment

Contracts for limited periods of time often are inherent in the nature of the respective employment, for example in the case of seasonal jobs, training and apprenticeships, or "work missions" in which a person is hired out to a third party by an employment agency. But fixed-term contracts also are used by employers to reduce the risk of an oversized staff with unlimited contracts that can be terminated only for specified causes such as incompetence, serious misconduct, or economic reasons according to national legislation or custom. In other words, these contracts take on the nature of a precautionary measure particularly in times of recession.

For the employees, temporary employment implies a certain degree of instability or insecurity insofar as they are faced with the necessity to look for a new job in the foreseeable future. In the CECs, only 4% of all dependently employed were in that situation in the year 2000.

The share of employees with temporary contracts varies considerably between the individual countries, being highest in Slovenia with 12.9% and lowest in Estonia with 2.3% (Graph 10). But again, as in the case of part-time employment, there is no discernible relation between the level of temporary employment, on the one hand, and either employment or unemployment rates, on the other. Thus, one country with a poor comparative performance in employment and the labour market such as the FYROM has a high share of temporary employment, while another such as Slovakia has a fairly low one. Similarly, one country with a relatively good employment and labour market performance such as the Czech Republic has an above average share of temporary employment, while another such as Romania has a below average one.

Graph 10: **Share of temporary employment, 2000**
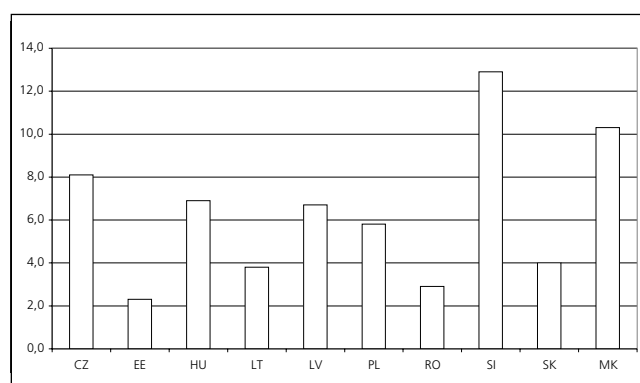
Moreover, in the case of temporary employment even the gender differences are not very pronounced or systematic. Only in Latvia the share of men in temporary jobs is clearly higher than that of women, with the same tendency also observable in the other Baltic states, the Former Republic of Macedonia, and Poland. The opposite tendency, i.e. higher rates of females in temporary jobs, only is present in the Czech Republic and Slovenia. In Romania, Slovakia, and

Hungary the gender differences in temporary employment have a magnitude of less than one percentage point.

Long-term unemployment

Long-term unemployment, like youth unemployment, is a serious problem in all CECs. For a person, to fall in this category, signifies the worst possible situation of instability and insecurity, i.e. being not only without a job, but also continuously unsuccessful in finding a new one.

In the year 2000, about half of all unemployed in the CECs found themselves in this situation (Graph 11). The incidence of long-term unemployment also varies only over a fairly limited range, and there seems to be no systematic relation with either employment or unemployment rates. The highest percentage of long-term unemployment among the CCs is found in Slovenia (62.7%), with Latvia, Slovakia, Lithuania and Bulgaria also lying above the CEC-10 average, and only Poland (44.6%) clearly staying below that mark.

Albania must be considered as a special case in this regard. Here, almost nine out of every ten unemployed in 1999 had been looking for work for more than a year. Although the data are based on administrative records and therefore are not directly comparable with the LFS results from the

Graph 11: **Share of long-term unemployment, 2000**
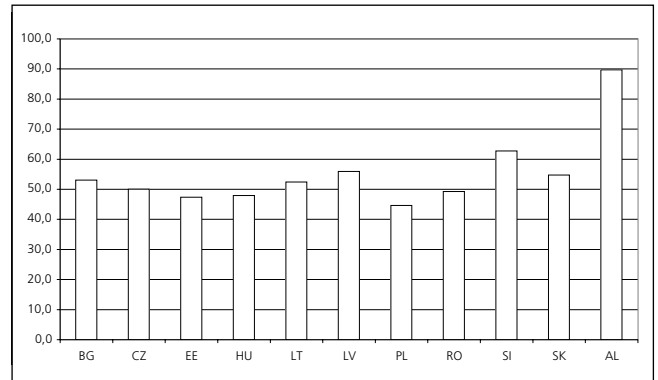
other countries, any value of this size must be seen as a negative indicator for the situation on the national labour market.

In most CECs, long-term unemployment affects both men and women about equally. The only notable exceptions are Lithuania, Hungary, and Slovenia, on the one hand, where the share for men is about 5-8 percentage points higher than for women, and Poland, on the other, where this relation is reversed.

Main Indicators

Population by age groups, 2000

	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
00-14	18.5	16.0	16.5	17.2	17.2	19.8	17.8
15-24	15.1	14.0	14.9	14.7	15.1	14.2	14.1
25-54	42.9	42.3	44.1	42.1	42.2	42.0	41.5
55-64	9.9	11.3	10.6	11.1	10.8	10.6	11.9
65+	13.5	16.4	13.9	14.8	14.7	13.4	14.7
Total	103634	8136	10222	1430	9927	3698	2424

Working age population and activity rates, 2000

	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
population	67.9	67.6	69.6	68.0	68.1	66.8	67.5
activity	66.8	60.6	71.2	70.0	59.9	71.5	68.0

Dependency rates, 2000

	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
youth	27.3	23.7	23.8	25.3	25.2	29.6	26.4
old age	19.9	24.3	20.0	21.8	21.6	20.0	21.7
effective	97.6	150.0	82.5	95.9	116.0	94.6	104.1

Annual changes in GDP, employment and unemployment, 1999 and 2000

1999	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
GDP 1998		3.5	-2.2	4.7	4.9	5.1	3.9
Employed	-2.0	-5.7	-2.3	-4.4	3.3	1.9	-0.6
Unemployed	13.1	10.3	42.3	18.1	-11.7	-28.5	-9.0
2000							
GDP 1999		2.4	-0.8	-1.1	4.5	-4.2	1.1
Employed	-2.2	-8.0	-0.9	-1.7	5.8	-5.5	-2.2
Unemployed	23.4	28.9	3.1	14.2	-5.3	52.9	2.4

Total employment and unemployment by sex, 2000

All	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
Employed	42714	2734	4675	604	3807	1525	976
Unemployed	6058	624	448	92	267	280	160
Male							
Employed	23068	1453	2623	309	2092	757	503
Unemployed	3135	337	207	53	162	164	89
Female							
Employed	19645	1281	2052	295	1715	767	473
Unemployed	2922	287	240	38	105	116	72

Employment rates by sex and age, 2000

All	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
15-24	28.7	19.3	36.4	27.4	33.1	26.7	30.4
25-54	74.3	67.3	81.5	76.8	72.8	76.0	74.2
55-64	33.7	18.9	36.1	43.0	21.9	42.2	35.4
65+	12.2	1.9	4.1	7.3	1.7	7.8	6.6
15-64	58.2	49.2	64.9	60.6	55.9	60.1	58.2
Male							
15-24	31.3	21.3	39.3	31.4	37.0	30.2	35.2
25-54	79.9	69.4	89.2	79.5	79.0	75.1	75.4
55-64	43.3	31.1	51.6	50.2	33.0	52.2	48.3
65+	16.1	3.1	6.8	10.8	2.7	9.7	10.2
15-64	64.0	53.4	73.1	64.3	62.7	61.8	62.3
Female							
15-24	26.0	17.3	33.6	23.2	29.2	23.2	25.6
25-54	68.7	65.2	73.7	74.2	66.7	76.8	73.0
55-64	25.6	8.5	22.1	37.5	13.0	34.5	25.9
65+	9.7	1.0	2.3	5.7	1.1	6.8	5.0
15-64	52.7	45.3	56.8	57.1	49.4	58.5	54.3

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	
19.8	18.6	15.9	19.9	32.4	22.7	00-14
15.0	15.8	14.6	16.8	16.5	16.3	15-24
43.6	41.9	44.8	43.2	38.2	42.2	25-54
8.7	10.4	10.7	8.7	7.1	9.4	55-64
12.8	13.3	14.0	11.4	5.9	9.4	65+
38093	22338	1988	5377	3373	1984	Total

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	
67.3	68.1	70.1	68.7	61.7	67.9	population
66.1	69.6	67.4	69.5		59.7	activity

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	
29.5	27.3	22.7	29.0	52.5	33.4	youth
19.0	19.5	20.0	16.7	9.5	13.9	old age
110.3	66.8	87.1	106.8		179.0	effective

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	*1999*
4.8	-5.4	3.8	4.1	8.0	2.9	GDP 1998
-2.8	-1.8	-2.0	-3.3			Employed
18.9	10.4	-6.4	31.8			Unemployed
						2000
4.0	-3.2	5.0	1.9	8.0	2.7	GDP 1999
-2.8	-1.1	0.6	-2.1			Employed
35.0	11.3	-5.4	21.4			Unemployed

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	*All*
14518	10898	894	2083	1065	550	Employed
2815	816	66	490	215	262	Unemployed
						Male
7975	5750	481	1125	661	340	Employed
1351	466	35	271	113	149	Unemployed
						Female
6543	5148	413	958	404	210	Employed
1463	351	31	219	102	113	Unemployed

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	*All*
24.1	34.0	31.2	28.3		15.1	15-24
71.0	78.6	82.6	74.2		53.2	25-54
29.0	52.0	22.3	21.5		26.2	55-64
7.6	38.2	7.4	0.8		3.7	65+
55.1	64.2	62.7	56.3		40.3	15-64
						Male
26.4	36.9	34.7	28.7			15-24
77.5	84.6	85.5	79.1			25-54
37.4	57.4	31.0	35.2			55-64
12.0	43.5	10.8	1.6			65+
61.2	69.5	66.7	61.6			15-64
						Female
21.9	31.1	27.4	27.9			15-24
64.5	72.7	79.6	69.3			25-54
21.8	47.3	14.3	10.2			55-64
4.9	34.4	5.4	0.4			65+
49.3	59.0	58.5	51.1			15-64

Recent labour market trends

Unemployment by sex and age groups, 2000

All	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
15-24	26.4	39.4	17.0	23.7	12.3	27.5	21.2
25-54	11.3	16.3	7.8	12.8	5.9	15.1	14.0
55-64	6.2	15.1	5.3	8.2	3.1	9.2	9.4
15-64	12.9	18.7	8.8	13.5	6.6	15.9	14.4
Male							
15-24	26.7	41.9	17.4	24.7	13.7	27.6	21.1
25-54	10.6	16.2	6.0	13.9	6.3	17.5	15.0
55-64	6.9	14.5	5.3	11.4	3.8	12.4	10.5
15-64	12.4	19.0	7.4	15.0	7.2	18.2	15.3
Female							
15-24	26.1	36.2	16.4	22.4	10.4	27.4	13.0
25-54	12.1	16.4	10.0	11.5	5.3	12.8	7.9
55-64	5.2	16.8	5.2	4.8	1.6	5.3	
15-64	13.4	18.4	10.6	11.8	5.8	13.5	13.5

Employment by sectors and sex, 2000

All	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
primary	21.2	9.2	5.2	7.0	6.5	18.4	14.4
secondary	31.4	34.2	40.0	34.6	33.8	27.4	26.8
tertiary	47.4	56.6	54.7	58.4	59.8	54.1	58.7
Male							
primary	21.3	11.3	6.3	8.7	9.0	22.3	16.0
secondary	39.4	39.2	49.9	46.4	41.1	33.7	34.4
tertiary	39.3	49.5	43.8	44.8	49.9	44.1	49.6
Female							
primary	21.2	6.8	3.8	5.2	3.3	14.6	12.8
secondary	22.0	28.8	27.2	22.3	24.7	21.2	18.6
tertiary	56.8	64.4	68.9	72.5	71.8	64.1	68.4

Employed by professional status and sex, 2000

All	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
Employees	73.2	85.7	85.0	91.2	84.7	81.1	84.6
Fam work	7.4	1.2	0.6	0.7	0.6	2.9	3.9
Self empl	19.4	12.6	14.5	8.1	14.6	15.9	10.5
Male							
Employees	71.8	82.7	81.0	89.6	80.9	78.4	84.1
Fam work	4.4	0.8	0.2	0.7	0.4	2.4	3.3
Self empl	23.8	16.1	18.7	9.7	18.7	19.2	12.5
Female							
Employees	74.8	89.2	90.1	92.9	89.5	83.9	85.3
Fam work	11.1	1.7	1.0	0.7	0.9	3.4	4.6
Self empl	14.2	8.7	9.0	6.4	9.6	12.7	8.4

Employed in part-time employment by sex, 2000

	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
all	9.5		5.3	6.7	3.2	8.6	10.7
male	7.5		2.2	4.2	1.8	7.6	9.5
female	11.8		9.2	9.3	5.0	9.6	12.1

Employees in temporary employment by sex, 2000

	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
all	4.0		8.1	2.3	6.9	3.8	6.7
male	3.8		7.0	3.1	7.3	5.1	8.8
female	4.3		9.4	1.4	6.4	2.7	4.6

Long-term unemployment by sex, 2000

	CEC-10	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV
all	48.3	53.0	50.0	47.3	47.9	52.4	55.9
male	47.1	52.9	49.1	48.2	50.6	55.9	56.2
female	49.6	53.1	50.7	46.0	43.6	47.3	55.5

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PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	*All*
35.7	17.8	16.4	36.9	58.5	59.9	15-24
14.2	6.9	5.8	15.9	41.5	28.6	25-54
9.7	1.1	6.1	12.7		16.3	55-64
16.6	7.7	7.1	19.1		32.5	15-64
						Male
34.3	19.3	14.8	40.0	54.6		15-24
12.3	7.1	5.7	15.8	45.4		25-54
9.1	1.7	7.6	14.2			55-64
14.8	8.2	6.9	19.5			15-64
						Female
37.2	15.9	18.5	33.3	63.1		15-24
16.3	6.7	6.0	16.0	36.9		25-54
10.6	0.4	2.9	8.0			55-64
18.6	7.1	7.2	18.6			15-64

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	*All*
18.7	45.2	9.6	6.9	72.2		primary
31.1	25.7	37.6	37.2	8.8		secondary
50.2	29.0	52.6	55.8	19.1		tertiary
						Male
18.9	42.8	9.5	9.2			primary
41.1	30.6	45.6	47.3			secondary
39.9	26.6	44.9	43.6			tertiary
						Female
18.4	47.9	9.7	4.3			primary
18.8	20.4	28.5	25.5			secondary
62.8	31.8	61.9	70.2			tertiary

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	*All*
72.6	53.9	83.9	92.0		74.3	Employees
4.9	20.7	4.9	0.1		10.9	Fam work
22.5	25.4	11.2	7.8		14.8	Self empl
						Male
70.7	56.0	81.4	89.0		73.5	Employees
3.4	11.4	3.3	0.1		7.4	Fam work
25.9	32.6	15.3	10.9		19.1	Self empl
						Female
75.0	51.5	86.9	95.4		75.7	Employees
6.6	31.1	6.6	0.2		16.5	Fam work
18.4	17.4	6.5	4.1		7.8	Self empl

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	
10.6	16.4	6.1	1.7		7.2	all
8.4	14.3	4.7	0.9		6.5	male
13.2	18.6	7.7	2.8		8.3	female

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	
5.8	2.9	12.9	4.0		10.3	all
6.6	3.0	12.4	3.8		11.1	male
4.8	2.9	13.5	4.3		9.0	female

PL	RO	SI	SK	AL	MK	
44.6	49.2	62.7	54.7	89.7		all
40.2	50.2	64.9	54.5	88.7		male
48.6	48.0	60.3	54.8	90.8		female

Regional labour markets

Labour market indicators on the country level portray the economic and social situation of an economy. But they veil the inequalities between regions of a country. The regional disparities within a country often are greater than between states. Even if the labour market in general is in a favourable state there are individual regions with high unemployment. Problems based on an unfavourable sectoral structure, a peripheral location with bad transport connections to the product markets or a bad infrastructure can be causes why regions cannot keep up with the dynamics of the national economy.

If it is the goal of economic and labour market policy to provide the whole population of a country with equal employment chances and to improve their access to income and prosperity, then regional disparities deserve special attention.

Therefore this section will compare the most important labour market indicators for the CECs on the regional level. The comparison shows the position of the regions both within their respective countries and in comparison to the regions in neighbouring states. Such an analysis can focus attention on individual regions, which appear in a particularly favourable or unfavourable light according to their labour market indicators.

It also is possible to form groups of comparable regions in order to look for common economic, social or institutional characteristics in their structure and stage of development. It is not intended here, however, to undertake an economic analysis of regions, which could not be accomplished alone on the basis of a few labour market indicators anyway. Instead, this section will present basic results from the national LFSs and try to highlight regional particularities.

The regions of the CECs

Like in the member states of the European Union, the LFS data in the CECs also are collected and presented in a regional disaggregation. This section analyses the level-2 statistical regions for the ten countries for which data from the second quarter of the year 2000 are available. The level-2 regions for the most part correspond to the NUTS-2 level of the classification used in the EU.

Regional borders are determined by the different sizes of countries and administrative divisions which developed in the course of history. As a result, the regional units differ in area and population. Due to the step-by-step introduction of the LFS and immanent administrative reforms some countries do not yet provide LFS data in regional subclassification. Other countries have recently carried out administrative reforms entailing a new regional classification so that no time series are yet available for the new regions.

At present, six countries have a regional subclassification on level 2. These are Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary,

Table 1: **CEC level 2 regions**

Country Capital	Regions level 2	Code	Area sq.km	Popu- lation density	Type of region
Bulgaria	**6 statistical regions**	**BG**	**110910**	**73**	
	North-East	BG01	19972	60	SM
	North Central	BG02	17921	68	IN
	North-West	BG03	10601	68	SM
	South-East	BG04	14642	68	SM
	South Central	BG05	27496	75	AG
Sophia	South-West	BG06	20276	96	SC
Czech Republic	**8 statistical regions**	**CZ**	**78860**	**130**	
Prague	Praha	CZ01	496	2378	SC
	Stredni Cechy	CZ02	11014	100	IN
	Jihozapad	CZ03	17616	67	IN
	Severozapad	CZ04	8650	130	IN
	Severovychod	CZ05	12440	119	IN
	Jihovychod	CZ06	13987	118	IN
	Stredni Morava	CZ07	9103	135	IN
	Ostravsko	CZ08	5554	230	IN
Estonia Tallinn	**Estonia**	**EE**	**43431**	**33**	**SM**
Hungary	**7 statistical regions**	**HU**	**93029**	**107**	
Budapest	Közep-Magyarorszag	HU01	6918	406	SC
	Közep-Dunantul	HU02	11263	97	IN
	Nyugat-Dunantul	HU03	11182	87	IN
	Del-Dunantul	HU04	14169	68	SM
	Eszak-Magyarorszag	HU05	13428	94	SM
	Eszak-Alföld	HU06	17755	85	SM
	Del-Alföld	HU07	18314	72	AG
Lithuania Vilnius	**Lithuania**	**LT**	**65300**	**57**	**AG**
Latvia Riga	**Latvia**	**LV**	**64589**	**38**	**AG**
Poland	**16 statistical regions**	**PL**	**312685**	**121**	
	Dolnoslaskie	PL01	19948	140	SM
	Kujawsko-Pomorskie	PL02	17970	119	AG
	Lubelskie	PL03	25114	95	AG
	Lubuskie	PL04	13984	74	SM
	Lodzkie	PL05	18219	162	AG
	Malopolskie	PL06	15144	219	AG
Warsaw	Mazowieckie	PL07	35598	141	AG
	Opolskie	PL08	9412	114	AG
	Podkarpackie	PL09	17926	116	AG
	Podlaskie	PL0A	20180	57	AG
	Pomorskie	PL0B	18293	105	SM
	Slaskie	PL0C	12294	325	IN
	Swietokrzyskie	PL0D	11672	118	AG
	Warminsko-Mazurskie	PL0E	24203	63	SM
	Wielkopolskie	PL0F	29826	119	AG
	Zachodniopomorskie	PL0G	22902	71	SC
Romania	**8 statistical regions**	**RO**	**238391**	**94**	
	Nord-Est	RO01	36850	104	AG
	Sud-Est	RO02	35762	82	AG
	Sud	RO03	34453	100	AG
	Sud-Vest	RO04	29212	82	AG
	Vest	RO05	32033	63	AG
	Nord-Vest	RO06	34161	83	AG
	Centru	RO07	34100	77	AG
Bucharest	Bucuresti	RO08	1821	1229	SM
Slovenia Ljubljana	**Slovenia**	**SI**	**20273**	**98**	**SM**
Slovakia	**4 statistical regions**	**SK**	**49035**	**110**	
Bratislava	Bratislavsky kraj	SK01	2053	299	SC
	Zapadne Slovensko	SK02	14993	125	IN
	Stredne Slovensko	SK03	16243	83	IN
	Vychodne Slovensko	SK04	15746	98	SM

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Statistical regions
of the Central European
countries

Version 2000 – Level 2

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Regional labour markets
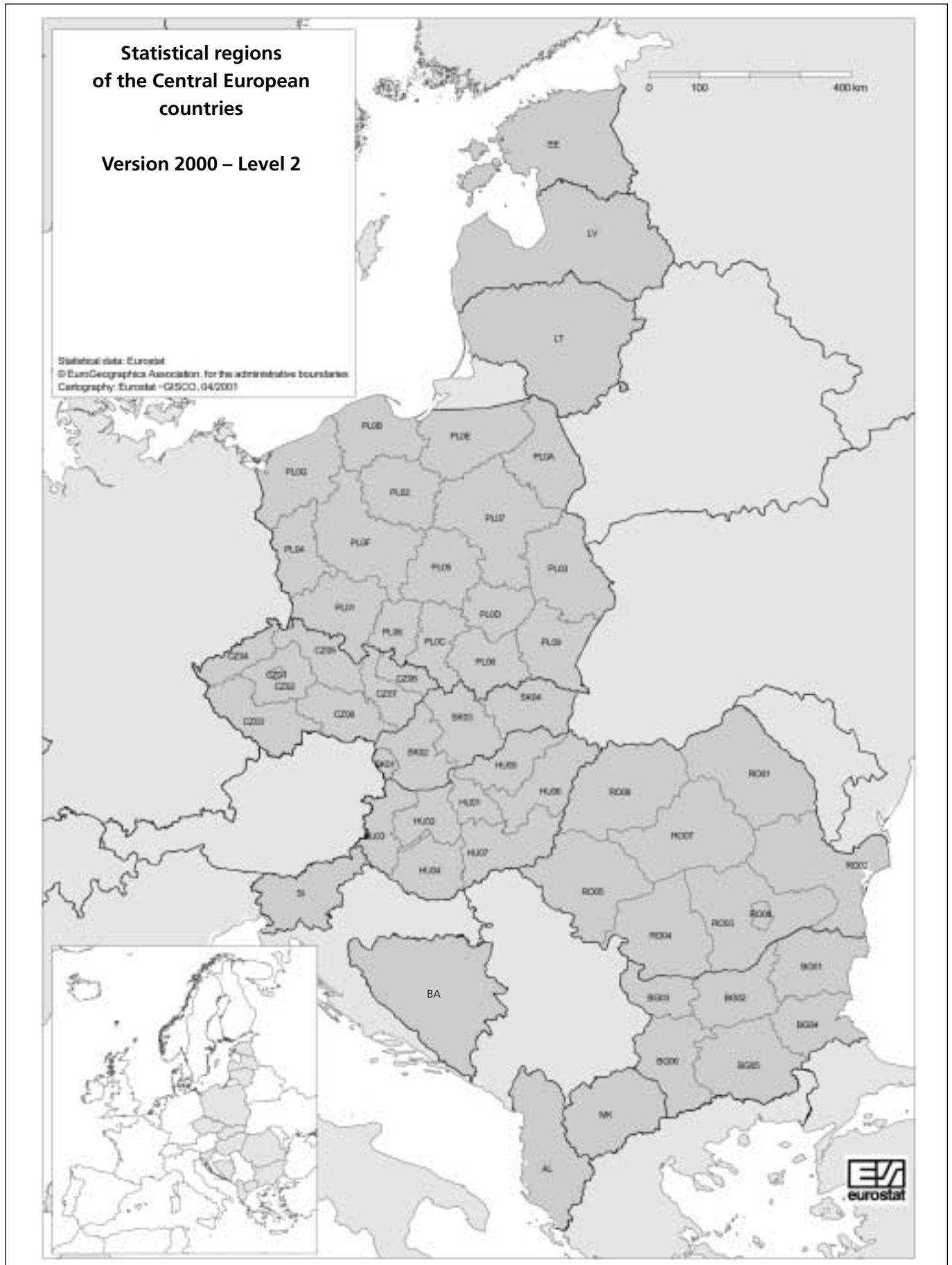
Poland, Romania and Slovakia. The six countries are subdivided into a total of 49 regions. In addition there are four countries (Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia and Slovenia) which, due to their size, each are classified as a whole as a level-2 region. Thus, this regional comparison is carried out for a total of 53 units.

The regions should be mainly understood as statistical units that were formed through the aggregation of smaller administrative units. Such statistical regions therefore do not necessarily represent economic areas with an administrative or planning authority of their own, also because an independent regional policy still is in the process of institution or development.

For the time being, the level-2 regions provide the only usable classification for a common regional analysis of LFS data. On the one hand, a finer subclassification by statistical units on level 3 is not available at present. On the other hand, the sampling error for reliable indicators would become too big through a greater disaggregation into small regions. Thus, one will have to live with the fact that in regions with large areas or populations (such as the Baltic states) the differences which exist between the capital or urban centres and the surrounding countryside with regard to their labour market situation, economic structure and development often are levelled through the aggregation into larger statistical units.

The size of regions varies considerably according to population and area, and consequently also in population density (see Table 1). The most populous region is Mazowieckie (PL07) with the centre Warsaw and five million inhabitants. There is a total of six regions in Poland and Romania which have a population of over three million and thus are larger than the four states included in this comparison as a whole. Five regions have fewer than one million inhabitants, and of these Bratislava (SK1) is the smallest with 615 thousand.

The three largest regions by area are formed by the Baltic states Lithuania (65300 sq.km), Latvia (64589 sq.km) and Estonia (43431 sq.km). The smallest region is Prague with 496 sq.km.

The opposite holds for population density. With 2378 inhabitants per sq.km the region Prague is the most densely populated ahead of Bucharest with 1229 inhabitants/sq.km and Central Hungary with the capital Budapest (406 inhabitants/sq.km). As a capital, Bratislava with 299 inhabitants/sq.km also belongs to the regions with a high density. In contrast, the areas of the regions around Sofia and Warsaw, the capitals of Bulgaria and Poland, have been demarcated so extensively that the concentration of people in the metropolitan area no longer has any marked influence on the population density of the region.

Estonia (33 inhabitants/sq.km), Latvia (38 inhabitants/sq.km) and Lithuania (57 inhabitants/sq.km) are extremely thinly populated. 39 of the 53 regions have a density between 60 and 150 inhabitants/sq.km.

Employment by broad economic sectors

The economic strength and the development chances of regions also are determined by the structure of the resident enterprises and their competitiveness. Therefore it is worthwhile to take a first look, as cursory as it may be, at the sectoral structure of employment in the classification by the three sectors agriculture, industry and services.

It should be noted in this context, however, that the LFS data do not allow any conclusion about competitiveness. It is not possible to get a reading on the productivity of agriculture, the technical status of industry or the development stage of services from the survey results, particularly because the available data do not lend themselves to the analysis of changes. Nevertheless, one can recognize the extent to which the regions have progressed in their industrialisation and development towards a service-oriented economy.

On the average, 21.2% of the employment in the CEC-10 fall to agriculture, 47.4% to the service sector, and 31.4% to industry. However, this average is strongly influenced by the great weight of Poland and Romania, which alone account for about 60% of the population in these ten countries. Both of these countries have a very pronounced agricultural sector, while the services are less or hardly developed.

The share of agriculture varies in the regions from 61.3% in South-West Romania to under 1% in the Prague area (see Graph 1). On the country level the differences reach from 45.2% in Romania to 5.2% in the Czech Republic. In seven regions agriculture is the biggest employment sector, namely in the six outer regions of Romania and in Lubelskie (PL03) in Poland. There this sector represents between 61.3% (RO04: South-West) and 40% of the employed. A strong agricultural character with employment shares of 15% or more also is found in a total of nine regions in Poland, in all regions in Romania except Bucharest as well as in Lithuania and South Central Bulgaria. Latvia and Del-Alföld (HU07) in Hungary only narrowly miss this mark. Thus, a belt with high agricultural activity stretches from Latvia to Romania along the eastern border of the CEC-10, which in Poland even extends into the central regions.

Industrialisation reaches its highest degree of the ten CECs in the Czech Republic with about 40% and its lowest degree with just over 25% in Romania. In the regions, the employment shares span from 47.7% in Slaskie (PL0C) to 19.2% in North-East Romania (RO01). Central Romania (RO07) is the only region in which the industrial sector is the biggest employer, although agriculture and services are only a little smaller.

In 13 regions industrial employment exceeds 40%. Twelve of these regions lie in a half-moon circle along the Austrian borders. With the exception of Prague they include all regions of the Czech Republic and the bordering Slaskie in Poland, the two central regions of Slovakia and the two western areas in Northwest Hungary. The 13th region with an above average industrialisation is located in North Central Bulgaria. The

Graph 1: *Employment shares by sector, 2000*
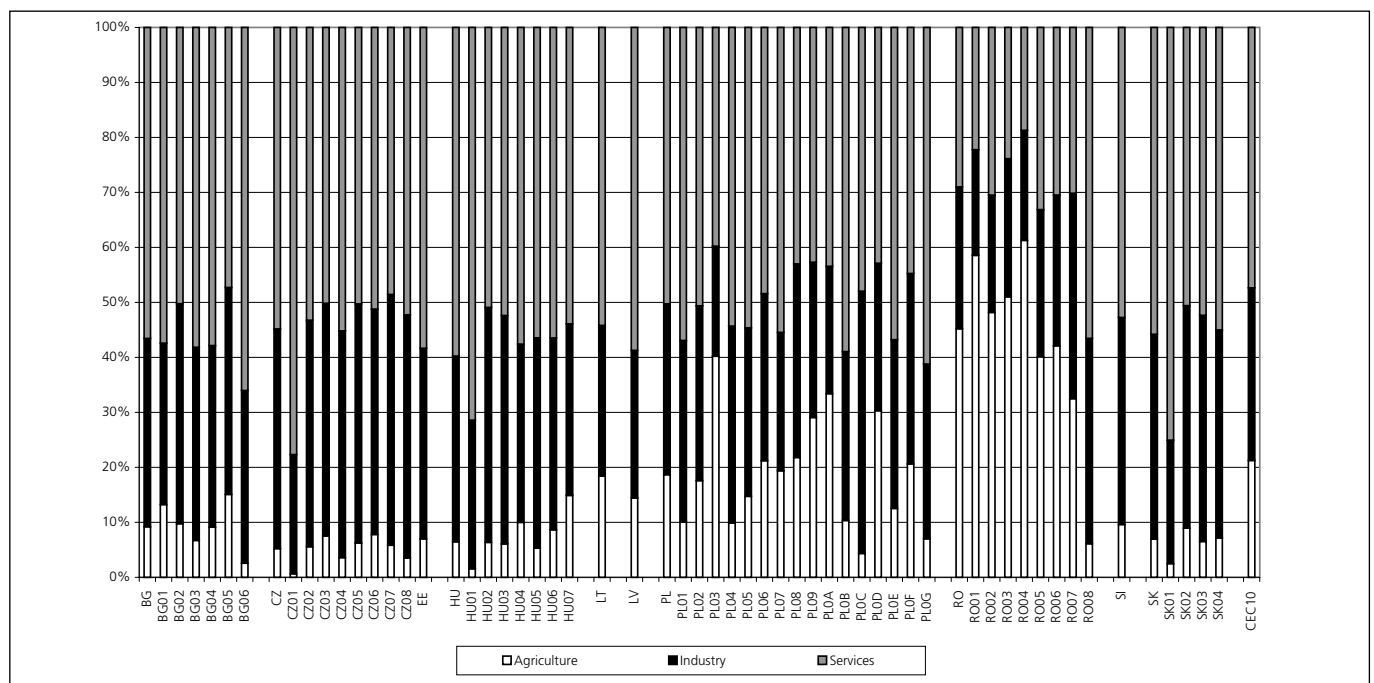
lowest industrial employment is found in the pronouncedly agricultural regions of Romania, on the one hand, and service centres of some capital regions, on the other.

With the exception of Romania, services constitute the largest economic sector in all countries concerned here. Its employment share reaches up to just under 60% in Hungary and still reaches 50% in Poland, but only 29% in Romania. Given the relative size of the sector in most of the countries, however, it still may be traced back to the great state influence on the national economies rather than to the evolution of private services. Apart from that, industrial employment had declined strongly after the introduction of reforms towards a market-oriented economy.

Employment in the service sector varies in the 53 regions between 77.7% and 18.7%, though this sector accounts for most of the employed in almost all of the regions. In the capital regions Prague, Bratislava, Budapest and Sofia more than two thirds of the employed are working in this sector. Outside of Poland and Romania, the service employment in the regions always exceeds 50% with only two exceptions (BG05, CZ07). In Poland the regional importance of the sector fluctuates between 61% (PL0G) and 39.8% (PL03). In Romania, the region Bucharest has the status of a service centre with a share of 56.5%, but the other regions lag very far behind with a service employment of only 18.7% to 33.1%.

According to the sectoral structure of employment, the regions can be subsumed under four types:

1. regions of a strongly agricultural character with employment shares in agriculture of more than 14%: type AG, 21 regions;
2. regions with an above average industrial employment of more than 40%: type IN, 13 regions;

3. regions which can be called service centres with an employment share of more than 60% in this sector: type SC, five regions;
4. regions with a mixed sector structure, a less pronounced industrial sector, in which services constitute the largest sector: type SM, 14 regions.

This assignment by type of region is specified in the respective column of Table 1. The definition is based exclusively on the given threshold values and represents no objective measure that could be derived from economic considerations. The type of region offers a pragmatic classification, which also can be used to more easily explain regional differences in other labour market indicators.

Self-employment

The LFSs also collect information on the professional status. The employed are differentiated into employees, self-employed and contributing family workers. The share of the self-employed among the employed indicates to which extent employment is based on one's own capital resources and carried on at one's own risk. As self-employment was often restricted in socialist countries, the share of self-employment shows to which extent reforms towards a market-oriented economy have led to the establishment of private enterprises. Furthermore, the establishment of additional enterprises in economic branches with good perspectives for the future are linked with hopes for new jobs.

On the CEC average 19.4% of the employed have the status of self-employed. The share of self-employment varies between 7.8% in Slovakia and 25.4% in Romania. In Poland, too, which like Romania is characterized by a strong agricultural sector, this share amounts to 22.5%.

Across regions the share reaches from 7.1% in Central Slovakia up to 35.1% in Swietokrzyskie (PL0D) in Poland. This shows that high shares of self-employment mostly are found in strongly agricultural regions of type AG. Only four regions with a low agricultural employment attain a share of self-employment over 15%. These are Prague and the surrounding industrial region (CZ02), Budapest and the region Zachodnio-pomorskie (PL0G) in Poland, which also is classified as a service centre. The relation between the share of self-employment and the size of the agricultural sector is portrayed in Graph 2.

Graph 2: **Share of self-employed by share of agriculture and type of region**, *2000*
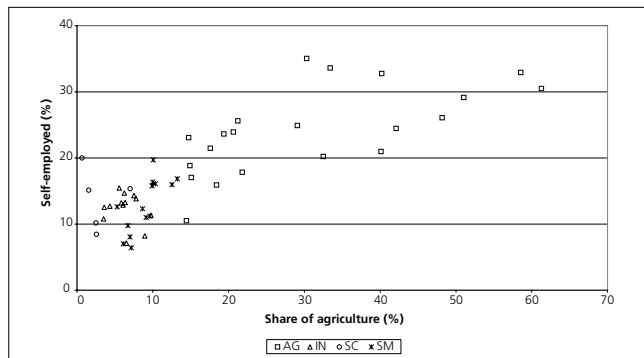
With a few exceptions, high shares of self-employment thus seem to be an expression of the agricultural structure of the regions rather than the expression of a dynamic development in the modern sector of the national economies. This statement is confirmed by the observation that the share of self-employment also is closely related to the share of contributing family workers. In Romania, 20.7% of the employed are family workers. In Poland their average share lies at 4.9% and rises in those regions where the share of self-employment is high.
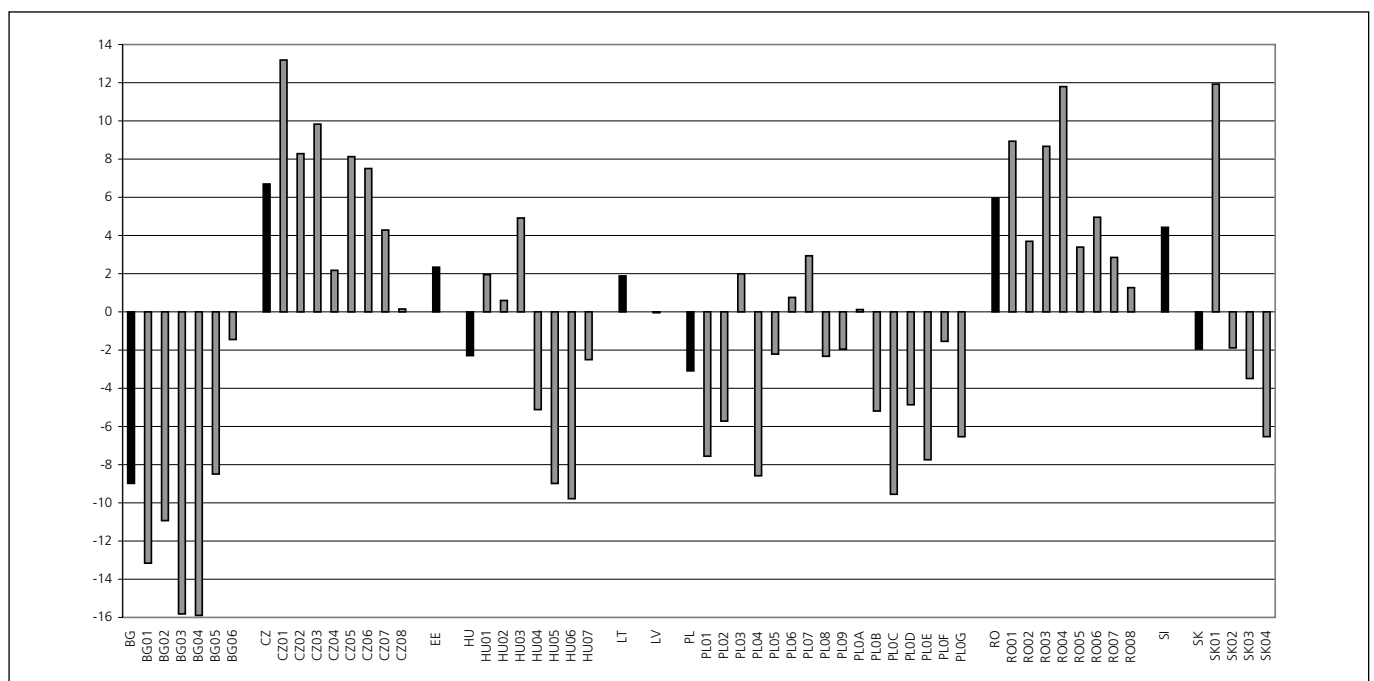
Employment rates

Employment rates manifest the supply of jobs for the working age population (15-64 years) and thus are the simplest indicator for comparing the employment level of countries and regions. They are influenced by the extent of labour force participation (activity rate) and the extent of un-employment. These factors therefore must be taken into account in the interpretation of employment rates.

The age limits follow internationally common practice. Since the age of entry into the labour force and the pension age can differ in individual countries, the level of employment can also be influenced by particularities of labour force partici-pation. Countries in which school education on the average ends later or with a high share of secondary occupational training will tend to exhibit lower employment rates as will countries in which the pension age normally lies under 65 years. This is reflected in age-specific employment rates for older and younger groups of the population.

On the average, the employment rate in the ten CECs lay at 58.2% in the second quarter 2000. Between countries it varies from 64.9% in the Czech Republic to 49.2% in Bulgaria. The Czech Republic and Romania had the highest employment rates coupled with low unemployment and high labour force participation. Apart from Bulgaria, below average employment also was found in Poland and Hungary (see Graph 3). In Bulgaria, the below average employment is caused by very high unemployment and below average activity rates. In Poland, where the labour force participation is average, the high unemployment weighs down on the employment rates. In Hungary unemployment is low and the low employment rate is the result of below average labour force participation.

Graph 3: **Deviation of regional employment rates from the CEC-10 average (58.2%), 2000**

The distance between regions is even greater. With 71.4% Prague exhibits the highest employment rate and South-East Bulgaria the lowest with 42.3%.

The regional differences in the degree of employment are smaller within the countries than between the CECs, lying mostly around 12 percentage points. An exception is Slovakia where a strong incline of 18.5 percentage points exists between Bratislava (70.2%) in the west and the regions in the east.

Evidently national influences deriving from economic developments, the institutional framework for employment and traditional behaviour patterns have a stronger effect on regional employment levels than regional particularities with regard to economic structure. Comparing the regions within each country, the service centres and regions with industrial character tend to have higher employment rates than the pronounced agricultural regions or those with an undifferentiated sectoral structure of type 4.

In the main, the employment rates are determined by the largest age group from 25-54 years, which has the highest degree of employment. Hence the statements about differences in the national level and regional particularities can be applied to this age group throughout. On the average of the CEC-10, the employment rate of this central group of the labour market amounts to 80% for men and 68.7% for women, with a variation between regions from 57.6% to 93.5% for men and from 54.1% to 84.8% for women.

The differences just described between countries are found again in the level of age-specific employment rates. Here the differences between countries are larger for the younger age group (15-24) and even more so for the older age group (55-64) than for the central group of the labour market aged 25-54 years.

While 28.7% of the population aged between 15 and 24 years were employed on the CEC-10 average, this share lay around 19.3% in the regions of Bulgaria (see Graph 4 and section Annex).

In contrast, youth employment in the regions of the Czech Republic fluctuated between 28.5% and 43.5% with the average lying at 36.4%, and in Romania between 20.6% and 39.8% with the average at 34%. To what extent these differences are caused by the duration of education and hence labour force participation or whether they can be traced to differences in youth unemployment will be discussed below.

The extent of employment in the population aged between 55 and 64 years is very different throughout the CECs (see Graph 5). In Bulgaria, Hungary, Slovakia and Slovenia only 20% of this age group are still employed. In the Czech Republic and the Baltic states the rate lies between 35 and 45 %, while in Romania over 50% continue to pursue an employment. The regional differences are especially pronounced in Poland and Romania; in Poland between 16% and 44%, in Romania between 26% in the region Bucharest and 70% in the South-West. In Prague and Bratislava the employment rate of the older age group exceeds that in the neighbouring regions by 20 to 30 percentage points.

The causes for the different employment rates should be sought in the combination of the factors "old age unemployment", possibilities of the national pension system and the regional economic structure. High unemployment reduces the employment chances of older persons. If it is possible to retire on pension, they will avail themselves of this opportunity. Older employed in agriculture either do not have this possibility or avail themselves of it to a lesser extent because

Graph 4: **Deviation of regional employment rates 15-24 from the CEC-10 average (28.7%), 2000**
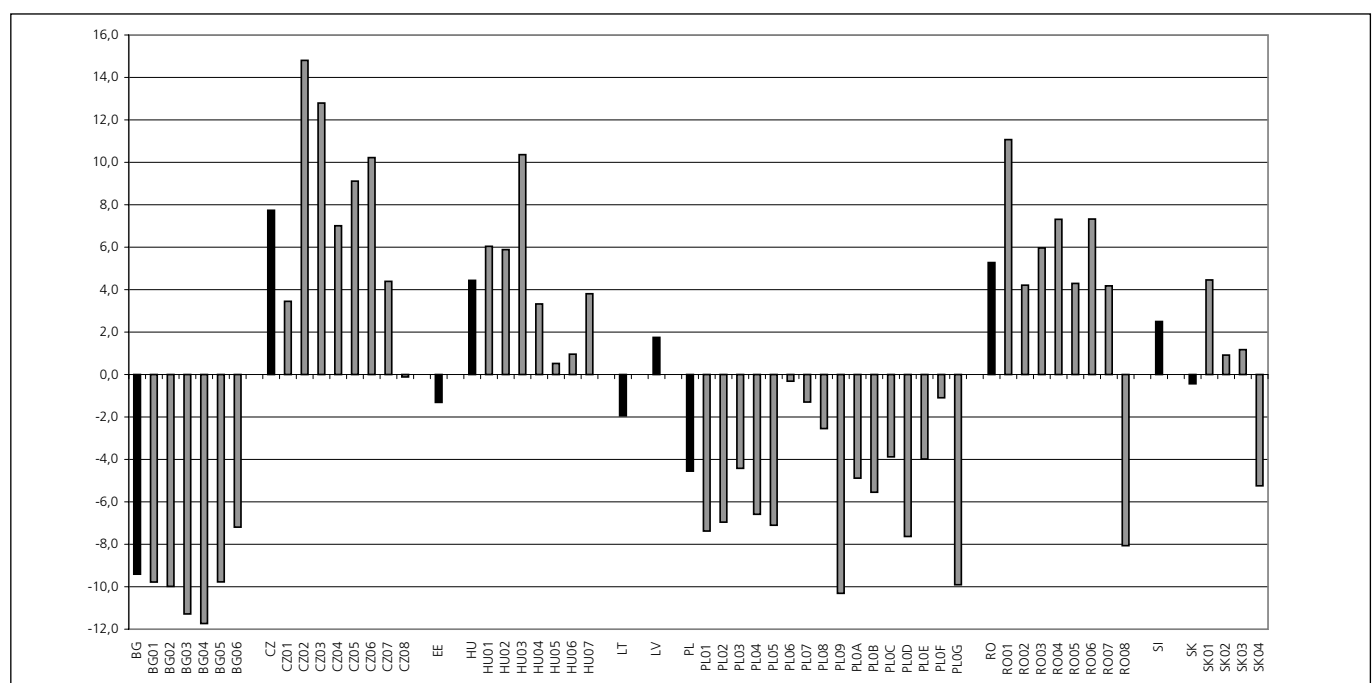
Graph 5: **Deviation of regional employment rates 55-64 from the CEC-10 average (33.7%), 2000**
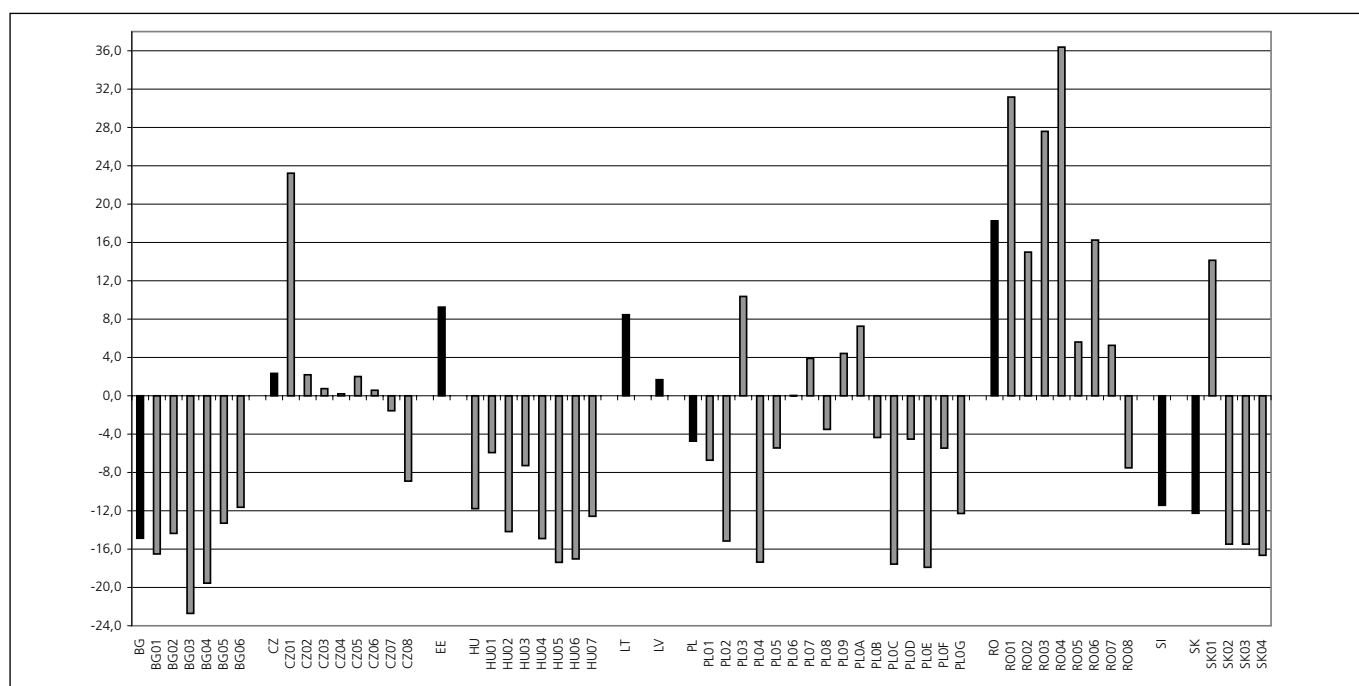
it is traditional practice to continue working even at higher ages. In any case, Graph 6 shows that there is a clear relation between a high share of agricultural employment and the level of employment rates for older persons.

Graph 6: **Employment rates 55-64 by share of agriculture and type of region, 2000**
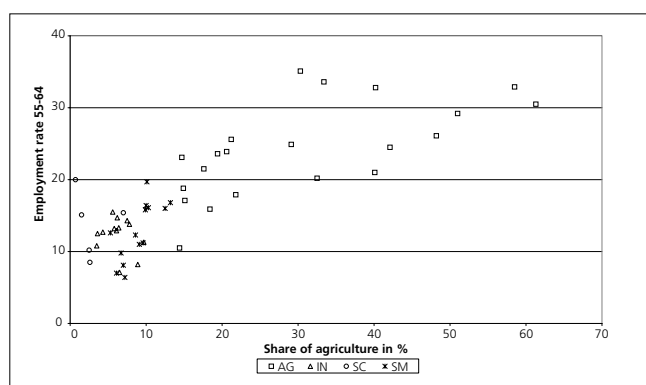
This relation applies particularly to the regions with a pronounced agricultural character (type AG).

Employment rates of men and women

On the average, the employment rates of men in the CECs lie at 64.0% and thus 11.3 percentage points higher than those of women with 52.7%. Regionally, the employment rates of men fluctuate between 77.3% in Prague and 43.4% in North-West Bulgaria. For women they extend from 66.9% in South-West Romania to 37.5% in South-East Bulgaria (see Graph 7). In all countries and regions men are employed to a greater extent than women. However, this classical role allocation is pronounced in different degrees in the countries and regions.

In Bulgaria and the Baltic states the differences between male and female employment are low, at a generally low level of employment. In North-West Bulgaria and Lithuania the gap even amounts only to about 3 percentage points.

In the Czech Republic and Hungary, all regions exhibit above average gaps. In some regions of the Czech Republic this difference reaches 19 percentage points. The high employment rates in the Czech Republic are above all attributable to the above average employment of men.

In Hungary, both men and women have a below average employment level. The larger gap of the sex-specific rates is due to the fact that the employment rates of women fall behind the CEC average even more than those of men.

The opposite is true for Romania. The employment rates of men and women are above average and the differences tend to be small. Both sexes as well as all age groups largely participate equally in the high employment level of the working age population.

In Poland the employment chances of men and women prove to be very different in the regions. The gap between the sex-specific employment rates extends from 7.2 percentage points to 18.2 percentage points.

A combined differentiation by region, age groups and sex even produces a surprising bandwidth of employment rates including almost any value from 5-95%.

Level of unemployment

A review of unemployment rates supplements the description of regional employment rates. For high unemployment inevitably reduces employment. Moreover, high unemployment has a dampening effect on labour force participation

Graph 7: **Employment rates by sex**, *2000*
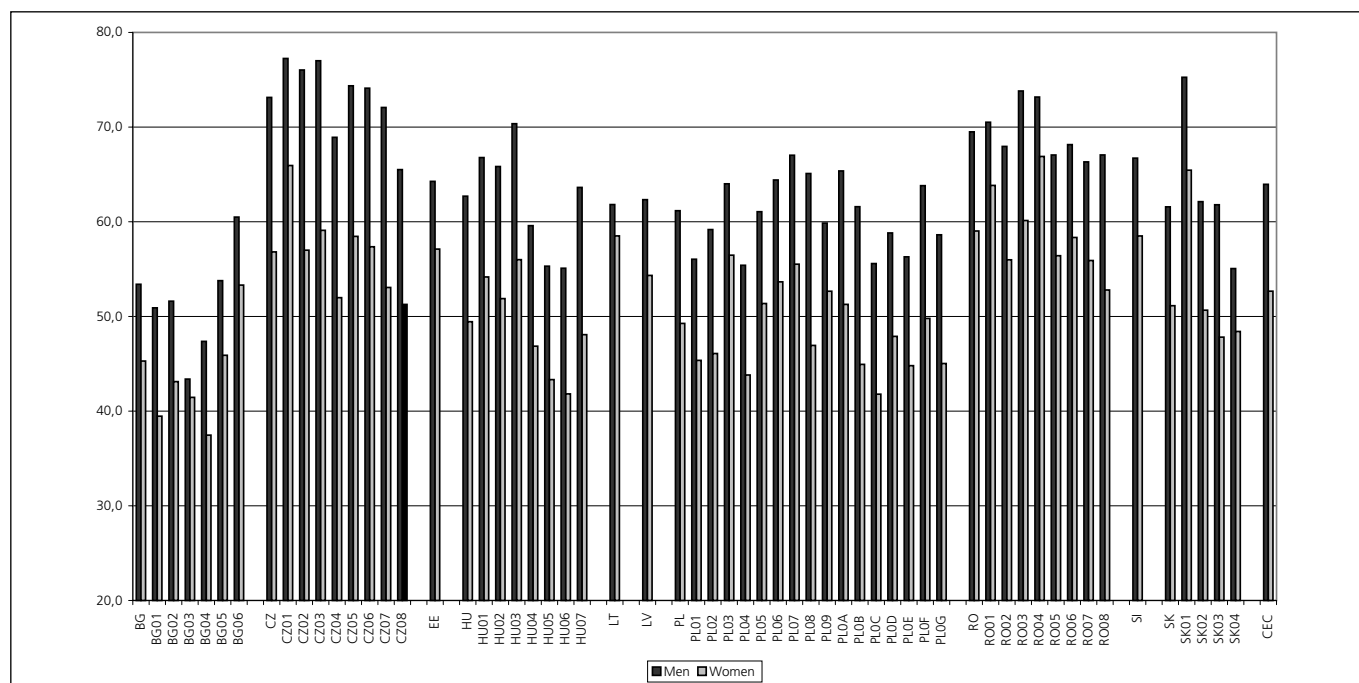
as potential workers become discouraged and give up their job search.

In the second quarter 2000 the average unemployment rate of the CECs lay at 12.4%. Prague had the lowest regional rate with 4%, North-West Bulgaria the highest with 27.9% (see Graph 8 and section Annex). Strong inclines also can be observed between regions within a country. In Slovakia, unemployment increases from 7.4% in Bratislava to 24.6% in Eastern Slovakia. In Bulgaria, the rate extends from 11.7% around Sofia to 27.9% in the North-West.

The lowest unemployment always is found in the capital regions, which are classified as service centres. This does not apply, however, to the Polish region PL0G of this type. In Prague and Bratislava the unemployment rate is not even half as high as the country average.

The unemployment rate within the countries also tends to be lower in regions with agricultural character than in mixed regions (type SM). It should be noted, however, that the high employment as self-employed and contributing family workers leads to a higher reference base, considering in par-

Graph 8: **Deviation of regional unemployment rates from the CEC-10 average (12.9%), 2000**
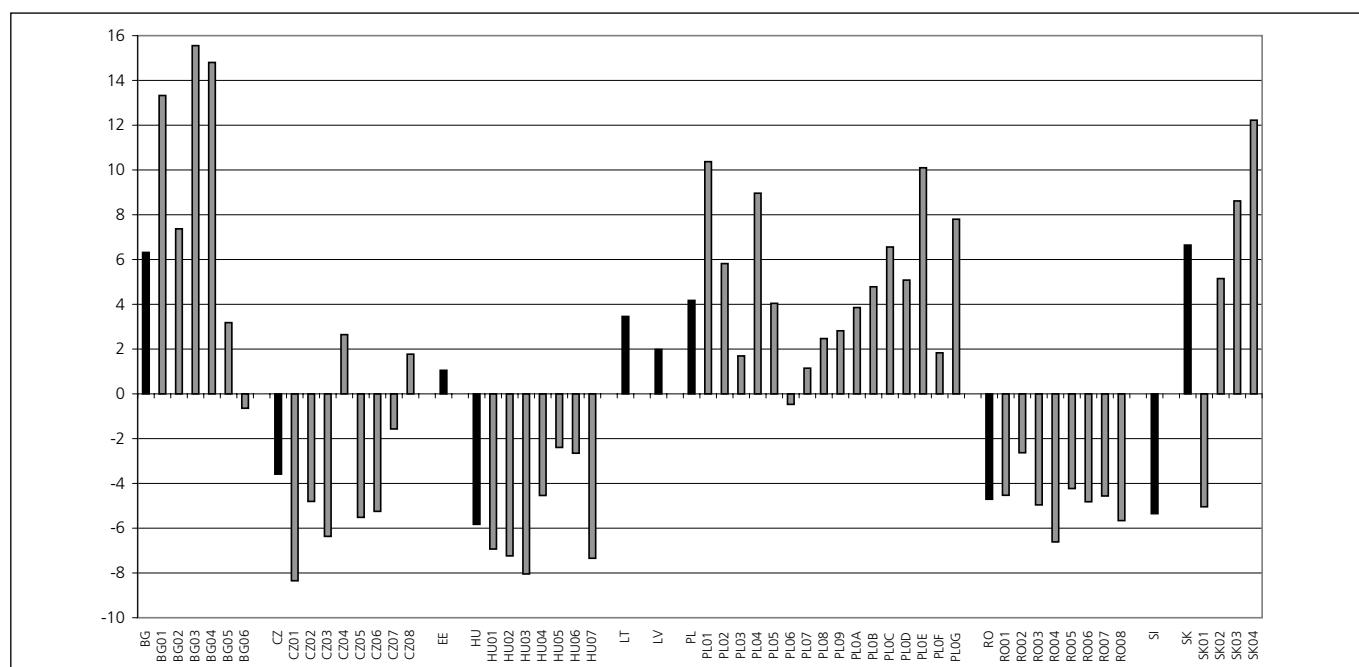
ticular that the labour force participation in the age groups over 55 years is especially high. Under these circumstances it also seems likely to find underemployment and hidden unemployment.

Unemployment rates by sex

On the average, the unemployment rate of men in the CECs lay at 12.4%, that of women at 13.4%. The range of variation, too, is almost of the same width: from 3.7% to 30.3% for men and from 4.4% to 28.8% for women (see Regional time series). Corresponding to the situation on the regional labour market, if the unemployment of men increases, so does that of women.

In most countries the unemployment of men is higher than that of women. Only in the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovenia the unemployment rate of women exceeds that of men. This country pattern then repeats itself in almost all of the respective regions.

The relation between sexes observed on the country level only is reversed in five regions: in North-East and South-East Bulgaria (BG01, BG04), in Nyugat-Dunantul in Hungary (HU03), and in Bratislava (SK01) women are more frequently unemployed opposite to the country average; in Podkarpackie in Poland (PL09) less frequently.

In some regions in Poland, where the unemployment rate tends to be below the country average, the unemployment of women exceeds that of men by more than the countrywide difference. Here the unemployment of women is around 8 percentage points or more above that of men. This difference is most strongly pronounced in the region Opolskie with rates of 10.0% for men and 20.7% for women.

Youth unemployment

On the average, youth unemployment in the CECs with 26.4% is about twice as high as overall unemployment (12.4%). The highest rates were recorded in Bulgaria with 39.4% and in Slovakia with 36.9%, the countries in which the overall unemployment was highest, too (see Graph 9). With 12.3% the young people in Hungary were least confronted with unemployment.

Regionally, the unemployment rate reached its highest value in South-West Bulgaria with 51.7%. North-East and North-West Bulgaria and six regions of Poland and East Slovakia also still exceeded 40%.

Only in 3 regions of Hungary the youth unemployment rates fell short of 10%.

In the main, youth unemployment varies proportionally with the overall unemployment of the regions.

Long-term unemployment

Almost half of the unemployment in the CECs (48.2%) was long-term unemployment. On the country level, the shares reach from 62.7% in Slovenia to 44.7% in Poland (see Graph 10).

On the regional level, the share fluctuates between 69.8% in Northeast Bulgaria and 25.3% in Oplolskie (Poland). Apart from that region, less than 30% long-term unemployed were counted only in Prague (29.4%) and Bratislava (29.7%).

It is neither possible to recognize a relation between the unemployment rate and long-term unemployment nor to ascertain any pattern according to regional types. The share

Graph 9: **Youth unemployment rates, 2000**
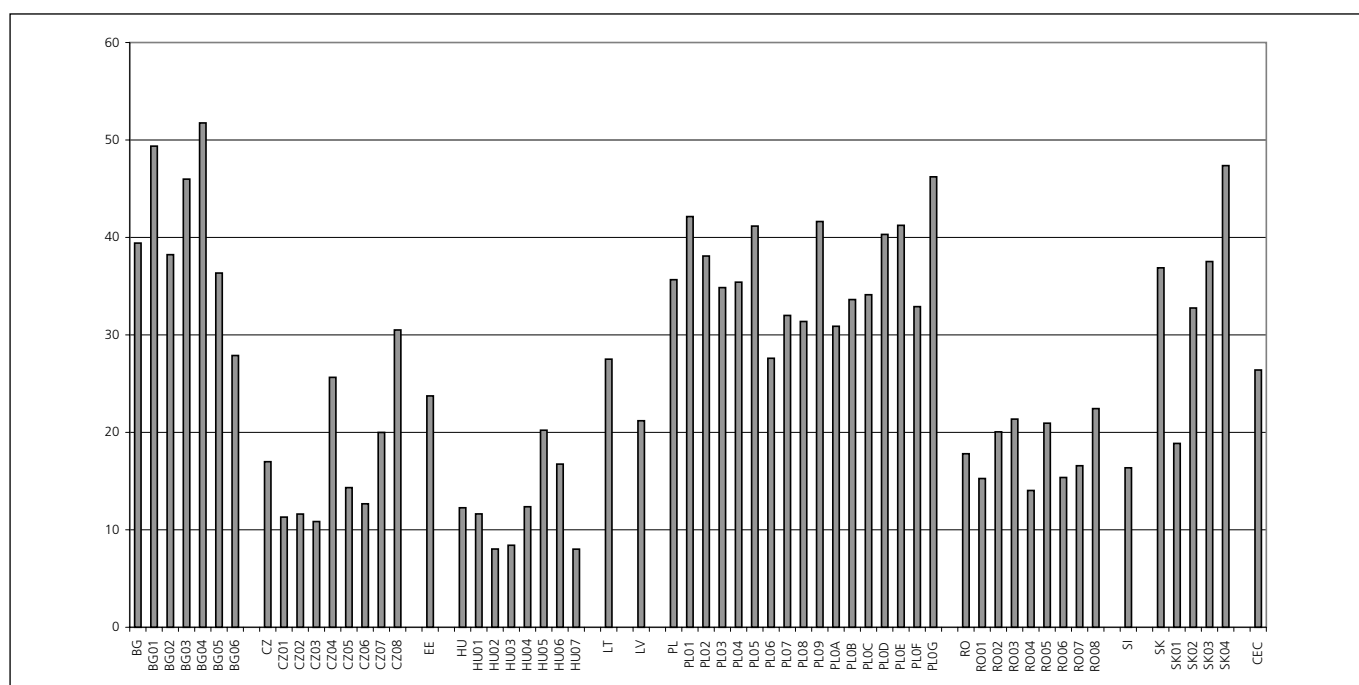
Graph 10: **Share of long-term unemployment, 2000**
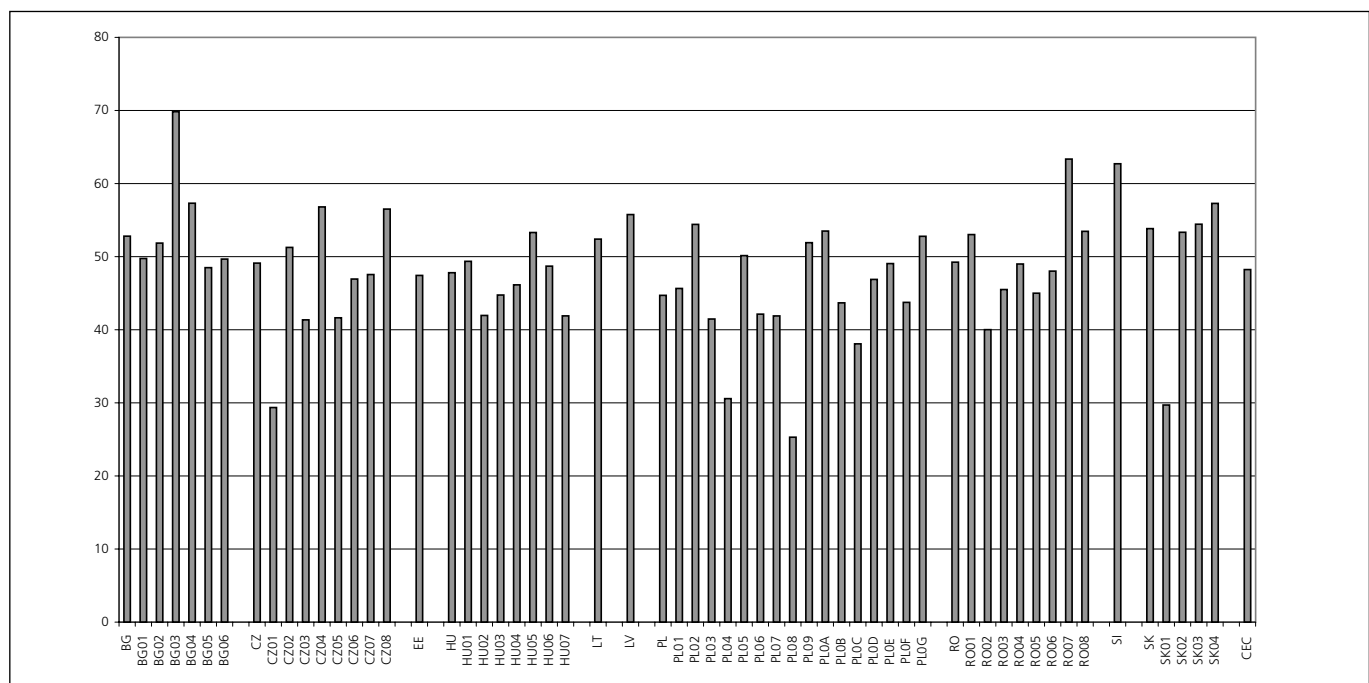
also varies considerably between the regions within individual countries, so in Poland from 25.3% to 54.4%, in the Czech Republic from 29.4% to 56.8%, or in Slovakia from 29.7% to 57.3%.

Regional patterns

The comparison of regions on level 2 in the ten CECs has shown that the economic structure, employment and unemployment exhibit even bigger differences between regions than between countries. Yet apart from all national peculiarities, which also determine the development of regions in the first place, there are common characteristics across national borders, which can be outlined, in a first approach by using types of regions.

The regions with a pronounced agricultural structure exhibit the greatest common characteristics with regard to high shares of self-employment, high employment rates of older persons (above 55 years) and a tendency towards lower unemployment rates within the respective countries.

The service centres around the capitals exhibit favourable labour market indicators. The employment rates are high and unemployment is correspondingly low. However, due to the given regional demarcation, these effects cannot be analysed in those regions where the urban centres are merged with a large surrounding area.

The regions with high industrial employment do not present a uniform picture. While most of the regions in the Czech Republic and the industrial regions of Hungary are characterized by low unemployment, two regions of the Czech Republic and the industrial regions in Slovakia and Poland are battling with above average unemployment.

The mixed regions probably can be described as having a poor economic structure. Considering the low industrial employment and partly a still significant agricultural employment it seems likely that the service sector is still dominated by state administration and develops little economic dynamics. However, this overall assessment needs to be differentiated through the use of additional indicators.

Employment, unemployment and activity rates by sex, 2000

	Region	Employment rates					Unemployment rates	
		15-24	25-54	55-64	65+	15-64	15-24	25-54
Bulgaria	**BG**	**19.3**	**67.3**	**18.9**	**1.9**	**49.2**	**39.4**	**16.3**
North-East	BG01	18.9	61.1	17.2	2.2	45.1	49.4	22.3
North Central	BG02	18.7	64.9	19.4	1.8	47.3	38.2	17.9
North-West	BG03	17.4	58.9	11.0	0.7	42.4	46.0	25.5
South-East	BG04	17.0	58.5	14.2	1.1	42.3	51.7	23.8
South Central	BG05	18.9	67.9	20.4	2.7	49.7	36.3	13.4
South-West	BG06	21.5	77.2	22.1	1.7	56.8	27.9	9.9
Czech Republic	**CZ**	**36.4**	**81.5**	**36.1**	**4.1**	**64.9**	**17.0**	**7.8**
Praha	CZ01	32.1	87.3	56.9	9.8	71.4	11.3	3.4
Stredni Cechy	CZ02	43.5	81.6	35.9	3.4	66.5	11.6	7.2
Jihozapad	CZ03	41.5	85.1	34.5	3.2	68.1	10.8	5.5
Severozapad	CZ04	35.7	74.8	33.9	3.8	60.4	25.6	13.8
Severovychod	CZ05	37.8	83.3	35.7	5.0	66.4	14.3	5.8
Jihovychod	CZ06	38.9	82.8	34.3	3.0	65.7	12.7	6.4
Stredni Morava	CZ07	33.1	80.1	32.2	1.8	62.5	20.0	9.7
Ostravsko	CZ08	28.6	76.5	24.8	1.6	58.4	30.5	12.0
Estonia	**EE**	**27.4**	**76.8**	**43.0**	**7.3**	**60.6**	**23.7**	**12.8**
Hungary	**HU**	**33.1**	**72.8**	**21.9**	**1.7**	**55.9**	**12.3**	**5.9**
Közep-Magyarorszag	HU01	34.7	77.6	27.8	2.8	60.2	11.6	4.7
Közep-Dunantul	HU02	34.6	77.6	19.5	0.9	58.8	8.0	4.7
Nyugat-Dunantul	HU03	39.0	80.7	26.4	1.6	63.1	8.4	3.8
Del-Dunantul	HU04	32.0	69.1	18.8	0.7	53.1	12.4	7.4
Eszak-Magyarorszag	HU05	29.2	65.7	16.3	1.6	49.2	20.2	8.5
Eszak-Alföld	HU06	29.6	63.0	16.7	1.1	48.4	16.7	8.9
Del-Alföld	HU07	32.5	72.6	21.1	1.5	55.7	8.0	4.8
Lithuania	**LT**	**26.7**	**76.0**	**42.2**	**7.8**	**60.1**	**27.5**	**15.1**
Latvia	**LV**	**30.4**	**74.2**	**35.4**	**6.6**	**58.2**	**21.2**	**14.0**
Poland	**PL**	**24.1**	**71.0**	**29.0**	**7.6**	**55.1**	**35.7**	**14.2**
Dolnoslaskie	PL01	21.3	65.6	27.0	2.2	50.7	42.1	20.8
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	PL02	21.7	69.2	18.6	3.2	52.5	38.1	15.8
Lubelskie	PL03	24.3	75.4	44.1	14.0	60.2	34.9	12.3
Lubuskie	PL04	22.1	64.6	16.4	3.2	49.6	35.4	19.5
Lodzkie	PL05	21.6	72.6	28.3	7.4	56.0	41.2	13.2
Malopolskie	PL06	28.4	74.8	33.7	9.0	59.0	27.6	9.7
Mazowieckie	PL07	27.4	77.9	37.6	10.5	61.2	32.0	11.1
Opolskie	PL08	26.1	71.8	30.2	7.4	55.9	31.4	13.6
Podkarpackie	PL09	18.4	72.6	38.1	17.2	56.3	41.6	12.8
Podlaskie	PL0A	23.8	73.9	41.0	11.4	58.4	30.9	15.2
Pomorskie	PL0B	23.1	68.7	29.4	1.4	53.0	33.6	15.1
Slaskie	PL0C	24.8	64.1	16.2	4.0	48.7	34.1	16.5
Swietokrzyskie	PL0D	21.1	70.4	29.2	13.3	53.4	40.3	14.5
Warminsko-Mazurskie	PL0E	24.7	65.8	15.8	1.8	50.5	41.2	19.3
Wielkopolskie	PL0F	27.6	72.4	28.3	5.3	56.7	32.9	11.3
Zachodniopomorskie	PL0G	18.8	67.2	21.4	3.3	51.7	46.2	16.6
Romania	**RO**	**34.0**	**78.6**	**52.0**	**38.2**	**64.2**	**17.8**	**6.9**
Nord-Est	RO01	39.8	79.6	64.9	58.2	67.2	15.3	7.6
Sud-Est	RO02	32.9	76.2	48.7	36.3	61.9	20.1	9.0
Sud	RO03	34.7	79.9	61.3	45.0	66.9	21.4	6.3
Sud-Vest	RO04	36.0	82.6	70.1	56.3	70.0	14.0	5.6
Vest	RO05	33.0	76.7	39.3	28.5	61.6	20.9	6.7
Nord-Vest	RO06	36.0	77.1	50.0	33.5	63.2	15.4	6.9
Centru	RO07	32.9	77.4	39.0	23.5	61.1	16.6	6.9
Bucuresti	RO08	20.6	79.4	26.2	6.8	59.5	22.4	5.5
Slovenia	**SI**	**31.2**	**82.6**	**22.3**	**7.4**	**62.7**	**16.4**	**5.8**
Slovak Republic	**SK**	**28.3**	**74.2**	**21.5**	**0.8**	**56.3**	**36.9**	**15.9**
Bratislavsky kraj	SK01	33.1	87.8	47.9	3.5	70.2	18.9	5.8
Zapadne Slovensko	SK02	29.6	74.7	18.2	0.3	56.3	32.8	14.9
Stredne Slovensko	SK03	29.9	71.7	18.2	0.6	54.7	37.5	17.8
Vychodne Slovensko	SK04	23.4	70.0	17.1	0.5	51.7	47.4	20.1
CEC-10	**CEC-10**	**28.7**	**74.3**	**33.7**	**12.2**	**58.2**	**26.4**	**11.3**
Region maximum		**43.5**	**87.8**	**70.1**	**58.2**	**71.4**	**51.7**	**25.5**
Region minimum		**17.0**	**58.5**	**11.0**	**0.3**	**42.3**	**8.0**	**3.4**

Unemployment rates		Activity rates					
55-64	15-64	15-24	25-54	55-64	15-64	Region	
15.1	**18.7**	**31.8**	**80.4**	**22.2**	**60.6**	**BG**	**Bulgaria**
22.2	25.7	37.4	78.6	22.1	60.7	BG01	North-East
15.0	19.8	30.3	79.0	22.8	59.0	BG02	North Central
32.2	28.0	32.2	79.1	16.2	58.9	BG03	North-West
19.6	27.2	35.1	76.8	17.6	58.2	BG04	South-East
9.3	15.6	29.7	78.4	22.5	58.9	BG05	South Central
11.7	11.8	29.8	85.7	25.0	64.4	BG06	South-West
5.3	**8.8**	**43.9**	**88.5**	**38.1**	**71.2**	**CZ**	**Czech Republic**
2.9	4.1	36.2	90.3	58.6	74.4	CZ01	Praha
4.9	7.6	49.2	87.9	37.8	72.0	CZ02	Stredni Cechy
3.3	6.1	46.5	90.0	35.7	72.4	CZ03	Jihozapad
8.1	15.1	48.0	86.7	36.9	71.1	CZ04	Severozapad
5.3	6.9	44.1	88.4	37.7	71.3	CZ05	Severovychod
4.7	7.2	44.6	88.5	36.0	70.8	CZ06	Jihovychod
7.5	10.9	41.3	88.7	34.8	70.1	CZ07	Stredni Morava
8.2	14.2	41.1	87.0	27.0	68.0	CZ08	Ostravsko
8.2	**13.5**	**35.9**	**88.0**	**46.8**	**70.0**	**EE**	**Estonia**
3.1	**6.6**	**37.8**	**77.3**	**22.6**	**59.9**	**HU**	**Hungary**
2.8	5.5	39.3	81.4	28.6	63.7	HU01	Közep-Magyarorszag
4.5	5.2	37.6	81.4	20.5	62.0	HU02	Közep-Dunantul
2.9	4.4	42.6	83.9	27.2	66.0	HU03	Nyugat-Dunantul
4.1	7.9	36.5	74.6	19.6	57.7	HU04	Del-Dunantul
4.9	10.0	36.6	71.8	17.2	54.7	HU05	Eszak-Magyarorszag
2.4	9.8	35.6	69.2	17.1	53.7	HU06	Eszak-Alföld
1.9	5.1	35.3	76.3	21.5	58.7	HU07	Del-Alföld
9.2	**15.9**	**36.9**	**89.5**	**46.5**	**71.5**	**LT**	**Lithuania**
9.4	**14.4**	**38.6**	**86.3**	**39.1**	**68.0**	**LV**	**Latvia**
9.7	**16.6**	**37.5**	**82.7**	**32.1**	**66.1**	**PL**	**Poland**
9.2	22.8	36.8	82.8	29.7	65.6	PL01	Dolnoslaskie
10.5	18.2	35.1	82.1	20.8	64.2	PL02	Kujawsko-Pomorskie
3.8	14.1	37.3	86.0	45.8	70.1	PL03	Lubelskie
16.3	21.4	34.2	80.3	19.6	63.2	PL04	Lubuskie
12.8	16.5	36.7	83.6	32.4	67.1	PL05	Lodzkie
7.5	12.0	39.2	82.9	36.5	67.0	PL06	Malopolskie
9.1	13.6	40.3	87.6	41.4	70.8	PL07	Mazowieckie
4.6	14.9	38.1	83.1	31.7	65.7	PL08	Opolskie
4.6	15.2	31.5	83.2	40.0	66.4	PL09	Podkarpackie
7.2	16.3	34.4	87.1	44.2	69.7	PL0A	Podlaskie
11.6	17.2	34.9	80.9	33.2	64.1	PL0B	Pomorskie
17.2	19.0	37.7	76.8	19.5	60.1	PL0C	Slaskie
10.4	17.5	35.3	82.4	32.6	64.7	PL0D	Swietokrzyskie
18.0	22.5	42.0	81.5	19.3	65.2	PL0E	Warminsko-Mazurskie
8.1	14.3	41.1	81.6	30.8	66.1	PL0F	Wielkopolskie
22.8	20.2	34.9	80.6	27.8	64.8	PL0G	Zachodniopomorskie
1.1	**7.7**	**41.3**	**84.4**	**52.5**	**69.6**	**RO**	**Romania**
0.4	7.9	46.9	86.1	65.1	72.9	RO01	Nord-Est
2.0	9.8	41.2	83.6	49.7	68.6	RO02	Sud-Est
0.5	7.5	44.1	85.2	61.6	72.3	RO03	Sud
0.2	5.8	41.9	87.5	70.3	74.3	RO04	Sud-Vest
2.5	8.2	41.7	82.2	40.3	67.1	RO05	Vest
2.0	7.6	42.6	82.9	51.0	68.4	RO06	Nord-Vest
1.6	7.9	39.4	83.1	39.6	66.3	RO07	Centru
1.7	6.8	26.6	84.1	26.7	63.8	RO08	Bucuresti
6.1	**7.1**	**37.3**	**87.7**	**23.7**	**67.4**	**SI**	**Slovenia**
12.7	**19.1**	**44.8**	**88.3**	**24.6**	**69.5**	**SK**	**Slovak Republic**
5.6	7.4	40.9	93.2	50.7	75.7	SK01	Bratislavsky kraj
11.9	17.6	44.0	87.8	20.7	68.4	SK02	Zapadne Slovensko
14.7	21.0	47.8	87.3	21.4	69.3	SK03	Stredne Slovensko
19.5	24.6	44.5	87.6	21.2	68.6	SK04	Vychodne Slovensko
6.2	**12.4**	**39.0**	**83.7**	**36.0**	**66.8**	**CEC-10**	**CEC-10**
32.2	**28.0**	**49.2**	**93.2**	**70.3**	**75.7**		**Region maximum**
0.2	**4.1**	**26.6**	**69.2**	**16.2**	**53.7**		**Region minimum**

Youth unemployment

The performance of young people in the labour market belongs to the persistent concerns of labour market policies. Other than in the prime working age population, the labour market position of youth is to an important extent shaped by the transition from school to work. The completion of education and entry into the labour force inevitably involves a stage of job-search, and hence, a certain amount of youth unemployment must be considered inescapable even under most favourable economic conditions. As stressful as any transition may be on the individual level, unemployment among young people can turn into societal problem when limited opportunities fail to provide the new entrants with jobs in a reasonable waiting time. In a broader framework, large difficulties in the labour market entry tend to have a disruptive effect on the social integration of youth and the passage into adulthood in general.

There are contradictory influences which have contributed to the employment and unemployment performance of young people in the CECs. All over the region, social and economic transformation has introduced a sudden depreciation of existing work experience, which under stable circumstances forms one of the central assets of prime age workers. The rapid pace of changes obviously favoured young people because of their natural learning capacity and greater openness to innovations, particularly if supported by modern education. Young people have been frequently preferred as a workforce in emerging economic sectors, entailed with the prospect of rapid career advancement and high incomes. As the turbulence of initial restructuring passes, however, work experience gradually regains its value, placing young people in a more vulnerable position.

The balance between favourable and unfavourable factors varies from one country to another, resulting in diverse experiences across the CEC region. Based on the harmonised data from national labour force surveys, the following sections examine recent unemployment outcomes among young people in ten countries for which the relevant data are available. The discussion focuses mainly on the situation in the year 2000 covering the level, differentiation and characteristics of youth unemployment. Whenever appropriate, the unemployment performance of young people is compared to that of the prime working age population. Before discussing specific features of youth unemployment, however, a short reference to the demographic profile of youth in the ten CECs is given.

Demographics of youth populations in the CECs

From the population perspective, the ultimate scale of youth-related issues is determined by the size of the corresponding age group. Taking the ten CECs together, the number of persons aged 15-24 amounted to 15.7 million in the year 2000, with considerable variation across nations (for detailed statistics see section Annex). The two largest youth populations can be found in Poland (5.7 millions) and Romania (3.5

millions). In three countries, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Hungary, the number of persons aged 15-24 ranges between 1.0 and 1.5 millions, followed by Slovakia (0.9 millions). The smallest number of young people is living in the three Baltic countries and Slovenia (from 0.2 millions in Estonia to 0.5 millions in Lithuania). Due to the overall size of their populations, the respective absolute numbers make a considerable difference in the contribution of individual countries to the combined experience of the region.

To eliminate the variation in the size of countries, the number of young people is related to that of the working age population (15-64). With other things equal, a higher proportion of youth relative to the working age population implies a larger inflow of newly trained human resources, but at the same also a greater demand for new jobs. In general, the variation in the proportion of young people appears relatively limited among the CECs. Reflecting the past trends in fertility and mortality, and to some extent in international migration, the highest share of youth among the working age population is featured by Romania (23.3%) and Slovakia (24.4%). The lowest proportions are found in Bulgaria (20.7%), Slovenia (20.8%) and Latvia (20.9%), with the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania and Poland holding intermediate positions.

From another viewpoint it is instructive to compare the number of young people to the population at pre-retirement age (Graph 1). The ratio between these two groups provides an approximation of the extent to which new entrants into the labour market numerically replace the cohorts which are exiting from the ranks of the economically active. In all the countries, new entrants outnumber the leavers. In Slovakia the ratio between the two groups amounts to 190%, followed by Poland (170%) and Romania (150%). In the rest of the countries, the ratio is clustered around the levels of 120-130%. It must be noted, however, that the observed excess of new arrivals over withdrawals to a significant extent results from the very high mortality among working age men. In Estonia and Latvia, for example, the ratio of new entrants to leavers drops close to 100% among women.

Graph 1: **Ratio of population 15-24 to 55-64, 2000**
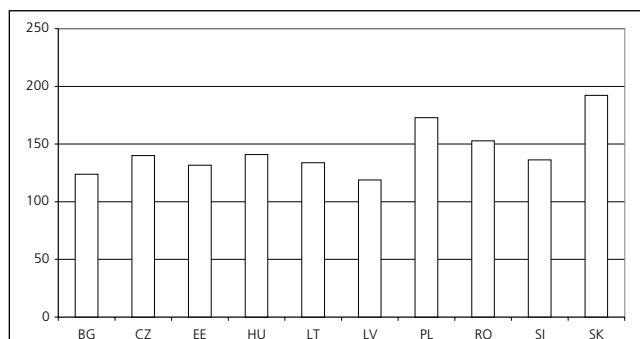
The direction of changes in the number of the youth population appeared mixed in 1999-2000. Reflecting the fluctuations in the size of cohorts currently passing the age range 15-24, the number of the youths decreased in six countries (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia) and increased in four (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland). The observed diversity in the direction of short-term change, however, should not be overestimated since in the next few years the present fluctuations will be overturned by the consequences of recent fertility decline. As a result, the size of youth cohorts entering working age will be sharply downscaled all over the CEC region. Decreasing cohort size will likely affect employment prospects and the earnings potential of future youth cohorts, but it does not automatically follow that smaller cohorts will have proportionally easier labour market access or higher wage levels.

Levels and trends of youth unemployment

In the year 2000 the total number of unemployed aged 15-24 amounted to 1.62 million in the ten CECs. Compared to 1999, the number had increased by 230 thousand or 17 per cent. In relative terms, however, the increase of unemployed youths has been somewhat slower than the increase in the total number of unemployed, resulting in a slight decline in the proportion of youth in the pool of unemployed.

The conventional unemployment rate demonstrates a relatively high incidence of youth unemployment in the CEC region, combined with a substantial diversity of situations across countries (Graph 2). The highest rates of youth unemployment are reported by Bulgaria, Slovakia and Poland (39-36%). The three Baltic countries seem to form an intermediate group with a rate in the 20% range. In the rest of the countries, the youth unemployment rate appears lower, although dropping nowhere below the double-digit level. A relatively close cluster of countries is formed by Romania, the Czech Republic and Slovenia (18-16%). The most favourable situation can be found in Hungary where only 12% of the economically active young people are out of employment. Notably, the level in Hungary appears about three times lower than in Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia.
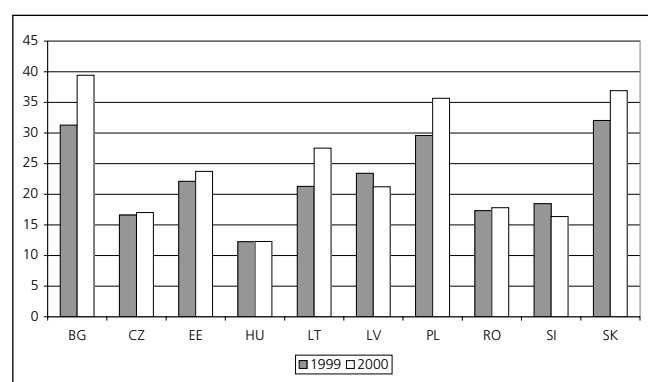
In comparison to 1999, youth unemployment has substantially increased in four countries: Bulgaria, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia. A moderate growth in the youth unemployment rate can be observed also in Estonia, while the Czech Republic, Hungary and Romania have maintained largely the same levels. Two countries, Latvia and Slovenia, have experienced some decline in the youth unemployment rate. With the exception of Latvia, the direction of changes in the youth unemployment rate mirrors the development of the general unemployment situation.

Concerning the CEC region as a whole, two implications of recent trends in youth unemployment should be noted. First, upward shifts in Bulgaria, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia have not been outweighed by the stability or decline in the remaining countries, implying the increase of the youth unemployment rate in the region. Second, the largest increase in the unemployment rate, both in absolute and relative terms, has been concentrated among the countries with an already high record of youth unemployment. This has contributed to a polarisation in the CECs as the ratio between the highest and lowest recorded youth unemployment rate rose from 2.6 in 1999 to 3.2 in 2000. Applying a somewhat longer time perspective, the trend seems particularly unfavourable in Poland and Slovakia where a substantial increase of youth unemployment can be monitored already for the third year.

The conventional unemployment rate is frequently supplemented by an alternative measure which uses the total population in an age group as the denominator. Regarding young people, the population-based unemployment rate explicitly takes account of the fact that a significant proportion, if not a majority of young unemployed start their job-search from economic inactivity. Compared to the conventional measure, the population-based unemployment rate indicates a more than twice lower incidence of joblessness among young people (Graph 3). Across countries, the proportion of unemployed ranges from less than 5% of the corresponding age group in Hungary to 17% in Slovakia. The ranking of individual countries appears relatively robust against the chosen measure. The only noticeable change concerns

Graph 2: **Youth unemployment rates, 1999 and 2000**

Graph 3: **Conventional and population-based youth unemployment rates, 2000**
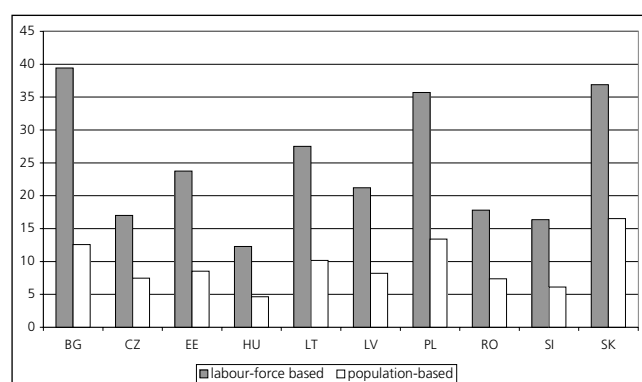
Bulgaria which dropped from the first to the third position. Additionally, the gap between the Baltic countries, on the one hand, and the Czech Republic, Romania and Slovenia, on the other, became somewhat less expressed.

An important advantage of the population-based measure is its direct relation to activity (employment and unemployment) and inactivity levels shown in Graph 4 and 5. In six countries, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia, the data reveal closely similar levels of economic activity. The age-specific labour force participation rate for 15-24 year olds oscillates in a relatively narrow range between 36% in Estonia and 39% in Latvia, implying that the variation in youth unemployment across these countries stems primarily from the proportion between employed and unemployed.

Graph 4: **Youth activity rates (employment and unemployment)**, *2000*
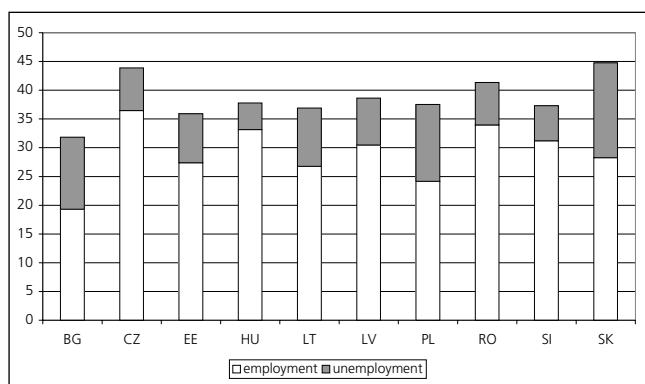
Graph 5: **Youth inactivity rates by reason, 2000**
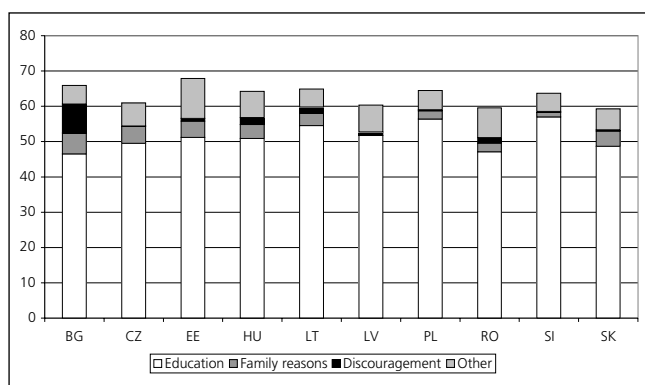
The level of economic activity among youth in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Romania and Slovakia departs from the countries referred to above. In the case of Bulgaria, the proportion of economically active in the age group 15-24 is significantly lower. In the Czech Republic and Slovakia, and to a somewhat lesser extent in Romania, the activity rate exceeds the average. In these countries the differences in the incidence of unemployment could at least partly be explained by the variation in the proportion between economically active and inactive. To shed additional light on the patterns observed, three main reasons for economic inactivity in the

age group 15-24 - educational enrolment, family duties and the belief that no work is available - are distinguished. All other reasons for being out of the labour force have been combined into a residual category.

A look at Graph 5 reveals diverse circumstances responsible for the observed patterns. Below-average economic activity in Bulgaria stems primarily from a very large proportion of young people (more than 8% of those aged 15-24) who have reported the belief that no work is available. In no other country this proportion exceeds 2%. From an unemployment perspective, this points to potentially widespread labour market discouragement in Bulgaria. A relaxation of the standard unemployment definition and an inclusion of discouraged workers among the unemployed would bring the population-based unemployment rate close to 20% and the standard unemployment rate beyond 40%.

In contrast, the above-average economic activity in the Czech Republic, Romania and Slovakia may be attributed to relatively low educational enrolment of young people in these countries. In case of the Czech Republic and Slovakia, a low prevalence of economic inactivity due to other reasons could be added. In these three countries, and also in Bulgaria, economic inactivity due to school participation remains below 50 per cent of the age group 15-24. In all other CECs, more than half of the young people are out of the labour force because of studies. The observed pattern is confirmed by information on school enrolment in other countries.

Judging from the available evidence, Slovenia has made the largest progress towards a learning society. In that country, the enrolment rate in the age group 20-24 has reached 47% by the year 2000. Such a participation in education must be regarded as very high. At the other end of the spectrum, the enrolment rate in the corresponding age group in Slovakia has been limited to 25%. In a life course perspective, this translates into nearly two years lower school life expectancy. Given the well-documented relationship between education and labour market performance, the observed variation in the duration of schooling points to considerable heterogeneity in the starting position to working life which young people have across the CEC region. In a broader framework, this variation will evidently affect the prospective development of countries since a highly educated workforce is conducive to strong and sustained economic performance.

Performance relative to the prime working age population

From an analytical perspective, the labour market performance of youth can be regarded as an outcome of two relatively independent sets of factors. On the one hand, together with other subgroups of the working age population, young people are affected by fluctuations in economic growth and the general development of labour market conditions. On the other, however, young people may face specific barriers to employment. Among others, the presence of such barriers is reflected in the wider variation in the employment and un-

employment situation of young people across countries, while differences in the situation of prime age groups tend to be comparatively smaller.

Although it makes probably little difference for young people who are out of employment and trying to find a job, the distinction between general and group-specific factors is important for understanding the situation. In terms of labour market policies, it points to variations in the need for targeted measures to support the labour market performance of the group. To outline the specific unemployment experience of young people, Graph 6 relates the convential youth unemployment rate to that of the prime working age population.

*Graph 6: **Ratio of unemployment rate 15-24 to 25-54, 2000***
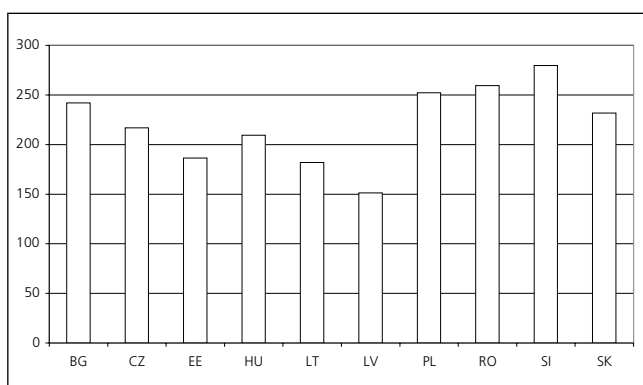
On the average, youth unemployment in the CEC region appears more than twice higher than that of the prime working age population. The ranking of individual countries according to the relative unemployment performance of young people, however, differs clearly from the pattern discussed in the preceding section. In other words, it supports the notion that the determinants behind absolute and relative performance of youth on the labour market do not necessarily coincide. The smallest youth-prime age unemployment gap can be found in the Baltic countries. Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania are the only countries in the region where the ratio between youth and prime working age unemployment is clearly below 200%. The best unemployment performance of youth relative to the prime working age population is characteristic for Latvia, where below-average youth unemployment is combined with above-average unemployment at prime working age.

The Czech Republic and Hungary occupy an intermediate position. Regarding the five top-ranking countries it is important to remember that three of them – Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia – rank in the top also according to the absolute level of youth unemployment. In these three countries, poor general labour market performance and difficulties at the entry into the workforce seem to cumulate, placing young people in a particularly unfavourable position. The situation in Slovenia and Romania, the two countries with the largest youth-prime age unemployment gap, is somewhat less stressful since poor unemployment performance among young people occurs in the context of fairly low overall unemployment. Compared to 1999, the unemployment

performance of youth relative to the prime working age population improved in all CECs.

From a methodological point of view it is important to note that the ratio between conventional youth and prime working age unemployment rates to a significant extent results from the lower proportion of economically active persons in the age group 15-24. The calculation of youth-prime working age unemployment ratios from population-based measures would reduce the average gap from 230% to 110%. In other words, the switch to a population-based measure removes most of the excess unemployment in young ages. In Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania the ratio drops below 100%, implying population-based youth unemployment below that of the prime working age population. In the case of Latvia, the population-based youth unemployment rate forms only two thirds of the corresponding prime age measure.

Gender and educational differences

Apart from the differences in unemployment between young people and the prime working age population, noticeable variation occurs also within the 15-24 group itself. Across gender, unemployment appears divided unequally among young men and women. Of the total of 1.62 million unemployed under age 25, men constituted 55% and women 45% in the year 2000. Although the sex ratio is close to equilibrium in this age group, the observed gender composition of unemployed indicates an inferior performance of young men. In absolute terms, excess male unemployment in the CECs exceeds 170 thousand.

The examination of unemployment rates reveals a clearly better unemployment performance of young women in six of the ten countries (Graph 7). The largest female advantage can be observed in Slovakia and Bulgaria, somewhat smaller differences are featured by Romania, Hungary, Estonia and the Czech Republic. One should note, however, that the position of each country is determined exclusively by the absolute difference between male and female rates. Representing the female unemployment rate as a percentage of the corresponding male rate would bring Hungary to the top position, where the unemployment rate of young women is limited to three fourths of the corresponding male rate.

*Graph 7: **Difference male-female unemployment rates, 2000***
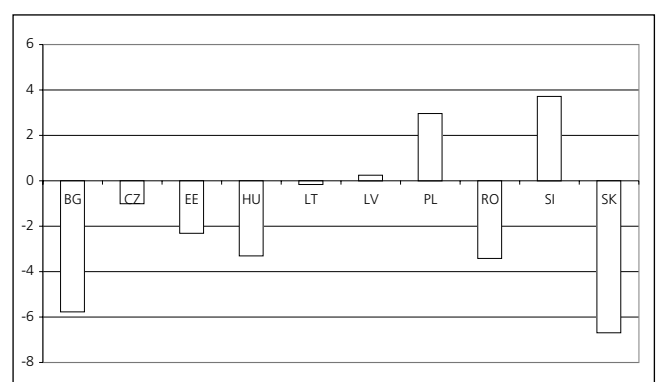
In Latvia and Lithuania the gender difference in the unemployment rate appears negligible and only in two countries, Poland and Slovenia, the conventional unemployment rate indicates that young women have been doing significantly worse in terms of unemployment. The switch from a labour force-based to the population-based measure strengthens the impression of superior unemployment performance of young women. With the exception of Slovenia, where the corresponding female unemployment rate remains 0.2 percentage points higher, the population-based measure demonstrates a lower unemployment level of women in all the countries.

Sometimes it has been hypothesised that lower female unemployment has been achieved at the expense of more frequent labour market discouragement among women. This hypothesis has been tested by examining the part of the economically inactive population which is not involved in job-search due to the belief that no work is available. The analysis revealed that, similar to unemployment, men are over-represented in that category. Taking the countries together, 2.6 per cent of men and 1.6 per cent of women in the age group 15-24 could be regarded as discouraged workers.

The observed gender differential is indeed intriguing against the frequent perception of women as disproportionately vulnerable group in social and economic transformation. The explanation for the superior unemployment performance of young women can be sought under a different perspective. One essential mechanism to be considered is the rapid restructuring of the economy which concentrated job destruction in primary and secondary branches, dominated by male occupations, and job creation in tertiary branches, where the female workforce is prevailing.

Another major factor relates to human capital which has dramatically increased in importance during the transition. With the exception of Slovakia, the LFS indicates higher educational enrolment among women in all countries. The difference in educational enrolment becomes especially pronounced in the age group 20-24. In Slovenia and Estonia, educational enrolment of women exceeds that of men by more than a third, which translates into more than a one-year gap in school life expectancy. From the viewpoint of unemployment, prolonged education limits the number of women engaged in active job-search, but more importantly, advanced education provides access to more productive and better-paid jobs.

The educational differentiation of youth unemployment is presented in Graph 8. Although a considerable proportion of young people aged 15-24 has still not completed their studies, in general those with less schooling fare worse in terms of unemployment. At the same time, the unemployment gap between young people with different educational attainment varies markedly across countries. The strongest educational differentiation of youth unemployment can be found in Hungary, Latvia and Slovenia. In contrast, Lithuania and Poland, and to some extent also the Czech Republic, Estonia and Slovakia, feature a relatively smaller differentiation.

Romania appears to make an exception to these general patterns, with a reversal of the gradient between low and medium education. This peculiar pattern has been attributed to the particularly high level of agricultural employment in that country.

Graph 8: **Unemployment rates of youth by education, 2000**
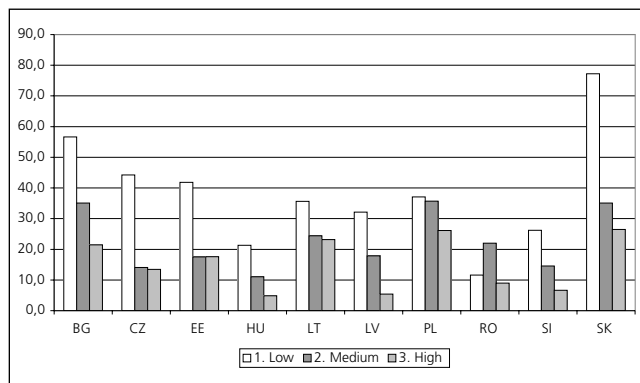
Duration of unemployment

The severity of unemployment depends to an important extent on the time-span under which failures in job search efforts are experienced. For the individuals concerned, short-term breaks in employment tend to be more easily acceptable. Long-term unemployment, however, involves considerable social and economic strain, especially when faced at the entry into the labour market. The longer a young person stays unemployed, the smaller become his or her chances of finding a job - gradually losing skills, the person becomes less attractive for potential employers, finally ceasing to search for employment. These features make long-term unemployment among youth a particularly serious challenge for labour market and social policies.

In the CECs, the number of long-term unemployed in the age group 15-24 amounted to 620 thousand in the year 2000. In line with the general increase of youth unemployment, the number of young long-term unemployed rose by 130 thousand or 28% over 1999. More importantly, however, the growth in the number of long-term unemployed exceeded, both in absolute and relative terms, the increase in the number of short-term unemployed. Put in another way, the upward shift in youth unemployment has been paralleled with a tendency towards aggravating the structure of unemployment among young people. In the CECs as a whole, the proportion of long-term unemployed in the age group 15-24 rose from 35% in 1999 to more than 38% in 2000.

Similar to other characteristics of unemployment, the experience of individual countries with the duration of youth unemployment varies (Graph 9). The highest proportion of long-term unemployed in the age group 15-24 is found in Slovenia and Lithuania (47% in both countries). In Bulgaria and Slovakia more than two fifths of the young unemployed have been searching employment for one year or more. In an

intermediate group of four countries consisting of the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia and Romania, long-term jobless-ness accounts for 37-39 % of young unemployed. The lowest proportion of long-term unemployment is featured by young people in Estonia and Poland. The structure of youth unemployment by duration appears particularly deviant in Estonia where a majority (53%) of the unemployed in the age group 15-24 have been searching employment for less than six months. Notably, that feature does not stem from the exceptionally large inflow of new unemployed prior to the survey but can be observed over several years.

Graph 9: **Duration of youth unemployment, 2000**
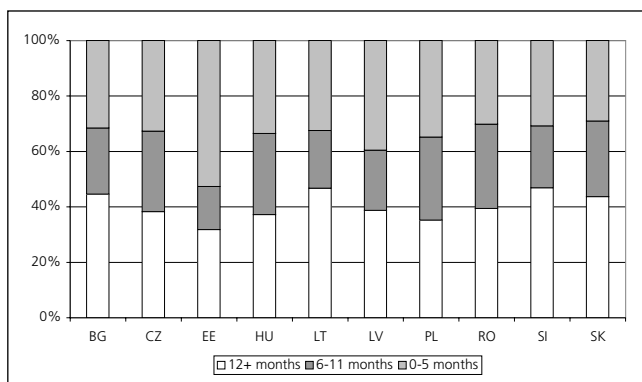
Considering the pattern across the CEC region as a whole, there seems no straightforward association between the level and duration of youth unemployment. Although the countries with the highest proportion of long-term unemployed in the age group 15-24 include Bulgaria and Slovakia, two top-ranking countries according to their unemployment level, an even higher share of long-term unemployment is demonstrated by Slovenia, which belongs to the group with the lowest unemployment level. The relative independence between the level and duration of youth unemployment implies that in order to apprehend the true extent of long-term joblessness in different countries, the two dimensions should be combined. In broad terms, the long-term unemployment rate, based on the labour force in the age group 15-24, reveals a fairly similar pattern as observed in the previous sections for the general youth unemployment rate (Graph 10).

Graph 10: **Long-term youth unemployment rates, 2000**
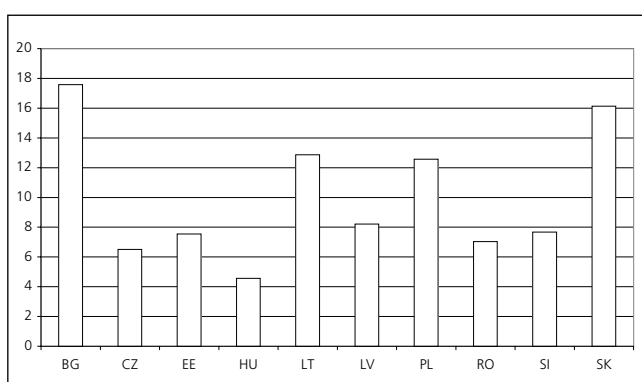
Compared to overall youth unemployment, the most visible change concerns the position of the Baltic countries. Judged by the long-term youth unemployment rate, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania cannot be considered a homogeneous group. Lithuania seems to have shifted to the group with relatively high long-term youth unemployment which also includes Bulgaria, Slovakia and Poland. In these four countries, the long-term unemployment rate amounts to 13% or more among young people. Estonia and Latvia, in contrast, share a closely similar level of long-term unemployment with the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Romania (7-8%). Hungary has maintained its lowest position also with respect to the long-term youth unemployment rate.

A comparison of the unemployment duration among young people to that of the prime working age population reveals a lower proportion of long-term unemployed in the age group 15-24 in all countries. The largest difference in the share of long-term unemployed can be observed in Estonia and Latvia with the proportion of long-term unemployed 1.7 and 1.5 times higher in the age group 25-54, respectively. In Bulgaria and Lithuania with the smallest difference, the corresponding ratio amounts to 1.2. The more serious nature of unemployment among the prime working age population is demonstrated also by the comparison of long-term unemployment rates. In all ten countries, the population-based rate of long-term unemployment is lower in the age group 15-24.

Also, the gender differences in long-term unemployment appear somewhat dependent on the type of indicator applied. Considering the structure of unemployed in the age group 15-24, countries are divided equally between two alternative directions of gender difference. In Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Poland and Slovenia, young women feature a higher proportion of long-term unemployment than their male counterparts. In Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania and Slovakia the difference goes in the opposite direction. Based on the long-term unemployment rate, however, there are only two countries, Poland and Slovenia, where young women's performance is inferior in terms of unemployment duration.

Registration and receipt of unemployment benefits

Providing a complete coverage of unemployment existing in the population, LFSs allow to shed light on the extent to which young job seekers are supported by labour market institutions. From that perspective, unemployed can be divided into three categories: those unemployed reporting to be registered and receiving unemployment benefits, registered but receiving no benefits, and not registered. The comparison with 1999 shows that in most countries growth in youth unemployment in 2000 has been accompanied by a decline in the proportion of benefit recipients, on the average from 21% to 18%. Taking the countries together, the number of benefit recipients has declined also in absolute terms, suggesting diminishing public support. The proportion of registered unemployed in the age group 15-24 has remained

basically unchanged. On the average, two in every three young unemployed report to be registered in public employment offices.

Reflecting the differences in national legislation, organisation and procedures governing unemployment registration, the proportion of registered unemployed varies widely across the CECs (Graph 11). On one extreme, the Czech Republic and Slovakia feature almost complete registration with nine tenths of the young unemployed. Registration also appears relatively comprehensive in Poland and Slovenia with close to three fourths of unemployed in the age group 15-24. In all remaining countries, registered unemployed constitute a minority among young job seekers. Particularly low registration levels can be observed in Estonia and Latvia with only 23% and 27% of the job seekers, respectively.

Graph 11: **Registration and benefits of young unemployed, 2000**
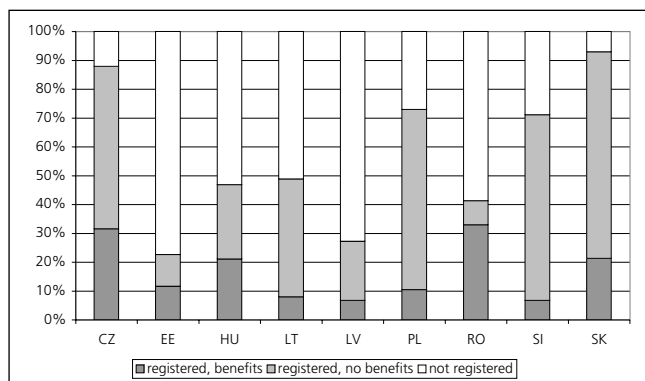
Regarding unemployment benefits, in Romania and the Czech Republic, which have the best coverage, one in every three job seekers aged 15-24 reports receiving benefits. In Slovakia and Hungary, which occupy an intermediate position, the proportion of benefit recipients accounts for slightly above one fifth. The lowest proportion of benefit recipients is found in the Baltic countries and Slovenia. In Latvia and Slovenia, only 7% of the young unemployed receive unemployment benefits. The proportion of beneficiaries among registered job seekers may be rather different from that among all young unemployed. In the case of Estonia, for example, the former exceeds the latter by nearly five times. With slightly more than half of the registered unemployed receiving benefits the country ranks second after Romania where four fifths of the registered unemployed in the age group 15-24 do.

The presented evidence suggests that in a cross-country perspective the level of youth unemployment has little influence on registration. Otherwise it would be very difficult to explain a pairwise similar degree of unemployment registration in Lithuania and Hungary, Poland and Slovenia, the Czech Republic and Slovakia. From another viewpoint, this once again underlines the difference of conclusions drawn from official registration and LFSs. A particularly extensive discrepancy between the overall (Graph 3) and registered

youth unemployment rates (Graph 12) can be found in the Czech Republic, Estonia and Latvia. Due to high completeness of registration, the Czech Republic has moved upwards and ranks third according to the registered youth unemployment rate. Estonia and Latvia, at the same time, have dropped to the lowest position, comparable with Hungary. A noticeable shift in the same direction has also occurred in Romania.

Graph 12: **Registered youth unemployment rates, 2000**
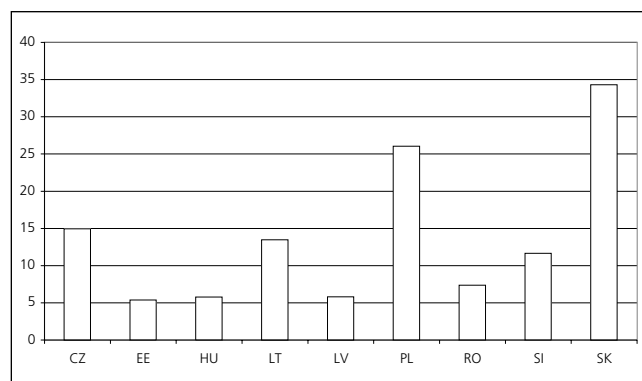
Compared to the prime working age population, the proportion of registered unemployed in the age group 15-24 in no CEC exceeds the corresponding proportion in the age group 25-54. In the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia the share of registered unemployed appears basically equal among young people and in prime working age. In Lithuania, Romania and Slovenia, the proportion of registered unemployed in the age group 15-24 ranges between 84 and 88% of the corresponding figure in prime working age, in Hungary the degree of unemployment registration among youth amounts to 75% of that in the age group 25-54. Estonia and Latvia, with 55% and 64%, respectively, rank lowest in the registration of youth unemployment relative to the prime working age population.

The lower propensity of unemployment registration among young people can be interpreted from two different perspectives. On one hand, this could reflect certain features of registration procedures which make it more difficult for young people, particularly with no previous work experience, to get registered. An alternative explanation could be seen in the comparatively lower motivation of young people to seek support from official institutions. Once having started job-search, young people may have better chances of finding employment than their prime age counterparts, and also, they can frequently count on support from working parents, which is not typically available for prime age workers. Although longitudinal data on labour market flows are required to test this hypothesis explicitly, it is indirectly supported by the universally lower proportion of long-term unemployed in the age group 15-24. With respect to country-specific patterns, for example, the two countries with the lowest registration of young unemployed, Estonia and Latvia, also rank lowest in the proportion of long-term youth unemployment relative to the prime working age population.

The possible connection between registration of unemployment and chances of finding work is highlighted also in the gender difference of unemployment registration. In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Poland, Romania and Slovenia, young women demonstrate a stronger tendency to register than their male counterparts. In Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, and Slovakia, in contrast, the gender difference runs in the opposite direction. With the exception of Romania, this configuration of countries is precisely the same as for the proportion of long-term unemployment in the age group 15-24. And on the country specific-level, Estonia, which had the largest gender gap in the proportion of long-term unemployed, also features the largest difference between young men and women in terms of unemployment registration.

Job-search methods

From a methodological point of view, there is a basic distinction in job-search methods between the service provided by government institutions and ways requiring greater individual initiative.

In the CECs, contacting public employment offices appears the most common step people, including young, undertake to find work. On the average, nearly two thirds of those aged 15-24 reportedly took that way. Considering the region as a whole, the second most frequent method of job-search is asking friends, relatives etc., reported by half of the young unemployed. Two fifths of the job seekers in the age group 15-24 have collected information from newspapers or journals, slightly less common is contacting employers directly. The popularity of other methods is either considerably lower or difficult to generalise because of lack of information on several countries.

Individual countries in the CEC region feature extensive diversity in the job-search methods used by young people. Graph 13 presents the three most common methods - contacting public employment office, asking relatives, friends etc., and contacting the employers directly. It reveals basically three different patterns of job-search. The first pattern, with overwhelming reliance on public institutions, as also reflected in registration frequency, is in most clear form represented by the Czech Republic, but also Slovenia belongs to it.

*Graph 13: **Job-search methods of young unemployed, 2000***
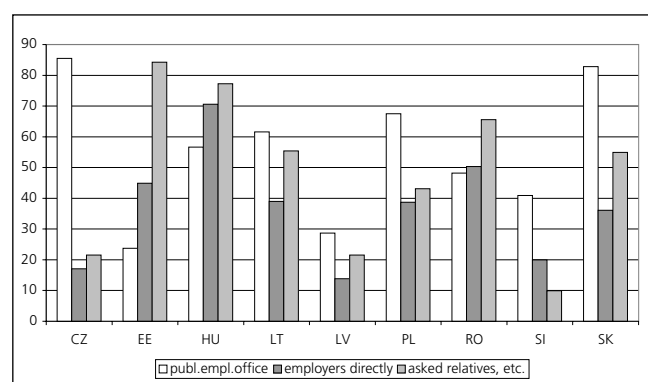
The clearest example of the opposite pattern can be found in Estonia, with prevailing reliance on personal initiative, which more than compensates the secondary role of public employment service in this country. The dominance of personal responsibility, although in less extreme form, can be found also in Hungary and Romania. In the remaining countries, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia, which occupy an intermediate position, contacting public employment services appears to be the single most common method of job-search, however, reliance on public service is to a considerable extent supplemented by other methods, particularly seeking employment through relatives, friends etc.

Compared to other dimensions of youth unemployment, differences in job search methods with the prime working age population and across gender are relatively limited. The only major difference could be found in the prevalence of preparations to self-employment (looking for land, premises, equipment, licenses, financial resources etc.), which are typically less common among young people and women.

Previous work experience

The situation of young unemployed can be characterised on the basis of their previous attachment to the labour force. Most importantly, this perspective permits a distinction between job seekers who have never worked and are trying to enter into employment for the first time and those who have already acquired some work experience. The high proportion of the first category represents a characteristic feature of youth unemployment, while in older age groups job seekers without previous work experience constitute a negligible minority. Regarding youth, with other things equal, previous work experience could be assumed to be a certain advantage contributing to the success of job-search.

In the CECs, the average proportion of young job seekers with no work experience amounted to 60 percent in the year 2000. Compared to 1999, the growth in the number of young unemployed concentrated prevailingly among persons who never worked before. As a result, the share of the latter increased two percentage points. Combined with the rising proportion of long-term unemployed and the decline in the coverage of unemployment benefits, that shift towards less work experience points to a certain deterioration in the characteristics of young unemployed over the past year.

The situation appears particularly serious in Romania where four fifths of the young unemployed are looking for their first job (Graph 14). Such a high proportion signals substantial difficulties in the entry into labour force. At least partly the observed difficulties could be related to the demographics of youth and the replacement of the working age population. Among the other countries, Slovenia ranks second with close to three fourths of young job seekers with no previous work experience, yet here the observed feature is explained by a remarkably high enrolment of young people in tertiary studies. An above-average proportion of young unemployed who have never worked can also be found in Bulgaria.

Poland and Slovakia, and to some extent Lithuania, demonstrate intermediate levels with the share of young people searching for their first job ranging between 50-60%. In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary and Latvia, unemployed with no previous work experience constitute less than half in the age group 15-24.

Graph 14: **First-time job seekers among young unemployed, 2000**
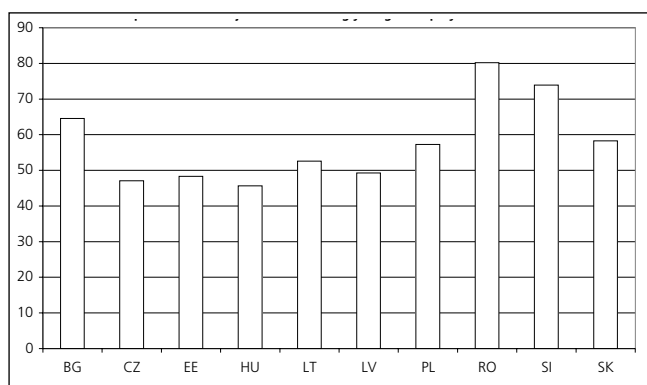
Regarding gender differences, the pattern appears fairly uniform. In nine of the ten countries, young women looking for employment have less work experience than their male counterparts. This gender difference stems basically from two reasons: higher educational enrolment among women and domestic responsibilities, which among men seldom occur as a source of economic inactivity. The only exception to the general pattern is Bulgaria where female job-seekers in the age group 15-24 feature greater employment experience, with this peculiarity probably being related to compulsory military service.

Temporary and involuntary part-time employment

The goal of full employment has made the unemployment rate a key indicator by which the performance of the labour market is judged. Less explicit labour underutilisation should, however, not be neglected, particularly in transition economies with relatively restricted coverage/low replacement capacity of unemployment insurance and other schemes of public relief. Under such circumstances, a considerable part of the population can be assumed to have difficulties in staying out of employment for extended periods and, hence, faces pressures to engage in some economic activity, however small or inadequate it may be.

From the viewpoint of individuals, temporary employment typically offers inadequate job security. Although temporary jobs could under certain conditions, for example in the case of probationary arrangements, turn into a permanent one, temporary employment typically involves a substantial risk of (re-)entering unemployment after the completion of the contract period. Moreover, temporary employment tends to be associated with a lack of career prospects, limited access to job training and inferior bargaining power of employees relative to employers.

In the CECs, the proportion of temporary employees is generally low, on the average accounting for 13% in the age group 15-24 in the year 2000. Compared to 1999, the number of young employees in permanent and temporary employment progressed in different directions. The number of employees in permanent jobs declined both in absolute and relative terms, whereas the number of employees in temporary employment increased. Although the distinction between various subcategories of temporary employment is not completely free of subjectivity, the growth also applied to young people who wanted to have a permanent job wanted but could not find one. The average proportion of those working in temporary jobs involuntarily amounted to 4% of the young employees in year 2000.

The proportion of young employees in temporary employment reaches a remarkably high level in Slovenia (Graph 15), where more than two fifths of the employees aged 15-24 is not working in permanent jobs. The single most common reason for working in temporary jobs among the Slovenian youth is the inability to find permanent employment, followed closely by unwillingness to take up a permanent job (evidently related to the high level of school enrolment); only one in seven of the young employees are in temporary employment because of training contracts or probationary periods. The experience of other countries displays relatively limited variation. In the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Romania the share of young employees working in temporary jobs ranges between 11% and 14%, in Estonia and Slovakia the corresponding proportion remains below one tenth. The share of the involuntary component peaks in the two countries which have the lowest record of temporary employment, Estonia and Slovakia.

Graph 15: **Permanency of youth employment, 2000**
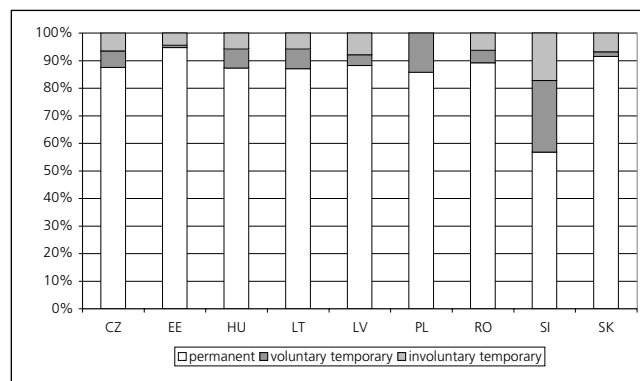
Turning to part-time employment among young people, the situation in several respects resembles that of temporary jobs. In the CECs, the average share of part-time employment amounted to 14% in the year 2000. Compared to 1999, the number of part-time workers seems to have increased in absolute numbers as well as proportionally to total youth employment. The share of involuntary part-time employment also showed a slight increase over the past year. Approaching on the average 6% of all employed in the age group 15-24,

the inability to find a full-time job forms the single most important reason for working incomplete hours. In a broader framework, the proportion of young people not capable of finding full-time employment may be considered a tentative indicator of underemployment.

Against the background of a relatively low incidence of part-time employment in the region, there is still some room for intercountry variation (Graph 16). The highest proportion can be found in Romania where one of every five employed in the age group 15-24 is working less than full hours. Perhaps more importantly, the country also features the highest share of involuntary part-time employment, indicating the presence of substantial underemployment among young people. Evidently, this finding has a clue in the high proportion of young workers engaged in agricultural production. In Romania 52% of the employed aged 15-24 work in the primary sector, exceeding the corresponding share in the prime working age population by 1.8 times.

Graph 16: **Full-time/part-time work of young employed, 2000**
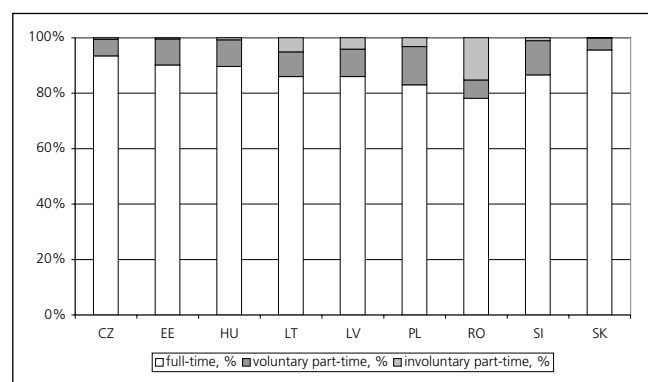
Other countries are spread quite evenly across the spectrum of variation. Besides Romania, Poland is the only country where the share of part-time employment among young people exceeds 15%. In Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia, this proportion ranges between 10-15%, and in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Estonia and Slovakia part-time employment is even less common. Considering involuntary part-time employment, there seems to be an association between the general spread of part-time employment and its involuntary component. For example, the four countries with the highest proportion of part-time employment among young people also rank in the top based on the share of the involuntary component. Put in another way, the higher incidence of youth part-time employment in some countries has been achieved at the expense of more frequent underemployment. Disregarding the latter, the highest incidence of part-time employment among young people would be demonstrated by Estonia and Slovenia.

Similar to the unemployment level, the result of the comparison of temporary and part-time employment among youth and the prime working age population depends to a crucial extent on the measure applied. The proportion of persons working in temporary and/or part-time jobs among the employed in the corresponding age groups generally reveals the disadvantage of youth in terms of access to permanent/full time jobs. When the number of persons in temporary and/or part-time jobs, including for involuntary reasons, is related to the population in the corresponding age groups, however, the disadvantage of young people in most cases disappears. Regarding gender differences in temporary and part-time employment, the most important feature of the CEC region is the prevailing similarity between the experiences of young men and women. Taking the countries together, the gender gap does not exceed one percentage point in the share of temporary employment and two percentage points in the share of part-time employment. Yet slightly higher proportions of temporary and part-time employment among young women should not be interpreted as a disadvantage of women since working in temporary and part-time jobs for involuntary reasons appears more common among men.

Basic characteristics of youth unemployment, 1999

Indicator	unit	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK
Population											
total age group 15-24	1000	1214	1582	207	1543	518	327	5446	3592	296	905
ratio to age group 15-64	%	21.8	22.3	21.5	22.7	21.3	20.1	21.6	23.7	21.4	24.8
ratio to age group 55-64	%	128.5	150.9	126.7	145.3	130.8	110.5	161.2	151.3	138.6	195.1
Youth unemployment											
total	1000	117	120	17	75	47	33	556	265	22	133
Conventional rate											
all	rate	31.3	16.6	22.1	12.3	21.3	23.4	29.6	17.3	18.5	32.0
male	rate	31.3	16.3	22.3	13.5	22.7	26.1	27.9	18.8	17.2	33.1
female	rate	31.3	16.9	21.9	10.6	19.3	19.5	31.6	15.5	19.8	30.8
by education											
< upper secondary	rate	42.0	38.0	35.2	24.7	25.2	27.1	41.0	13.5	29.9	68.2
upper secondary	rate	27.7	14.5	19.5	10.7	17.7	23.0	27.7	19.6	16.2	29.7
tertiary	rate	22.3	16.7	10.4	2.9	16.9	11.0	13.4	14.5	9.1	11.0
Population-based rate											
all	rate	9.6	7.6	8.3	4.9	9.1	10.2	10.2	7.4	7.5	14.7
male	rate	10.3	8.3	9.8	6.0	11.2	13.2	10.5	9.0	7.2	16.4
female	rate	8.9	6.9	6.9	3.7	7.0	7.0	9.9	5.8	7.7	13.0
Ratio to age group 25-54											
conventional rate	%	256.9	222.7	197.3	145.0	225.6	178.2	277.8	295.7	304.1	247.2
population-based rate	%	94.9	115.5	85.1	101.7	107.5	89.7	116.3	149.6	140.5	129.7
Duration											
0-5 months	% of total	35.1	39.2	49.2	36.0	46.8	33.4	38.5	30.4	40.6	31.3
6-11 months	% of total	16.6	38.0	15.5	28.8	22.0	25.3	29.5	28.4	34.8	32.1
12+ months	% of total	48.3	22.8	35.3	35.2	31.2	41.3	32.0	41.3	24.7	36.6
long-term unemployment	rate	15.1	3.8	7.8	4.3	6.6	9.7	9.5	7.1	4.6	11.7
Registration											
registered and benefits	% of total		40.8	13.9	25.3	6.7	7.7	12.5	31.7	7.9	29.5
registered, no benefits	% of total		44.6	10.3	28.1	31.2	21.6	62.2	12.3	70.6	62.5
not registered	% of total		14.6	75.9	46.6	62.1	70.7	25.3	56.0	21.6	8.0
registered unemployment	rate		14.2	5.3	6.5	8.1	6.9	22.1	7.6	14.5	29.5
Previous work											
Yes	% of total	29.9	56.1	59.5	55.3	38.1	53.5	46.1	24.4	33.5	45.7
No	% of total	70.1	43.9	40.5	44.7	61.9	46.5	53.9	75.6	66.5	54.3
Methods of job search											
public labour office	% of total		82.9	32.1	62.5	54.8	27.8	67.5	49.7	44.4	74.8
private agency	% of total		0.7	3.2	24.4	8.9	2.9	3.8	2.7	0.0	0.5
employers directly	% of total		15.6	57.8	66.9	30.8	17.9	40.8	51.4	12.7	1.5
asked relatives, friends	% of total		23.5	82.4	79.5	63.8	20.9	41.4	64.8	12.6	4.7
inserted advertisements	% of total		4.2	50.7	37.5	5.2	1.9	19.4	5.6	10.4	1.7
studied advertisements	% of total		20.9	88.4	83.8	43.1	26.2		17.0	17.6	

eurostat

Basic characteristics of youth unemployment, 2000

Indicator	unit	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK
Population											
total age group 15-24	1000	1138	1521	210	1503	526	342	5717	3537	290	902
ratio to age group 15-64	%	32.6	33.2	36.3	36.7	35.0	35.3	34.4	37.7	33.4	38.8
ratio to age group 55-64	%	123.8	140.0	131.6	140.8	133.6	118.7	172.7	152.6	136.2	192.2
Youth unemployment											
total	1000	143	113	18	70	53	28	765	260	18	149
Conventional rate											
all	rate	39.4	17.0	23.7	12.3	27.5	21.2	35.7	17.8	16.4	36.9
male	rate	41.9	17.5	24.7	13.7	27.6	21.1	34.3	19.3	14.8	40.0
female	rate	36.2	16.5	22.4	10.4	27.4	21.3	37.3	15.9	18.5	33.3
by education											
< upper secondary	rate	56.6	44.2	41.8	21.3	35.6	32.1	37.0	11.6	26.2	77.2
upper secondary	rate	35.0	14.1	17.5	11.0	24.4	17.9	35.7	22.0	14.5	35.0
tertiary	rate	21.4	13.4	17.6	4.8	23.1	5.4	26.1	9.0	6.6	26.4
Population-based rate											
all	rate	12.6	7.5	8.5	4.6	10.2	8.2	13.4	7.4	6.1	16.5
male	rate	9.8	6.6	6.7	3.4	8.8	6.9	13.0	5.9	6.2	13.9
female	rate	15.4	8.3	10.3	5.9	11.5	9.4	13.8	8.8	6.0	19.1
Ratio to age group 25-54											
conventional rate	%	241.8	216.7	186.2	209.2	181.8	151.1	252.1	259.2	279.7	231.7
population-based rate	%	95.8	107.4	75.9	102.2	75.0	67.7	114.3	126.9	118.9	117.5
Duration											
0-5 months	% of total	31.5	32.7	52.7	33.5	32.4	39.6	34.8	30.2	30.8	29.1
6-11 months	% of total	23.9	29.1	15.5	29.3	20.8	21.7	30.0	30.4	22.4	27.2
12+ months	% of total	44.6	38.2	31.8	37.2	46.8	38.7	35.2	39.4	46.9	43.7
long-term unemployment	rate	17.6	6.5	7.5	4.6	12.9	8.2	12.6	7.0	7.7	16.1
Registration											
registered and benefits	% of total		31.6	11.7	21.1	8.0	6.8	10.5	33.0	6.7	21.4
registered, no benefits	% of total		56.4	11.0	25.8	40.9	20.5	62.5	8.4	64.4	71.7
not registered	% of total		12.1	77.4	53.1	51.1	72.7	27.0	58.7	28.9	7.0
registered unemployment	rate		14.9	5.4	5.8	13.5	5.8	26.0	7.4	11.6	34.3
Previous work											
Yes	% of total	64.5	47.0	48.3	45.6	52.6	49.3	57.2	80.1	73.9	58.3
No	% of total	35.5	53.0	51.7	54.4	47.4	50.8	42.8	19.9	26.1	41.7
Methods of job search											
public labour office	% of total		85.5	23.7	56.6	61.6	28.6	67.5	48.2	40.9	82.8
private agency	% of total		2.0	0.3	22.1	10.5	5.6	4.7	2.0	0.0	4.8
employers directly	% of total		17.0	44.9	70.6	39.0	13.8	38.7	50.3	19.9	36.0
asked relatives, friends	% of total		21.5	84.2	77.3	55.3	21.5	43.1	65.6	9.9	54.9
inserted advertisements	% of total		3.8	45.3	37.3	10.2	3.5	29.5	9.6	13.5	33.9
studied advertisements	% of total		19.1	89.4	86.0	48.7	26.5		20.6	11.1	

Bulgaria	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+3.5	-5.7	+10.3	+2.4	-8.0	+28.9
	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	8230	4014	4216	8136	3936	4200
age group 15-64	1000	5569	2748	2821	5499	2687	2812
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	43.8	42.8	44.8	43.9	42.9	44.8
upper secondary	%	42.6	45.1	40.3	42.7	44.9	40.6
tertiary	%	13.6	12.1	15.0	13.4	12.2	14.6
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	24.1	25.0	23.1	23.7	24.8	22.5
old age dependency	rate	23.7	21.0	26.3	24.3	21.6	26.8
activity age group 15-64	rate	61.6	66.3	57.0	60.6	65.9	55.5
effective dependency	rate	131.9	110.2	156.6	150.0	125.0	178.4
Employment							
total	1000	2971	1582	1389	2734	1453	1281
by age groups							
15-24	rate	21.1	22.7	19.4	19.3	21.3	17.3
25-54	rate	73.0	75.3	70.7	67.3	69.4	65.2
55-64	rate	21.3	34.5	10.0	18.9	31.1	8.5
65+	rate	1.7	2.8	0.9	1.9	3.1	1.0
15-64	rate	52.9	57.0	49.0	49.2	53.4	45.3
by education							
< upper secondary	%	22.2	25.1	19.0	19.2	22.1	16.0
upper secondary	%	55.4	56.8	53.8	57.7	59.4	55.8
tertiary	%	22.3	18.1	27.2	23.1	18.6	28.3
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	10.9	13.1	8.4	9.2	11.3	6.8
mining and quarrying	%	1.6	2.5	0.7	1.4	2.3	0.5
manufacturing	%	24.9	24.2	25.7	25.1	24.9	25.4
electricity, gas, water	%	1.9	2.6	1.1	2.1	3.0	1.1
construction	%	6.1	10.1	1.6	5.6	9.0	1.8
trade & repair	%	14.5	13.4	15.7	14.8	13.8	15.8
hotels & restaurants	%	4.7	3.8	5.8	4.6	3.6	5.7
transport & communication	%	7.1	9.9	4.0	7.9	10.7	4.6
financial intermediation	%	1.1	0.7	1.5	1.2	0.7	1.7
real estate & business	%	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.3
public administration	%	7.1	8.3	5.7	7.6	8.8	6.2
education	%	7.6	3.1	12.8	7.8	3.0	13.2
health & social work	%	6.1	2.5	10.1	6.3	2.8	10.3
other services	%	3.3	2.8	3.8	3.1	2.7	3.6
self-employed	% of total	11.9	15.1	8.3	12.6	16.1	8.7
part-time	% of total						
temporary	% of employees						
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	40.2	41.1	40.2	40.2	40.7	39.8
part-time employees	average						
self-employed	average	45.4	46.0	44.3	40.8	41.8	38.9
Unemployment							
total	1000	484	258	226	624	337	287
by age groups							
15-24	rate	31.3	31.3	31.3	39.4	41.9	36.2
25-54	rate	12.2	12.3	12.1	16.3	16.2	16.4
55-64	rate	9.5	9.1	10.4	15.1	14.5	16.8
15-64	rate	14.1	14.1	14.0	18.7	19.0	18.4
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	23.1	21.9	24.9	31.8	29.6	34.8
upper secondary	rate	13.1	12.7	13.5	17.4	17.4	17.4
tertiary	rate	5.4	5.3	5.5	7.3	7.5	7.2
long-term	% of total	58.3	57.6	59.1	53.0	52.9	53.1
registered unemployment							
total	1000	488	227	261	717	344	373
unemployment	rate	14.1	12.5	15.8	20.8	19.1	22.6

Czech Republic	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	-2.2	-2.3	+42.3	-0.8	-0.9	+3.1
	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	10237	4956	5281	10222	4948	5274
age group 15-64	1000	7087	3523	3564	7111	3535	3576
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	23.0	16.2	29.3	23.8	16.9	30.2
upper secondary	%	68.3	73.2	63.8	67.0	72.0	62.5
tertiary	%	8.7	10.6	6.9	9.1	11.1	7.3
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	24.5	25.2	23.7	23.8	24.5	23.0
old age dependency	rate	20.0	15.4	24.5	20.0	15.4	24.4
activity age group 15-64	rate	71.8	79.7	63.9	71.2	79.0	63.5
effective dependency	rate	80.3	53.8	114.2	82.5	55.6	116.8
Employment							
total	1000	4716	2644	2071	4675	2623	2052
by age groups							
15-24	rate	38.3	42.7	33.9	36.4	39.3	33.6
25-54	rate	82.0	89.5	74.3	81.5	89.2	73.7
55-64	rate	37.6	53.2	23.6	36.1	51.6	22.1
65+	rate	4.5	6.9	2.9	4.1	6.8	2.3
15-64	rate	65.6	74.0	57.4	64.9	73.1	56.8
by education							
< upper secondary	%	8.7	6.5	11.6	8.8	6.2	12.0
upper secondary	%	79.2	80.5	77.6	78.7	80.2	76.7
tertiary	%	11.9	12.9	10.7	12.6	13.6	11.2
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	5.3	6.4	3.9	5.2	6.3	3.8
mining and quarrying	%	1.7	2.7	0.4	1.6	2.4	0.5
manufacturing	%	27.7	29.8	25.0	27.4	29.9	24.2
electricity, gas, water	%	1.7	2.4	0.9	1.6	2.3	0.8
construction	%	9.4	15.5	1.8	9.4	15.3	1.7
trade & repair	%	13.7	11.4	16.6	12.9	10.7	15.8
hotels & restaurants	%	3.4	2.6	4.4	3.4	2.6	4.5
transport & communication	%	7.8	9.6	5.6	7.9	9.6	5.8
financial intermediation	%	2.1	1.3	3.1	2.0	1.2	3.1
real estate & business	%	5.4	5.3	5.5	5.7	5.6	5.8
public administration	%	6.3	5.8	6.9	6.6	6.3	7.0
education	%	6.0	2.5	10.5	6.4	2.6	11.2
health & social work	%	5.6	1.7	10.7	6.1	2.0	11.3
other services	%	3.8	3.0	4.8	3.7	3.2	4.4
self-employed	% of total	13.9	18.0	8.7	14.5	18.7	9.0
part-time	% of total	5.7	2.5	9.7	5.3	2.2	9.2
temporary	% of employees	7.4	6.1	8.9	8.1	7.0	9.4
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	43.3	44.1	42.4	43.3	44.0	42.4
part-time employees	average	26.2	24.5	26.7	25.8	24.4	26.2
self-employed	average	51.4	53.7	45.2	51.0	53.1	45.6
Unemployment							
total	1000	434	203	231	448	207	240
by age groups							
15-24	rate	16.6	16.3	16.9	17.0	17.4	16.4
25-54	rate	7.4	5.8	9.3	7.8	6.0	10.0
55-64	rate	4.9	4.8	4.9	5.3	5.3	5.2
15-64	rate	8.5	7.2	10.2	8.8	7.4	10.6
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	20.7	22.6	19.4	22.6	26.1	20.1
upper secondary	rate	7.7	6.4	9.4	7.8	6.3	9.7
tertiary	rate	3.0	2.6	3.7	3.0	2.3	4.0
long-term	% of total	36.6	32.1	40.5	50.0	49.1	50.7
registered unemployment							
total	1000	435	207	228	451	218	234
unemployment	rate	8.4	7.3	9.9	8.8	7.7	10.2

Estonia	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+4.7	-4.4	+18.1	-1.1	-1.7	+14.2

	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	1436	667	770	1430	663	767
age group 15-64	1000	966	464	502	972	470	502
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	26.1	27.0	25.4	26.2	26.4	26.1
upper secondary	%	50.5	54.7	47.0	51.3	56.0	47.2
tertiary	%	23.3	18.4	27.6	22.5	17.6	26.7
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	27.0	28.8	25.3	25.3	26.5	24.3
old age dependency	rate	21.7	14.8	28.0	21.8	14.8	28.4
activity age group 15-64	rate	70.3	76.2	64.8	70.0	75.6	64.8
effective dependency	rate	91.2	69.1	114.5	95.9	74.3	118.6
Employment							
total	1000	615	315	300	604	309	295
by age groups							
15-24	rate	29.2	34.1	24.4	27.4	31.4	23.2
25-54	rate	77.3	79.4	75.2	76.8	79.5	74.2
55-64	rate	47.9	59.2	39.3	43.0	50.2	37.5
65+	rate	7.6	11.0	5.9	7.3	10.8	5.7
15-64	rate	62.0	66.3	58.0	60.6	64.3	57.1
by education							
< upper secondary	%	11.6	13.9	9.2	10.7	12.2	9.2
upper secondary	%	56.9	61.0	52.5	57.4	63.7	50.8
tertiary	%	31.5	25.0	38.3	31.8	24.1	39.9
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	8.8	10.9	6.7	7.0	8.7	5.2
mining and quarrying	%	1.4	2.4	0.3	1.7	2.4	0.9
manufacturing	%	20.9	22.3	19.4	23.0	26.6	19.3
electricity, gas, water	%	3.0	4.1	1.8	2.1	2.9	1.3
construction	%	6.5	11.4	1.3	7.8	14.5	0.8
trade & repair	%	14.5	11.9	17.1	12.8	9.5	16.2
hotels & restaurants	%	2.1	0.6	3.7	3.0	0.9	5.1
transport & communication	%	8.9	13.0	4.7	10.4	14.7	5.9
financial intermediation	%	1.4	1.1	1.8	1.5	1.1	1.8
real estate & business	%	6.6	7.2	6.1	6.8	6.7	6.8
public administration	%	6.4	6.6	6.3	5.6	5.1	6.2
education	%	8.9	3.7	14.4	7.8	2.4	13.5
health & social work	%	5.7	1.6	10.0	4.8	1.2	8.6
other services	%	4.8	3.4	6.3	5.7	3.2	8.4
self-employed	% of total	8.2	10.6	5.6	8.1	9.7	6.4
part-time	% of total	7.1	5.2	9.0	6.7	4.2	9.3
temporary	% of employees	2.0	2.3	1.7	2.3	3.1	1.4
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	41.3	42.2	40.4	41.2	41.9	40.5
part-time employees	average	22.1	23.6	21.2	21.0	19.8	21.5
self-employed	average	46.5	48.2	43.1	46.2	48.2	43.0
Unemployment							
total	1000	80	46	34	92	53	38
by age groups							
15-24	rate	22.1	22.2	21.9	23.7	24.7	22.4
25-54	rate	11.2	12.4	10.0	12.8	13.9	11.5
55-64	rate	6.1	8.0	3.9	8.2	11.4	4.8
15-64	rate	11.8	13.1	10.5	13.5	15.0	11.8
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	20.4	21.6	18.3	25.3	26.9	23.1
upper secondary	rate	12.6	13.7	11.3	14.7	14.8	14.6
tertiary	rate	6.0	5.2	6.5	5.0	6.3	4.1
long-term	% of total	42.2	43.2	41.0	47.3	48.2	46.0
registered unemployment							
total	1000	44	19	25	43	18	25
unemployment	rate	6.7	5.7	7.7	6.6	5.5	7.8

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Hungary	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+4.9	+3.3	-11.7	+4.5	+5.8	-5.3

	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	9976	4753	5223	9927	4727	5200
age group 15-64	1000	6788	3314	3473	6760	3312	3448
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	34.2	27.7	40.1	38.5	34.0	42.7
upper secondary	%	54.4	61.0	48.4	50.3	54.7	46.2
tertiary	%	11.4	11.3	11.5	11.2	11.3	11.1
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	25.5	26.7	24.3	25.2	26.4	24.1
old age dependency	rate	21.5	16.7	26.1	21.6	16.3	26.7
activity age group 15-64	rate	59.6	67.5	52.0	59.9	67.6	52.5
effective dependency	rate	117.9	85.8	157.2	116.0	84.2	154.7
Employment							
total	1000	3785	2081	1703	3807	2092	1715
by age groups							
15-24	rate	34.9	38.6	31.2	33.1	37.0	29.2
25-54	rate	72.2	78.8	65.8	72.8	79.0	66.7
55-64	rate	19.1	29.3	11.1	21.9	33.0	13.0
65+	rate	1.5	2.5	0.9	1.7	2.7	1.1
15-64	rate	55.4	62.4	48.8	55.9	62.7	49.4
by education							
< upper secondary	%	14.9	12.8	17.6	17.4	16.1	19.1
upper secondary	%	67.3	71.3	62.4	65.5	68.4	61.9
tertiary	%	17.5	15.6	19.8	17.1	15.5	19.0
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	7.0	9.7	3.7	6.5	9.0	3.3
mining and quarrying	%	0.7	1.0	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.2
manufacturing	%	24.6	26.7	22.2	24.2	25.8	22.3
electricity, gas, water	%	2.3	3.0	1.4	2.0	2.7	1.0
construction	%	6.7	11.3	1.1	7.0	11.7	1.2
trade & repair	%	13.9	11.9	16.4	14.5	12.9	16.4
hotels & restaurants	%	3.7	3.1	4.3	3.5	2.9	4.3
transport & communication	%	8.1	10.7	4.9	8.1	10.7	4.9
financial intermediation	%	2.1	1.3	3.2	2.2	1.4	3.2
real estate & business	%	4.7	4.9	4.6	5.4	5.3	5.4
public administration	%	6.8	6.4	7.3	7.0	6.6	7.4
education	%	8.3	3.5	14.1	8.2	3.3	14.2
health & social work	%	6.4	2.6	11.1	6.5	2.9	10.9
other services	%	4.6	4.0	5.4	4.4	3.9	5.1
self-employed	% of total	14.9	18.8	10.2	14.6	18.7	9.6
part-time	% of total	3.5	2.1	5.3	3.2	1.8	5.0
temporary	% of employees	6.2	6.5	5.8	6.9	7.3	6.4
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	41.3	42.1	40.5	41.3	42.2	40.4
part-time employees	average	23.4	23.3	23.4	23.5	23.2	23.7
self-employed	average	45.5	46.6	43.2	45.6	46.8	43.1
Unemployment							
total	1000	282	169	113	267	162	105
by age groups							
15-24	rate	12.3	13.5	10.6	12.3	13.7	10.4
25-54	rate	6.2	6.7	5.7	5.9	6.3	5.3
55-64	rate	2.7	3.3	1.5	3.1	3.8	1.6
15-64	rate	7.0	7.5	6.2	6.6	7.2	5.8
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	13.7	16.2	11.4	11.5	13.3	9.6
upper secondary	rate	6.7	7.0	6.3	6.4	6.9	5.9
tertiary	rate	1.2	1.5	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.3
long-term	% of total	47.9	48.7	46.8	47.9	50.6	43.6
registered unemployment							
total	1000	407	222	186	375	199	176
unemployment	rate	9.7	9.6	9.8	9.0	8.7	9.3

Lithuania	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+5.1	+1.9	-28.5	-4.2	-5.5	+52.9
	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	3669	1373	1585	3698	1744	1954
age group 15-64	1000	2435	1183	1251	2472	1198	1274
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	36.3	36.1	36.4	31.3	28.7	33.5
upper secondary	%	32.0	34.6	29.8	36.8	42.0	32.3
tertiary	%	31.7	29.3	33.8	31.9	29.3	34.2
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	30.9	0.0	0.0	29.6	31.2	28.0
old age dependency	rate	19.8	14.1	25.2	20.0	14.3	25.4
activity age group 15-64	rate	72.6	77.7	67.7	71.5	75.5	67.6
effective dependency	rate	80.8	65.2	102.6	94.6	80.8	108.2
Employment							
total	1000	1613	831	782	1525	757	767
by age groups							
15-24	rate	33.8	38.3	29.2	26.7	30.2	23.2
25-54	rate	81.5	82.4	80.7	76.0	75.1	76.8
55-64	rate	42.6	56.7	31.8	42.2	52.2	34.5
65+	rate	6.2	9.7	4.3	7.8	9.7	6.8
15-64	rate	65.0	68.9	61.4	60.1	61.8	58.5
by education							
< upper secondary	%	17.8	21.7	13.7	11.4	13.3	9.6
upper secondary	%	37.4	39.7	34.9	42.6	46.8	38.5
tertiary	%	44.8	38.6	51.4	45.9	39.9	51.8
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	21.4	25.3	17.3	18.4	22.3	14.6
mining and quarrying	%	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
manufacturing	%	17.5	16.6	18.4	18.6	19.3	17.9
electricity, gas, water	%	2.3	3.2	1.3	2.6	3.3	1.9
construction	%	6.5	11.5	1.3	5.9	10.8	1.0
trade & repair	%	13.8	14.1	13.5	13.7	12.6	14.9
hotels & restaurants	%	1.7	0.7	2.8	1.8	1.1	2.5
transport & communication	%	6.5	8.5	4.3	6.8	9.2	4.5
financial intermediation	%	1.0	0.8	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.2
real estate & business	%	3.1	3.2	2.9	2.8	3.1	2.5
public administration	%	5.2	6.1	4.2	5.4	6.4	4.4
education	%	10.2	4.7	16.0	12.1	5.4	18.6
health & social work	%	6.5	2.0	11.2	6.6	1.7	11.5
other services	%	4.2	3.1	5.3	3.9	3.7	4.0
self-employed	% of total	17.0	20.3	13.4	15.9	19.2	12.7
part-time	% of total	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.6	7.6	9.6
temporary	% of employees	5.3	7.3	3.4	3.8	5.1	2.7
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	39.2	40.2	38.2	39.7	40.4	39.2
part-time employees	average				23.4	23.5	23.3
self-employed	average	40.0	41.0	38.3	39.9	40.6	38.9
Unemployment							
total	1000	183	104	79	280	164	116
by age groups							
15-24	rate	21.3	22.7	19.3	27.5	27.6	27.4
25-54	rate	9.4	10.0	8.9	15.1	17.5	12.8
55-64	rate	4.0	6.4	0.6	9.2	12.4	5.3
15-64	rate	10.4	11.4	9.3	15.9	18.2	13.5
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	15.3	16.9	12.5	22.5	25.5	18.0
upper secondary	rate	11.8	12.6	10.9	19.9	21.2	18.1
tertiary	rate	6.6	6.0	7.0	9.0	10.4	8.0
long-term	% of total	38.8	40.9	35.9	52.4	55.9	47.3
registered unemployment							
total	1000	134	69	65	197	108	88
unemployment	rate	7.7	7.7	7.7	11.4	12.5	10.3

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Latvia	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+3.9	-0.6	-9.0	+1.1	-2.2	+2.4

	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	2440	1128	1312	2424	1123	1301
age group 15-64	1000	1627	783	843	1636	788	848
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	29.7	28.8	30.4	30.6	29.7	31.4
upper secondary	%	56.2	58.1	54.6	55.3	56.6	54.1
tertiary	%	14.2	13.1	15.1	14.1	13.6	14.5
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	27.7	29.1	26.4	26.4	28.1	24.8
old age dependency	rate	22.3	14.9	29.2	21.7	14.4	28.5
activity age group 15-64	rate	69.1	76.2	62.6	68.0	73.6	62.8
effective dependency	rate	99.3	71.0	130.9	104.1	79.3	130.5
Employment							
total	1000	998	526	472	976	503	473
by age groups							
15-24	rate	33.2	37.6	28.7	30.4	35.2	25.6
25-54	rate	74.8	78.7	71.2	74.2	75.4	73.0
55-64	rate	36.6	50.3	26.4	35.4	48.3	25.9
65+	rate	8.3	12.2	6.4	6.6	10.2	5.0
15-64	rate	59.5	65.4	54.1	58.2	62.3	54.3
by education							
< upper secondary	%	13.4	16.0	10.6	12.7	14.9	10.3
upper secondary	%	66.2	67.3	65.0	66.3	66.9	65.7
tertiary	%	20.3	16.7	24.3	21.0	18.2	24.0
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	17.2	19.1	15.1	14.4	16.0	12.8
mining and quarrying	%	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.0
manufacturing	%	17.4	19.8	14.7	18.5	20.5	16.4
electricity, gas, water	%	2.2	3.0	1.3	2.1	2.8	1.3
construction	%	6.1	10.1	1.6	6.0	10.8	0.9
trade & repair	%	14.4	12.4	16.5	15.3	12.7	18.1
hotels & restaurants	%	2.1	0.9	3.4	2.3	1.2	3.5
transport & communication	%	8.5	11.4	5.4	8.5	11.5	5.3
financial intermediation	%	1.3	0.8	1.9	1.2	1.0	1.5
real estate & business	%	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.9	5.0	4.7
public administration	%	7.5	8.0	6.9	7.8	8.7	6.7
education	%	8.8	3.6	14.5	9.0	4.0	14.4
health & social work	%	5.5	2.4	9.0	5.0	1.2	9.1
other services	%	5.0	4.3	5.9	4.7	4.3	5.1
self-employed	% of total	11.1	12.9	9.2	10.5	12.5	8.4
part-time	% of total	11.9	10.9	12.9	10.7	9.5	12.1
temporary	% of employees	7.5	10.1	4.6	6.7	8.8	4.6
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	43.0	44.1	41.8	43.0	43.8	42.3
part-time employees	average	23.5	25.8	22.0	22.7	25.0	21.2
self-employed	average	46.5	48.4	43.9	45.6	47.4	42.8
Unemployment							
total	1000	183	104	79	280	164	116
by age groups							
15-24	rate	21.3	22.7	19.3	27.5	27.6	27.4
25-54	rate	9.4	10.0	8.9	15.1	17.5	12.8
55-64	rate	4.0	6.4	0.6	9.2	12.4	5.3
15-64	rate	10.4	11.4	9.3	15.9	18.2	13.5
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	17.5	18.9	15.1	21.2	23.7	17.1
upper secondary	rate	15.0	14.3	15.7	14.7	14.8	14.6
tertiary	rate	6.3	7.6	5.3	7.1	7.0	7.2
long-term	% of total	53.0	52.0	54.1	55.9	56.2	55.5
registered unemployment							
total	1000	120	50	70	100	43	57
unemployment	rate	10.7	8.7	12.9	9.3	7.9	10.8

Poland	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+4.8	-2.8	+18.9	+4.0	-2.8	+35.0

	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	37997	18372	19625	38093	18426	19667
age group 15-64	1000	25252	12457	12795	25652	12670	12982
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	35.2	32.0	38.1	33.1	29.7	36.2
upper secondary	%	56.4	59.5	53.5	58.3	62.1	54.9
tertiary	%	8.4	8.5	8.4	8.6	8.2	8.9
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	31.1	32.3	29.9	29.5	30.6	28.4
old age dependency	rate	19.3	15.1	23.4	19.0	14.8	23.1
activity age group 15-64	rate	65.8	72.1	59.6	66.1	71.8	60.5
effective dependency	rate	101.7	75.7	133.1	110.3	82.5	144.3
Employment							
total	1000	14940	8164	6776	14518	7975	6543
by age groups							
15-24	rate	24.3	27.2	21.5	24.1	26.4	21.9
25-54	rate	73.7	79.8	67.6	71.0	77.5	64.5
55-64	rate	32.5	41.8	24.5	29.0	37.4	21.8
65+	rate	8.5	12.7	6.0	7.6	12.0	4.9
15-64	rate	57.5	63.6	51.6	55.1	61.2	49.3
by education							
< upper secondary	%	16.5	16.7	16.2	14.8	14.9	14.8
upper secondary	%	70.1	71.4	68.7	71.3	73.5	68.6
tertiary	%	13.4	11.9	15.1	13.9	11.6	16.6
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.7	18.9	18.4
mining and quarrying	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.1	3.2	0.7
manufacturing	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	19.8	22.9	15.9
electricity, gas, water	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.8	2.7	0.7
construction	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.4	12.3	1.5
trade & repair	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.0	12.0	16.5
hotels & restaurants	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.7	0.9	2.6
transport & communication	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.2	8.4	3.5
financial intermediation	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	1.4	3.9
real estate & business	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.5	3.6	3.4
public administration	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.3	5.3	5.4
education	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.9	3.0	11.6
health & social work	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.5	2.1	11.8
other services	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6	3.2	4.1
self-employed	% of total	22.8	26.1	19.0	22.5	25.9	18.4
part-time	% of total	9.6	7.4	12.2	10.6	8.4	13.2
temporary	% of employees	4.8	5.1	4.5	5.8	6.6	4.8
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average						
part-time employees	average						
self-employed	average						
Unemployment							
total	1000	2085	1060	1025	2815	1351	1463
by age groups							
15-24	rate	29.6	27.9	31.6	35.7	34.3	37.2
25-54	rate	10.6	9.9	11.6	14.2	12.3	16.3
55-64	rate	7.3	8.5	5.6	9.7	9.1	10.6
15-64	rate	12.6	11.8	13.4	16.6	14.8	18.6
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	17.0	17.6	16.4	21.5	20.9	22.1
upper secondary	rate	12.7	11.4	14.3	17.0	14.6	20.0
tertiary	rate	3.2	2.9	3.5	5.5	5.0	5.9
long-term	% of total	41.6	36.5	46.8	44.6	40.2	48.6
registered unemployment							
total	1000	2170	981	1189	2437	1069	1368
unemployment	rate	12.7	10.7	14.9	14.4	11.8	17.3

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Romania	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	-5.4	-1.8	+10.4	-3.2	-1.1	+11.3
	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	22358	10870	11487	22338	10863	11475
age group 15-64	1000	15190	7477	7713	15213	7499	7714
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	43.6	37.8	49.0	43.2	37.2	48.8
upper secondary	%	49.8	54.4	45.5	49.9	54.8	45.4
tertiary	%	6.6	7.8	5.5	6.9	8.0	5.8
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	28.1	29.1	27.0	27.3	28.4	26.3
old age dependency	rate	19.1	16.2	21.9	19.5	16.5	22.4
activity age group 15-64	rate	69.8	76.1	63.7	69.6	75.7	63.6
effective dependency	rate	64.2	49.7	80.4	66.8	51.9	83.5
Employment							
total	1000	11022	5808	5214	10898	5750	5148
by age groups							
15-24	rate	35.3	38.8	31.9	34.0	36.9	31.1
25-54	rate	79.6	85.2	74.1	78.6	84.6	72.7
55-64	rate	52.9	59.4	47.3	52.0	57.4	47.3
65+	rate	39.7	45.0	35.8	38.2	43.5	34.4
15-64	rate	65.0	70.4	59.7	64.2	69.5	59.0
by education							
< upper secondary	%	37.1	32.2	42.6	36.8	32.0	42.3
upper secondary	%	54.5	58.8	49.7	54.4	58.8	49.6
tertiary	%	8.4	9.0	7.7	8.7	9.2	8.1
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	44.0	40.8	47.6	45.2	42.8	47.9
mining and quarrying	%	1.7	2.8	0.5	1.6	2.6	0.5
manufacturing	%	19.6	20.6	18.5	18.6	19.2	18.0
electricity, gas, water	%	2.1	3.2	0.8	1.8	2.7	0.9
construction	%	3.6	6.1	0.9	3.7	6.1	1.0
trade & repair	%	8.3	6.9	9.8	8.3	6.9	9.9
hotels & restaurants	%	1.1	0.7	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.4
transport & communication	%	4.4	6.2	2.4	4.5	6.5	2.2
financial intermediation	%	0.8	0.4	1.2	0.9	0.5	1.3
real estate & business	%	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.1
public administration	%	3.7	5.0	2.4	3.9	5.1	2.7
education	%	4.0	2.3	5.9	4.0	2.1	6.1
health & social work	%	3.1	1.3	5.0	2.9	1.1	5.0
other services	%	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.1
self-employed	% of total	23.8	30.1	16.8	25.4	32.6	17.4
part-time	% of total	16.5	14.0	19.2	16.4	14.3	18.6
temporary	% of employees	3.1	3.0	3.2	2.9	3.0	2.9
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	41.1	41.3	40.9	41.4	41.6	41.1
part-time employees	average	34.0	37.9	29.6	32.4	33.5	31.7
self-employed	average	41.3	43.1	37.2	40.4	41.8	37.3
Unemployment							
total	1000	733	428	305	816	466	351
by age groups							
15-24	rate	17.3	18.8	15.5	17.8	19.3	15.9
25-54	rate	5.8	6.2	5.5	6.9	7.1	6.7
55-64	rate	0.9	1.5	0.3	1.1	1.7	0.4
15-64	rate	6.9	7.5	6.2	7.7	8.2	7.1
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	3.6	4.8	2.5	3.9	4.9	3.1
upper secondary	rate	8.5	8.6	8.3	9.4	9.4	9.5
tertiary	rate	2.7	2.5	3.0	3.6	4.0	3.1
long-term	% of total	45.2	41.8	50.0	49.2	50.2	48.0
registered unemployment							
total	1000	1122	600	522	1067	564	503
unemployment	rate	9.2	9.4	9.1	8.9	8.9	8.9

Slovenia	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+3.8	-2.0	-6.4	+5.0	+0.6	-5.4

	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	1980	964	1015	1988	971	1018
age group 15-64	1000	1379	698	681	1393	704	689
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	35.4	28.8	41.5	33.9	27.8	39.7
upper secondary	%	53.1	59.9	46.6	53.9	60.2	48.1
tertiary	%	11.6	11.3	11.9	12.1	12.0	12.2
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	23.4	23.8	23.1	22.7	23.0	22.4
old age dependency	rate	20.1	14.3	26.0	20.0	14.9	25.3
activity age group 15-64	rate	67.6	72.2	63.0	67.4	71.7	63.1
effective dependency	rate	86.4	66.3	110.1	87.1	68.1	109.3
Employment							
total	1000	889	480	409	894	481	413
by age groups							
15-24	rate	32.9	34.7	31.2	31.2	34.7	27.4
25-54	rate	82.2	85.6	78.6	82.6	85.5	79.6
55-64	rate	23.4	32.2	14.9	22.3	31.0	14.3
65+	rate	9.4	13.3	7.3	7.4	10.8	5.4
15-64	rate	62.5	66.8	58.1	62.7	66.7	58.5
by education							
< upper secondary	%	21.0	18.8	23.5	19.9	18.0	22.2
upper secondary	%	62.5	67.0	57.1	62.8	67.4	57.4
tertiary	%	16.6	14.2	19.3	17.3	14.6	20.4
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	10.8	10.7	11.0	9.6	9.5	9.7
mining and quarrying	%	0.7	1.3	0.1	0.8	1.4	0.3
manufacturing	%	31.1	35.2	26.4	30.3	33.5	26.5
electricity, gas, water	%	0.9	1.3	0.4	1.1	1.7	0.5
construction	%	5.1	8.6	1.0	5.4	9.0	1.2
trade & repair	%	12.3	11.2	13.6	13.4	11.9	15.1
hotels & restaurants	%	3.8	3.0	4.7	3.8	3.0	4.8
transport & communication	%	6.0	8.8	2.8	6.7	9.7	3.3
financial intermediation	%	2.3	1.1	3.7	2.4	1.5	3.6
real estate & business	%	5.5	5.2	5.9	4.8	5.1	4.5
public administration	%	5.5	5.3	5.8	6.0	5.5	6.4
education	%	6.7	2.9	11.2	6.4	2.6	10.9
health & social work	%	5.1	1.9	8.8	5.2	2.0	9.0
other services	%	4.1	3.5	4.8	3.9	3.6	4.3
self-employed	% of total	12.6	16.6	8.0	11.2	15.3	6.5
part-time	% of total	6.6	5.6	7.8	6.1	4.7	7.7
temporary	% of employees	10.8	10.0	11.7	12.9	12.4	13.5
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	41.5	42.0	40.9	41.4	41.8	41.0
part-time employees	average	17.8	17.0	18.4	19.3	18.4	19.9
self-employed	average	50.4	51.1	48.6	49.8	50.5	48.0
Unemployment							
total	1000	70	37	33	66	35	31
by age groups							
15-24	rate	18.5	17.2	19.8	16.4	14.8	18.5
25-54	rate	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.8	5.7	6.0
55-64	rate	3.7	4.8	1.5	6.1	7.6	2.9
15-64	rate	7.5	7.4	7.7	7.1	6.9	7.2
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	9.9	10.5	9.3	10.6	11.4	9.8
upper secondary	rate	7.5	7.1	8.2	6.9	6.6	7.4
tertiary	rate	3.0	3.2	2.9	2.2	1.4	2.9
long-term	% of total	41.8	45.2	38.0	62.7	64.9	60.3
registered unemployment							
total	1000	117	57	60	103	51	53
unemployment	rate	11.6	10.6	12.8	10.3	9.6	11.4

Slovakia	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+4.1	-3.3	+31.8	+1.9	-2.1	+21.4

	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	5369	2599	2770	5377	2604	2773
age group 15-64	1000	3657	1802	1855	3692	1821	1871
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%	30.1	23.6	36.1	28.8	22.6	34.5
upper secondary	%	62.5	67.9	57.6	63.5	68.8	58.7
tertiary	%	7.3	8.5	6.3	7.6	8.5	6.8
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	30.1	31.3	29.0	29.0	30.0	27.9
old age dependency	rate	16.7	13.0	20.3	16.7	12.9	20.3
activity age group 15-64	rate	69.0	76.3	62.0	69.5	76.5	62.8
effective dependency	rate	100.5	75.6	130.2	106.8	82.8	135.0
Employment							
total	1000	2128	1159	969	2083	1125	958
by age groups							
15-24	rate	31.1	33.1	29.1	28.3	28.7	27.9
25-54	rate	75.9	81.3	70.5	74.2	79.1	69.3
55-64	rate	22.2	36.4	10.6	21.5	35.2	10.2
65+	rate	1.2	2.2	0.5	0.8	1.6	0.4
15-64	rate	58.0	64.0	52.1	56.3	61.6	51.1
by education							
< upper secondary	%	8.2	6.3	10.4	6.9	5.0	9.2
upper secondary	%	80.0	81.8	77.9	80.7	82.8	78.3
tertiary	%	11.8	11.9	11.6	12.4	12.3	12.5
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	7.2	9.3	4.8	6.9	9.2	4.3
mining and quarrying	%	1.4	2.3	0.4	1.2	2.0	0.3
manufacturing	%	25.7	28.0	22.9	25.8	28.3	22.9
electricity, gas, water	%	2.4	3.6	0.9	2.2	3.5	0.8
construction	%	9.0	14.9	1.9	8.0	13.5	1.5
trade & repair	%	12.4	8.8	16.6	12.5	9.5	15.9
hotels & restaurants	%	3.1	2.1	4.3	3.0	2.1	4.1
transport & communication	%	7.8	10.1	4.9	8.2	10.5	5.6
financial intermediation	%	1.7	0.9	2.8	1.8	1.1	2.5
real estate & business	%	3.7	4.1	3.1	4.1	4.6	3.6
public administration	%	7.1	7.1	7.0	7.7	7.0	8.5
education	%	7.8	3.1	13.5	7.8	3.2	13.2
health & social work	%	7.3	2.5	13.0	7.0	2.4	12.5
other services	%	3.5	3.2	3.9	3.7	3.2	4.3
self-employed	% of total	7.4	10.1	4.2	7.8	10.9	4.1
part-time	% of total	1.9	1.0	3.0	1.7	0.9	2.8
temporary	% of employees	3.7	3.8	3.7	4.0	3.8	4.3
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average	42.2	42.7	41.7	42.2	42.7	41.7
part-time employees	average	24.8	25.8	24.4	24.1	24.2	24.0
self-employed	average	50.9	52.0	48.0	50.7	51.3	48.8
Unemployment							
total	1000	403	220	183	490	271	219
by age groups							
15-24	rate	32.0	33.1	30.8	36.9	40.0	33.3
25-54	rate	13.0	12.8	13.1	15.9	15.8	16.0
55-64	rate	10.3	11.7	6.2	12.7	14.2	8.0
15-64	rate	16.0	16.0	15.9	19.1	19.5	18.6
by education							
< upper secondary	rate	34.1	39.4	29.7	40.4	48.7	33.6
upper secondary	rate	15.1	15.0	15.2	18.4	18.4	18.4
tertiary	rate	4.1	4.0	4.3	5.3	6.1	4.3
long-term	% of total	47.6	44.3	51.5	54.7	54.5	54.8
registered unemployment							
total	1000	496	271	226	541	298	243
unemployment	rate	18.9	18.9	18.9	20.6	20.9	20.2

Albania	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+8.0			+8.0		
	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000	3373	1662	1711			
age group 15-64	1000	2083	1013	1070			
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%						
upper secondary	%						
tertiary	%						
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate	52.5	55.7	49.4			
old age dependency	rate	9.5	8.4	10.5			
activity age group 15-64	rate						
effective dependency	rate						
Employment							
total	1000	1065	661	404			
by age groups							
15-24	rate						
25-54	rate						
55-64	rate						
65+	rate						
15-64	rate						
by education (public sector)							
< upper secondary	%	20.8					
upper secondary	%	51.0					
tertiary	%	28.2					
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%	72.2					
mining and quarrying	%	1.5					
manufacturing	%	5.0					
electricity, gas, water	%	1.2					
construction	%	1.1					
trade & repair	%	2.7					
hotels & restaurants	%	1.3					
transport & communication	%	3.0					
financial intermediation	%						
real estate & business	%						
public administration	%						
education	%	4.5					
health & social work	%	2.4					
other services	%	5.2					
self-employed	% of total						
part-time	% of total						
temporary	% of employees						
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average						
part-time employees	average						
self-employed	average						
Unemployment							
total	1000	240	130	110	215	113	102
by age groups							
under 35	% of total	58.5	54.6	63.1			
35 and more	% of total	41.5	45.4	36.9			
by education							
< upper secondary	% of total	47.9			48.7		
upper secondary	% of total	49.2			48.7		
tertiary	% of total	2.9			2.7		
long-term	% of total	90.2	89.4	91.3	89.7	88.7	90.8
registered unemployment							
total	1000	240	130	110	215	113	102
unemployment	rate	18.4	16.4	21.4			

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FYROM	unit	1999			2000		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP(1998)	Employed	Unemployed	GDP(1999)	Employed	Unemployed
annual change	%	+2.9			+2.7		

	unit	1999			2000		
		all	male	female	all	male	female
Population							
total	1000				1534	759	775
age group 15-64	1000				1347		
age group 15-64 by education							
< upper secondary	%						
upper secondary	%						
tertiary	%						
dependency and activity							
youth dependency	rate				33.4		
old age dependency	rate				13.9		
activity age group 15-64	rate				59.7	64.4	41.7
effective dependency	rate				179.0		
Employment							
total	1000				550	340	210
by age groups							
15-24	rate				15.1		
25-54	rate				53.2		
55-64	rate				26.2		
65+	rate				3.7		
15-64	rate				40.3	44.7	27.1
by education							
< upper secondary	%						
upper secondary	%						
tertiary	%						
by economic activity							
agriculture & fishery	%						
mining and quarrying	%						
manufacturing	%						
electricity, gas, water	%						
construction	%						
trade & repair	%						
hotels & restaurants	%						
transport & communication	%						
financial intermediation	%						
real estate & business	%						
public administration	%						
education	%						
health & social work	%						
other services	%						
self-employed	% of total				14.8	19.1	7.8
part-time	% of total				7.2	6.5	8.3
temporary	% of employees				10.3	11.1	9.0
usual weekly hours							
full-time employees	average						
part-time employees	average						
self-employed	average						
Unemployment							
total	1000				262	149	113
by age groups							
15-24	rate				59.9		
25-54	rate				28.6		
55-64	rate				16.3		
15-64	rate				32.5	30.5	34.9
by education							
< upper secondary	rate						
upper secondary	rate						
tertiary	rate						
long-term	% of total						
registered unemployment							
total	1000						
unemployment	rate						

Country		Population		Employment						
					all	males	females	in agri-	in	in
Country		total	15-64	total	15-64	15-64	15-64	culture	industry	services
Region	Year	(1000)	(1000)	(1000)	(rate)	(rate)	(rate)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Bulgaria	**2000**	**8136**	**5499**	**2734**	**49.2**	**53.4**	**45.3**	**9.2**	**34.2**	**56.6**
North-East	2000	1336	915	417	45.1	50.9	39.5	13.2	29.3	57.4
North Central	2000	1219	804	385	47.3	51.6	43.1	9.7	40.0	50.2
North-West	2000	581	367	156	42.4	43.4	41.5	6.7	35.1	58.2
South-East	2000	820	558	238	42.3	47.4	37.5	9.1	33.0	57.9
South Central	2000	2051	1384	697	49.7	53.8	45.9	15.1	37.6	47.3
South-West	2000	2129	1471	841	56.8	60.5	53.3	2.6	31.4	66.0
Czech Republic	**2000**	**10222**	**7111**	**4675**	**64.9**	**73.1**	**56.8**	**5.2**	**39.9**	**54.8**
Praha	2000	1180	823	607	71.4	77.3	65.9	0.7	21.7	77.7
Stredni Cechy	2000	1107	767	515	66.5	76.0	57.0	5.6	41.2	53.2
Jihozapad	2000	1172	815	560	68.1	77.0	59.1	7.5	42.3	50.2
Severozapad	2000	1124	793	484	60.4	68.9	52.0	3.6	41.2	55.2
Severovychod	2000	1481	1022	689	66.4	74.4	58.5	6.2	43.5	50.3
Jihovychod	2000	1652	1141	757	65.7	74.1	57.4	7.8	41.0	51.2
Stredni Morava	2000	1233	856	538	62.5	72.1	53.1	5.8	45.6	48.6
Ostravsko	2000	1275	894	525	58.4	65.5	51.3	3.5	44.2	52.3
Estonia	**2000**	**1430**	**972**	**604**	**60.6**	**64.3**	**57.1**	**7.0**	**34.7**	**58.3**
Hungary	**2000**	**9927**	**6760**	**3807**	**55.9**	**62.7**	**49.4**	**6.5**	**33.8**	**59.8**
Közep-Magyarorszag	2000	2807	1941	1180	60.2	66.8	54.2	1.5	27.0	71.4
Közep-Dunantul	2000	1097	761	449	58.8	65.8	51.9	6.4	42.7	50.9
Nyugat-Dunantul	2000	972	667	423	63.1	70.4	56.0	6.1	41.5	52.4
Del-Dunantul	2000	964	655	349	53.1	59.6	46.9	10.0	32.4	57.6
Eszak-Magyarorszag	2000	1256	841	417	49.2	55.3	43.3	5.3	38.3	56.4
Eszak-Alföld	2000	1506	1009	491	48.4	55.1	41.8	8.6	34.9	56.5
Del-Alföld	2000	1326	886	497	55.7	63.6	48.1	14.9	31.2	53.9
Lithuania	**2000**	**3698**	**2472**	**1525**	**60.1**	**61.8**	**58.5**	**18.4**	**27.4**	**54.2**
Latvia	**2000**	**2424**	**1636**	**976**	**58.2**	**62.3**	**54.3**	**14.4**	**26.8**	**58.7**
Poland	**2000**	**37955**	**25652**	**14518**	**55.1**	**61.2**	**49.3**	**18.7**	**31.1**	**50.3**
Dolnoslaskie	2000	2792	1903	972	50.7	56.0	45.4	10.1	33.0	56.9
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	2000	2140	1481	785	52.5	59.2	46.1	17.6	31.8	50.6
Lubelskie	2000	2387	1570	997	60.2	64.0	56.5	40.2	20.0	39.8
Lubuskie	2000	1035	716	359	49.6	55.4	43.8	9.9	35.8	54.3
Lodzkie	2000	2957	2092	1202	56.0	61.1	51.4	14.7	30.6	54.6
Malopolskie	2000	3320	2221	1350	59.0	64.4	53.7	21.2	30.4	48.4
Mazowieckie	2000	5011	3315	2109	61.2	67.0	55.5	19.4	25.2	55.5
Opolskie	2000	1069	729	418	55.9	65.1	46.9	21.8	35.2	43.0
Podkarpackie	2000	2082	1356	808	56.3	59.9	52.7	29.1	28.2	42.7
Podlaskie	2000	1155	743	452	58.4	65.4	51.3	33.4	23.2	43.4
Pomorskie	2000	1918	1262	672	53.0	61.6	44.9	10.3	30.7	59.0
Slaskie	2000	3999	2682	1324	48.7	55.6	41.8	4.3	47.7	48.0
Swietokrzyskie	2000	1381	941	527	53.4	58.8	47.9	30.3	26.8	42.9
Warminsko-Mazurskie	2000	1517	1041	529	50.5	56.3	44.8	12.5	30.7	56.8
Wielkopolskie	2000	3561	2493	1434	56.7	63.8	49.8	20.6	34.6	44.8
Zachodniopomorskie	2000	1632	1107	578	51.7	58.6	45.0	7.0	31.8	61.2
Romania	**2000**	**22338**	**15213**	**10898**	**64.2**	**69.5**	**59.0**	**45.2**	**25.8**	**29.0**
Nord-Est	2000	3817	2524	1975	67.2	70.5	63.8	58.5	19.2	22.2
Sud-Est	2000	2929	2005	1377	61.9	68.0	56.0	48.2	21.3	30.5
Sud	2000	3462	2319	1781	66.9	73.8	60.1	51.0	25.1	23.9
Sud-Vest	2000	2403	1610	1324	70.0	73.2	66.9	61.3	20.0	18.7
Vest	2000	2022	1398	936	61.6	67.1	56.4	40.1	26.8	33.1
Nord-Vest	2000	2834	1939	1343	63.2	68.2	58.3	42.1	27.4	30.5
Centru	2000	2633	1821	1188	61.1	66.3	55.9	32.5	37.4	30.1
Bucuresti	2000	2238	1599	973	59.5	67.1	52.8	6.1	37.3	56.5
Slovenia	**2000**	**1988**	**1393**	**894**	**62.7**	**66.7**	**58.5**	**9.6**	**37.7**	**52.7**
Slovak Republic	**2000**	**5377**	**3692**	**2083**	**56.3**	**61.6**	**51.1**	**6.9**	**37.3**	**55.8**
Bratislavsky kraj	2000	615	439	311	70.2	75.3	65.5	2.5	22.4	75.1
Zapadne Slovensko	2000	1869	1297	731	56.3	62.1	50.7	8.9	40.4	50.6
Stredne Slovensko	2000	1350	921	505	54.7	61.8	47.8	6.5	41.1	52.4
Vychodne Slovensko	2000	1544	1035	536	51.7	55.1	48.4	7.2	37.8	55.0

Employment			Unemployment							
self-employed (% of total)	temporary (% of em-ployees)	part-time (% of total)	total (1000)	all 15-64 (rate)	males 15-64 (rate)	females 15-64 (rate)	youth unempl. (rate)	long-term unempl. (% of total)	Year	Country Region
12.6	**X**	**X**	**624.5**	**18.7**	**19.0**	**18.4**	**39.4**	**52.8**	**2000**	**Bulgaria**
16.8	X	X	143.0	25.7	24.3	27.5	49.4	49.7	2000	North-East
11.3	X	X	93.9	19.8	19.9	19.7	38.2	51.9	2000	North Central
9.8	X	X	60.4	28.0	30.3	25.4	46.0	69.8	2000	North-West
11.0	X	X	88.4	27.2	25.9	28.8	51.7	57.3	2000	South-East
17.1	X	X	127.2	15.6	16.7	14.3	36.3	48.5	2000	South Central
8.5	X	X	111.5	11.8	12.3	11.2	27.9	49.7	2000	South-West
14.5	**8.1**	**5.3**	**447.5**	**8.8**	**7.4**	**10.6**	**17.0**	**49.1**	**2000**	**Czech Republic**
20.0	6.5	6.1	25.0	4.1	3.7	4.5	11.3	29.4	2000	Praha
15.5	6.0	5.1	42.0	7.6	5.5	10.3	11.6	51.3	2000	Stredni Cechy
14.3	7.5	5.6	35.8	6.1	4.8	7.7	10.8	41.4	2000	Jihozapad
12.5	9.1	3.8	84.9	15.1	13.8	16.6	25.6	56.8	2000	Severozapad
14.7	10.3	6.1	50.3	6.9	5.5	8.6	14.3	41.6	2000	Severovychod
13.8	7.9	5.2	58.0	7.2	5.8	8.9	12.7	46.9	2000	Jihovychod
13.2	8.7	5.6	65.2	10.9	8.7	13.6	20.0	47.6	2000	Stredni Morava
10.8	8.8	4.4	86.4	14.2	12.4	16.4	30.5	56.5	2000	Ostravsko
8.1	**2.3**	**6.7**	**91.7**	**13.5**	**15.0**	**11.8**	**23.7**	**47.4**	**2000**	**Estonia**
14.6	**6.9**	**3.2**	**266.9**	**6.6**	**7.2**	**5.8**	**12.3**	**47.8**	**2000**	**Hungary**
15.1	4.9	3.4	67.9	5.5	5.9	5.1	11.6	49.4	2000	Közep-Magyarorszag
13.3	5.7	2.9	24.5	5.2	5.3	5.1	8.0	42.0	2000	Közep-Dunantul
12.9	5.7	2.5	19.3	4.4	4.1	4.8	8.4	44.8	2000	Nyugat-Dunantul
16.4	9.5	3.9	29.8	7.9	9.2	6.2	12.4	46.1	2000	Del-Dunantul
12.6	10.1	3.6	46.1	10.0	11.8	7.8	20.2	53.3	2000	Eszak-Magyarorszag
12.3	8.1	3.4	52.9	9.8	10.6	8.6	16.7	48.7	2000	Eszak-Alföld
18.8	8.2	3.0	26.4	5.1	5.6	4.4	8.0	41.9	2000	Del-Alföld
15.9	**3.7**	**8.6**	**280.5**	**15.9**	**18.2**	**13.5**	**27.5**	**52.4**	**2000**	**Lithuania**
10.5	**6.7**	**10.7**	**160.2**	**14.4**	**15.3**	**13.5**	**21.2**	**55.8**	**2000**	**Latvia**
22.5	**5.8**	**10.6**	**2814.5**	**16.6**	**14.8**	**18.6**	**35.7**	**44.7**	**2000**	**Poland**
19.7	5.8	9.6	284.6	22.8	21.1	24.7	42.1	45.7	2000	Dolnoslaskie
21.5	4.8	7.9	173.5	18.2	16.3	20.5	38.1	54.4	2000	Kujawsko-Pomorskie
32.8	7.4	18.2	155.4	14.1	13.5	14.8	34.9	41.5	2000	Lubelskie
15.8	6.0	9.4	96.7	21.4	18.7	24.5	35.4	30.6	2000	Lubuskie
23.1	4.4	10.9	231.0	16.5	15.9	17.1	41.2	50.1	2000	Lodzkie
25.6	5.3	13.7	177.8	12.0	11.0	13.1	27.6	42.1	2000	Malopolskie
23.6	4.6	9.3	318.3	13.6	13.1	14.1	32.0	41.9	2000	Mazowieckie
17.9	8.9	10.0	71.3	14.9	10.0	20.7	31.4	25.3	2000	Opolskie
24.9	5.6	13.6	137.2	15.2	15.7	14.7	41.6	51.9	2000	Podkarpackie
33.6	7.5	12.6	84.3	16.3	14.1	18.9	30.9	53.5	2000	Podlaskie
16.1	4.5	7.9	139.1	17.2	14.0	21.0	33.6	43.7	2000	Pomorskie
12.7	5.7	9.1	305.9	19.0	15.5	23.1	34.1	38.1	2000	Slaskie
35.1	6.6	10.3	106.6	17.5	16.3	19.0	40.3	46.9	2000	Swietokrzyskie
16.0	9.8	6.8	152.8	22.5	20.7	24.6	41.2	49.1	2000	Warminsko-Mazurskie
23.9	6.0	10.0	234.9	14.3	10.8	18.1	32.9	43.7	2000	Wielkopolskie
15.4	6.0	6.5	145.0	20.2	17.5	23.4	46.2	52.8	2000	Zachodniopomorskie
25.4	**2.9**	**16.4**	**816.1**	**7.7**	**8.2**	**7.1**	**17.8**	**49.2**	**2000**	**Romania**
32.9	3.4	25.4	145.2	7.9	8.1	7.7	15.3	53.0	2000	Nord-Est
26.1	3.8	18.2	134.7	9.8	10.1	9.4	20.1	40.0	2000	Sud-Est
29.2	2.7	17.4	125.1	7.5	8.0	6.8	21.4	45.5	2000	Sud
30.5	2.1	6.2	69.5	5.8	6.0	5.6	14.0	49.0	2000	Sud-Vest
21.0	2.8	16.3	76.9	8.2	9.2	7.0	20.9	45.0	2000	Vest
24.5	2.6	12.6	100.8	7.6	8.0	7.1	15.4	48.0	2000	Nord-Vest
20.2	3.1	20.4	94.8	7.9	8.6	7.0	16.6	63.3	2000	Centru
7.0	2.7	7.4	69.0	6.8	7.5	6.0	22.4	53.5	2000	Bucuresti
11.2	**12.9**	**6.1**	**66.4**	**7.1**	**6.9**	**7.2**	**16.4**	**62.7**	**2000**	**Slovenia**
7.8	**4.0**	**1.7**	**489.6**	**19.1**	**19.5**	**18.6**	**36.9**	**53.8**	**2000**	**Slovak Republic**
10.2	3.4	2.0	24.6	7.4	7.2	7.6	18.9	29.7	2000	Bratislavsky kraj
8.2	2.7	1.6	155.7	17.6	17.7	17.5	32.8	53.3	2000	Zapadne Slovensko
7.1	3.6	2.2	134.3	21.0	19.9	22.4	37.5	54.4	2000	Stredne Slovensko
6.4	6.7	1.4	175.1	24.6	26.8	22.1	47.4	57.3	2000	Vychodne Slovensko

Abbreviations and methodological notes

Abbreviations

Countries

CC	Candidate Country: BG, CZ, EE, HU, LT, LV, PL, RO, SI, SK
CEC	Central European Country: CCs plus AL, BA, FYROM
BG	Bulgaria
CZ	Czech Republic
EE	Estonia
HU	Hungary
LT	Lithuania
LV	Latvia
PL	Poland
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
AL	Albania
BA	Bosnia and Hercegovina
FYROM	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (in text)
MK	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (in tables and graphs)

Institutions and Programmes

EC	European Community
EU	European Union
Eurostat	Statistical Office of the European Communities
IAB	Institut für Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung, Nuremberg
ILO	International Labour Office
ICLS	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ICON	Icon-Institute, Cologne
NSI	National Statistical Institute
PHARE	Poland and Hungary: Action for the Restructuring of the Economy
TACIS	Technical Assistance to the Commonwealth of Independent States
EKDK	Eesti Korgkoolidevaheline Demouuringute Keskus
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

Concepts and Classifications

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICSE	International Classification of Status in Employment
ISIC	International Standard Industrial Classification
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
LFS	Labour Force Survey

NACE	Nomenclature general des Activités Économiques dans les Communeautés Européennes
NUTS	Nomenclature des Unités Territoriales pour Statistiques

Methodological notes

Major concepts and measures are described in "Data sources and methods" or in the text of the respective sections. The following notes are devoted to specific conditions and circumstances that should be taken into account in interpreting the information presented here or comparing it with other sources.

Reference period

The LFS data included here generally refer to the second quarter of 1999 or 2000. They may therefore not be directly comparable to data representing annual averages or referring to other points in time, e.g. mid-year or the end of the year.

The LFS data from Poland for the year 1999 refer to the first quarter.

The LFS data from Bulgaria for the year 2000 refer to the first quarter.

The administrative data from Albania for 1999 and 2000 refer to the end of the year.

Respondents

Generally, the LFS includes the resident population living in private households. Persons living in collective households and conscripts in compulsory military or community service are either not covered in the survey or, if covered through their private household of origin, excluded in subsequent data processing. However, in a few countries some of these persons may remain in the survey due to the lack of information for their retroactive identification.

In Bulgaria, Lithuania and Poland the LFS does not cover the population under 15 years of age. The required figures for this age group were provided by the respective NSIs from other sources.

In Estonia, the 15-year age limit is defined as of January 1 rather than the last day of the reference week.

Data availability and inconsistencies

The national LFSs in the CECs do not yet fully implement the EU LFS standards. As a consequence, some items may be missing completely, in others individual response categories may have been combined or omitted. In the case of missing information the tables or graphs will show blanks or leave out the country altogether.

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For example, the Latvian LFS includes persons who are inactive for family reasons in the residual category, the Bulgarian LFS does not provide data on part-time and temporary employment, unemployment registration and benefits.

Apart from different reference periods and survey coverage noted above, inconsistencies in data on the same subject may result from rounding errors or, particularly in the case of shares, whether persons with no answer are taken into account. The latter, for example, applies to the regional data and could not be corrected in time.

Other

The CEC-10 figures refer to the CCs (BG, CZ, EE, HU, LT, LV, PL, RO, SI, SK) and are computed as a weighted average. It should be noted that this average will be dominated by the results from the largest countries (PL and RO). As such, the CEC-10 only is a statistical computation and does not represent any type of political unit.

The order of countries in the tables and graphs follows the alphabetical order of the English country codes first for the CCs, then for the three additional PHARE programme participants.

The order of regions within countries follows their numbering according to Eurostat.

In the annex table of the section on "Recent labour market trends", the unemployment by age groups shown for Albania refer to persons aged under 35/35+ in 1999.

The male and female activitiy rates shown for the working age population in Macedonia for the year 2000 refer to the population aged 15+ rather than 15-64.