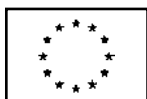




# Employment and labour market in Central European countries



EUROPEAN  
COMMISSION



THEME 3  
Population  
and social  
conditions

### Acknowledgements

This report was prepared under the responsibility of Nikolaus Wurm, Head of Eurostat Unit A-5, "Technical co-operation with Phare and Tacis countries", in close co-operation with Eurostat Unit E-1 "Labour Market" and the National Statistical Offices of the Central European countries.

Contract management and co-ordination were ensured by Andreas Krüger of Eurostat A-5. Ana Franco of Eurostat E-1 provided methodological guidance and supervision of the project, and Sylvain Jouhette (also of Eurostat E-1) was in charge of the data collection and processing.

This project is funded under the PHARE multi-country statistical co-operation programme, for which Directorate-General Enlargement has overall responsibility.

---

The European Commission gratefully acknowledges the valuable contributions of all participants.

---

The views expressed in the publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the opinion of the European Commission. The maps used in this publication, including the administrative boundaries shown therein, only serve the purpose of illustrating statistical data and do not reflect any opinion of the European Commission.

This publication is available in English, French and German, and can be ordered free of charge through the Eurostat Data Shops and the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. It can also be downloaded as pdf-file free of charge in English, French and German from the Eurostat website at the following address: [www.europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/](http://www.europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat/) and ordered by e-mail from the following address: [icon@icon-institute.de](mailto:icon@icon-institute.de)

A great deal of additional information on the European Union is available on the Internet.

It can be accessed through the Europe server. (<http://europa.eu.int>)

Cataloguing data can be found at the end of this publication.

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2002

ISSN 1609-6266

Copyright European Communities, 2002

Reproduction is authorized provided the source is acknowledged.

*Printed in Germany*

### Project contractor

ICON-INSTITUT, Köln

Contract manager: Stephan Krische

Project manager: Heinrich Tegtmeier

### Printing

DFS Druck und Verlag Brecher & Müller GmbH, Köln

### Contents

General editorial parts, methodological sections and statistical tabulations – Heinrich Tegtmeier (ICON)

Recent labour market trends – Bernard Grais (ICON)

Regional labour markets – Elmar Hönekopp (IAB, Nürnberg)

Working time – Jose Pinheiro (UNL, Lisboa)

While structure and content of this publication are coordinated with Eurostat and ICON and each contribution is subjected to editorial checks, the responsibility for the content ultimately rests with each individual author.

### Translations

French – Rita Gautier (ICON), Aurélie Charrat (ICON)

German – Heinrich Tegtmeier (ICON)

### National data

For the provision of data from national labour force surveys or other sources we would like to thank the LFS staff of the National Statistical Institutes in both the 10 Candidate Countries in Central and Eastern Europe (BG, CZ, EE, HU, LT, LV, PL, RO, SI, SK) and the 15 Member States (AT, BE, DE, DK, ES, FI, FR, GR, IE, IT, LU, NL, PT, SE, UK).

For further information on the publication, please contact A. Krüger, Eurostat A-5, e-mail: [Andreas.Krueger@cec.eu.int](mailto:Andreas.Krueger@cec.eu.int), or Stephan Krische, Icon-Institut, e-mail: [Stephan.Krische@icon-institute.de](mailto:Stephan.Krische@icon-institute.de)

Eurostat is the Statistical Office of the European Communities. Its task is to provide the European Union with statistics at a European level, that allow comparisons to be made between countries and regions. Eurostat consolidates and harmonizes the data collected by the Member States.

To ensure that the vast quantity of accessible data is made widely available, and to help each user make proper use of the information, Eurostat has set up a publications and services programme.

This programme makes a clear distinction between general and specialist users and particular collections have been developed for these different groups. The collections *Press releases*, *Statistics in focus*, *Panorama of the European Union*, *Key indicators* and *Catalogues* are aimed at general users. They give immediate key information through analyses, tables, graphs and maps.

The collections *Methods and nomenclatures*, *Detailed tables* and *Studies and research* suit the needs of the specialist who is prepared to spend more time analysing and using very detailed information and tables.

All Eurostat products are disseminated through the Data Shop network or the sales agents of the Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Data Shops are available in 12 of the 15 Member States as well as in Switzerland, Norway and the United States. They provide a wide range of services from simple database extracts to tailor-made investigations. The information is provided on paper and/or in electronic form via e-mail, on diskette or CD-ROM.

As part of the new programme Eurostat has developed its website. It includes a broad range of on-line information on Eurostat products and services, newsletters, catalogues, on-line publications as well as indicators on the euro-zone.

**Yves Franchet**  
**Director-General**

### Table of contents

Acknowledgements .....	2
Foreword .....	3
Table of contents .....	4
List of tables .....	4
List of graphs .....	4
Introduction .....	5
Executive summary .....	6
Data sources and methods .....	9
Recent labour market trends .....	13
Regional labour markets .....	26
Working time .....	38
National time series .....	48
Regional time series .....	58
Abbreviations and methodological notes .....	62

### Map

Statistical regions of the Central European countries ..	27
--	----

### List of tables

#### Recent labour market trends

Annex: Main Indicators .....	22
------------------------------	----

#### Regional labour markets

Annex: Employment rates by age groups, 2000 and 2001 .....	37
--	----

#### Working time

Annex: 1. Number of weekly hours usually worked by employment status, sex, economic activity and occupation, 2001 .....	44
2. Employed by professional status and part-time shares, 2001 .....	47
3. Recent evolution of working time in main aggregates, 1999–2001 .....	47

### List of graphs

#### Data sources and methods

1. Labour force classification in the European Union Labour Force Survey .....	11
--	----

#### Recent labour market trends

1. Population of Central European countries, 2001 ..	13
2. Annual percentage changes in GDP, 1998–2000 ..	13
3. Annual percentage changes in employment, 1999–2001 .....	14

4. Annual percentage changes in unemployment, 1999–2001 .....	14
5. Employment rates, 1999–2001 .....	15
6. Unemployment rates, 1999–2001 .....	16
7. Youth unemployment rates, 1999–2001 .....	16
8. Share of long-term unemployment, 1999–2001 ..	17
9. Activity rates, 1999–2001 .....	17
10. Effective dependency rates, 1999–2001 .....	18
11. Agriculture share in total employment, 1999–2001	19
12. Industry share in total employment, 1999–2001 ..	20
13. Services share in total employment, 1999–2001 ..	21

#### Regional labour markets

1. Change in employment, 2001–2000 .....	28
2. Employment rates, 2001 .....	29
3. Employment rates of women as percentage of employment rates of men, 2001 .....	30
4. Employment rates of age group 15–24, 2001 ....	30
5. Employment rates, age group 65+, 2001 .....	31
6. Employment share of agriculture, 2001 .....	32
7. Self-employment rates, with and without agriculture, 2001 .....	33
8. Unemployment rates, 2001 .....	33
9. Change of unemployment rates, 2001–2000 ....	34
10. Shares of long-term unemployed, 2000 and 2001	35
11. Youth unemployment rates, 2001 .....	35
12. Relation of youth unemployment rate to overall unemployment rate, 2001 .....	36

#### Working time

1. Number of hours usually worked, all persons in employment, 2001 .....	38
2. Number of hours usually worked, self-employed persons, 2001 .....	39
3. Full-time and part-time durations for self-employed, 2001 .....	40
4. Part-time share of self-employed, 2001 .....	40
5. Full-time and part-time durations for self-employed in agriculture, 2001 .....	40
6. Number of hours usually worked, full-time employees, 2001 .....	41
7. Part-time shares for all persons in employment and for employees, 2001 .....	41
8. Share of part-time for all persons in employment, 2001 .....	42
9. Number of hours usually worked, part-time employees, 2001 .....	42
10. Part-time shares for all persons in employment, without and with agriculture, 2001 .....	42

## Introduction

This publication is the continuation of a series originally started by Eurostat under the title "Central European countries' employment and labour market review" on a semi-annual basis. After a general redesign in structure and content last year, the new basic format will be retained in 2002, but there also are some changes with regard to coverage, approach and authorship.

As in 2001, three issues per year will be produced, each containing three analytical sections devoted to "Recent labour market trends", "Regional labour markets" and a "Special topic", which treat different aspects of employment and the labour market in each issue, including separate data annexes. The main results of these sections are recapitulated in an "Executive summary", and additional data can be found in the "National time series" and "Regional time series" toward the end of the publication.

The data presented here are primarily derived from the national labour force surveys (LFS). The section on "Data sources and methods" included in each issue of this publication describes the nature of labour force surveys, the EU LFS standards, basic concepts and definitions, as well as their implementation on the national level, also noting certain changes introduced in the 2001 LFS concerning the determination of the labour status. The use of LFS data ensures that the analyses are based on a standardized source providing a consistent and comparable set of statistics. The reference period normally is the second quarter of each year, because it is common statistical practice to use this quarter for annual reports and LFS results are available for it even from countries with only one or two surveys per year. The analyses and data presented in this issue mainly utilize the results of the 2001 national LFSs. Due to the fact that data for previous years are presently not available for all the countries concerned and that it was not possible to take recent changes in administrative structures into account retroactively, the analysis of national developments only go back to 1999 and the regional analyses only to 2000.

Since Albania, Bosnia and Hercegovina, and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia have been subsumed under a separate programme, this publication now only includes the ten Candidate Countries, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, together here referred to as CECs. While the adopted practice of discussing the various aspects of employment and labour market trends across nations and regions rather than presenting separate country

reports is maintained, a new dimension is added to the analytical sections by comparisons between the CECs and the EU, wherever appropriate. This year also two new authors have joined the core staff, taking over the responsibility for the standard analytical sections "Recent labour market trends" and "Regional labour markets", and it is hoped that they will introduce different viewpoints to the analyses.

In issue 1/2001 the national and regional analyses gave a general overview, and the special topic was "Youth unemployment". In issue 2/2001 both the sections on "Recent labour market trends" and "Regional labour markets" focused on the structure of the employed and unemployed by their present or previous economic activity, and the special topic was "Long-term unemployment". In issue 3/2001 the section on "Recent labour market trends" analyzed the development of employment and unemployment in the CECs on a quarter-by-quarter basis for the years 1999 and 2000, while both the section on "Regional labour markets" and the special topic investigated the educational levels and the occupational structure of the labour force. In the present issue 1/2002, both the sections on "Recent labour market trends" and "Regional labour markets" again give an overview of the major developments in employment and unemployment in the CECs and their regions, and the special topic is "Working time".

Apart from the addition of data for the year 2001, the national and regional time series presented toward the end of this publication and containing indicators and distributions of principal variables on macroeconomic, demographic, employment and unemployment developments have remained basically unchanged. Comparisons with previously published figures may turn up certain apparent inconsistencies or deviations, however, as some countries have since revised their LFS results, shares or distributions are computed including or excluding non-response cases, or the age limits of the respective reference groups have been changed. Details with regard to these and other points are described in the section "Abbreviations and methodological notes", which also provides an updated list of the abbreviations used in this issue for countries, institutions and programmes, concepts and classifications.

Thus, it is hoped that this publication will continue to provide valuable information on the most recent employment and labour market trends in the CECs in a coherent and comprehensive fashion, expanded by comparisons with parallel developments in the EU, to policy makers, researchers, business, interest groups and the general public.

### Executive summary

“Employment and labour market in Central European countries” covers relevant trends in the ten CECs (BG, CZ, EE, HU, LT, LV, PL, RO, SI, SK). Rather than presenting separate country reports, however, this publication takes a comparative approach, discussing various aspects of employment and unemployment across nations and regions. As a new facet in the three issues this year, the analyses of the situation and development in the CECs will be complemented by comparisons with the EU wherever appropriate.

The information used is primarily based on national LFSs of both the CECs and the EU Member States. A brief description of the nature of labour force surveys, the EU LFS standards, basic concepts and definitions, as well as their implementation by the CECs is included in each issue, as is an annex with statistical tables containing national and regional time series for the years since 1999 and 2000, respectively, which remain basically the same throughout a given year except for updates providing newly available data.

The core of this publication are three analytical sections on “Recent labour market trends”, “Regional labour markets” and a “Special topic”. Like in 2001, the national and regional analyses in the first issue this year give a general overview, now based on data from the national LFSs from the second quarter 2001, while the special topic is “Working time”. The main results of these three sections are summarized below.

#### Recent labour market trends

The central indicators used for monitoring the development of the national labour markets in the CECs are the employment, unemployment, activity and effective dependency rates, complemented by the share of agriculture, industry and services – all of which in turn have to be seen in the light of the underlying demographic structures and characteristics as well as the overall economic situation.

The greatest variation between CECs is based on their population ranging from 37.9 million inhabitants in Poland and 22.3 million in Romania to Latvia, Slovenia and Estonia with about 2 million or less, representing individual shares between 1 and 2% of the overall CECs’ population. Consequently, any average is dominated by the respective figures of the bigger countries.

From 1998 to 2000, GDP growth in the CECs has been generally positive, after a bad year in 1999 lying in the main above 2% since and in some cases exceeding 6%. In contrast, the trend in employment has been generally negative, only Slovenia and Hungary experiencing an increase during the last two or three years, and even countries with growth rates over 4% showing sharp decreases. Although the average trend remains negative in 2001, there is a sign of improvement as the development is

positive for half of the CECs (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Slovenia and Slovakia). Similarly, the trend in unemployment was negative in the year 2000 with only Hungary and Slovenia experiencing a small reduction and five other countries a sharp growth, but the situation improved in 2001 with a reduction in six CECs (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Romania and Slovenia) – though unemployment continued to rise in the CECs as a whole due to the sharp increases in Bulgaria and Poland.

The Czech Republic, Slovenia and Romania have the highest employment rates of the CECs (up to 65%), though in Romania this is mainly due to the numerous cases of subsistence farming on the borderline between economic and non-economic activity. The lowest employment rate is registered for Bulgaria (just over 50%). From 1999 to 2001, the average employment rate for the CECs as a whole has shown a downward trend, widening the gap with the EU. The decline has been particularly pronounced in Lithuania and Poland.

The Czech Republic, Slovenia and Romania also have relatively low unemployment rates between 6 and 8%, but these are equaled or even surpassed by Hungary with an unemployment rate under 6%. In all other CECs the unemployment rate ranged from 12.4% in Estonia to 19.9% in Bulgaria. From 1999 to 2001, the average unemployment rate for the CECs as a whole has shown a sharp upward trend, widening the gap with the EU. The rise of unemployment has been particularly significant in Bulgaria, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia.

Unemployment is highest for young people, particularly in Poland, Bulgaria and Slovakia where about four out of ten young active people are unemployed, and still reaching between 20 and 30% in the Baltic States. Not surprisingly, youth unemployment increased the most in countries which also had a sharp rise in overall unemployment. On the average the share of long-term unemployment is slightly above 50% for the CECs as a whole, in Bulgaria and Slovenia even above 60%. With regard to both youth and long-term unemployment, the gap between the CECs as a whole and the EU widened from 1999 to 2001.

Most of the CECs have activity rates between 65–70%, and only Bulgaria and Hungary show particularly low values around 60%. The CECs’ average is not far below the EU level and remained fairly stable over the last years. The effective dependency rate not only shows that on the average there are almost 100 non-employed persons aged 15 or more per every 100 in employment, but it also ranges over a wide span from 69.3 in Romania to 144.5 in Bulgaria. Influenced by long-term demographic and structural factors and short-term economic parameters in the individual countries, the overall average for the CECs as a whole does not show a sharp upward trend, and its level is comparable to the EU.



While all CECs have a share of agricultural employment above the EU average, it varies considerably from approximately 45% in Romania, between 15–19% in Poland, Lithuania and Latvia, 7–10% in Estonia, Slovenia and Bulgaria, and 5–6% in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia. The only CECs showing a sizeable downward trend in the share of agricultural employment from 1999 to 2001 are Lithuania and Bulgaria. The share of industrial employment among the CECs varies less than that of agriculture, but the CECs' average remains above that of the EU, ranging from 25.3% in Latvia to 40.5% in the Czech Republic, with little change from 1999 to 2001. Except for Romania, the employment share of the service sector does not differ very much across countries, ranging from 50.1% in Poland to 59.4 in Hungary, which is much below the EU average, and there was no apparent growth in the share of this sector in the CECs from 1999 to 2001.

### Regional labour markets

Since 1990 the regions of the Central European Candidate Countries are subject to an intensive restructuring process. Since the CECs with their accession to the EU also will be bound to the fundamental objectives of EU regional policy it is useful to take a look at the situation and development of the labour markets in their regional differentiation.

Although economic growth in the CECs was generally positive over the last years, in Bulgaria only the North-East region profited from the favourable economic situation. In the Czech Republic, employment increased in all regions except in the south-east region and Ostravsko. In Hungary, it is the region Közép-Dunántul west of the capital and the region Eszág-Alföld in the eastern plains which exhibit a relatively positive result compared to the country average. The picture for Poland is very non-uniform: there are regions with positive and negative developments in the east as well as in the west, in rural as well as old industrial areas.

The employment rates in the Czech Republic range from 72% in Prague to 58% in Ostravsko, in Bulgaria from almost 56% in the South-West region to 42% in the immediately adjacent North-West region. Differences of the same magnitude also are found in Romania with over 70% in the South-West region and, in contrast, only 55% in the capital region Bucharest, in Slovakia with a disparity of almost 18 percentage points between the capital Bratislava and the easternmost region, and even in Hungary with its generally low employment rate 63% are registered in the western region against 49% in the eastern region.

Women are distinctly less engaged in employment than men, but the female employment rate in the CECs generally is clearly higher than in the EU. For both women and young people aged 15 to 24 years the relative participation in employment lies the higher, the higher the overall employment rate of a region. In contrast, old age employment of persons over 65 is the higher, the greater the share of those working in agriculture – though mostly because of the social necessity to work. But old age employment sometimes also lies clearly

above the average in the capital regions, particularly in the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

Except for the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary and Slovakia, a considerably greater share of persons are employed in agriculture than in the EU, particularly in the North-East, South and South-West regions of Romania with shares between 50–60%, but also in the Polish voivodships Lubelskie, Podkarpackie, Podlaskie and Swietokrzyskie with shares between 30–40%. The same regions also have the highest self-employment rates of partly more than 30%. Without the self-employed in agriculture these rates generally lie clearly below the EU average, which is only reached or surpassed in almost all regions of the Czech Republic, four voivodships in Poland and the capital region in Hungary.

As far as unemployment is concerned, the capital regions in some countries exhibit the lowest unemployment rates, particularly in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia, but also in Bulgaria and Poland. In Romania, in contrast, the capital region shows a very high unemployment rate in comparison with the other regions. The capital regions (except Sofia and Bucharest) also assume a relatively favourable position in the annual comparison of unemployment rates both across the CEC regions and within their respective countries. This applies above all to Budapest, Warsaw and Bratislava, while in Prague the unemployment rate only sank relatively little due to the already quite low value in the preceding year.

Like in the EU countries, the increasing duration of unemployment also is one of the great labour market problems in the CECs. Thus, the long-term unemployment share extends from 32% in the West-Central region of Hungary to 76% in the North-West region of Bulgaria. Moreover, many regions register a rise in the duration of unemployment between 2000 and 2001, but only a few a decline.

In many CECs the youth unemployment rate lies far above the EU average of 14.5%. The top values with rates around 50% are reached in the Bulgarian regions North-West and South-East, the Polish voivodships Lubuskie, Swietokrzyskie and Warminsko-Mazurskie and the eastern Slovak region. In the Czech Republic and Hungary, in contrast, the level of youth unemployment is comparatively low nearly everywhere, especially in the capital regions, and this also applies to the Slovak capital Bratislava. However, the situation of young people generally tends to be unfavourable in relation to overall unemployment – even in the capital regions.

### Working time

This section gives a general overview of the weekly working time in the 10 CECs, defined as the number of hours persons usually work in their main job, and presents this information in the major breakdowns by gender, economic activity, occupation, full-time/part time and professional status.

In 2001 the average weekly duration of working time of all persons in employment in the CECs as a whole (41.0) is longer than in the EU (37.7). The great majority of weekly

hours worked are between 39 and 43 hours. Men in the CECs always work more than women, and except for two cases (males in Lithuania and Romania) all the durations in the CECs are higher than the EU averages. The difference between gender is 3.2 hours for the CECs as a whole, while in the EU it is more than double, 8.1 hours. The highest value in the breakdown by gender is found in Latvia with 44 for men, the lowest in Lithuania with 37.1 for women.

The self-employed have the highest number of usual hours, but the overall average of the CECs (44.6) is less than that of the EU (46.2). As men in the EU work longer than men in the CECs and women in the EU work less than women in the CECs, the durations by gender in the CECs are closer than between the EU countries. While at the aggregate level all the durations in the CECs are less than 50 hours, many durations in the more detailed cross-classifications are above 50 and some of the reliable figures even beyond 55 and about half of the values in the NACE and ISCO breakdowns for the individual CECs are larger than the EU average.

The share of employees in all employed persons in the CECs varies from country to country depending on the number of self-employed and family workers, reaching between 80 to more than 90% except in Poland and Romania – and most of them hold full-time jobs. Except for Lithuania the average working time of full-time employees in the CECs is superior to the EU, both overall and in the breakdown by sex. The values for women range from 38.5 to 42.9 in

Lithuania and Latvia, respectively, and for men from 40.5 to 44.2 in exactly the same countries. The full-time employees present the most uniform picture with regard to their working time in the breakdowns by sex, economic activity and occupations.

Part-time employment is not as widespread in the CECs as in the EU, accounting for 9.8 % of all employed persons, but only 4.7% of the employees here compared to 17.8 and 18.6%, respectively, there. The extent of part-time employment yet varies substantially between countries from 2.4% in Slovakia to 16.8% in Romania for all persons in employment, but from only 1.2% in Romania to 7.4% in Lithuania for employees. Part-time work is more frequent for women, but the differences between gender are lower than in the EU, where part-time is typically feminine.

The recent evolution of working time from 1999 to 2001 may be best described as being characterized by relative stability, with most of the changes in the average durations adding up to less than 1 (or even half an hour) and only about one third of the cases being greater than that. Only the Czech Republic shows a general decreasing trend in the working time for all persons in employment, self-employed, full-time as well as part-time employees. Reductions are also registered for all employed, self-employed and part-time employees in some of the other countries, sizeable increases only in Bulgaria (self-employed) and Slovenia (part-time employees), while the group of employees working full-time shows the greatest stability.



## Data sources and methods

The primary source of statistical information presented in this publication are the national labour force surveys of the CECs. Supplementary figures on their GDP growth 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. With the exception of Latvia and Lithuania, which still are on a semi-annual schedule, all CECs now conduct their LFS on a continuous, monthly or quarterly basis.

At present, most of the CECs are undergoing a process of adapting their national LFSs to current EU standards. A few countries already made some changes in methods and content in their 2001 round of surveys, but most of them will only be able to introduce new standards in their 2002 LFS.

### EU LFS standards

While forerunner surveys have been carried out in its member states by the then EC since 1960, it was not until 1983 that a harmonised LFS was instituted. The regulations applying to the time period covered in this publication are the Council Regulation (EC) No. 577/98 and the Commission Regulations (EC) No. 1571/98 (for the years up to 2000), No. 1575/2000 and No. 1897/2000 (from 2001 onward).

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, 13<sup>th</sup> ICLS),
- international classification of status in employment, ICSE (ILO, 15<sup>th</sup> 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).

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 for the classification of the population according to these definitions as prescribed up to the year 2000. 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.

For the 2001 LFS, the definition of the labour status has been further specified in a number of points:

- Persons who work on their own small agricultural farm, but produce only for their own consumption, should be considered as employed only if this production is included in national accounts.
- Conscripts who performed some work for pay or profit during the reference week should not be considered as employed.
- Persons on maternity leave should always be considered as employed.
- Others not at work during the reference week (seasonal workers during the off-season, persons on parental leave, unpaid family workers, lay-offs and persons on long-term absence except due to illness) should be considered as employed only if they have an assurance to return to work within a period of 3 months or continue to receive 50% or more of their salary.
- Persons who were not employed during the reference week but already had found a job starting later should be considered as unemployed only if the starting date for that job was within a period of at most 3 months and as inactive otherwise.

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 excluded from this publication.

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 is 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 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.

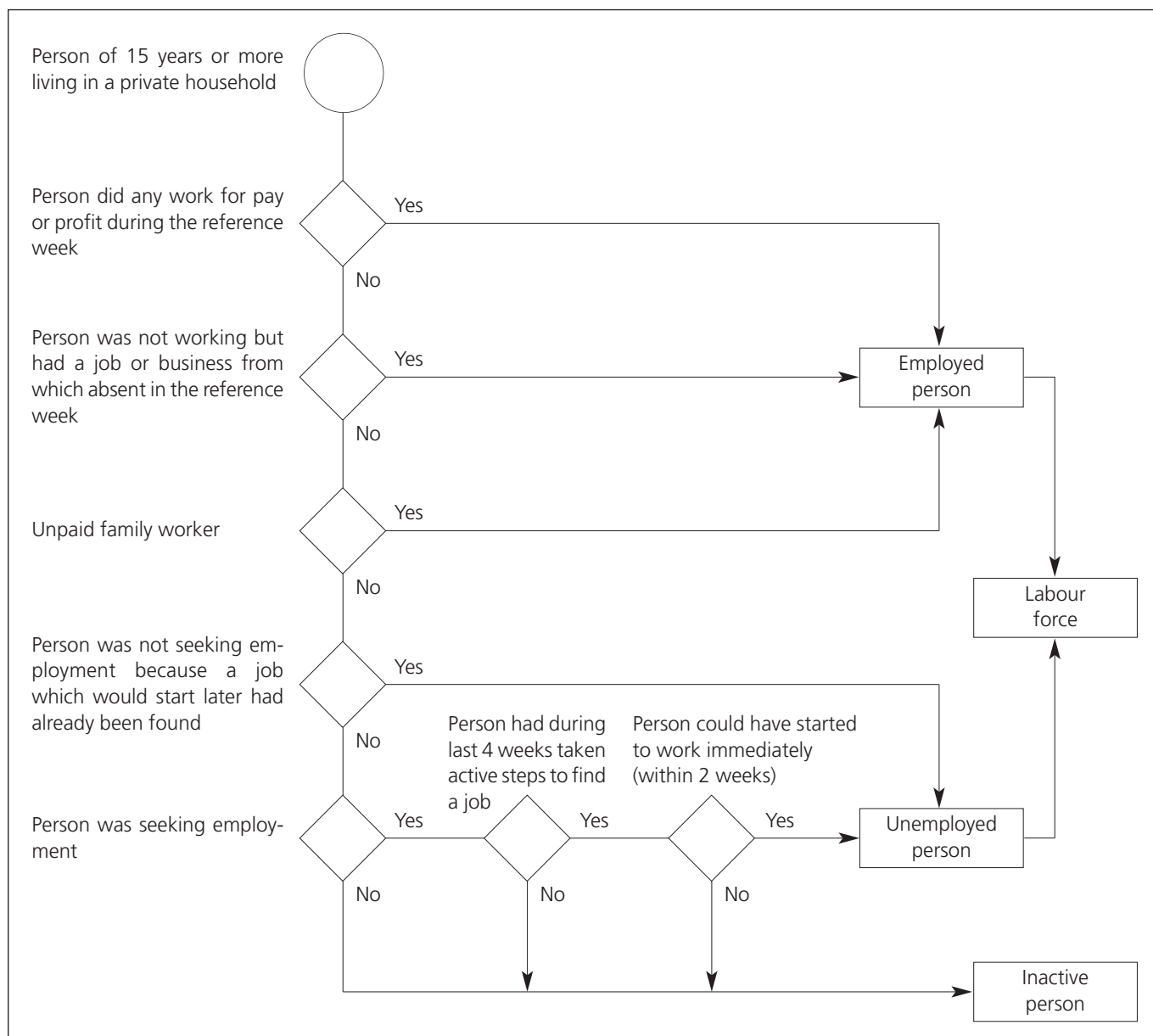
If there are no objective criteria for the end of a job or work contract, then this is considered as permanent or of unlimited duration.

**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.

Graph 1: Labour force classification in the European Union Labour Force Survey



**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.

**Problem areas in CECs' LFS data**

The EU LFS standards, concepts and definitions are not yet fully implemented in the national surveys, and major steps in that direction only are expected to be taken in the 2002 LFSs.

A first problem area is the **survey coverage**. In some countries the LFS still excludes the population under 15 so that the necessary figures for computations involving the whole population have to be derived from other sources. Several countries also included 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 were included, but not identifiable.

A second problem area has been **missing items or responses**. Up to now the CECs did not cover all EU items in their national LFSs. Such gaps exist, among others, with

regard to persons in education or training, the full-time/part-time distinction, the permanency of jobs, the number of usual hours, or atypical work. 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** (e.g. the classification of members of co-operatives) or the **methods used to find work** (i.e., the number of possible responses).

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.

### EU Member States

In the three issues of this publication in 2002, the situation and development of employment and the labour market in the CECs also will be compared with the EU Member States wherever appropriate. The data for these comparisons, of course, also are derived from the national LFSs in the EU – and though most of these countries have a longer history and experience with this type of survey, their results should be treated with similar care and caution in view of possible shortcomings.

## Recent labour market trends

Changes in employment and the labour market reflect and support the developments of the economic and social situation of a country. Monitoring these evolutions is particularly important for countries in transition as Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia, which compose the Central European countries (CECs). All these states are, as Candidate Countries, in the accession process toward joining the European Union. For all of them the last decade has been a period of transition from a planned to a market-oriented economy. This process, which includes the privatisation of land and enterprises, has affected and continues to affect the structure of economic activities in each country and the employment opportunities for individuals.

The CECs stretch out over thousands of kilometres from south to north of Central Europe. They are very different from each other in size, population, geographical situation, language, culture, level of development, economic and social conditions, degree of organisation of the labour markets, etc. This section will endeavour to highlight the consequences of this diversity on the employment and labour market situation of these countries.

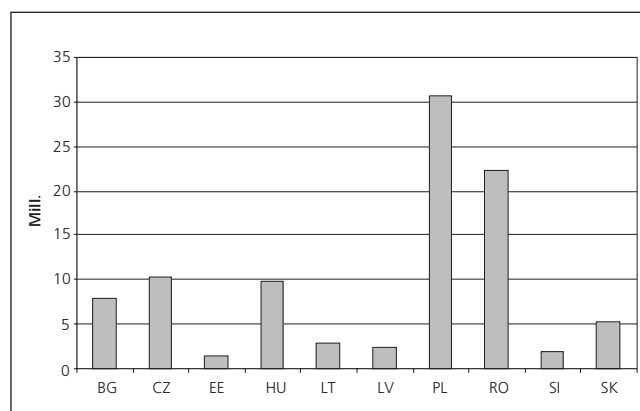
The analysis will focus on recent developments having affected employment and the labour market in the CECs and their consequences on the structure of employment, as evidenced by the data from national labour force surveys (LFSs) from the years 1999 to 2001. The emphasis of the comparison will not be on a description of individual countries, but rather on comparisons between them and with the overall averages of the CECs as a whole and European Union countries (EU).

The central indicators used in the analysis will be, on the one hand, the employment rate, unemployment rate, activity rate and effective dependency rate to monitor the development of the situation on national labour markets and its consequences on social conditions; on the other hand, the effect of recent developments on the structure of employment will be studied through the evolution of the share of agriculture, industry and services in total employment. The development of these indicators will have to be interpreted in the light of the overall economic growth and knowing the underlying demographic structures and characteristics of these countries.

### Demographic background

First of all, the sizes of the CECs are very different (Graph 1). With 37.9 million inhabitants in the year 2001, Poland is by far the most populous country, followed by Romania with 22.3 million. These two countries alone account for more than half of the population in all CECs. Among the countries with an intermediate population size, the Czech Republic (10.2 million), Hungary (9.9 million) and Bulgaria (7.9 million) make up a first group at the upper end, while

Graph 1: *Population of Central European countries, 2001*



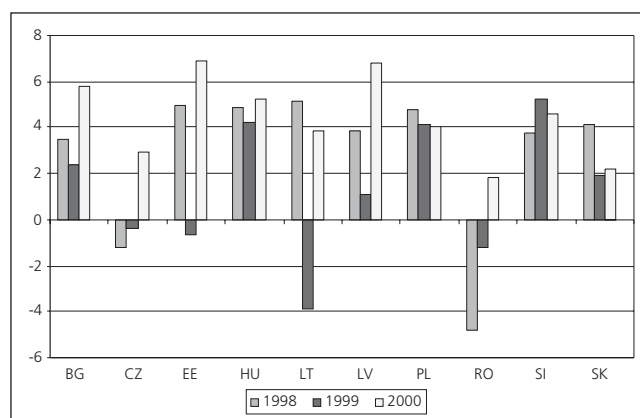
Slovakia (5.4 million) and Lithuania (3.7 million) compose a second group at the lower end. The countries with the smallest size – Latvia (2.4 million), Slovenia (2.0 million) and Estonia (1.4 million) – each only have an individual share between 1 and 2% of the overall CECs' population.

In the subsequent analyses, these differences of size between the CECs should be kept in mind mainly under two aspects. Firstly, any 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.

### Overall developments

From 1998 to 2000, the GDP growth (percentage change over previous period) has been generally positive in the CECs, with the notable exceptions of Romania in 1998 (-4.8%) and Lithuania in 1999 (-3.9%) (Graph 2). Its pace has markedly accelerated in many countries as Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Latvia and Romania. While 1999 has often been a bad year, during the remaining of the period, the growth rates are in the main above 2% and in some cases can exceed 6% (Latvia and Estonia in 2000).

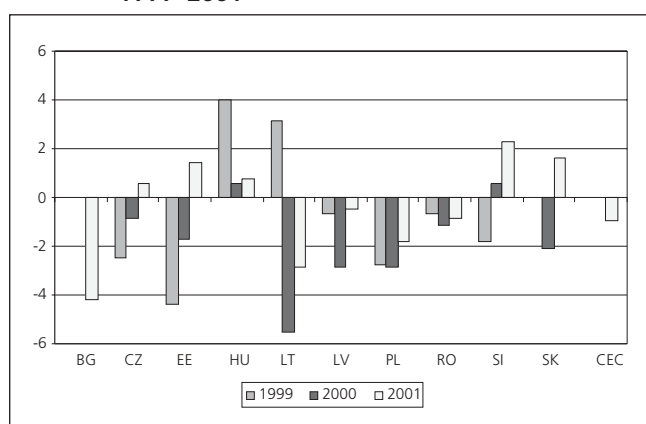
Graph 2: *Annual percentage changes in GDP, 1998–2000*



## Recent labour market trends

In contrast to GDP growth, the trend in employment from 1999 to 2001 has been generally negative: only Hungary has experienced an increase of employment during the three years (+4.0, +0.6 and +0.7%), Slovenia during the two last years (+0.6 and +2.3%), Lithuania (+3.2%) in 1999, the Czech Republic (+0.5%), Estonia (+1.5%) and Slovakia (+1.6%) in the last year (Graph 3). Countries such as Latvia and Poland, with GDP growth rates of 4% or more (with the exception of 1999 for Latvia) show sharp decreases in employment. This seems to indicate that the processes of restructuring and rationalisation go on to take their toll on employment, whereas the production of goods and services still profit from them.

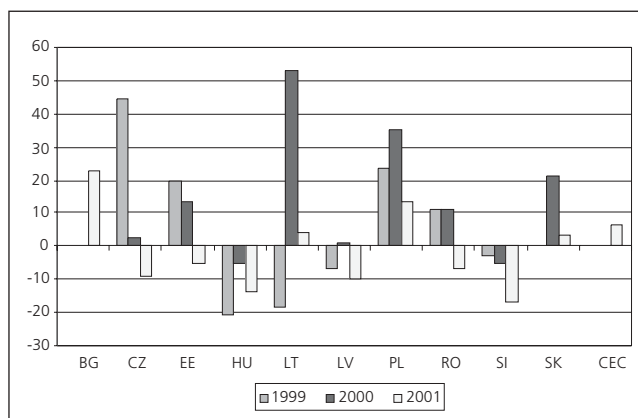
Graph 3: Annual percentage changes in employment, 1999–2001



There is a sign of improvement, however, which can be detected by comparing the changes in employment in 2001 with those for the previous years. Although the average trend of employment in the CECs as a whole remains negative (-1.0%) in 2001, the development is positive for half of the CECs (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Slovenia and Slovakia), while only two countries had experienced a positive evolution in 2000 (Hungary and Slovenia) and 1999 (Hungary and Lithuania).

The development of unemployment appears as the magnified negative mirror-image of employment (Graph 4). Whereas between 1998 and 1999 four countries including Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia and Slovenia had shown a decrease in unemployment, the following year has been much less favourable with only two countries (Hungary and Slovenia) experiencing a small reduction and five others a sharp growth of unemployment: Lithuania (+53.2%), Poland (+35.2%), Slovakia (+21.5%), Estonia (+13.3%) and Romania (+11.3%). Fortunately, the improvement of the employment situation between 2000 and 2001 was translated into a reduction of unemployment in six CECs (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Romania and Slovenia), while only two others – Bulgaria (+23.0%) and Poland (+13.4%) – showed yet a sharp increase, the average trend of unemployment in the CECs as a whole remaining rising (+6.2%) because of the demographic weight of these two last countries.

Graph 4: Annual percentage changes in unemployment, 1999–2001



### The diversity of the national labour markets

The comparative performance of CECs regarding employment and the labour market is theoretically assessed by their employment and unemployment rates. Nevertheless the level and meaning of these indicators are strongly affected by the prevailing economic and social conditions and the degree of organisation of the national labour markets (see box).

In the subsequent analyses and comparisons it should be kept in mind that the possible differences in the level of employment and unemployment indicators can be due to dissimilar implicit or explicit definitions of what is economic or non-economic activity in order to interpret correctly the discrepancies between countries.

### Employment rates

The overall employment rate in a country is defined as the ratio of the number of employed persons 15–64 years old to the working age population. It measures the performance of a national economy to provide work to its population. Within the internationally accepted working age limits of 15–64, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Romania had the highest employment rate of the CECs in the year 2001 amounting to almost two thirds of the working age population (Graph 5). For Romania, this judgement has to be qualified. As also noted under methodological aspects (see box), the situation of this country is unique and the high employment rate which is observed has a particular meaning. It is mainly due to the existence of millions of people making a living in cultivating kitchen gardens and small family holdings on the borderline between economic and non-economic activity. Indeed, as one will see below, the share of agriculture in total employment in Romania is from twice to nine times what it is in the other CECs.

The lowest employment rate was registered for Bulgaria where only one half of the working age population had a job during the reference period. In this country, agriculture does not appear as a refuge sector and does not provide, as it is the case in Romania, the informal job opportunities

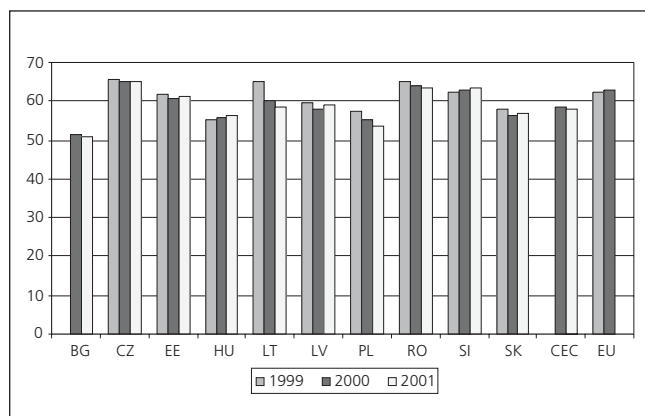


### The difficulty of measuring employment

In a country where there is an absence of job opportunities and a poor compensation of unemployment, a great number of persons who under other circumstances would appear as unemployed are obliged to get resources through some informal activity, generally in the sector of agriculture or services, and counted as employed. In the CECs, these informal activities are facilitated in the agricultural sector by the process of privatisation and redistribution of land to the former owners or their heirs. In some cases, for instance in Romania, this process has resulted in an extreme partitioning of land which allows a large proportion of households to make a living in cultivating kitchen gardens and small family holdings. The corresponding persons consider and declare themselves as employed in the labour force survey. In other countries, in contrast, as in Bulgaria, these tiny agricultural occupations are often not considered as economic activities and the persons who are engaged in cultivating these small family plots are frequently not classified as employed, but as unemployed or inactive persons.

The international definition of employment recommended by ILO and used in LFSs as a EU standard has been conceived to measure employment in national economies where salaried full-time employment was largely prevalent and the fringe between activity and inactivity very narrow. This definition is not well adapted to situations where, as in the examples mentioned above, this fringe is dilated as far as to encompass, in certain activities as agriculture, a large proportion of the persons classified as employed. In such cases, the level of employment measured according to the international definition will depend upon the implicit or explicit definition of what is economic or non-economic activity. The definition is implicit if, in the LFS, the interviewed persons classify themselves as employed or inactive without any guideline. It is explicit if the distinction is made on the ground of a factual definition, as in agriculture, the surface area cultivated or the number of animals bred.

Graph 5: *Employment rates, 1999–2001*



which serve as substitutes to unemployment. The remaining countries were fairly close above or below the average employment rate for the CECs as a whole.

In the three countries where in the age limits of 15–64 years the employment rates were the most elevated, they were high for both men and women. However, with the exception of the Czech Republic, the employment rates for men remained below the EU average, while for women they were keeping fairly above this average. Beyond the limit of 64 years, the employment rate stayed astonishingly elevated in Romania where 42.5% of men and 34.0% of women of 65 years or more were classified as employed in 2001. The reason for this peculiarity is always the same: these men and women are mainly working in an informal way on tiny household holdings on the edge of economic and non-economic activity. These amazingly high degrees of employment beyond 64 years were not encountered in any other CEC, even if Estonia, Poland, Slovenia, Latvia and Lithuania experienced relatively high levels of employment at these ages.

Inversely, in the country where in the age limits of 15–64 years the employment rate was the smallest, that is to say in Bulgaria, it was low for both men and women. It was also low whatever the age group and particularly for men between 25–54 years.

From a more general point of view, in all CECs the youth employment rate, between 15–24 years, was weak, far below the European Union average, showing clearly the difficulty for the young men and women of these countries to find a job and enter active life.

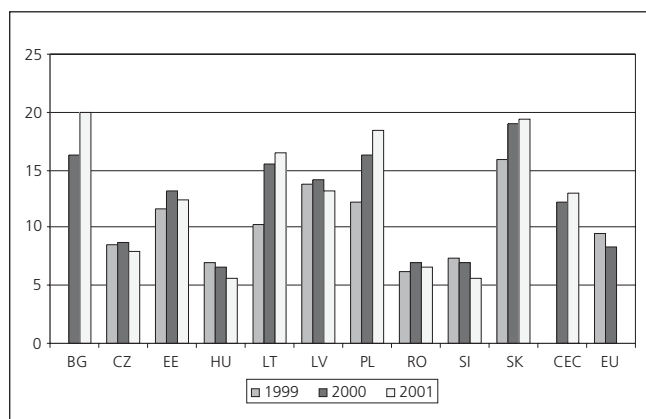
From 1999 to 2001, the average employment rate for the CECs as a whole has shown a downward trend and the gap with the European Union average has increased. The decline has been particularly pronounced in Lithuania and Poland.

### Unemployment rates

The unemployment rate in a country is defined as the ratio of the number of unemployed persons to the labour force, that is to say the sum of employed and unemployed persons. Corresponding to their comparative employment performance, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Romania also had relatively low unemployment rates in the year 2001 between 6 and 8%. In Romania, where agriculture plays the role of a refuge sector, this apparently good result is mainly imputable to the development of a great number of informal jobs on the borderline between economic and non-economic activity. But the performance of these three countries was equalled or even surpassed by Hungary, where the unemployment rate was under 6% in spite of a relatively low employment rate. This level has to be put in relation with an activity rate particularly low in this country. In all other CECs, the rate of unemployment was high or very high, ranging from 12.4% in Estonia to 19.9% in Bulgaria (Graph 6).

From 1999 to 2001, the average unemployment rate for the CECs as a whole has shown a sharp upward trend and the

Graph 6: *Unemployment rates, 1999–2001*

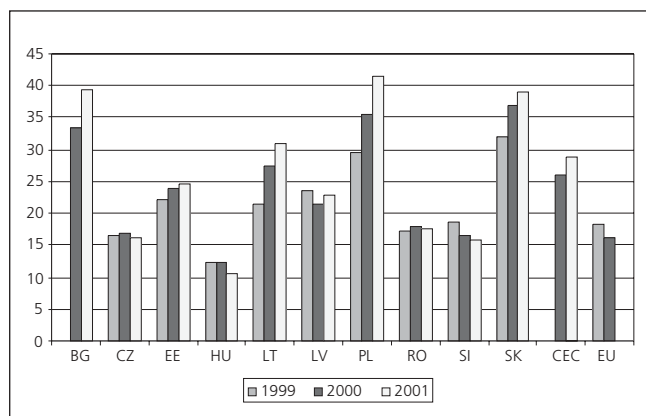


gap with the EU average unemployment rate, which at the same time was decreasing, has fairly widened. During the period, the rise of unemployment rates has been particularly significant in Bulgaria, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia, while Hungary and Slovenia experienced a slight decline.

In a country, the unemployment rate is 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 is a reflection of different national economic and social conditions and behaviour patterns. Unemployment is highest for young people because of the multiple difficulties encountered in finding a first job. It remains relatively high in the group 25–54 years, at the age where it is vital to find a new job when you lose yours. From 55 years, unemployment problems are often evaded by an early, but not necessarily voluntary, exit from working life.

The level of youth unemployment is a good indicator of the degree of organisation and performance of the national labour markets as well as of the difficulties to enter working life. Youth unemployment is particularly pronounced in Poland, Bulgaria and Slovakia where in 2001 about four out of ten young active people were unemployed (Graph 7). And it remains serious in the three Baltic States where the youth unemployment rate reaches between 20 and 30%. However, the youth unemployment rate, as an indicator of hard-

Graph 7: *Youth unemployment rates, 1999–2001*



ship for young people, tends to dramatise excessively the situation and should be correctly interpreted. At these ages of transition from school to working life, a lot of young men and women are yet in the education and training system and do not appear in the denominator of the ratio. Thus, for instance, in Poland, Bulgaria and Slovakia the youth unemployment rate does not mean that four out of ten persons in the age group 15–24 are unemployed. In reality, if one relates the incidence of unemployment to the whole age group, including pupils, students or other inactive persons, then less than two persons out of ten are unemployed: the ratios being 15.2, 13.6 and 17.6%, respectively.

Not surprisingly, during the recent years from 1999 to 2001, youth unemployment has increased the most in countries where the overall unemployment has itself shown a sharp upward trend, that is to say in Bulgaria, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia. In Estonia, it is also increasing. In contrast, in the European Union, during this period characterised by significant economic growth, overall and youth unemployment have diminished, widening the gap with CECs: in 2001, the average youth unemployment rate for the CECs as a whole was about twice that of the EU.

Youth unemployment hits men as well as women, but the situation is very different in the individual countries. In a majority of countries, in Bulgaria, Lithuania and Slovakia, and to a lesser degree in Latvia and Hungary, males are much more affected by youth unemployment than females. Conversely, in Estonia, women are more affected by youth unemployment. In the other CECs, the situation appears to be about the same for both genders.

These differences by gender are also found, but to a much lesser degree, in the central age group 25–54. In Bulgaria, Lithuania and Latvia, men are significantly more hit by unemployment than women, while the opposite applies to Poland and the Czech Republic.

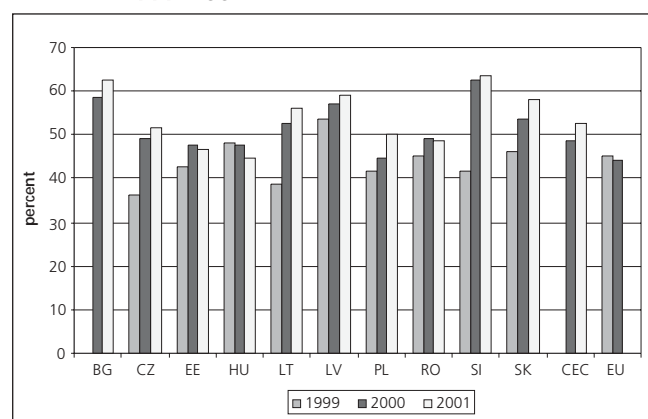
Beyond 55 years, the unemployment rate is particularly high in Bulgaria and Lithuania, and, to a lesser degree, in Latvia, Poland and Slovakia, where it stays above 10%. In three countries, Bulgaria, Estonia and Slovakia, even after the official retirement age of 65 years, it remains significant around 8%, probably showing the difficulty to live on the current old age pensions.

### Long-term unemployment

A certain level of unemployment is unavoidable to allow national economies to adapt to the changes in the demand of goods and new technologies. Of course, this level should be kept as low as possible, but perhaps more important than the level is the duration of unemployment. If the period of unemployment is short, persons without work have a high probability to find a new job within a few months and unemployment ceases to be the social plague that we know. Thus, the share of long-term unemployment, that is to say with a duration of one year or more, is a good indicator of the hardship caused by unemployment.

On the average, the share of long-term unemployment for the CECs as a whole in 2001 was slightly above 50%. Two countries, Bulgaria and Slovenia, experienced severe difficulties of long-term unemployment and had a share above 60% (Graph 8). In the case of Bulgaria, this poor performance of the labour market has to be put in relation with a high unemployment while in Slovenia, on the contrary, it is coupled with one of the lowest unemployment rates among the CECs. The problem of long-term unemployment was yet serious in five other CECs which had a share superior or equal to 50%. In four cases, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Latvia, it went along with high unemployment rates – above 15% for the three first countries – while in the Czech Republic, it was accompanied by a comparatively small unemployment rate. Thus, surprisingly, there is no close relationship between the level of unemployment and the share of long-term unemployment. The three remaining CECs had a long-term unemployment share varying between 45 and 50%. On the average for the CECs as a whole, the share of long-term unemployment was higher than the average level observed for the EU, showing the greater difficulty encountered in CECs by persons without work to find a job.

Graph 8: *Share of long-term unemployment, 1999–2001*



From 1999 to 2001, the average share of long-term unemployment for the CECs as a whole had shown an upward trend while it was slightly decreasing in the EU. The growth of this indicator has been particularly pronounced in the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Slovenia, Slovakia and Poland. This increase was generally, but not necessarily, linked to the increase of unemployment in the countries: while an increase of both unemployment rate and share of long-term unemployment was observed in Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia, the two phenomena seemed to be independent in the Czech Republic and Slovenia.

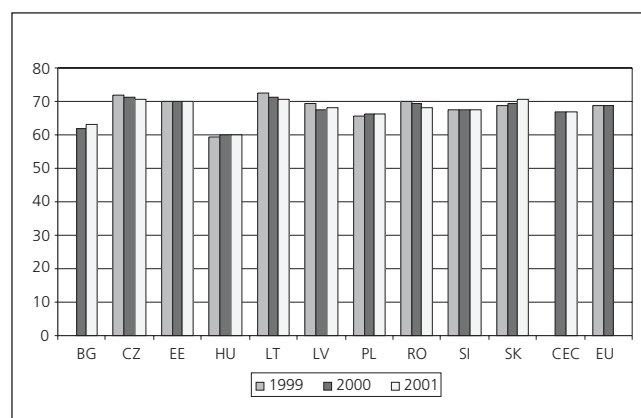
The time necessary to find a job is closely related to age: apart from some rare exceptions, for both sexes the share of long-term unemployment as a rule increases with age. The more significant exceptions are found in the Czech Republic and Slovakia where the share of long-term unemployment diminishes markedly between the age groups

25–54 and 55–64. This probably means that in these two countries, where the share of industry in total employment is predominant, incentives have been instituted to withdraw from working life before the legal age of retirement. While the share of long-term unemployment as a rule increases with age, it differs widely among the individual CECs. For instance, in 2001 the range for men in the 15–24 age group extended from 20.4% in Estonia to 52.1% in Latvia and for women from 30.2 in Latvia to 51.5 in Slovakia. Similar discrepancies are observed for the other age groups.

### Activity rates

The overall activity rate in a country is defined as the ratio of the labour force aged 15–64 to the working age population. It measures the propensity of a national population in working ages to participate in the economic activity of the country, this effort being crowned with success (employment) or not (unemployment). Within the internationally accepted working age limit of 15–64, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia had the highest activity rates in 2001, close to 70% of the working age population (Graph 9). For Romania, this result has to be interpreted in the light of the consideration mentioned above and it is likely that, if the borderline between economic and non-economic activity were more firmly traced, part of the persons currently considered as employed in agriculture in this country would be classified as inactive. Two countries, Bulgaria and Hungary, showed particularly low activity rates, around 60%. In Bulgaria this result has to be put in parallel with a very high unemployment rate (about 20%) which may have persuaded a certain number of persons not to enter the labour market. In Hungary, in contrast, this low activity rate goes along with a low unemployment rate (less than 6%), as though some people had given up the idea of searching a job, becoming discouraged workers. Poland registered activity rates of about 66%.

Graph 9: *Activity rates, 1999–2001*



During the period the activity rates remained rather stable, the average activity rate for the CECs as a whole keeping not far below the EU level.

This relative uniformity of the overall activity rate among individual countries or between the averages of the CECs as

## Recent labour market trends

a whole and the EU hide numerous discrepancies by sex and age. On the one hand, the activity rates of women in the CECs as a whole are inferior to those of men, whatever the age group considered. Yet, while the overall activity rate (15–64) for the CECs as a whole for men is equal to that of the EU, for women it is significantly above.

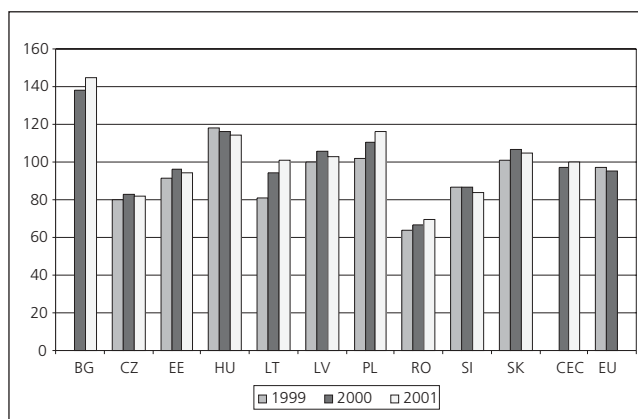
On the other hand, the activity rates depend strongly on age. Between 15–24 years, they are influenced by the more or less great number of persons who are in the education and training system or delay their entry into working life. At these ages, for the CECs as a whole they stay well below the EU level. In the central age group 25–54, in contrast, the activity rates for women are, with the only exception of Hungary, far above the EU average, indicating some difference in the cultural attitude towards the work of women between the EU and Central European Candidate Countries. Conversely, the activity rates for men in this age group, are below the European Union average, except for the Czech Republic and Slovakia. For the next age group 55–64, the description is more complex. For men, the activity rates at these ages are above the EU average for half the CECs (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia and Romania), probably because of the policies conducted by the Member States to fight unemployment in urging people to give up work before the official retirement age. Similar findings are observed for women, with the exception of the Czech Republic, where the activity rate for females aged 55–64 is below the EU average.

Lastly, beyond the official retirement age of 65 years, the activity rates in some CECs remain much higher than the European Union average. In this respect, the situation in Romania is very particular: in 2001, 42.5% of the men and 34.0% of the women aged 65+ were still engaged in the labour force, with the closest country among other CECs being Estonia with 15.3% for men and 6.3% for women. This situation in Romania has, once more, to be related to the existence of millions of informal jobs in agriculture, on the borderline of economic and non-economic activity, and to the vital necessity for those elderly to cultivate small family holdings for their own consumption or that of the younger members of the household. Besides Estonia, three countries, Poland, Slovenia and Latvia, also have activity rates above 10% for men and 5% for women aged 65 years or more. These rates are well above the EU average.

### The effective dependency rate

The effective dependency rate relates all persons aged 15 years or more who are not working (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 in the year 2001 for the population aged 15 years or more not only amounts to almost 100 for the CECs as a whole, but also ranges over a wide span from 69.3 in Romania to 144.5 in Bulgaria (Graph 10).

Graph 10: *Effective dependency rates, 1999–2001*



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, at the entry into working life, the timing of the transition from school and the more or less frequent opportunities to find a first job determine the possible access to 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.

But beside those long-term structural factors among which the demographic factors play a certain role, the short-term development of employment and unemployment also affects the effective dependency rate: an elevated rate of unemployment will increase it, while a low one will diminish it.

Thus, the main reasons for the apparently low effective dependency rate in Romania are, on the one hand, the very high number of employed above 55, but especially above the working age limit of 65, and, on the other, the low rate of unemployment. These two factors have to be put in relation with the development of millions of informal jobs in the agricultural sector of this country which merely serve the purpose to make a living on tiny household holdings. Primarily, these holdings are managed by the elderly members of the household, while the younger ones try to get a job outside. If they do not succeed in their search, they join the elder members in cultivating the family plot instead of becoming unemployed. In this case, of course, the dependency rate loses its meaning from the point of view of the contribution to the funding of social protection.

In contrast, there are relatively few employed beyond the retirement age in Bulgaria, Hungary and Slovakia. But in Bulgaria and Slovakia this is coupled with a high incidence of unemployment, while in Hungary it is counterbalanced by low unemployment.

From the short-term point of view linked to the development of the employment situation from 1999 to 2001, the deterioration of the effective dependency rate has been the

strongest in Bulgaria, Lithuania and Poland, countries where the increase of unemployment has been the highest, accompanied by a sizeable decrease of employment. Nevertheless, overall, the average effective dependency rate for the CECs as a whole does not show a sharp upward trend. Its level is comparable to the European Union average, but as it includes Romania, this apparent equality is partially artificial.

**Developments by economic sector**

The development of employment according to the three economic sectors, agriculture, industry and services, gives a first indication of the progress of a country towards a viable market economy. Since the first of these sectors includes fishing, but not mining and quarrying, the three sectors here are called “agriculture, industry and services” instead of “primary, secondary and tertiary sectors”. The analysis will be conducted in taking into account the distribution of employment by professional status, distinguishing between employees (including employed persons without specification of their professional status), self-employed without employees (including family workers), who in a number of cases, particularly in agriculture and services, are persons working in the informal economy, and self-employed with at least one employee, who constitute an indicator of the vitality of a national economy.

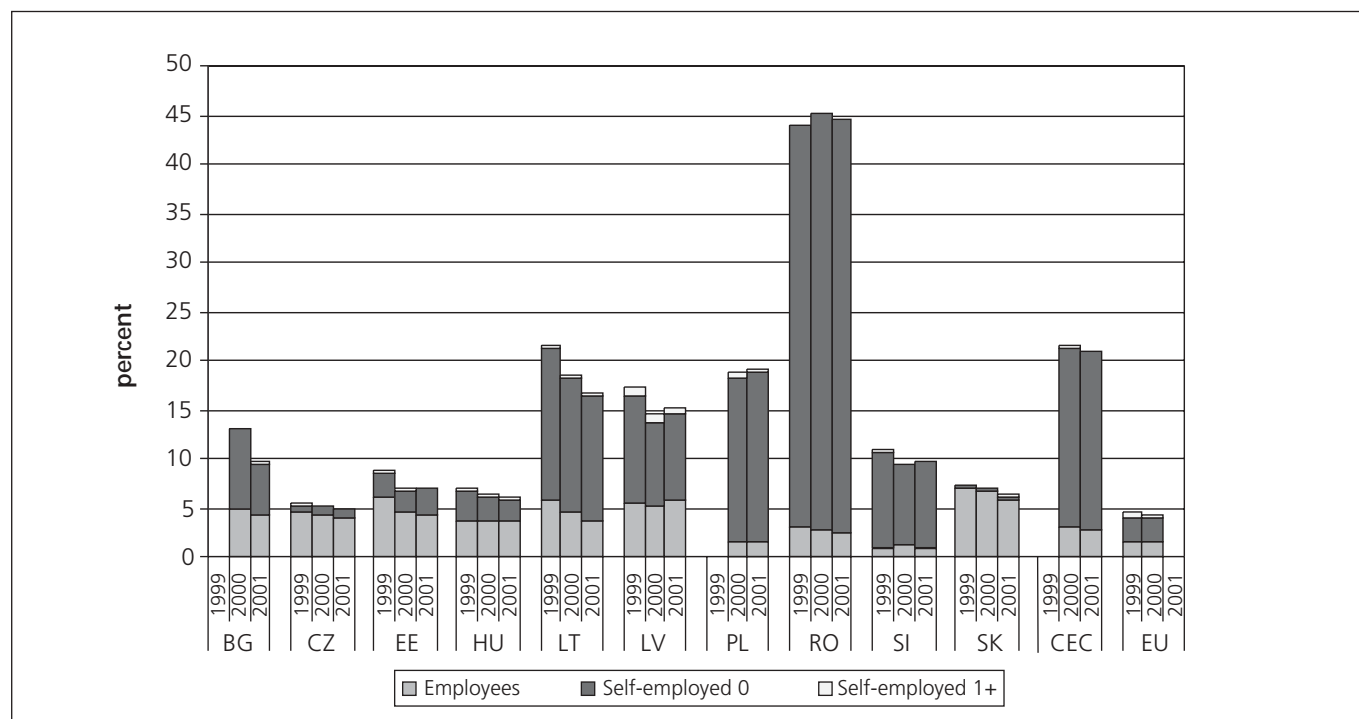
**Agriculture**

The share of agriculture in total employment is very different in the individual countries. In 2001, it ranged from about 5% in the Czech Republic to approximately 45% in Romania (Graph 11). As explained before, in this latter country agriculture appears as a refuge sector, the role of

which has been facilitated by the extreme partitioning of land resulting from the process of privatisation and re-appropriation by the former owners. This process has allowed a great number of persons to make a living in cultivating kitchen gardens and small family holdings. In the economic and social conditions of the country, marked by an absence of job opportunities and a poor compensation of unemployment, these persons, often aged 65 or more and engaged in informal activities on the fringe between economic and non-economic production, consider and declare themselves as employed in the labour force survey, when in other circumstances they would be classified as unemployed or inactive. This analysis is confirmed by the professional status of the persons employed in the agricultural sector in Romania: in 2001, 95.4% of them were family workers or self-employed without employees, 5.5% wage earners employed mainly by the state farms not yet privatised, and only 0.1% self-employed with at least one employee.

The country with the second highest share of agricultural employment in 2001 was Poland with 19.2%, that is to say less than half what it was in Romania, underlining the quite particular situation of the latter. Poland was followed closely by Lithuania (16.5%) and Latvia (15.1%). Like in Romania, but to a much lesser degree, agriculture in Poland probably also is a refuge sector in which 90.2% of the employed persons were family workers or self-employed without employees, but 2.3% were all the same self-employed with employees and 7.5% wages earners. In Lithuania and Latvia the structure of agricultural ownership is different since the share of family workers or self-employed without employees falls to 78.1 and 56.8, respectively and the share of employees reaches 21.2 and 39.0%.

Graph 11: *Agriculture share in total employment, 1999–2001*





## Recent labour market trends

The CECs which experienced the lowest proportion of agricultural employment in 2001 were the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia with shares around 5 and 6%. Estonia, Slovenia and Bulgaria were in an intermediate position with a proportion of agricultural employment between 7 and 10%. Slovakia and the Czech Republic are the countries where the proportion of employees in agricultural employment is the highest (93.2 and 81.8%, respectively) as if the privatisation process had not yet taken place or the cooperatives and state farms had been appropriated by a few individuals, but it also may be due to the fact that members of cooperatives in these countries have been classified as employees rather than self-employed. The share of employees still is significant in Estonia, Hungary, Bulgaria and Latvia, showing that the privatisation process is not yet completed.

The only CECs showing a sizeable downward trend in the share of agricultural employment from 1999 to 2001 were Lithuania and Bulgaria. The average share for the CECs as a whole is dominated by the weight of Romania and, consequently, very elevated. Nevertheless, the CECs as a whole were above the European Union average, some of them as the Czech Republic, Hungary, Estonia and Slovakia being very close to it.

### Industry

The share of industrial employment among the CECs varies less than that of agricultural employment, but remains elevated. In 2001, this share ranged from 25.3% in Latvia to 40.5% in the Czech Republic (Graph 12). The countries which had a higher proportion of industrial employment

above 35%, as the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Slovakia, were also those which had a relatively low agricultural employment. With the exception of Poland, this was also true for the countries which were in an intermediate position – Bulgaria, Estonia and Hungary – with a share of industrial employment between 30 and 35%. For the other CECs with a share around 25%, Lithuania, Latvia and Romania, the low industrial employment is correlated with a high or very high agricultural employment rather than indicating a transition toward a service economy.

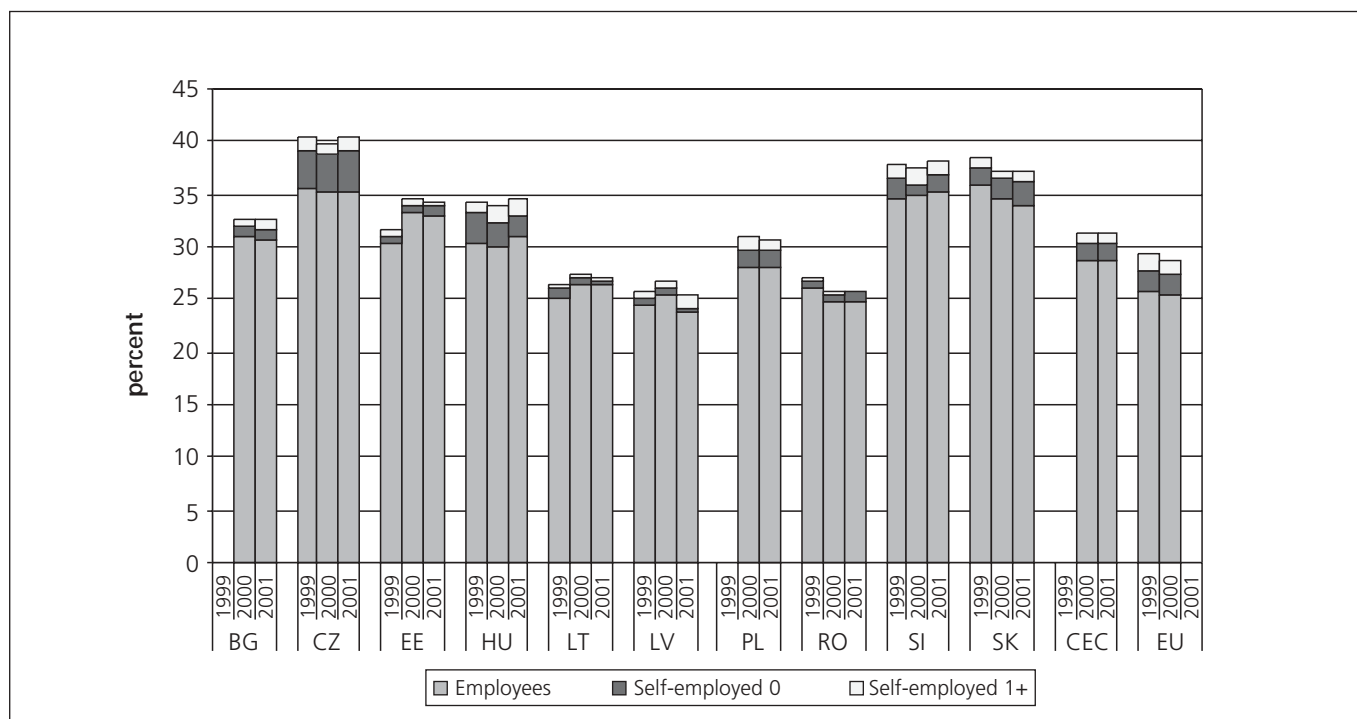
Of course, the proportion of employees in the industrial sector is high, ranging in 2001 from 87.3% in the Czech Republic to 96.7% in Lithuania. The number of self-employed was particularly important in the Czech Republic and Hungary, and, to a lesser degree in Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia, showing the existence of a strong sector of craftsmen in these countries.

From 1999 to 2001 there is no clear evidence of a downward or upward trend of the industry share in the total employment of CECs taken individually or as a whole. The average share for the CECs as a whole remains above that of the EU. In 2001, the average proportion of self-employed in industrial employment is below its level in the European Union (8.1 against 12%), and especially for self-employed with employees (2.8 against 5.5%), indicating a lower economic vitality in the CECs.

### Services

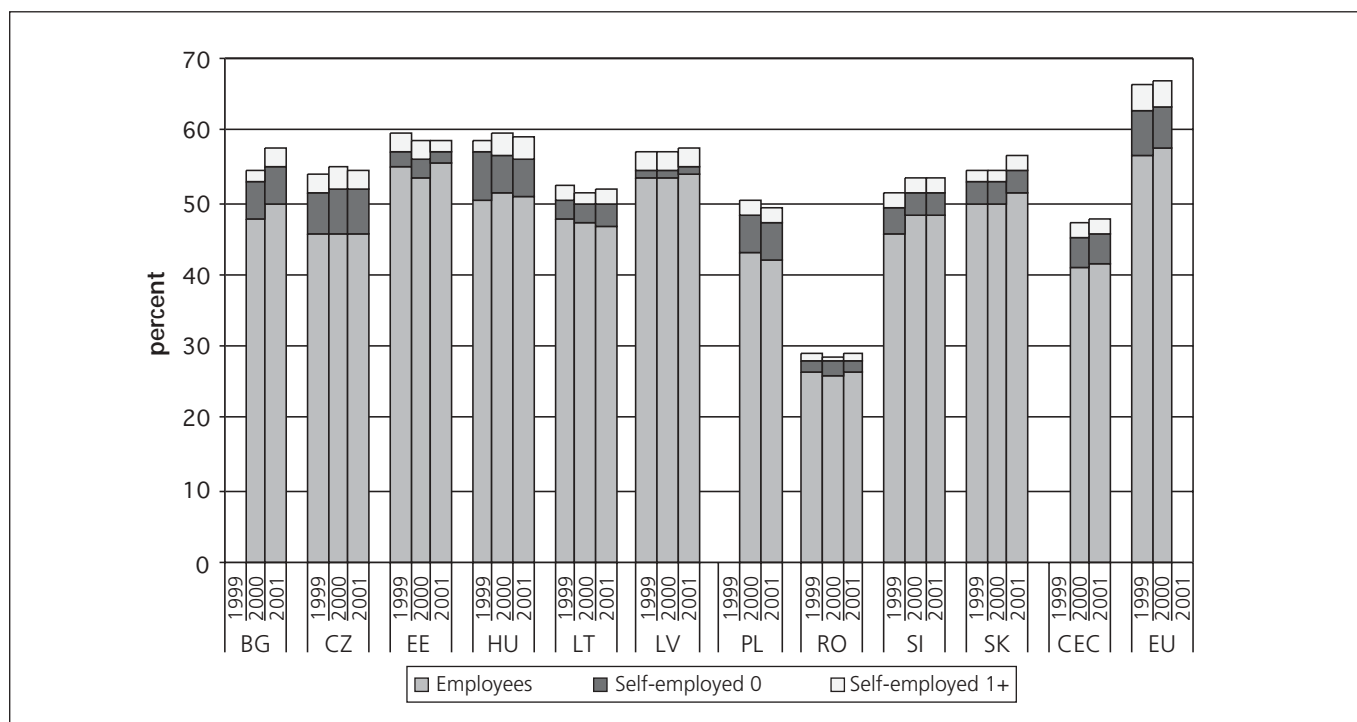
In a modern economy the share of the service sector in total employment is an indicator of economic development. If one puts aside Romania, the shares of the service sector in total

Graph 12: **Industry share in total employment, 1999–2001**





Graph 13: Services share in total employment, 1999–2001



employment in the different CECs do not vary very much. In 2001, they ranged from 50.1% in Poland to 59.4 in Hungary (Graph 13). In all these countries, this share was much superior to that of industry. The case of Romania is particular: this country has a share of employment in services under 30%, which is explained partly by its very high employment rate due to the great number of persons working in agriculture in informal activities, often over 65 years of age.

In 2001, the proportion of employees in the sector of services ranged from 83.0% in the Czech Republic to 94.2 in Estonia. It was always inferior or equal to the corresponding ratio in the industrial sector. Consequently,

the proportion of self-employed was higher in every CEC, but in some cases this may be due to the existence of informal activities in this sector. Nevertheless, in certain countries as Hungary and the Czech Republic – and to a lesser degree in Poland, Latvia, Slovenia and Bulgaria – the comparatively high ratio of self-employed with employees testifies to the relative vigour of these economies.

From 1999 to 2001, with the exception of some increase in Bulgaria, Lithuania, Latvia and Slovakia, there was no apparent growth of the share of the service sector in the CECs. Even if one does not take Romania into account, the share of this sector remains much below the European Union average.

## Recent labour market trends

Table 1: Main indicators

<b>Population by age groups, 2001</b>		EU (2000)	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
2001	00–14	17.2	17.9	15.2	16.1	16.8	17.0
	15–24	12.5	15.0	13.6	14.4	14.4	14.3
	25–54	43.3	43.4	41.9	44.4	42.8	43.0
	55–64	10.7	10.0	12.2	11.1	11.0	11.2
	65+	16.4	13.8	17.2	13.9	15.1	14.6
	Total	281859	103187	7933	10216	1429	9900
<b>Annual percentage changes in GDP, employment and unemployment, 1999–2001</b>			CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
1999	GDP 1998			3.5	-1.2	5.0	4.9
	Employed				-2.4	-4.3	4.0
	Unemployed				44.2	19.5	-21.0
2000	GDP 1999			2.4	-0.4	-0.7	4.2
	Employed				-0.9	-1.7	0.6
	Unemployed				2.6	13.3	-5.1
2001	GDP 2000			5.8	2.9	6.9	5.2
	Employed		-1.0	-4.2	0.5	1.5	0.7
	Unemployed		6.2	23.0	-8.9	-5.4	-13.7
<b>Overall employment rate, age group 15–64, 1999–2001</b>		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
1999		62.1			65.7	62.0	55.4
2000		63.1	58.4	51.5	64.9	60.6	55.9
2001			57.7	50.7	65.0	61.1	56.3
<b>Employment rates by sex and age, 2001</b>		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
All	15–24	39.9	26.9	21.0	34.4	27.1	31.4
	25–54	76.4	73.7	68.0	82.0	75.8	73.1
	55–64	37.5	34.5	23.9	36.9	48.6	23.7
	65+	3.3	12.1	2.5	3.9	8.6	1.2
Male	15–24	43.3	29.2	20.9	37.4	32.4	35.6
	25–54	87.1	79.0	69.3	89.6	79.5	79.4
	55–64	47.6	43.7	34.2	52.4	57.1	35.0
	65+	5.2	15.9	3.9	6.5	14.5	1.9
Female	15–64	72.4	63.1	53.6	73.2	65.6	63.3
	15–24	36.5	24.7	21.1	31.5	21.3	27.1
	25–54	65.7	68.4	66.8	74.3	72.2	67.0
	55–64	27.7	26.6	14.8	23.0	41.9	14.6
	65+	1.9	9.7	1.4	2.2	5.7	0.8
	15–64	53.8	52.4	47.9	57.0	56.9	49.6
<b>Overall unemployment rates, 1999–2001</b>		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
1999		9.4			8.5	11.7	6.9
2000		8.4	12.3	16.2	8.8	13.2	6.6
2001			13.1	19.9	8.0	12.4	5.7
<b>Unemployment rates by sex and age, 2001</b>		EU (2000)	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
All	15–24	16.1	28.9	39.3	16.3	24.5	10.5
	25–54	7.3	11.8	17.6	7.2	11.5	5.2
	55–64	7.7	7.2	18.4	4.4	8.6	2.9
	65+	1.3	0.9	.	3.7	.	.
	15–64	8.4	13.5	20.0	8.1	12.6	5.7
Male	15–24	15.0	29.2	42.8	16.5	17.6	11.4
	25–54	6.0	11.2	18.4	5.6	11.9	5.8
	55–64	7.6	8.4	18.1	4.2	(7.1)	3.5
	65+	1.2	.	.	.	.	.
	15–64	7.3	13.2	21.0	6.8	12.0	6.3
Female	15–24	17.3	28.5	35.5	16.2	33.8	9.3
	25–54	8.9	12.4	16.8	9.0	11.1	4.5
	55–64	7.8	5.5	19.0	4.9	10.1	.
	65+	1.4	.	.	6.4	.	.
	15–64	9.9	13.9	19.0	9.6	13.2	4.9

## Recent labour market trends

LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
19.2	17.3	18.8	18.1	15.6	19.3	00-14	2001
17.8	14.4	18.6	15.7	14.4	16.6	15-24	
52.3	41.1	54.3	42.6	45.1	43.8	25-54	
13.0	11.9	11.0	10.1	10.8	8.8	55-64	
16.9	15.2	16.2	13.5	14.1	11.5	65+	
2981	2365	30794	22345	1991	5376	Total	
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
5.1	3.9	4.8	-4.8	3.8	4.1	GDP 1998	1999
3.2	-0.7	-2.8	-0.7	-1.8		Employed	
-18.1	-6.9	23.5	10.8	-2.7		Unemployed	
-3.9	1.1	4.1	-1.2	5.2	1.9	GDP 1999	2000
-5.5	-2.9	-2.8	-1.1	0.6	-2.1	Employed	
53.2	1.2	35.2	11.3	-5.4	21.5	Unemployed	
3.9	6.8	4	1.8	4.6	2.2	GDP 2000	2001
-2.8	-0.5	-1.8	-0.8	2.3	1.6	Employed	
4.3	-9.6	13.4	-7.1	-17.1	3.7	Unemployed	
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
65.0	59.5	57.5	65.0	62.5	58.0		1999
60.1	57.7	55.1	64.2	62.7			2000
58.6	58.9	53.8	63.3	63.6	56.7		2001
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
22.9	29.0	21.4	32.7	30.3	27.7	15-24	All
75.5	75.9	69.5	77.6	83.8	74.6	25-54	
39.1	36.4	30.5	50.5	23.4	22.5	55-64	
6.1	6.8	7.5	37.5	8.5	0.9	65+	
24.5	33.3	23.1	35.3	34.1	28.5	15-24	Male
74.6	76.8	75.5	83.5	87.5	78.7	25-54	
48.6	44.8	38.3	56.0	33.0	37.7	55-64	
8.5	10.1	11.7	42.5	11.7	1.8	65+	
59.8	61.9	59.2	68.6	68.5	61.8	15-64	
21.3	24.5	19.8	30.0	26.4	26.9	15-24	Female
76.4	75.1	63.5	71.7	80.0	70.5	25-54	
31.8	30.1	23.8	45.8	14.4	10.0	55-64	
4.8	5.2	4.9	34.0	6.5	0.4	65+	
57.4	56.1	48.4	58.2	58.6	51.8	15-64	
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
10.2	13.7	12.3	6.2	7.3	15.9		1999
15.6	14.2	16.3	7.0	6.9	19.1		2000
16.5	13.1	18.4	6.6	5.7	19.4		2001
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
30.9	22.9	41.5	17.6	15.7	38.9	15-24	All
15.3	12.1	16.0	6.3	4.6	16.1	25-54	
14.3	11.9	10.1	1.7	(4.8)	11.7	55-64	
.	.	(2.1)	.	.	.	65+	
16.8	13.4	18.7	7.3	5.8	19.4	15-64	
35.9	24.0	41.0	18.1	15.0	42.6	15-24	Male
17.5	13.3	14.3	6.6	4.2	16.3	25-54	
18.2	14.4	11.5	2.9	(5.0)	12.2	55-64	
.	.	.	.	.	.	65+	
19.7	14.9	17.3	7.7	5.5	20.1	15-64	
24.0	21.4	42.1	17.1	16.6	34.5	15-24	Female
13.2	11.0	18.0	5.9	5.0	15.9	25-54	
(9.3)	8.8	8.1	0.4	.	10.0	55-64	
.	.	.	.	.	.	65+	
13.8	11.8	20.4	6.8	6.2	18.6	15-64	

## Recent labour market trends

Table 1: Main indicators

<b>Overall shares of long-term unemployment, 1999–2001</b>		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
1999		45.3			36.5	42.6	47.9
2000		44.1	48.7	58.4	49.1	47.4	47.8
2001			52.4	62.6	51.5	46.6	44.8
<b>Shares of long-term unemployment by sex and age, 2001</b>		EU (2000)	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
Male	15–24	28.9	40.2	50.3	38.2	.	36.6
	25–54	45.2	53.7	65.5	54.8	56.3	47.9
	55–64	61.9	63.4	69.4	47.2	(72.0)	(53.4)
Female	15–24	31.7	43.3	48.7	35.8	(30.9)	33.7
	25–54	48.0	57.9	66.3	56.9	41.8	45.6
	55–64	62.0	63.5	65.0	74.8	(59.5)	.
<b>Overall activity rates, age group 15–64, 1999–2001</b>		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
1999		68.6			71.8	70.3	59.6
2000		68.9	66.9	61.6	71.2	70	59.9
2001			66.7	63.3	70.7	69.9	59.7
<b>Activity rates by sex and age, 2001</b>		EU (2000)	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
Male	15–24	51.0	41.2	36.5	44.7	39.3	40.2
	25–54	92.7	89.0	85.0	94.9	90.3	84.3
	55–64	51.5	47.7	41.8	54.7	61.5	36.3
	65+	5.3	16.0	4.3	6.7	15.3	1.9
	15–64	72.4	72.7	67.8	78.5	74.5	67.6
Female	15–24	44.1	34.5	32.6	37.6	32.2	29.9
	25–54	72.2	78.2	80.2	81.7	81.3	70.1
	55–64	30.1	28.1	18.3	24.2	46.6	14.8
	65+	1.9	9.7	1.5	2.4	6.3	0.8
	15–64	53.8	60.9	59.1	63.0	65.6	52.2
<b>Effective dependency rates, 1999–2001</b>		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
1999		97.4			80.3	91.2	117.9
2000		94.8	97.0	137.9	82.5	95.9	116.0
2001			99.7	144.5	82.2	93.9	114.3
<b>Employment by sector, 1999–2001</b>		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
1999	Agriculture	4.4			5.3	8.8	7.0
	Industry	29.2			40.5	31.8	34.4
	Services	66.4			54.1	59.4	58.7
2000	Agriculture	4.3	21.5	13.1	5.2	7.0	6.5
	Industry	28.8	31.3	32.7	39.9	34.7	33.8
	Services	66.9	47.2	54.2	54.9	58.3	59.8
2001	Agriculture		21.0	9.7	4.9	7.1	6.1
	Industry		31.3	32.7	40.5	34.2	34.5
	Services		47.7	57.6	54.7	58.7	59.4
<b>Employment status by sector, 2001</b>		EU (2000)	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU
Agriculture	Employees	34.9	13.1	42.3	81.8	60.8	58.1
	Self-empl. 0 empl.*	55.1	85.7	55.6	15.4	36.2	36.5
	Self-empl. 1+ empl.	10.0	1.1	(2.1)	2.9	.	5.4
Industry	Employees	88.0	91.9	94.2	87.3	96.2	89.6
	Self-empl. 0 empl.*	6.5	5.3	2.9	9.7	2.7	5.8
	Self-empl. 1+ empl.	5.5	2.8	2.9	3.0	(1.1)	4.7
Services	Employees	85.7	86.9	86.7	83.0	94.2	85.9
	Self-empl. 0 empl.*	8.9	8.7	9.0	11.9	2.9	8.2
	Self-empl. 1+ empl.	5.4	4.3	4.3	5.1	2.9	6.0

\* incl. family workers

LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
38.5	53.7	41.6	45.2	41.8	46.4		1999
52.4	56.9	44.7	49.2	62.7	53.8		2000
56.2	59.1	50.1	48.6	63.3	58.3		2001
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
51.2	52.1	38.3	32.8	49.3	46.9	15-24	Male
59.3	63.1	48.6	52.4	69.0	62.1	25-54	
71.5	67.2	57.8	80.1	(81.8)	56.2	55-64	
33.3	(30.2)	44.1	40.7	(41.8)	51.5	15-24	Female
54.9	62.0	57.2	54.8	70.1	63.3	25-54	
62.5	(61.4)	60.0	.	.	.	55-64	
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
72.6	69.1	65.8	69.8	67.6	69.0		1999
71.5	67.5	66.1	69.6	67.4	69.6		2000
70.4	68.0	66.1	68.3	67.5	70.4		2001
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
38.2	43.8	39.2	43.1	40.1	49.6	15-24	Male
90.4	88.6	88.0	89.4	91.4	94.1	25-54	
59.4	52.3	43.3	57.7	34.8	43.0	55-64	
8.7	10.3	11.9	42.5	11.9	2.0	65+	
74.5	72.7	71.6	74.3	72.5	77.4	15-64	
28.0	31.1	34.1	36.2	31.7	41.0	15-24	Female
88.0	84.3	77.4	76.2	84.2	83.8	25-54	
35.0	33.0	26.0	46.0	15.0	11.1	55-64	
4.8	5.2	5.0	34.0	6.5	0.4	65+	
66.5	63.6	60.8	62.4	62.5	63.6	15-64	
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
80.8	99.5	101.7	64.2	86.4	100.5		1999
94.6	105.7	110.3	66.8	87.1	106.7		2000
101.2	103.0	116.1	69.3	83.9	105.1		2001
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
21.4	17.2		44.0	10.8	7.2	Agriculture	1999
26.5	25.8		27.1	37.7	38.4	Industry	
52.1	57.0		28.9	51.5	54.3	Services	
18.4	14.4	18.7	45.2	9.5	6.9	Agriculture	2000
27.4	26.8	31.1	25.8	37.4	37.3	Industry	
54.2	58.7	50.3	29.0	53.0	55.8	Services	
16.5	15.1	19.2	44.4	9.8	6.3	Agriculture	2001
27.2	25.3	30.7	25.8	38.2	37.1	Industry	
56.3	59.6	50.1	29.7	52.0	56.7	Services	
LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK		
21.2	39.0	7.5	5.5	9.8	93.2	Employees	Agriculture
78.1	56.8	90.2	94.5	89.1	5.4	Self-empl. 0 empl.*	
.	4.2	2.3	0.1	(1.2)	.	Self-empl. 1+ empl.	
96.7	93.5	91.0	95.5	92.2	91.4	Employees	Industry
1.8	2.0	5.4	3.7	4.2	6.4	Self-empl. 0 empl.*	
1.5	4.4	3.5	0.8	3.6	2.2	Self-empl. 1+ empl.	
90.4	93.1	85.1	90.1	90.0	91.3	Employees	Services
6.1	2.4	10.5	6.7	5.7	5.5	Self-empl. 0 empl.*	
3.5	4.4	4.4	3.2	4.3	3.1	Self-empl. 1+ empl.	

### Regional labour markets

#### Regional economic policy and regional development

Since 1990 the regions of the Central European Candidate Countries – like the countries themselves – are subject to an intensive restructuring process. In this process economic policy was focused on the reform of the overall institutional framework and the solution of general macro-economic challenges. Although these changes had and have distinct effects on the development of the regions, so far there hardly has been a purposive regional economic policy in the Candidate Countries. Such a regional policy also lacks the institutional prerequisites. Although the regions in individual countries such as Poland and the Czech Republic have recently been rearranged and their responsibilities changed, this was done without introducing clear competencies and own responsibilities for the promotion of the regional economy. What is missing, in particular, are concepts for a regional economic policy which would intervene in the process of regional differentiation.

Thus, the transformation process in the countries has led to a divergent rather than a convergent development between the regions. Depending on the starting conditions with respect to the sectoral structure and the availability of fixed and human capital as well as the infrastructure, certain restructuring processes have taken place which have gone in different directions in the individual regions. In many regions industry (especially mining and heavy industries) and agriculture have lost in importance over and against the services (cf. on this the characterization of the regions in issue 1/2001 of this publication).

Last but not least the widening of regional disparities occurs in the context of increasing disparities between the big urban agglomerations and areas with a rural character. Thus, the per capita GDP (in purchasing power standards) diverge by the 2.5-fold for example in the Czech Republic between Prague (CZ01) and the surrounding central Czech areas (CZ02), as it does in Slovakia between Bratislava (SK01) and Eastern Slovakia (SK04). A similar disparity also is found in Hungary between the region of Budapest (Közép-Magyarország, HU01) and the region Del-Dunantul (HU04) adjoining it to the south, or in Poland between the central Polish voivodship Mazowieckie (PL07) with the capital Warsaw and the voivodship Lubelskie (PL03) lying southeast of it, or in Romania between Bucharest (RO08) and the North-East region (RO01). At this point it should be mentioned, however, that regional comparisons can be carried out only under certain systematic reservations since the regions differ greatly in terms of area, population, population density and – connected to that – in economic potential (cf. on this the regional section in issue 1/2001 of this publication).

With their accession to the EU the CECs also will accept the Acquis Communautaire in the area of regionally policy and hence will pursue the fundamental objectives of EU

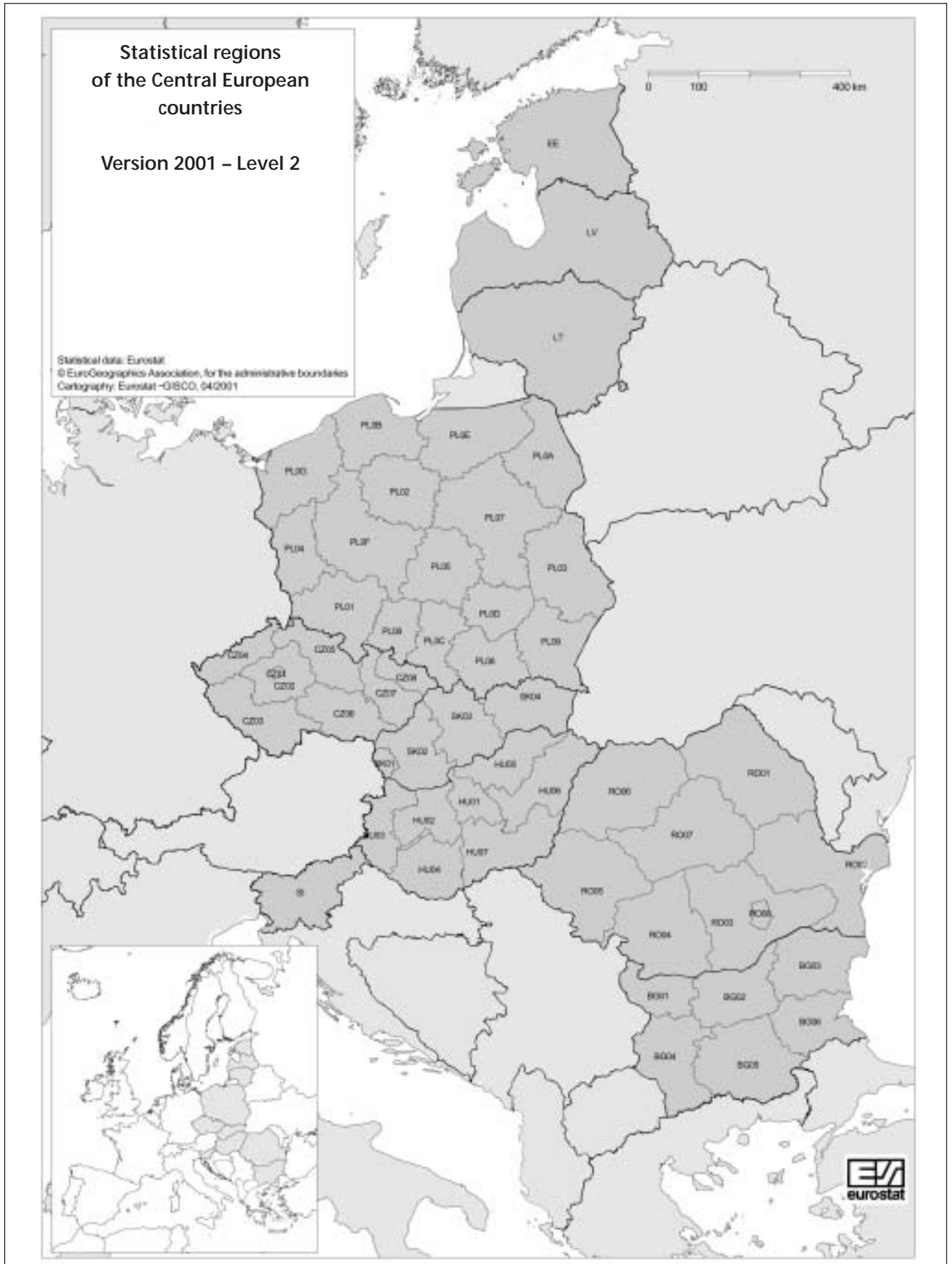
regional policy and its detailed orientations. The primary objective of regional economic policy is the reduction of regional disparities in economic living conditions, i.e. the creation of equal living conditions while preserving the independence and diversity of the regions. This is accomplished by the three basic objectives of regional economic action: the growth objective (maximizing GDP through the optimal allocation of productive forces), the stability objective (avoiding or reducing the susceptibility to short-term cyclical or long-term structural crises in the individual areas of a regional system) and through the equity objective (achieving living conditions defined as being at least adequate in all parts of a regional system), which is further specified by the equalization objective (reducing regional disparities with regard to job opportunities and prosperity), the supply objective (supplying all regional parts with goods, services and infrastructure) and the ecological objective (maintaining or restoring the balance of the natural environment in all regional parts).

The structural funds policy pursues the objective to strengthen the economic and social cohesion in the EU, which in turn orients itself toward three priority objectives: supporting the development of the less prosperous regions (objective 1, with the indicators low level of investment, above-average unemployment rate, lack of services for businesses and individuals, poor basic infrastructure), revitalising areas facing structural difficulties (objective 2, with the problem areas evolution of industrial or service sectors, decline of traditional activities in rural areas, crisis situation in urban areas, difficulties affecting fisheries activity), development of human resources (objective 3 – in line with the European Employment Strategy and the Treaty of Amsterdam). Objective 3 comprises a wide spectrum of actions with the following objectives: promote active labour market policies to reduce unemployment; improve access to the labour market with a special emphasis on people threatened by social exclusion; enhance employment opportunities through lifelong education and training programmes; promote measures which enable social and economic changes to be identified in advance and the necessary adaptations to be made; promote equal opportunities for men and women. This is the logical context in which one should place the information given in this section.

#### Economic development and the development of employment

Economic development (GDP growth) has taken a different course in the CECs over the last two years 1999 and 2000. While the economy of the Baltic States, the Czech Republic and Romania were able to recover from the recession, and this partly with high growth rates, and economic growth continued on a relatively high level in Hungary and also Bulgaria as well as in Poland and Slovenia on a slightly reduced level, the economic development of Slovakia pro-





## Regional labour markets

ceeds on a stable intermediate level. However, preliminary figures for 2001 and 2002 indicate there is a veritable economic slump in Poland which can be expected to have serious effects on the labour market.

Although the economic development differs from country to country, but apart from a few exceptions tends to be generally positive, this is not fully reflected in the development of employment (cf. Graph 1). In Lithuania and Latvia, but especially in Bulgaria and Romania, considerable efforts are needed to improve labour productivity and thus international competitiveness. This will be achieved in the first place through a better utilization of the present staff and as a consequence – despite high economic growth – through the release of workers. Such developments could already be observed in the first years of transformation above all in Hungary and Poland. In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Slovenia and Slovakia, however, economic growth lay above the so-called employment threshold beyond which economic growth leads to additional employment, while the continuing, yet relatively weak rise of economic activity in Poland obviously lay clearly under the employment threshold: employment was reduced by almost two percent.

For the reasons discussed at the beginning, these country-specific trends in turn affect the individual regions very differently. In Bulgaria, only the North-East region (BG03) profited from the favourable economic situation. In the Czech Republic, employment increased in all regions except in the south-east region (CZ06) and Ostravsko (CZ08) in eastern Moravia bordering on Poland. In contrast, the northwestern part of Bohemia (CZ04), previously a problem region with difficulties in the adaptation of coal production, stands out with a very clear rise in employment. In Hungary,

it is the region Közép-Dunantul (HU02) west of the capital and the region in the eastern plains (Eszag-Alföld, HU06) which exhibit a relatively positive result compared to the country average. The west (Nyugat-Dunantul, HU03) and the southwest regions (Del-Dunantul, HU04) had a slightly negative development.

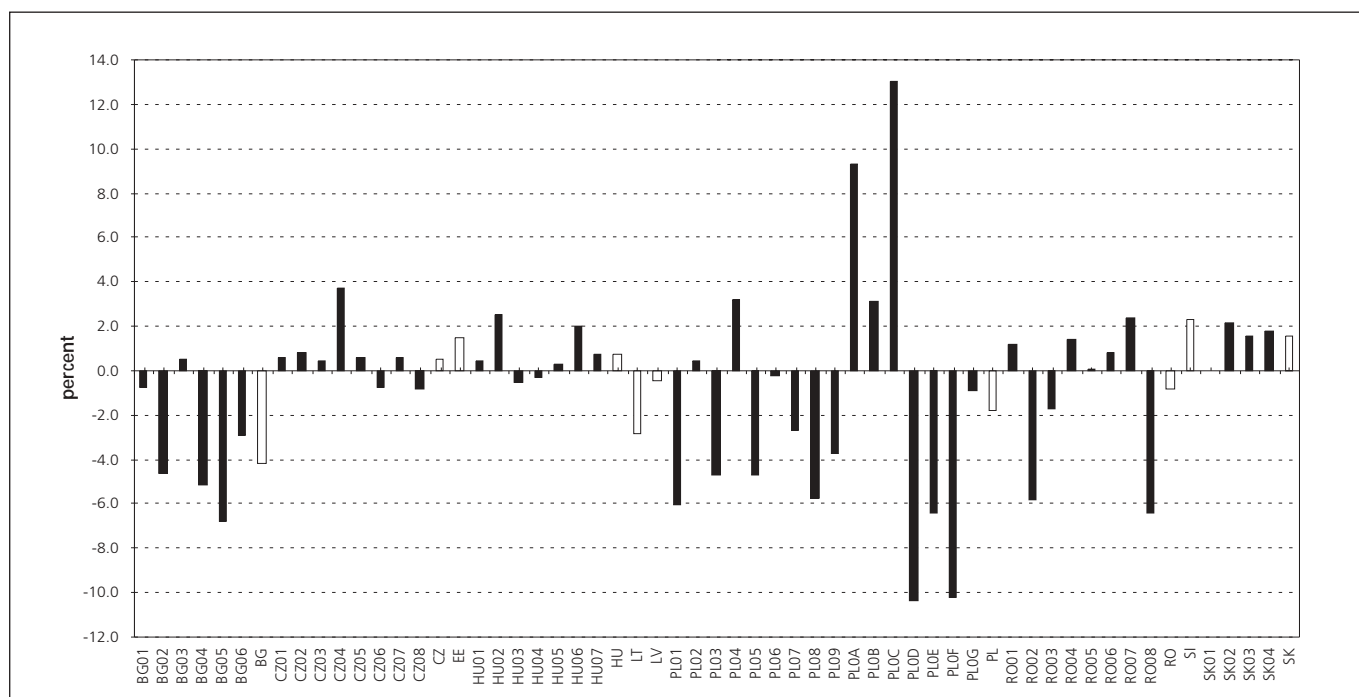
The picture for Poland is very non-uniform: positive results can be found in rural areas (e.g. Podlaskie/Białystock, PLOA) as well as old industrial areas (Ślaskie, PLOC) or the voivodship Lubuskie (PL04, with the towns Gorzów/Zielona Góra) on the border to Brandenburg as well as in Pomorskie (PL0B), while the situation appears to be very unfavourable in Dolnoslaskie (PL01) and Warminsko-Mazurskie (PLOE), regions with a mixed economic structure, but also in the voivodships Lubelskie (PL03), Swietokrzyskie (PLOD, with the town of Kielce), Opolskie (PL08), Wielkopolskie (PLOF) and Lodzkie (PL05), regions with a more rural character.

In Rumania especially the South-East region (RO02) and the capital (RO08) are subjected to pressures to reduce employment, while Central Romania (RO07 with Sibiu), the North-East (RO01, on the border to Moldova) and the South-West (RO04) and North-West (RO06) could register slight rises in employment. In Slovakia again all three large area regions gain, while employment in Bratislava is stagnating.

### Employment rates

With the beginning of the transformation process and the integration into the European economy and the international division of labour employment was reduced after 1990 – in different degrees and at different pace from country to country – because the businesses had to adapt to new competitive conditions and changed cost situations.

Graph 1: *Change in employment, 2001–2000*



The previously employed either became unemployed or they retired more or less voluntarily from the labour market either temporarily (hidden labour force) or permanently. Again this affected certain groups of persons and regions in different degrees depending on the starting position.

In this context the employment rate (the share of employed aged 15–64, i.e. of “working” age, in the population of the same age) shows to what result this adaptation process has led up to now for the employed as a whole or for specific groups of persons, i.e. what share of the working age population (generally defined for comparison purposes without taking into account the actual age at the entry into the labour force or at retirement) actually is engaged in the production process. Apart from the effects of the general economic and labour market situation the overall employment rate depends on the extent of employment among women, on the average age of young people at their entry into the labour market (duration of education) and on the employment of older persons. The crucial points regarding this latter group are, on the one hand, the respective retirement regulations and, on the other, the chance of remaining in employment in competition with other groups of persons. Although the duration of education and retirement regulations can be very different from country to country, they hardly should affect regional differences within a country. It therefore is at least surprising at first sight how much the employment rates differ even within a country.

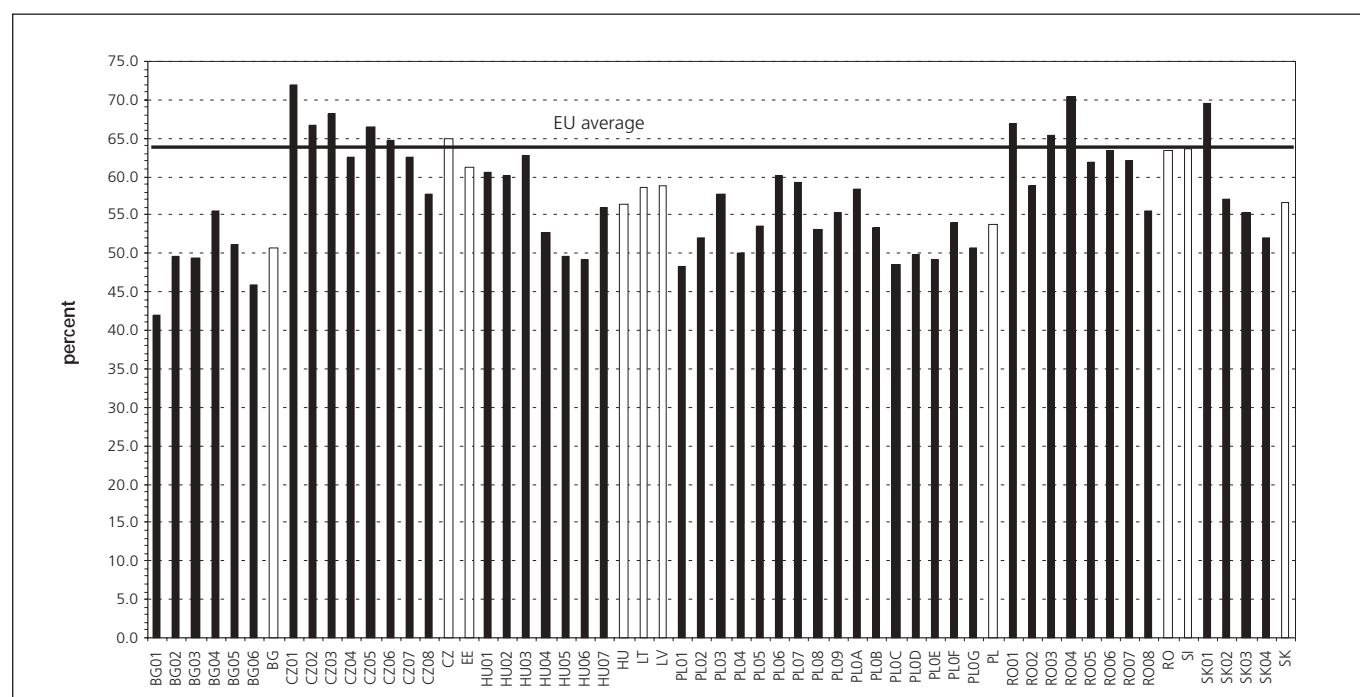
In the comparison between countries especially Bulgaria and Poland attract notice with their relative low employment rates of 50 and 54% (cf. Graph 2). But except for the Czech Republic all Candidate Countries lie either below or at the EU average (here given for comparison purposes).

Across all regions there is a difference of 30 percentage points: In Prague (CZ01) the employment rate lies at 72%, in the North-West region of Bulgaria (BG01) only at 42%. However, the pattern of differences in the employment rate does not correspond with the different character of the economic structure in the regions. The regions in the Czech Republic and Romania have the highest employment rates, yet are of a very different character: In Romania they are strongly agricultural, while the Czech regions (with the exception of the service centre Prague) have very high employment shares in industry.

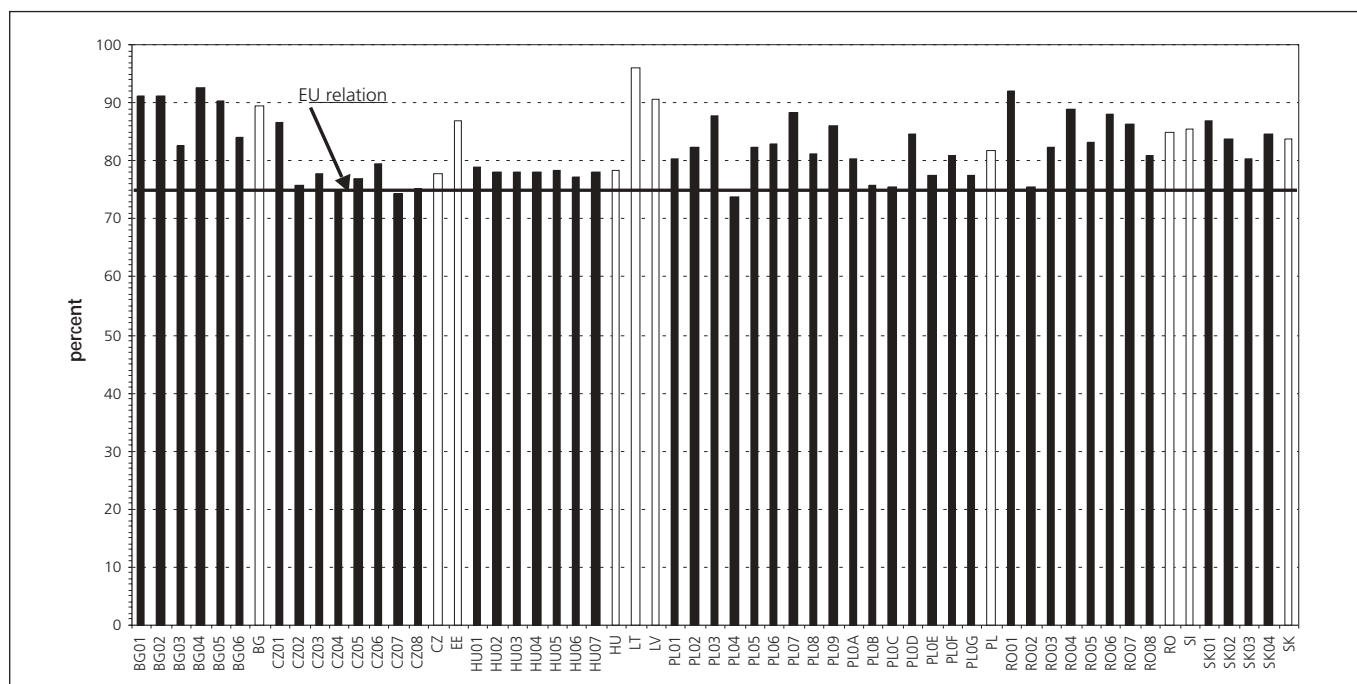
There is, however, a relatively clear connection across almost all countries between low employment and high unemployment rates (cf. Graph 8 below): the higher the unemployment rate, the lower is the employment rate. Hungary, however, is an exception in this regard, having below-average employment rates, but at the same time also very low unemployment rates both for the country as a whole and the individual regions.

The employment rate does not only differ between countries, but also between the individual regions within each country. In the Czech Republic, for example, it ranges from 72% in Prague to 58% in Ostravsko (CZ08, an area marked by difficulties with heavy industries), in Bulgaria from almost 56% in the South-West region (BG04) to 42% in the immediately adjacent North-West region (BG01). Differences of the same magnitude also are found in Romania with over 70% in the South-West region (RO04, with a high agricultural share, but also an increasing share of industry) and, in contrast, only 55% in the capital region Bucharest (RO08), in Slovakia with a disparity of almost 18 percentage points between the capital Bratislava (SK01) and the easternmost

Graph 2: *Employment rates, 2001*



Graph 3: Employment rates of women as percentage of employment rates of men, 2001



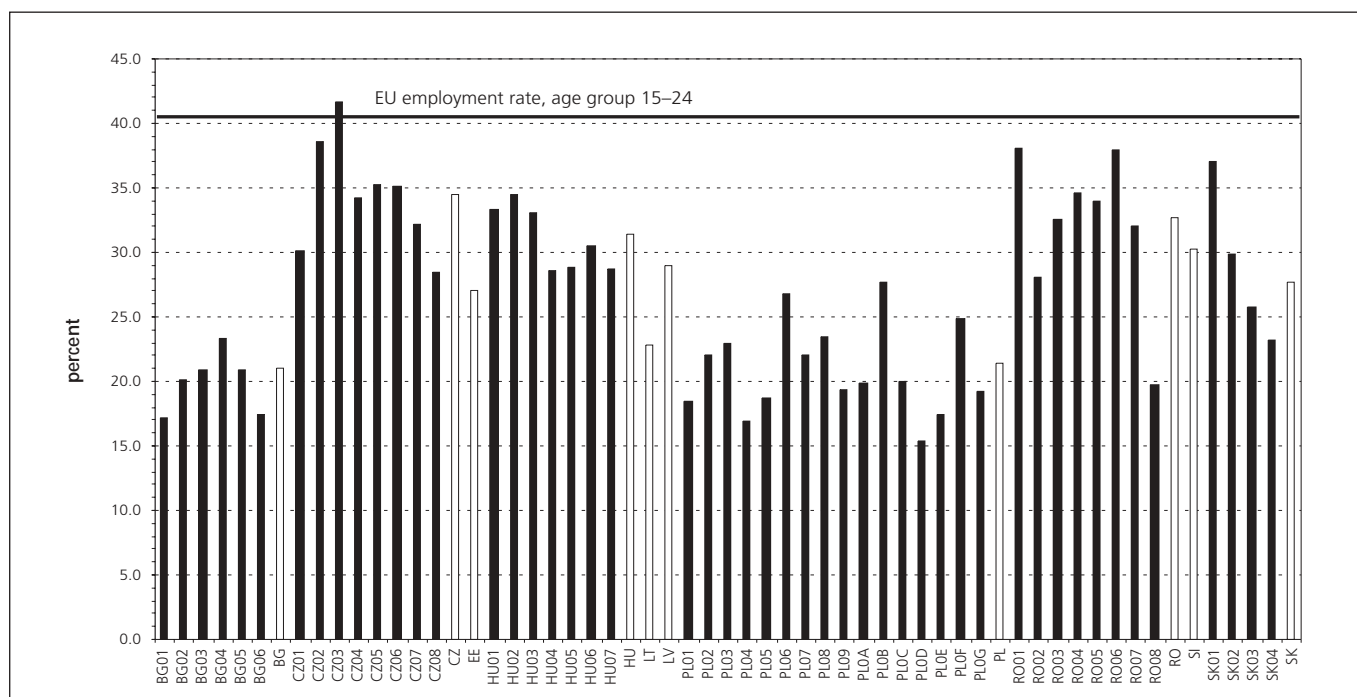
region (SK04), and even in Hungary with its generally low employment rate 63% are registered in the western region bordering on Austria (HU03) against 49% in the eastern region on the border to Romania and the Ukraine (HU06).

Women are distinctly less engaged in employment than men. However, compared to the EU, the relation of the female to the male employment rate in the CECs generally is clearly higher (cf. the comparison line in Graph 3). But these differences vary strongly both between and within

countries, with an obvious connection in that respect that the higher the employment rate for women, the higher also is the overall employment rate.

Another group of persons is integrated into active employment to a much lesser degree than the working age population as a whole: young people aged 15 to 24 years. On the EU average the employment rate of this age group lies at 40.3%, but in Bulgaria and Poland only around 21 and 22% (cf. Graph 4). In the comparison among the CECs, the

Graph 4: Employment rates of age group 15–24, 2001



Czech Republic and Romania have the highest values (with a very different economic structure, as noted above). The reasons for the great differences in comparison with the EU first of all lie in the different system of occupational training. While occupational training in the CECs still is strongly school-oriented, it is in large part directly linked with employment in the EU. In Germany, for example, all participants in the so-called dual system of vocational training are statistically considered as employed. However, these differences in the systems cannot be the only explanation for the differences in the employment level. Furthermore, there does not seem to be either a positive or a negative relation with the share of agricultural employment. Here, too, it obviously is the general economic performance which has a direct influence on the relative participation of young people in employment: the higher the overall employment rate in a region, the higher also is the integration of younger persons in employment. The only notable exception in this respect is the Czech capital Prague (CZ01): while the employment rate here – as mentioned above – reaches the highest value of all CEC regions with 72%, the youth employment rate only reaches a value of 30% (like the Czech problem region Ostrava, CZ08). One reason for this may be that Prague has a very well developed system of school and university education and thus attracts students from the whole country. Correspondingly, the age of entry into working life in Prague also would lie higher than in other regions.

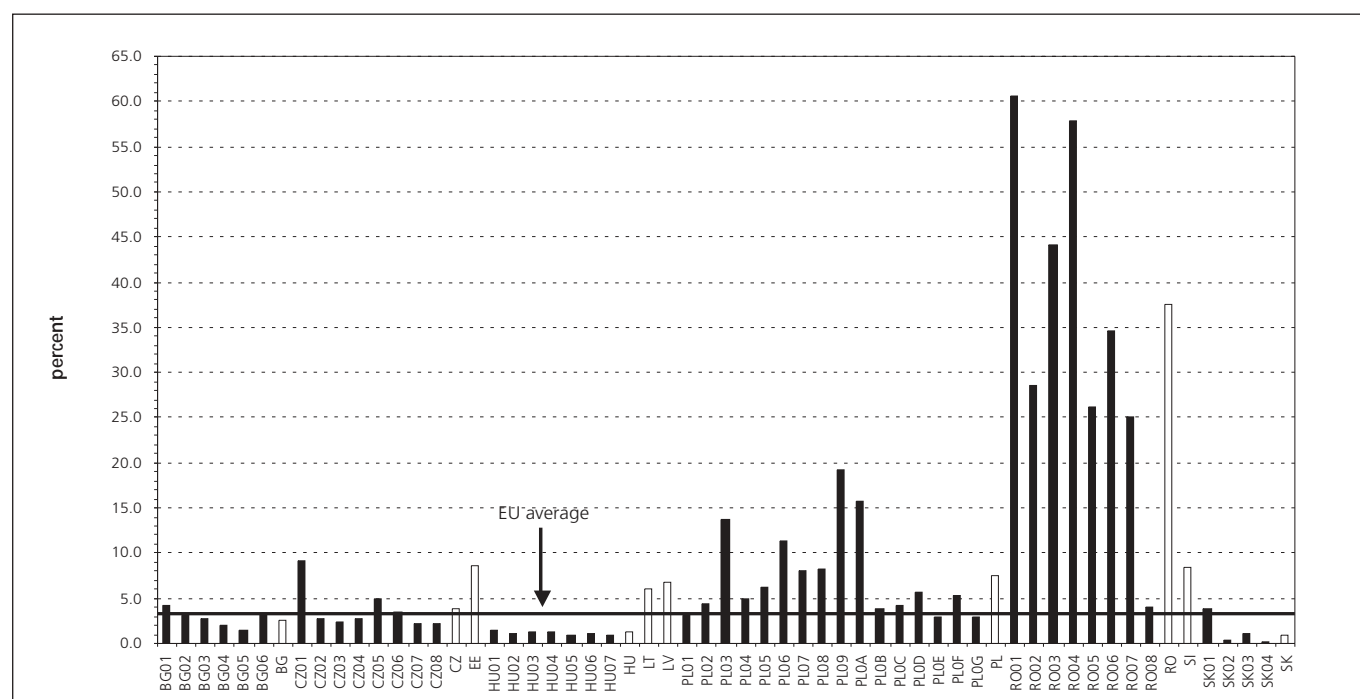
Another age group of the employed should be discussed here which rarely finds attention in this context: the group of those over 65 years of age. Due to the social side effects of the transformation process and because of the development of their income situation these persons are forced to

be employed more often in individual countries and regions than in the EU. This statement applies especially to Romania where an extremely high old age employment is registered (cf. Graph 5), above all in the North-East (RO01) and South-West regions (RO04). But in Poland and the Baltic States, too, those aged 65 or more work more frequently than on the average, with the tendency going in the direction that old age employment is the higher, the greater the share of those working in agriculture. However, this is probably less a result of an opportunity to work rather than of the necessity to work, in the framework of the agricultural subsistence economy still prevalent in many CECs as well as of the social situation of older persons referred to above which still seems to be characteristic for the countries concerned particularly in agriculture. But to a certain extent there also is another relation: old age employment in the capital regions sometimes lies clearly above the average, particularly in the Czech Republic (CZ01) and Slovakia (SK01). The question whether this is the result of a special urban social problem or, on the contrary, a result of economic incentives for employment cannot be pursued further here.

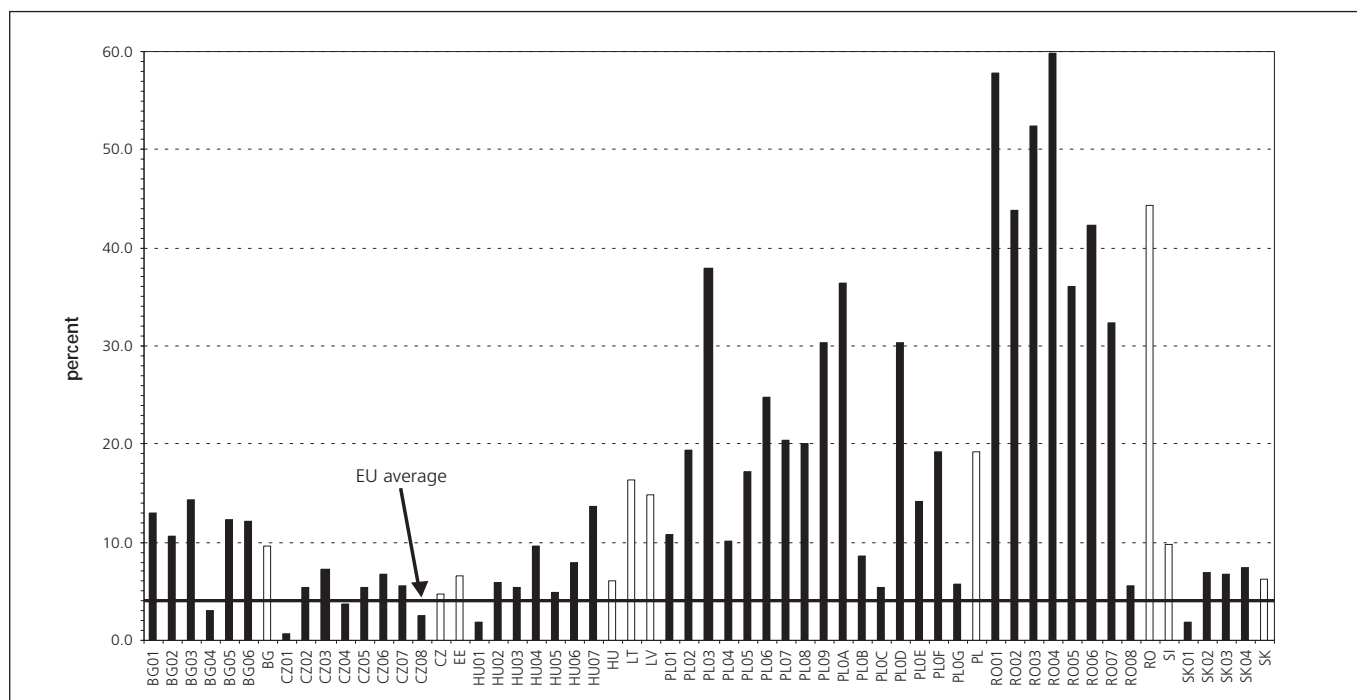
### Employment in agriculture

In the discussion up to now specific regional phenomena repeatedly were explained by referring to the special role of agriculture in the individual CECs. With the exception of the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary and Slovakia, a considerably greater share of persons is employed in agriculture than in the EU (cf. Graph 6). This applies in particular to Romania (here 44% of the employed work in agriculture) and Poland (19%). In Romania these shares reach values between 50 and 60% in three regions (North-East, RO01, South, RO03, South-West, RO04). But in Poland, too, between 30 and

Graph 5: *Employment rates, age group 65+, 2001*



Graph 6: *Employment share of agriculture, 2001*



40% of the employed are active in agriculture in four voivodships (Lubelskie, PL03, Podkarpackie, PL09, Podlaskie/Białystock, PLOA, and Swietokrzyskie/Kielce, PL0D). On the one hand, agriculture in these regions to a wide extent offers opportunities for employment and income (though often only in the form of a subsistence economy for self-support without direct relation to the market). On the other hand, this also means that the labour productivity in agriculture is extremely low and thus not competitive in the European or international context. Insofar these regions in the future will be subject to considerable adaptation pressure and the necessity to create other/new jobs for those persons who can no longer find employment here.

### Self-employment and agriculture

Self-employment is generally considered as a motor of economic dynamics and flexible reactions to market changes. A high share of self-employed in a national economy may therefore be interpreted to represent good prospects for the creation of new jobs and a potentially favourable position in international competition. During the time of the socialist economy it was not possible everywhere – and if so, then only to a limited extent – to be self-employed, and that as a rule only in agriculture and to a certain extent in crafts and trade. Therefore a backlog of entries into self-employment was and is to be expected.

A first glance at the current situation in part indicates very high shares of self-employed (without family workers) in total employment (self-employment rate). But this is mainly due to the concentration of self-employment in agriculture. On the country level the self-employment rates (including agriculture) reach values far above 20% in Romania and

Poland (cf. Graph 7). In several regions they even lie between 30 and 35%. This is the case in the Polish voivodships Lubelskie, Podlaskie/Białystock and Swietokrzyskie/Kielce (PL03, PLOA, PL0D), in Romania again in the three regions North-East, South, South-West (RO01, RO03, RO04).

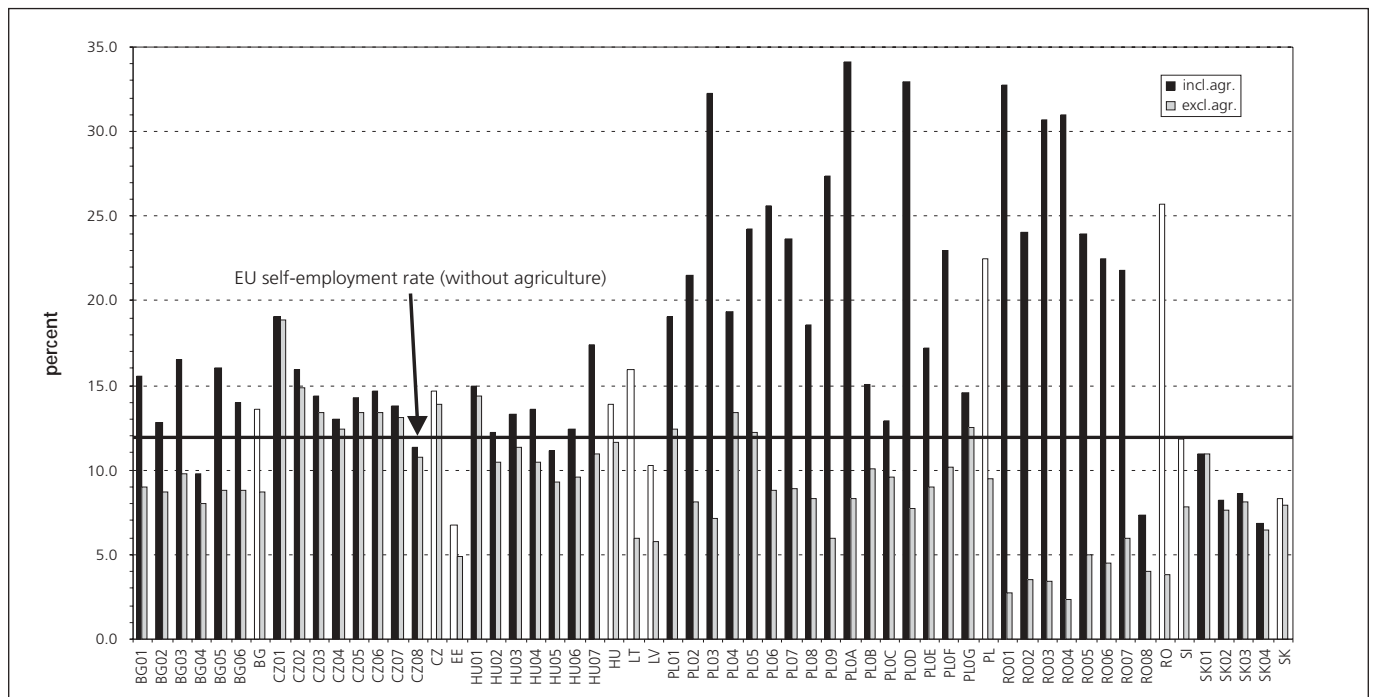
Since one here can, due to the low labour productivity in agriculture, hardly assume any great economic or employment-oriented dynamics, a general evaluation and comparisons between the CECs and their regions among each other and with the EU may be better based on self-employment rates which exclude the self-employed in agriculture.

A comparison of this indicator on the country level leads to the following observations: in almost all CECs (with the exception of the Czech Republic) these adjusted rates in part still lie clearly below the EU average (11.9%); particularly the Baltic States still lag very far behind the overall development – undoubtedly because of their previous affiliation with the Soviet Union; besides the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland also are approaching the EU value quite closely; and the higher the overall self-employment rate, the lower is the adjusted rate.

This latter statement also is true on the level of regional comparisons. Especially in Poland and Romania this fact is obvious. But it also should be noted that this self-employment rate lies above the EU average in almost all regions in the Czech Republic (with the exception of the area of Ostrava, CZ08, with its heavy industries). In Poland, too, four voivodships reach or surpass the average EU value (Dolnoslaskie, PL01, on the border to the Czech Republic and Germany, Lubuskie, PL04, on the German border to Brandenburg, Lodzkie, PL05, located in central Poland, and Zachodniopomorskie, PL0G, again on the border to



Graph 7: Self-employment rates, with and without agriculture, 2001



Germany/Mecklenburg-Vorpommern). In Hungary only the capital region Budapest (HU01) shows a value above the EU average. Apart from this it is not surprising that the metropolitan and especially the capital regions exhibit particular dynamics in this respect in all CECs.

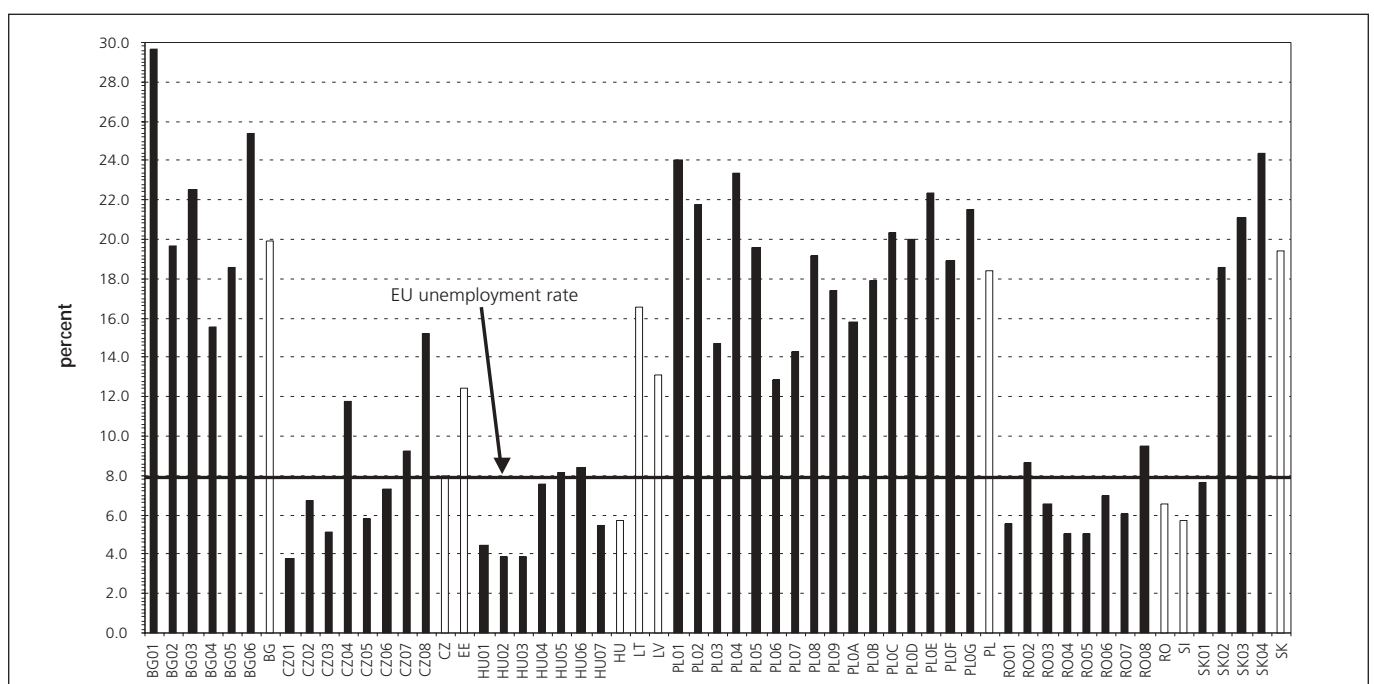
**Unemployment**

A discussion of the different aspects of employment, of course, cannot give a complete picture of what is happen-

ing on the labour market since it excludes those persons on the labour market who are removed from employment in the process of current changes or who retired from the labour market altogether – either temporarily or for good. A look at the development of unemployment thus broadens and supplements the overall picture on the country or regional level.

The unemployment rate strongly varies both between countries and especially between regions (cf. Graph 8).

Graph 8: Unemployment rates, 2001



## Regional labour markets

Hungary, Slovenia (both 5.7%) and Romania (6.6%) have the lowest values, even lower than the average value for the EU (7.6%). The highest values are registered for Bulgaria (19.9%), Slovakia (19.4%) and Poland (18.4%).

A first analysis by regions and the comparison with employment rates does not show a clear and general relation in the direction that the unemployment rates would be the lower, the higher the employment rates are. But a higher share of agricultural employment tends to be linked with a lower unemployment rate because a relatively greater part of the labour force is bound there.

In some countries it is the capital region which exhibits the lowest unemployment rate. This applies in particular to the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia, but also to Bulgaria and Poland (there the capitals Sofia and Warsaw are part of the larger regions South-West, BG04, and Mazowieckie, PL07, while in the other three countries mentioned the capital areas CZ01, HU01 and SK01 represent separate statistical regions). In Romania, in contrast, the capital region (RO08) shows a very high unemployment rate in comparison with the other regions. This may be traced back to the fact that this capital has not yet been able to develop its central service functions.

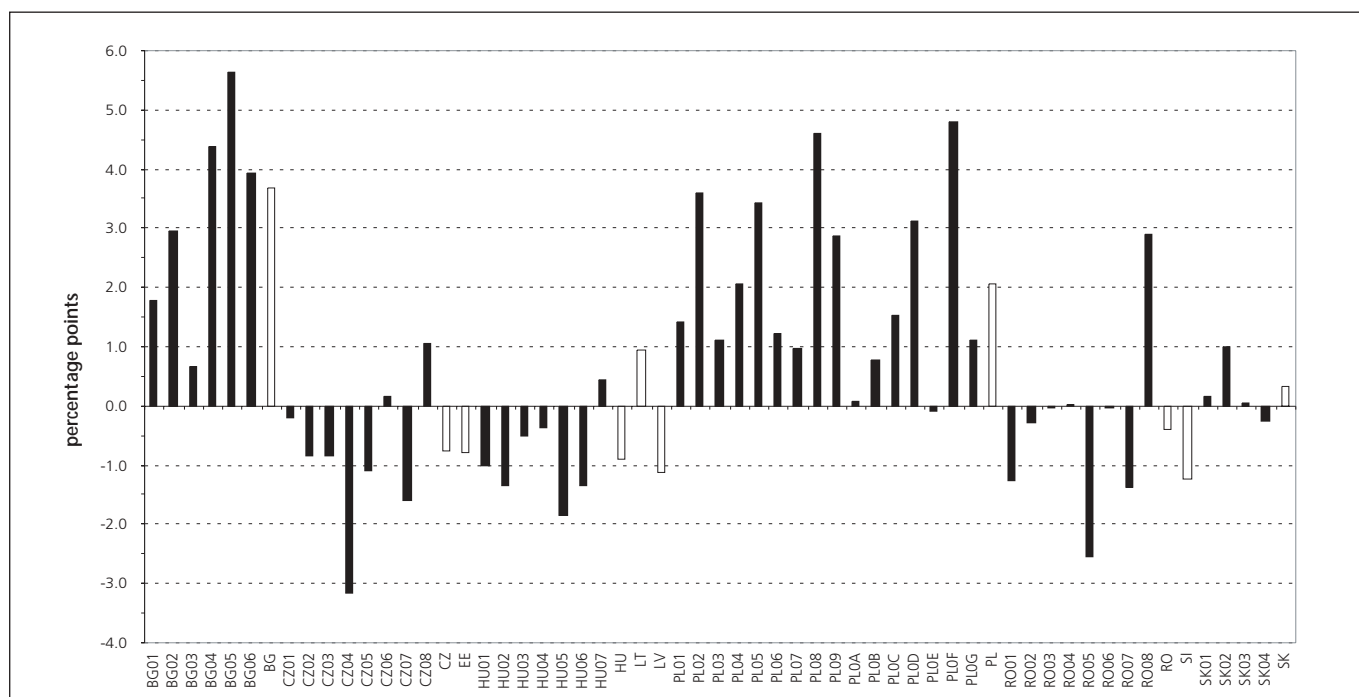
The changes in unemployment rates between the years 2000 and 2001 also confirm these basic findings (cf. Graph 9). In Poland, however, almost all predominantly non-agricultural voivodships register a below average or at least average increase in their unemployment rates, while for the predominantly agricultural voivodships this applies to Lubelskie (PL03), Malopolskie (PL06), Podlaskie/Bialystock (PLOA) and Mazwieckie (PL07).

Again the capital regions (with the exception of Sofia, BG04, and Bucharest, RO08) here assume a relatively favourable position in the annual comparison across all CEC regions and also within their respective countries. This applies above all to Budapest (HU01), Warsaw (Mazowieckie, PL07) and Bratislava (SK01). In Prague (CZ01) the unemployment rate only sank relatively little, but this may be attributed in part to the base effect of the already quite low value in the preceding year. Apart from that, the strongest decline in the unemployment rate could be observed in North-West Bohemia (CZ04), which previously had been burdened with considerable consequences due to structural adaptations (decline of soft coal production), and in the North-East region of Hungary (HU05, with a mixed economic structure and a low share of agriculture compared to the national average).

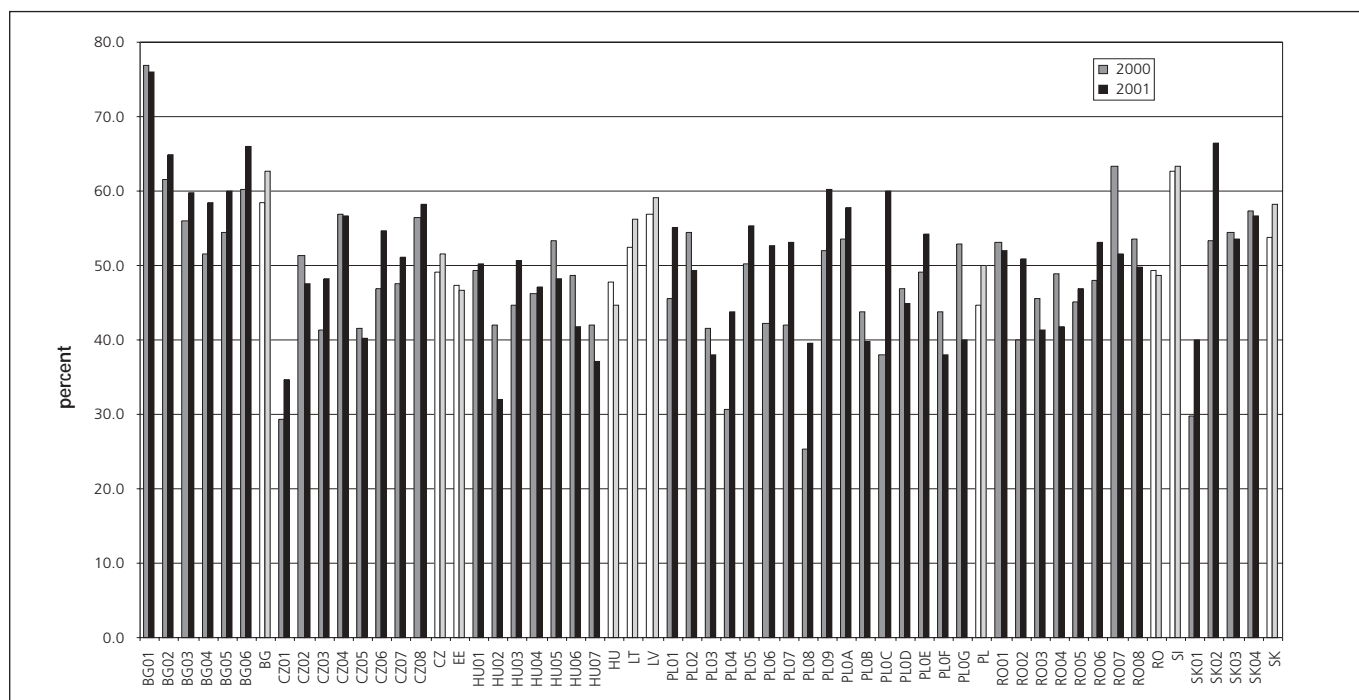
### Long-term unemployment

The persistency of unemployment in the sense of an increasing duration has long been one of the great labour market problems also in the EU countries. Thus the reduction of long-term unemployment (here: duration of unemployment one year and longer) was given high priority in the formulation of the Employment Guidelines of the EU. In the regions of the CECs looked at here, the long-term unemployment shares in overall unemployment cover quite a wide span (cf. Graph 10). In 2001 it extends from a share of 32% in the West-Central region of Hungary (HU02) to 76% in the North-West region of Bulgaria (BG01). In many regions one can observe a rise in the duration of unemployment between 2000 and 2001, in a strong degree in some voivodships of Poland (Lubuskie, PLO3, Opolskie, PL08, and Slaskie, PLOC, with the mining areas and heavy industries around Kattowice) and in the western region of Slovakia (SK02,

Graph 9: *Change of unemployment rates, 2001–2000*



Graph 10: Shares of long-term unemployed, 2000 and 2001



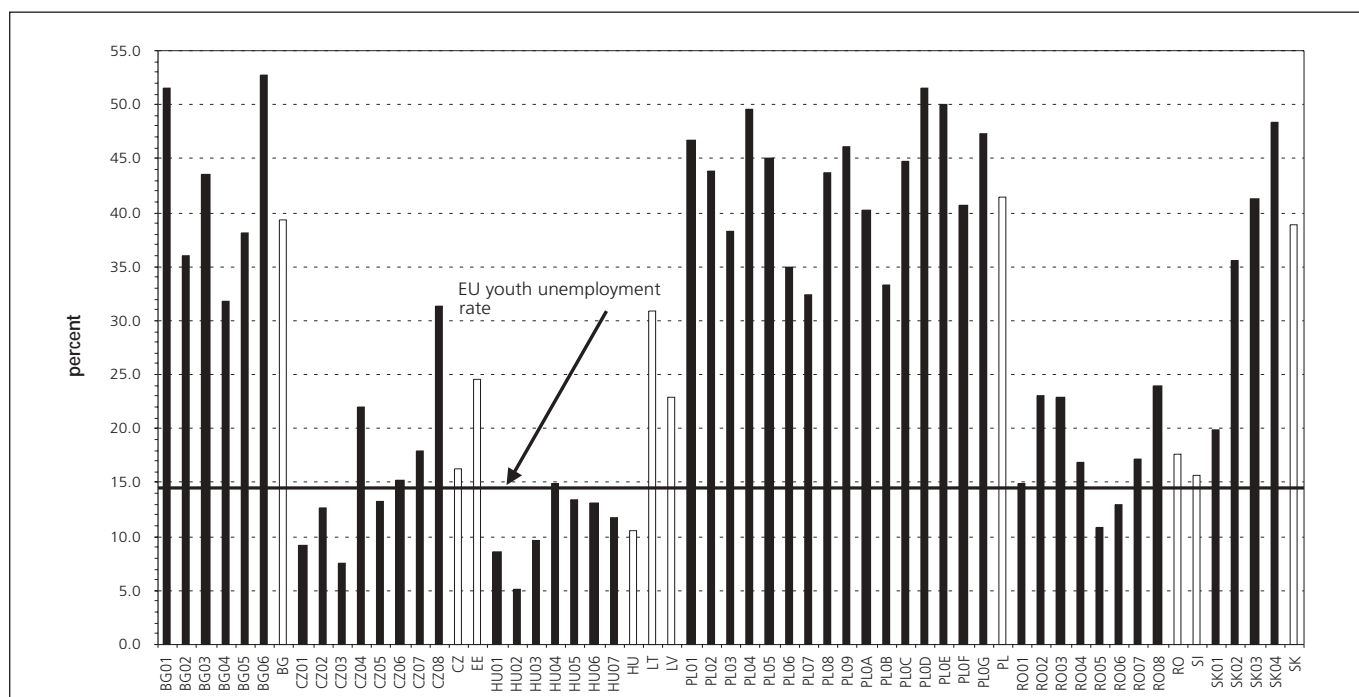
bordering on the capital Bratislava). In a few regions, however, the share of long-term unemployed clearly declines, for example in Hungary (region Közép-Dunantul, HU02), in the Polish region Zachodniopomorskie (PLOG) and in Central Romania (RO07). However, the reasons for this can be quite different: either long-term unemployed overproportionally exit from unemployment, or the new entries into unemployment are so numerous as to automatically reduce the share of long-term unemployed. This cannot be examined further,

however, on the basis of the here available data.

### Youth unemployment

The integration of young people into the labour market is another challenge for labour market policy in many countries of Europe. This also belongs to the main objectives of the Employment Guidelines of the EU. On the EU average the youth unemployment rate lies at 14.5%, but in many CECs far above this value (cf. Graph 11). Only young people

Graph 11: Youth unemployment rates, 2001



in Hungary obviously are in a much more favourable position. In Bulgaria, Poland and Slovakia one finds values around 40%. There is an enormous variation between the individual regions across countries as well as within them. The top values with rates around 50% are reached in the Bulgarian regions North-West (BG01) and South-East (BG06), the Polish voivodships Lubuskie (PL04, on the border to Brandenburg), Swietokrzyskie/Kielce (PLOD, in the southeast) and Warminsko-Mazurskie (PLOE, on the border to Kaliningrad/Lithuania) and the eastern Slovak region (SK04, on the border to the Ukraine). In the Czech Republic and Hungary, in contrast, the level of youth unemployment is comparatively low nearly everywhere, especially in the capital regions (CZ01, HU01), and this also applies to the Slovak capital Bratislava (SK01).

The youth unemployment rates almost generally surpass the overall unemployment rates by more than the factor 2 (EU relation 1.9) (Graph 12). But in several regions one can observe significantly higher deviations, the strongest ones being in the South and South-West regions of Romania (RO03 and RO04), but also in the eastern and south-eastern Polish voivodships (Podlaskie/Bialystock, PL0A, Lubelskie, PL03, Swietokrzyskie/Kielce, PLOD, Maloposkie with Krakow and Nowy Sacz, PL06) or the Hungarian West-Danube region Nyugat-Dunantul (HU03). Even in the capital regions Prague (CZ01), Budapest (HU01) and Bratislava (SK01) the situation of young people apparently tends to be unfavourable in relation to overall unemployment.

### Conclusion

In conclusion it should be noted that the picture of regional labour market situations only could be sketched on the basis of the here available indicators (which presently do not yet allow one to observe the development over a longer period of time).

But one can draw several general conclusions about the regionally differentiated situation: on first sight, the regions with a pronounced agricultural character seem to be in a rather favourable position with respect to employment and unemployment. More differentiating analyses suggest, however, that certain problems begin to emerge there (lower self-employment rate if agriculture is excluded, youth unemployment).

As a rule, the capital regions (inasmuch as they are comparable at all due to their non-uniform size) are the dynamic centres of the respective countries. But even there one should note certain challenges for labour market policy (youth unemployment).

In a greater part of the CECs the regions with an old industrial structure still have to fight with considerable problems (decline of employment, low employment rates, increase of overall unemployment, youth unemployment).

A consistent regional policy in the sense discussed at the beginning would find ample challenges here.

Graph 12: *Relation of youth unemployment rate to overall unemployment rate, 2001*

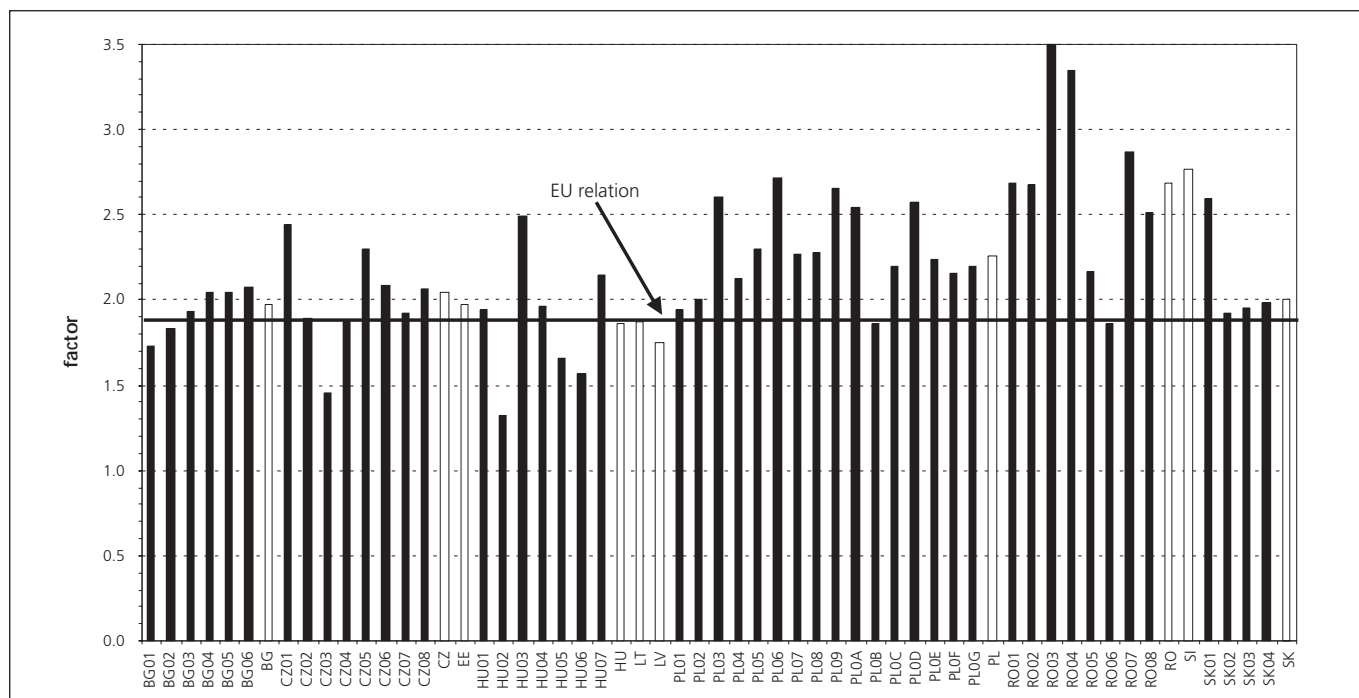


Table 1: Employment rates by age groups, 2000 and 2001

Country Region	15-24		25-54		55-64		65+		15-64	
	2000	2001	2000	2001	2000	2001	2000	2001	2000	2001
North-West	14.5	17.2	58.5	56.1	(12.4)	17.5	.	.	41.6	42.0
North Central	19.5	20.2	67.7	67.2	23.4	27.0	4.8	(3.1)	50.0	49.6
North-East	20.9	20.9	64.6	65.9	21.7	22.1	(4.4)	(2.8)	48.1	49.4
South-West	22.9	23.4	77.6	74.1	25.6	28.0	(2.0)	(2.0)	58.1	55.5
South Central	20.4	20.9	71.6	68.9	22.8	22.5	(2.1)	.	52.7	51.1
South-East	18.2	17.5	62.3	62.4	16.7	19.0	.	.	45.6	46.0
<b>Bulgaria</b>	<b>20.5</b>	<b>21.0</b>	<b>69.7</b>	<b>68.0</b>	<b>22.1</b>	<b>23.9</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>51.5</b>	<b>50.7</b>
Praha	32.1	30.1	87.3	87.7	56.9	59.9	9.8	9.1	71.4	72.0
Stredni Cechy	43.5	38.6	81.6	83.0	35.9	37.3	3.4	2.7	66.5	66.6
Jihozapad	41.5	41.7	85.1	84.8	34.5	36.1	3.2	2.5	68.1	68.2
Severozapad	35.7	34.2	74.8	78.4	33.9	34.1	3.8	2.7	60.4	62.6
Severovýchod	37.8	35.2	83.3	83.8	35.7	37.3	5.0	4.9	66.4	66.4
Jihovýchod	38.9	35.1	82.8	82.6	34.3	33.9	3.0	3.5	65.7	64.8
Stredni Morava	33.1	32.1	80.1	80.4	32.2	31.0	1.8	2.2	62.5	62.5
Ostravsko	28.6	28.5	76.5	75.2	24.8	25.3	1.6	2.2	58.4	57.8
<b>Czech Republic</b>	<b>36.4</b>	<b>34.4</b>	<b>81.5</b>	<b>82.0</b>	<b>36.1</b>	<b>36.9</b>	<b>4.1</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>64.9</b>	<b>65.0</b>
<b>Estonia</b>	<b>27.4</b>	<b>27.1</b>	<b>76.8</b>	<b>75.8</b>	<b>43.0</b>	<b>48.6</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>8.6</b>	<b>60.6</b>	<b>61.1</b>
Közep-Magyarország	34.7	33.4	77.6	77.8	27.8	29.9	2.8	1.5	60.2	60.6
Közep-Dunantul	34.6	34.4	77.6	78.4	19.5	21.2	.	.	58.8	60.1
Nyugat-Dunantul	39.0	33.0	80.7	80.6	26.4	31.0	.	.	63.1	62.8
Del-Dunantul	32.0	28.6	69.1	69.6	18.8	17.8	.	.	53.1	52.7
Eszak-Magyarország	29.2	28.9	65.7	66.0	16.3	16.1	(1.6)	.	49.2	49.6
Eszak-Alföld	29.6	30.4	63.0	63.5	16.7	17.7	.	.	48.4	49.2
Del-Alföld	32.5	28.7	72.6	73.1	21.1	25.0	(1.5)	.	55.7	56.0
<b>Hungary</b>	<b>33.1</b>	<b>31.4</b>	<b>72.8</b>	<b>73.1</b>	<b>21.9</b>	<b>23.7</b>	<b>1.7</b>	<b>1.2</b>	<b>55.9</b>	<b>56.3</b>
<b>Lithuania</b>	<b>26.7</b>	<b>22.9</b>	<b>76.0</b>	<b>75.5</b>	<b>42.2</b>	<b>39.1</b>	<b>7.8</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>60.1</b>	<b>58.6</b>
<b>Latvia</b>	<b>30.1</b>	<b>29.0</b>	<b>73.6</b>	<b>75.9</b>	<b>35.4</b>	<b>36.4</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>6.8</b>	<b>57.7</b>	<b>58.9</b>
Dolnoslaskie	21.3	18.4	65.6	63.5	27.0	26.2	(2.2)	(3.1)	50.7	48.3
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	21.7	22.0	69.2	67.9	18.6	22.8	(3.2)	(4.4)	52.5	52.0
Lubelskie	24.3	23.0	75.4	73.8	44.1	42.0	14.0	13.7	60.2	57.7
Lubuskie	22.1	17.0	64.6	64.8	(16.4)	25.5	.	(4.9)	49.6	50.0
Lodzkie	21.6	18.7	72.6	69.3	28.3	32.3	7.4	6.2	56.0	53.7
Malopolskie	28.4	26.9	74.8	75.3	33.7	40.8	9.0	11.3	59.0	60.1
Mazowieckie	27.4	22.0	77.9	75.5	37.6	39.9	10.5	8.1	61.2	59.2
Opolskie	26.1	23.5	71.8	68.4	30.2	30.4	(7.4)	(8.3)	55.9	53.2
Podkarpackie	18.4	19.4	72.6	71.7	38.1	35.2	17.2	19.3	56.3	55.3
Podlaskie	23.8	19.9	73.9	73.7	41.0	39.6	(11.4)	15.8	58.4	58.3
Pomorskie	23.1	27.7	68.7	68.4	29.4	30.2	.	(3.9)	53.0	53.4
Slaskie	24.8	20.0	64.1	64.4	16.2	18.5	(4.0)	4.3	48.7	48.5
Swietokrzyskie	21.1	15.4	70.4	67.5	29.2	26.5	13.3	(5.7)	53.4	50.0
Warminsko-Mazurskie	24.7	17.4	65.8	65.5	(15.8)	22.0	.	.	50.5	49.2
Wielkopolskie	27.6	24.8	72.4	69.4	28.3	27.8	5.3	5.4	56.7	54.0
Zachodniopomorskie	18.8	19.2	67.2	64.8	21.4	26.2	(3.3)	(2.9)	51.7	50.7
<b>Poland</b>	<b>24.1</b>	<b>21.4</b>	<b>71.0</b>	<b>69.5</b>	<b>29.0</b>	<b>30.5</b>	<b>7.6</b>	<b>7.5</b>	<b>55.1</b>	<b>53.8</b>
Nord-Est	39.8	38.1	79.6	79.0	64.9	66.5	58.2	60.6	67.2	66.9
Sud-Est	32.9	28.0	76.2	73.9	48.7	44.3	36.3	28.5	61.9	58.9
Sud	34.7	32.6	79.9	79.5	61.3	55.8	45.0	44.2	66.9	65.5
Sud-Vest	36.0	34.7	82.6	82.9	70.1	72.1	56.3	57.9	70.0	70.4
Vest	33.0	34.0	76.7	76.7	39.3	37.9	28.5	26.2	61.6	61.9
Nord-Vest	36.0	37.9	77.1	76.1	50.0	49.6	33.5	34.5	63.2	63.4
Centru	32.9	32.1	77.4	78.2	39.0	41.3	23.5	25.0	61.1	62.2
Bucuresti	20.6	19.8	79.4	74.3	26.2	22.1	6.8	4.1	59.5	55.5
<b>Romania</b>	<b>34.0</b>	<b>32.7</b>	<b>78.6</b>	<b>77.6</b>	<b>52.0</b>	<b>50.5</b>	<b>38.2</b>	<b>37.5</b>	<b>64.2</b>	<b>63.3</b>
<b>Slovenia</b>	<b>31.2</b>	<b>30.3</b>	<b>82.6</b>	<b>83.8</b>	<b>22.3</b>	<b>23.4</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>8.5</b>	<b>62.7</b>	<b>63.6</b>
Bratislavsky kraj	33.1	37.0	87.8	86.0	47.9	43.9	3.5	3.9	70.2	69.5
Zapadne Slovensko	29.6	29.9	74.7	75.1	18.2	20.4	.	.	56.3	57.2
Stredne Slovensko	29.9	25.8	71.7	73.4	18.2	19.9	.	.	54.7	55.2
Vychodne Slovensko	23.4	23.2	70.0	70.2	17.0	17.8	.	.	51.7	52.1
<b>Slovak Republic</b>	<b>28.3</b>	<b>27.7</b>	<b>74.3</b>	<b>74.6</b>	<b>21.4</b>	<b>22.5</b>	<b>0.8</b>	<b>0.9</b>	<b>56.3</b>	<b>56.7</b>

### Working time

#### Concepts and data

This section gives a general overview of the weekly working time in the 10 CECs. The standard adopted has been the number of hours usually worked as they are requested from the interviewed in the Labour Force Survey. This measure reflects the number of hours the person normally works in the main job according to the international definitions (details are provided in the section on “Data sources and methods”). The standard adopted excludes hours worked in possible second jobs. This means that all the durations reported here concern the main job, i.e. that one which a multiple job holder considers basic or more important – though in doubtful cases the instruction is to refer to the job with the greatest number of hours usually worked.

The hours presented are average values that concern each reference group: gender, occupation, economic sector, full-time/part-time and cross-tabulations of these characteristics.

Table 1 in the section annex gives a general overview of current working time in the 10 CECs. It shows the 2001 data for each one and overall averages for the 10 CECs as well as overall averages for the 15 Member States of the European Union. This table provides a wide scope of information concerning working time in the Candidate Countries, though in more detailed breakdowns some problems of reliability arise.

Thus, this table does not present figures for NACE sections P and Q (“private households with employed persons” and “extraterritorial organizations and bodies”, respectively). On the more aggregated level (all persons in employment) only one country, Poland, has a reliable figure. This means that for any other breakdown the situation would be worse. As in the NACE sections A to O no sections have been merged (except the *natural* A+B, agriculture and fisheries) it was decided to keep individual NACE sections and to exclude P and Q altogether rather than merging them with adjacent ones.

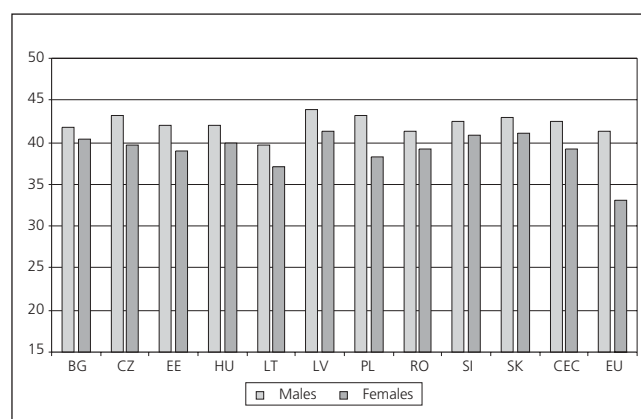
While two of the four parts of the Table 1 present few unreliable figures, the other two parts concerning self-employment and employees working part-time contain many unreliable figures or cells for which no information is available. Therefore, the cross-classification by sex and economic activity was omitted for these two reference groups.

#### All persons in employment

The general overview of the 2001 average hours usually worked by all persons in employment in the 10 Candidate Countries shows that in all of these countries the weekly duration of working time is longer than in the EU as a whole. The overall averages of the CECs vs. the EU are 41.0 and 37.7, respectively. Even if many details are hidden in such a total, this means that on the average each employed person in the CECs works 3.3 hours more than in the EU.

Differentiated by gender it turns out that men in the CECs always work more than women, and the comparison with the EU remains notable: except for two cases (males in Lithuania and Romania) all the durations in the CECs are higher than the EU averages (see Graph 1). This conclusion also applies to the comparison with the usual hours in almost all Member States, the only exception being Greece, where the weekly durations are nearly 45 hours for males and 40 for females.

Graph 1: *Number of hours usually worked, all persons in employment, 2001*



The highest values in the breakdown by gender are found in Latvia with 44, in the Czech Republic with 43.2, in Poland with 43.1 and in Slovakia with 43 hours, always for men; the lowest in Lithuania with 37.1, in Poland with 38.3 and in Estonia with 39.0 hours, always for women.

The comparisons of working time between the CECs and the EU at the aggregate level by gender should be taken with caution because they can be somewhat deceptive. In fact, the comparison between women’s and men’s weekly working time in the EU (33.1 and 41.2 hours, respectively) is strongly influenced by the large share of women working on a part-time basis. The part-time share also influences the difference of 42.4 vs. 41.2 hours between males in the CECs and the EU (these relations will be discussed in greater detail below in the analysis of part-time durations and part-time shares).

Other characteristics to be noted with regard to all persons in employment are that:

- in all of the breakdowns (gender, economic activity, occupation and economic activity by sex) the great majority of weekly hours fall between 39 and 43 hours; this reflects a limited convergence of this indicator across countries and subgroups;
- the highest duration observed is for males in Latvia in the sector “hotels & restaurants” (NACE H), 54.9 hours;
- other extreme upper values can be observed in agriculture & fisheries; the value for males in this sector (46.9) also is the highest average in the EU;



- the lowest duration is 29.1 hours for Polish women working in the education sector (NACE M);
- throughout all the NACE breakdowns the weekly duration for men is generally superior to that of women; in only nine of the 140 cell pairs of this breakdown the difference goes in the opposite direction and four are noted in Estonia (mining & quarrying, electricity, gas & water, construction and education);
- the highest differences in favour of men are in agriculture & fishery in Poland (7.1 hours), real estate & business in Latvia (6.6 hours) and trade & repair and hotels & restaurants in the Czech Republic (5.8 and 5.6 hours).

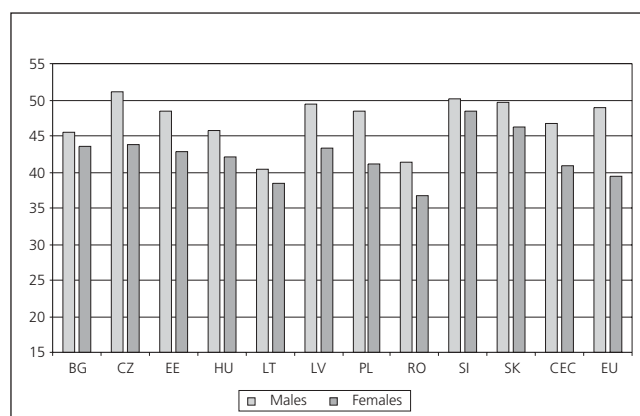
### Self-employed persons

As expected, the self-employed have the highest number of usual hours, even though unfortunately many figures are unreliable or are not available at all. The overall averages and the breakdown by sex show durations relatively close to European standards. But this proximity only exists between the CEC and EU averages as a whole. The overall average of the CECs, 44.6, is less than the overall EU average, 46.2. But going through the CECs one by one, the first differences appear: in five countries – the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Slovenia and Slovakia – the durations are higher. In the breakdown by sex, a first glance seems to indicate that men in the EU work longer than men in the CECs and women in the EU work less than women in the CECs, i.e., the durations by gender in the CECs are closer than in the EU countries. However, there are six exceptions to this trend: the Czech Republic, Latvia, Slovenia and Slovakia for men and Lithuania and Romania for women. But in several of the European countries the differences between sexes are much greater, amounting to more than 10 hours and in one case, in the Netherlands, to more than 20. This means that the relative proximity between CEC and EU values at the aggregate level is rather deceptive. One of the possible reasons is that in EU countries many part-time self-employed are real part-timers and not underemployed.

In the CECs, the self-employed in all countries except Romania show high durations, as is usual in this class of worker. While at the aggregate level all the durations are less than 50 hours, many durations in the more detailed cross-classifications are above 50 and some of the reliable figures even beyond 55.

Thus, two countries, the Czech Republic and Slovenia, register durations of 50 hours or more for males (see Graph 2). This is a standard usually exceeded in EU countries, even if the available average, 46.2, is less than 50 hours. But actually the average duration for males is more than 50 hours in 8 out of the 15 EU countries. The two EU averages of 48.8 for males and 39.5 for females are misleading because they could indicate a general difference of more than nine hours between men and women, as opposed to smaller differences in the Candidate Countries. Actually the EU average for women is affected by some low values of self-employed such as 27.9 in the Netherlands or 30 in the

Graph 2: *Number of hours usually worked, self-employed persons, 2001*



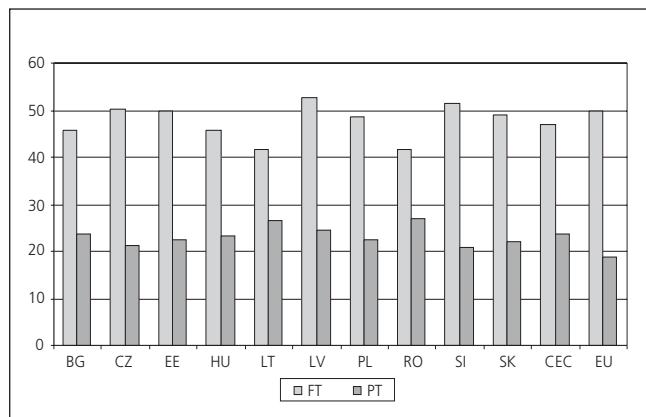
United Kingdom. A comparison taking into account the durations in the individual countries shows that the great difference between the EU and the CECs is that the values are much more spread in the former while being in greater proximity in the latter.

In the breakdown by NACE and ISCO subgroups only some sectors allow reliable comparisons: agriculture & fishery, manufacturing and trade & repair. Generally, the values tend to be large, but not as large as in the EU. Some thresholds such as the 60 hours that are surpassed in Belgium, Germany and Ireland in the agriculture & fisheries sector are not even approached by any of the reliable results in the CECs. However, in the comparison between individual CECs and the EU average it turns out that about half of the reliable CEC values in the NACE breakdown are larger than the EU average, most of them in manufacturing (D), construction (F) and other services (O). The same applies to the sub-classification by ISCO, with higher durations being found particularly in the sections of elementary occupations (9), clerks (4), services & sales workers (5) and technicians (3).

It should also be noted that self-employed persons, too, declare to work part-time, and this could cause certain asymmetries which are difficult to explain at aggregate levels. This is the case in Romania: the low durations of the self-employed (almost the lowest for males and the lowest for females) are due to the large share of self-employed part-time workers in agriculture. An interesting point in this context is that the average working hours of part-time self-employed in Romania are near standard part-time durations, whereas the values for part-time employees are much higher. Even in agriculture the Romanian self-employed part-timers have these lower averages: 27.6 hours for males and 25.0 for females in 2001; 27.7 and 25.5 in 2000; 28.8 and 27.3 in 1999. These values show a clear reduction of working time since 1999 that could be interesting to follow up over the forthcoming years.

The average work durations for self-employed probably are the combination of very high and low numbers of hours – very high for those working full-time, low for those working

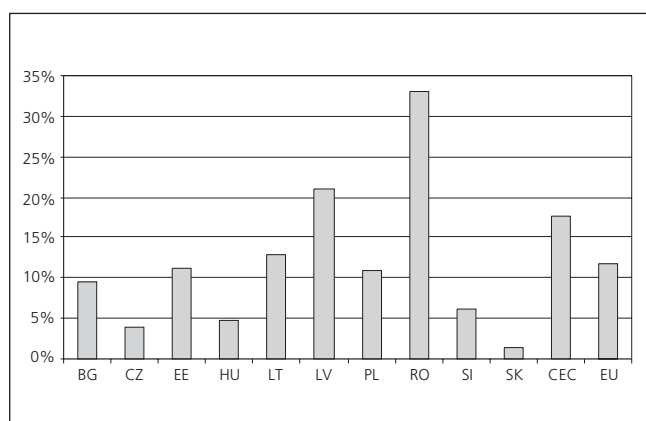
Graph 3: *Full-time and part-time durations for self-employed, 2001*



part-time, who in this scenario are likely to be underemployed.

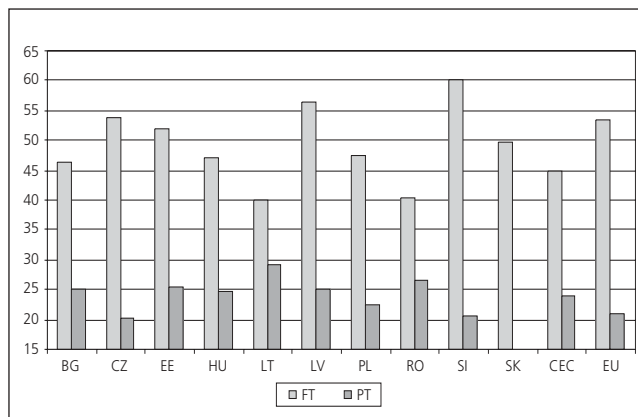
The durations of full-time self-employed presented in Graph 3 should be seen together with the part-time shares of self-employed in Graph 4. In reality the patterns are not easy to capture at this aggregate level: the full-time durations range from 41.5 to 52.5, a difference of more than 10 hours; the part-time durations concentrate in a more reduced range, 20.6 to 26.8 hours. The influence of part-time and full-time activity on the self-employed averages is a combination of durations and shares. For example, the self-employed in Romania combine the highest part-time share and the highest part-time, but the lowest full-time duration in the CECs. This explains why the working time averages of self-employed are surpassed by almost all other CECs with the exception of Lithuania (where both male and all self-employed have even lower durations). Other combinations of this kind are easy to deduce from these graphs.

Graph 4: *Part-time share of self-employed, 2001*



In the special case of self-employed working full-time/part-time in the sensitive sector of agriculture (see Graph 5), the full-time durations are high, but not the highest across all countries and sectors. They range over a 20 hours interval. The extremely high value of 60 hours for Slovenia should be noted as well as the more than 50 hours of three other countries, the Czech Republic, Estonia and Latvia. In fact,

Graph 5: *Full-time and part-time durations for self-employed in agriculture, 2001*



the working time of full-time self-employed in agriculture surpasses that of all self-employed in seven of the ten CECs, the exceptions being Lithuania, Poland and Romania – the countries which interestingly also have the highest shares of agricultural employment.

The part-time durations are more concentrated (from 20.4 in the Czech Republic to 29.4 in Lithuania). The interesting point to note in this respect is the reversal of extremes in durations: the two countries with the highest part-time durations, Lithuania and Romania, at the same time are those with the lowest full-time durations, while the two countries with the lowest part-time durations, the Czech Republic and Slovenia, at the same time rank first and third in full-time durations, indicating that agricultural employment is differently structured in the countries concerned.

Self-employment in Romania, and in particular in agriculture, deserves a more precise analysis. Under the communist regime there were two forms of collective property of land. Approximately 80% of the arable land was possessed by agricultural cooperatives which were formed through the incorporation of the family holdings confiscated by the communists in 1948. The rest, 20%, was owned by the state agricultural enterprises established on the former domains of the Crown. At the beginning of the 1990s, the Romanians have been allowed to reclaim the 80% of family land that had been confiscated. This process of redistributing the land was a success. But according to the structure and inheritance rules prior to 1948, the land was extremely partitioned. A great number of households received very small plots of land. Due to the difficult economic situation the redistribution of land induced migration from urban to rural areas, a movement not yet finished. The employment in agriculture in this country thus is carried out by a multitude of people that devote their time, or a part of it, to the cultivation of these small plots. And these persons are owners of their land, i.e., self-employed. If this situation is put in relation with the absence of employment opportunities in Romania, especially in rural areas, it may help to explain the peculiar values for Romania discussed here and also found below in Graph 10.

### Employees working full-time

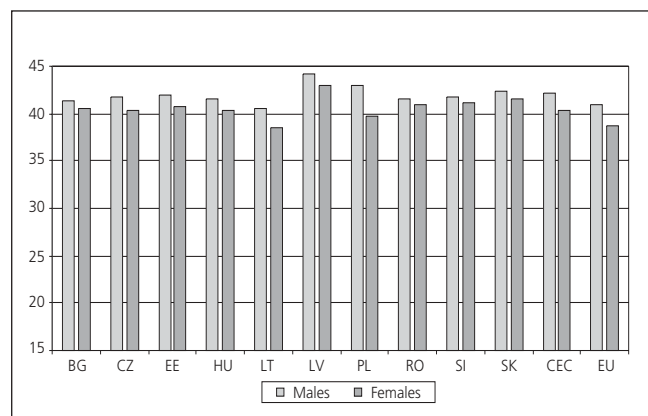
Employees are the most important group of the working population in terms of the number of persons. In particular, employees working full-time are the classical reference of many labour market analyses because they usually constitute the majority of all employed persons and best represent the idea of stable employment – though this concept has changed in EU countries during the last years with the rise of voluntary part-time work and a portfolio of small jobs.

The share of employees in all employed persons varies from country to country depending on the number of self-employed and family workers. With the exception of Poland and Romania, where they only account for 72 and 54% of the employed, the share of employees in the CECs reaches between 80 to more than 90% – and most of them hold full-time jobs. Table 2 in the section annex presents the complete distribution of all persons in employment broken down by professional status and the respective part-time percentages.

Except for Lithuania the overall averages of the working time for full-time employees in the CECs are superior to the EU average (see Table 1 in the section annex). This also applies to the breakdown by sex, the exception being the same. This shows that it is this group which is primarily responsible for the differences observed between the CECs and the EU at the more aggregated level of all persons in employment.

The values for women range from 38.5 to 42.9 in Lithuania and Latvia, respectively, and for men from 40.5 to 44.2 in exactly the same countries. Despite these differences, the full-time employees present the most uniform picture of the four groups for which working time is broken down by sex (see Graph 6 in comparison with Graphs 1, 2 and 9). This also applies to the breakdowns by economic activity and occupations, where most of the values are between 39 and 43 hours, showing the relative uniformity for this group.

Graph 6: *Number of hours usually worked, full-time employees, 2001*



### Employees working part-time

The part-time duration is not only an interesting issue by itself, but also because of the implications that it has on other characteristics of the labour market. The analysis of part-time issues should embrace two aspects: the weekly working hours of part-time workers and the part-time shares, i.e., the percentages of persons that work under this kind of arrangement.

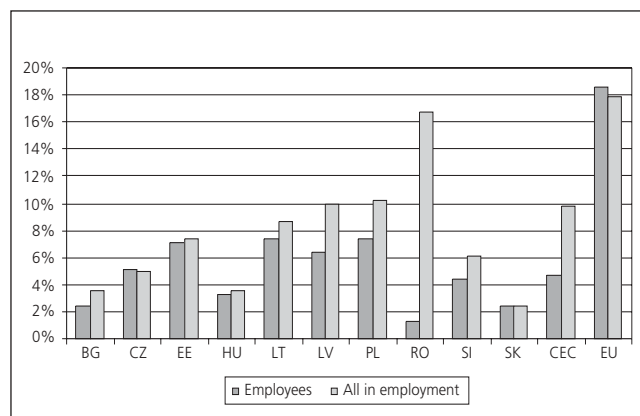
Working on a part-time basis can have several origins, although there are two principal ones. In the Labour Force Survey the interviewed are asked for the reasons of part-time work. Most people take this kind of work because they cannot find full-time employment, or they want to work part-time because they have other priorities: leisure, studies, family, etc. Part-time work can also mean a certain degree of labour underutilization and it is instructive to observe its evolution in transition economies.

The distinction between part-time and full-time is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer of the respondent. For the moment it is impossible to establish a more exact distinction between part-time and full-time work due to specificities of each country and each branch of industry (also see section on “Data sources and methods”).

Even though the topic of this section is the working-time, some observations concerning the part-time shares can help to improve the analysis. The key 2001 figures concerning full-time/part-time employment shares in the CECs are presented in Table 2, with a breakdown by country and professional status (excluding non-responses).

Part-time employment is not as widespread in the CECs as it is in the EU countries. Part-time employment accounts for 9.8 % of all employed persons (employees, self-employed and family workers) but only for 4.7% of the employees (see Graph 7). These figures contrast with the EU part-time shares of 17.8% for all employed and 18.6% for employees. Despite this relatively low incidence of part-time work in the CECs, the extent of part-time employment yet varies substantially between countries from 2.4% in

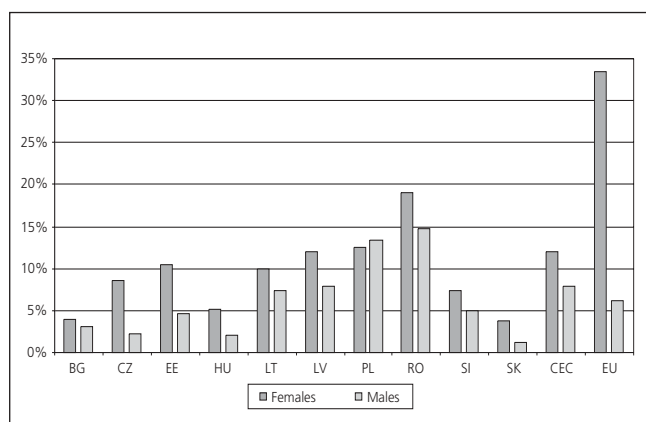
Graph 7: *Part-time shares for all persons in employment and for employees, 2001*



Slovakia to 16.8% in Romania for all persons in employment, but from only 1.2% in Romania to 7.4% in Lithuania for employees. These shares are quite different from those in the EU countries and reflect a strong imbalance between full-time and part-time work of employees, on the one hand, and family workers and self-employed, i.e. the non-employees, on the other. The specific case of Romania will be analyzed later below together with the part-time durations.

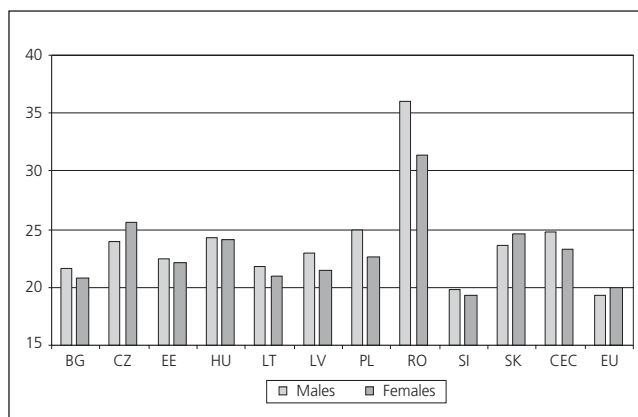
The breakdown by gender shows that part-time work is more frequent for women (see Graph 8). With the exception of Poland, the percentages of part-time workers in the CECs are always larger for women than for men. For example, in Romania 19% of all women in employment work part-time; the corresponding value for men is 15%. In Estonia the share of part-time women is twice that for men (10% and 5%, respectively). This graph shows another important characteristic of the part-time workers in the CECs: the differences between genders are lower than in the EU, where part-time is typically feminine with differences that almost reach the factor 15, for example: Austria 4.3% and 33.6%, Netherlands 20.0% and 71.3%, France 5.0% and 30.4%, Luxembourg 1.8% and 26.0% for males and females, respectively.

Graph 8: *Share of part-time for all persons in employment, 2001*



Turning to the usual hours of part-time employees, the peculiar situation of Romania immediately catches the eye. The aggregate durations and the first breakdown by gender (see Table 1 and Graph 9) show that the majority of durations are between 20 and 25 hours with some small deviations in the Czech Republic at the upper and Slovenia at the lower end and a big exception, Romania. The part-time durations for Romanian employees are high and in sharp contrast to the part-time durations for Romanian self-employed. The latter are more usual when compared with all other information about part-time durations either in the CECs or EU. But the high durations of part-time employees in Romania do not influence the overall averages or the breakdown by gender due to the reduced share of employees working under this arrangement (1.2%). Actually, part-time work in Romania is much more a practice of

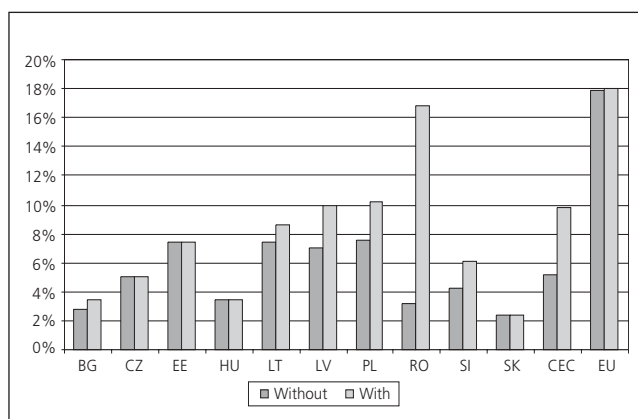
Graph 9: *Number of hours usually worked, part-time employees, 2001*



family workers and self-employed who both reach a share of about one third (see Table 2).

The breakdown of part-time shares by economic activity (disregarding non-responses) raises some problems of reliability. However, the available information shows that the high part-time share in Romania is mainly due to agriculture & fisheries: almost 34% of the employment in this sector is part-time. In five other countries the share of part-time is also mainly due to agriculture, although with lower levels: 27% in Latvia, 21% in Poland and Slovenia, 15% in Lithuania and 13% in Bulgaria. The influence of agriculture also becomes evident if one computes the overall part-time shares without this sector, resulting in more uniform and reduced figures in most CECs except the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary and Slovakia (see Graph 10).

Graph 10: *Part-time shares for all persons in employment, without and with agriculture, 2001*



From other reliable information concerning part-time by NACE, relatively high values from 10 to more than 16% also are found in trade & repair and hotels & restaurants (PL), real estate & business (EE, PL), education (CZ, EE, LT, PL) and other services (CZ, EE, LT, LV, PL, RO).

As expected from the NACE results, the highest percentages of part-time workers in the breakdown by occupation are registered for skilled agricultural & fishery workers: 34.4% in Romania, 33.4% in Latvia, 21.6% in Poland, 20.3% in

Slovenia, 19.9% in Bulgaria and 14.8% in Lithuania. Part-time shares with reliable figures above 10% also are found for professionals (LV), technicians (EE), clerks (EE), service & sales workers (LT, PL) and elementary occupations (CZ, EE, LT, LV, PL, RO, SI).

The breakdown of the part-time employees' usual hours by economic activities and occupations contains many unreliable figures. But the reliable information shows that the values of aggregate standards are the references for the breakdowns with some deviations in the direction of lower durations particularly in education as well as for professionals, and in the directions of higher durations in transport & communication as well as for service & sales workers, craft & trades workers and plant & machine operators.

### Recent evolution of working time in main aggregates

The recent evolution of working time from 1999 to 2001 is presented in Table 3 in the section annex for the four groups under discussion here (all persons in employment, self-employed, employees working full-time, and employees working part-time), broken down by gender.

The overall development in the 10 CECs during this period may be best described as being characterized by relative stability. While there is a certain degree of fluctuation, most of the changes in the average durations between 1999 and 2001 add up to less than 1 or even half an hour, and only in about one third of the cases the differences are greater than that.

As far as the usual hours of all persons in employment are concerned, only the Czech Republic shows a sizeable decrease for both men and women from 2000 to 2001. A certain reduction over the whole reference period also can be noted in Lithuania and Hungary, though these trends are not uniform over all years and for both sexes.

The group of self-employed exhibits the same decreasing trend for the Czech Republic. Reductions also are registered in Romania, Hungary and Slovakia, although not always uniform, i.e., the amounts are different for the two sexes and in some cases the hours rise and fall between 1999 and 2001. In contrast, Bulgaria reported a strong increase in the working time of self-employed from 2000 to 2001.

The group of employees working full-time shows the greatest stability in average usual hours, the only exceptions being again the Czech Republic with its decreasing trend and a moderate increase for females in Latvia.

In the group of employees working part-time one can again observe opposite trends in the CECs which are not always uniform over all years and for both sexes. The biggest decrease is found in Lithuania between 2000 and 2001, developments in the same direction – but to a lesser extent – also in Latvia and the Czech Republic. In contrast, the biggest increase is found in Slovenia and a less pronounced development in the same direction also in Hungary. Estonia, Romania and Slovakia, finally, are characterized by fluctuations from year to year and divergent developments for males and females.



## Working time

Table 1: Number of weekly hours usually worked by employment status, sex, economic activity and occupation, 2001

All persons in employment	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK	CEC	EU
All	41.1	41.6	40.6	40.9	38.3	42.6	40.9	40.3	41.8	42.2	41.0	37.7
Males	41.7	43.2	42.0	41.9	39.6	44.0	43.1	41.2	42.6	43.0	42.4	41.2
Females	40.4	39.6	39.0	39.8	37.1	41.3	38.3	39.3	40.8	41.2	39.2	33.1
<i>by economic activity (all)</i>												
agriculture & fishery (A–B)	43.1	42.9	45.5	42.8	38.1	43.9	41.1	38.0	49.2	42.5	40.2	43.8
mining & quarrying (C)	40.4	39.3	38.4	41.2	40.0	41.9	40.7	39.7	39.4	41.3	40.2	42.5
manufacturing (D)	40.8	40.8	40.8	40.6	39.7	42.0	42.1	41.0	41.0	41.5	41.3	39.2
electricity, gas, water (E)	40.4	39.9	39.5	40.6	39.8	40.3	40.5	40.8	40.2	41.5	40.5	38.8
construction (F)	41.4	44.6	41.3	42.8	40.8	44.6	44.6	43.4	43.2	44.7	43.9	41.2
trade & repair (G)	42.6	43.1	41.0	41.3	39.7	45.3	42.7	43.1	41.1	43.6	42.6	37.7
hotels & restaurants (H)	42.9	43.3	40.4	42.4	38.1	51.1	43.5	43.1	42.2	43.8	43.1	39.2
transport & communication (I)	41.7	42.2	41.9	41.8	39.4	43.1	43.5	41.9	41.6	42.4	42.5	40.2
financial intermediation (J)	40.3	42.1	42.1	40.8	40.7	41.3	40.2	40.6	40.2	42.0	40.7	37.9
real estate & business (K)	41.0	42.9	40.6	41.5	38.5	41.7	40.5	40.7	41.4	43.3	41.3	37.9
public administration (L)	40.2	40.4	40.4	40.5	39.8	42.1	40.7	40.9	40.6	41.6	40.7	36.9
education (M)	38.3	38.0	35.6	38.1	32.4	37.1	29.8	38.8	39.0	40.0	35.0	32.1
health & social work (N)	39.6	40.4	38.8	40.3	37.3	39.9	39.0	40.8	41.3	41.6	39.7	34.0
other services (O)	39.8	40.1	39.1	40.1	36.7	40.2	40.1	41.3	39.3	41.2	40.1	35.4
<i>by economic activity (males)</i>												
agriculture & fishery (A–B)	44.1	43.9	46.0	43.4	39.0	45.0	44.3	40.0	50.3	43.0	42.6	46.9
mining & quarrying (C)	40.4	39.3	37.8	41.3	.	.	40.8	39.5	39.9	41.3	40.3	43.3
manufacturing (D)	40.7	41.5	41.4	41.1	39.9	42.5	42.7	41.0	41.5	41.8	41.7	40.6
electricity, gas, water (E)	40.5	40.4	39.4	40.8	39.8	40.9	40.7	41.0	40.2	41.6	40.7	39.6
construction (F)	41.8	45.1	41.0	43.0	41.1	45.0	45.2	43.7	43.5	45.0	44.3	42.1
trade & repair (G)	43.2	46.2	42.4	42.2	40.0	45.1	44.5	43.6	41.7	44.9	44.0	44.3
hotels & restaurants (H)	43.9	46.4	(45.3)	44.1	40.3	54.9	46.8	44.3	42.6	46.1	45.4	44.3
transport & communication (I)	42.4	43.6	43.2	42.7	40.2	44.3	44.8	42.2	42.2	43.2	43.5	42.2
financial intermediation (J)	41.7	43.5	(43.1)	41.5	41.4	(43.8)	41.4	40.5	42.2	43.7	41.9	41.1
real estate & business (K)	41.7	45.1	43.3	42.8	39.0	44.9	41.8	40.9	42.8	44.1	42.6	41.9
public administration (L)	40.5	41.3	41.1	41.1	40.6	44.0	41.5	41.1	41.2	42.3	41.3	38.9
education (M)	38.9	39.1	34.6	39.0	34.1	38.0	32.0	39.7	39.2	41.2	36.4	35.6
health & social work (N)	40.2	43.5	40.2	41.6	39.5	42.0	40.4	41.5	42.8	42.4	41.3	39.5
other services (O)	40.3	42.3	41.1	41.1	37.1	42.1	42.2	42.0	39.3	41.7	41.7	39.6
<i>by economic activity (females)</i>												
agriculture & fishery (A–B)	41.5	40.4	43.8	41.0	36.9	42.4	37.3	35.7	47.8	41.3	37.2	37.7
mining & quarrying (C)	(40.4)	39.2	(40.0)	.	.	.	40.0	40.7	.	41.2	40.1	35.8
manufacturing (D)	40.8	39.6	39.9	40.1	39.6	41.4	41.0	40.9	40.4	40.9	40.5	35.7
electricity, gas, water (E)	40.3	38.2	(40.0)	39.9	40.0	(38.1)	39.8	40.4	(40.0)	40.7	39.8	35.3
construction (F)	39.6	40.1	(44.5)	39.8	36.9	40.3	38.5	41.1	40.7	41.6	39.9	32.1
trade & repair (G)	42.0	40.5	39.8	40.4	39.3	45.5	41.3	42.7	40.5	42.6	40.9	32.7
hotels & restaurants (H)	42.2	40.8	39.5	40.9	37.2	49.7	41.9	42.7	42.0	42.2	41.1	34.8
transport & communication (I)	40.0	39.1	39.2	39.9	37.8	40.7	40.0	40.9	39.8	40.4	39.8	34.3
financial intermediation (J)	39.4	41.1	(40.9)	40.6	40.0	40.0	39.8	40.6	39.1	41.4	40.2	34.6
real estate & business (K)	40.4	40.0	37.7	40.0	38.0	38.3	38.6	40.5	39.6	42.1	39.0	32.9
public administration (L)	39.7	39.4	39.5	39.9	38.9	39.8	39.8	40.4	40.0	40.9	39.9	34.1
education (M)	38.1	37.6	35.8	37.9	32.0	36.9	29.1	38.5	38.9	39.6	34.6	34.4
health & social work (N)	39.5	39.7	38.5	40.0	37.0	39.5	38.7	40.6	40.8	41.4	39.4	32.3
other services (O)	39.4	38.4	38.2	39.4	36.6	38.8	37.8	40.4	39.3	40.7	38.6	31.8
<i>by occupation (all)</i>												
legislators & managers (1)	43.0	48.7	43.3	42.5	40.4	44.4	46.1	44.5	45.5	45.9	45.2	46.2
professionals (2)	39.4	41.5	38.0	39.3	34.5	38.4	34.5	40.2	40.1	41.7	37.8	37.8
technicians (3)	40.1	41.1	39.6	40.5	37.8	39.9	40.8	40.6	40.5	41.7	40.7	37.0
clerks (4)	40.3	39.4	38.8	40.0	38.1	41.5	39.9	40.7	39.4	41.2	40.0	34.5
service & sales workers (5)	42.1	41.0	41.1	41.6	39.1	47.1	42.3	43.0	40.7	42.7	42.1	34.1
agriculture & fishery workers (6)	43.7	44.6	47.0	44.4	37.9	44.2	40.9	37.8	50.1	45.1	40.0	44.4
craft & related trades workers (7)	41.0	42.2	40.9	41.4	40.2	42.6	42.4	40.9	41.7	42.6	41.8	40.7
plant & machine operators (8)	41.7	41.4	41.4	41.3	40.1	44.2	43.7	41.6	41.4	42.1	42.2	40.3
elementary occupations (9)	40.1	37.4	38.7	39.4	37.7	41.1	39.1	40.8	38.5	40.5	39.5	32.7



**Table 1: Number of weekly hours usually worked by employment status, sex, economic activity and occupation, 2001**

<b>Employees, full-time</b>	<b>BG</b>	<b>CZ</b>	<b>EE</b>	<b>HU</b>	<b>LT</b>	<b>LV</b>	<b>PL</b>	<b>RO</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>SK</b>	<b>CEC</b>	<b>EU</b>
All	41.0	41.1	41.4	41.0	39.5	43.5	41.4	41.3	41.5	42.0	41.3	40.2
Males	41.3	41.7	42.0	41.7	40.5	44.2	42.9	41.5	41.8	42.4	42.1	41.0
Females	40.6	40.4	40.7	40.4	38.5	42.9	39.8	41.0	41.1	41.6	40.4	38.8
<i>by economic activity (all)</i>												
agriculture & fishery (A–B)	42.1	41.5	43.4	41.8	41.2	45.3	44.2	41.9	42.6	42.6	42.5	42.0
mining & quarrying (C)	40.4	39.2	39.0	41.2	.	.	40.9	39.7	40.3	41.3	40.3	42.9
manufacturing (D)	40.9	40.5	40.9	40.8	40.3	42.3	42.4	41.0	41.1	41.4	41.4	40.1
electricity, gas, water (E)	40.6	40.2	40.7	40.7	40.1	40.2	41.1	40.8	40.4	41.2	40.8	39.5
construction (F)	41.6	42.3	41.9	42.4	41.3	44.5	44.5	42.8	42.7	43.6	43.2	41.0
trade & repair (G)	42.1	41.7	41.4	41.4	40.7	47.1	43.5	43.0	41.4	42.7	42.7	40.9
hotels & restaurants (H)	43.1	41.7	42.8	42.6	40.2	52.5	43.4	42.7	43.5	43.2	43.0	42.8
transport & communication (I)	41.5	41.5	43.1	41.8	40.4	43.9	43.1	41.7	42.1	42.2	42.2	41.6
financial intermediation (J)	41.0	41.8	43.3	41.3	40.7	42.8	41.3	40.7	41.4	42.1	41.3	40.1
real estate & business (K)	40.9	42.3	41.9	41.7	39.7	43.4	42.7	40.8	42.5	42.8	42.1	41.0
public administration (L)	40.5	41.1	41.1	40.8	40.5	42.7	41.4	41.0	41.4	42.2	41.2	39.1
education (M)	38.8	40.0	38.6	39.0	34.5	38.8	31.1	38.9	40.4	40.9	36.3	36.4
health & social work (N)	40.0	41.2	41.1	41.0	38.4	41.5	40.4	41.0	42.0	42.0	40.7	39.2
other services (O)	40.8	41.4	41.6	40.8	39.5	42.4	42.4	41.3	41.1	41.7	41.6	40.5
<i>by economic activity (males)</i>												
agriculture & fishery (A–B)	42.5	42.0	43.8	42.2	41.7	46.3	44.5	42.0	43.3	42.9	42.9	42.6
mining & quarrying (C)	40.4	39.2	38.6	.	.	42.6	41.0	39.5	40.3	41.3	40.3	43.3
manufacturing (D)	40.7	40.8	41.2	41.0	40.3	42.4	42.8	41.0	41.2	41.6	41.6	40.4
electricity, gas, water (E)	40.7	40.4	40.9	40.9	40.2	40.7	41.3	40.9	40.4	41.3	40.9	39.7
construction (F)	41.8	42.6	41.6	42.5	41.4	44.8	44.8	43.0	42.9	43.7	43.5	41.1
trade & repair (G)	42.2	43.1	41.6	41.7	41.2	45.3	44.1	43.2	41.8	43.2	43.2	41.8
hotels & restaurants (H)	43.5	43.1	(45.3)	43.8	40.8	56.5	44.4	42.9	43.8	44.2	43.9	44.4
transport & communication (I)	41.9	42.3	43.8	42.4	40.8	44.8	43.9	42.0	42.4	42.7	42.8	42.3
financial intermediation (J)	42.1	42.9	(45.3)	42.2	(41.4)	46.9	41.9	40.5	42.9	42.8	42.1	41.1
real estate & business (K)	41.5	42.9	42.8	42.4	39.6	45.6	43.8	41.0	43.5	43.5	43.0	42.1
public administration (L)	40.7	41.5	41.9	41.4	41.0	44.4	42.2	41.2	42.0	42.5	41.7	39.6
education (M)	39.4	40.9	38.5	39.5	36.4	39.6	34.0	39.7	40.8	41.5	37.8	37.8
health & social work (N)	40.7	43.4	42.3	42.2	39.6	41.7	42.8	41.5	43.2	42.4	42.3	40.3
other services (O)	41.3	42.4	41.9	41.4	40.1	42.7	43.2	41.5	41.3	41.8	42.2	41.5
<i>by economic activity (females)</i>												
agriculture & fishery (A–B)	41.3	40.4	42.3	40.7	40.3	42.5	43.5	41.5	(40.3)	41.8	41.6	40.5
mining & quarrying (C)	(40.4)	39.4	(40.0)	.	.	.	40.1	40.7	.	41.2	40.2	39.2
manufacturing (D)	41.0	40.0	40.4	40.4	40.2	42.1	41.8	41.0	41.0	41.1	41.0	39.1
electricity, gas, water (E)	40.4	39.6	(40.0)	40.2	40.0	(38.1)	40.6	40.4	(40.0)	40.7	40.3	38.6
construction (F)	40.3	40.8	(45.9)	40.5	39.8	(41.5)	40.5	40.9	41.0	41.7	40.8	39.6
trade & repair (G)	42.1	40.8	41.3	41.1	40.2	48.3	43.0	42.8	41.1	42.4	42.4	39.6
hotels & restaurants (H)	42.9	40.7	42.2	41.5	39.9	51.1	43.1	42.6	43.4	42.6	42.6	41.2
transport & communication (I)	40.6	39.9	41.5	40.5	39.7	42.0	41.1	40.9	41.2	41.1	40.8	39.1
financial intermediation (J)	40.4	41.2	(40.9)	40.9	40.0	40.7	41.0	40.8	40.5	41.8	41.0	38.8
real estate & business (K)	40.3	41.3	40.8	40.9	39.8	40.5	40.9	40.4	41.4	41.8	40.9	39.5
public administration (L)	40.3	40.5	40.1	40.2	39.8	40.5	40.5	40.5	40.7	41.8	40.5	38.3
education (M)	38.6	39.8	38.6	38.9	34.1	38.6	30.2	38.6	40.3	40.7	35.8	35.6
health & social work (N)	39.8	40.8	40.8	40.6	38.3	41.4	39.9	40.8	41.7	41.9	40.3	38.8
other services (O)	40.4	40.3	41.4	40.2	39.3	42.2	41.5	41.1	41.0	41.6	40.9	39.3
<i>by occupation (all)</i>												
legislators & managers (1)	41.2	44.4	42.4	41.8	40.3	42.3	43.1	42.4	44.4	43.3	42.7	44.7
professionals (2)	39.7	41.6	39.5	39.8	36.2	40.2	35.2	40.2	41.3	41.7	38.3	39.5
technicians (3)	40.3	41.0	41.3	40.8	39.0	41.2	41.4	40.7	41.0	41.7	41.0	39.4
clerks (4)	40.7	40.4	40.8	40.6	39.8	43.1	41.1	40.9	40.5	41.6	40.9	38.8
service & sales workers (5)	42.1	41.0	42.4	41.8	40.8	49.3	43.5	43.1	42.0	42.8	42.8	40.5
agriculture & fishery workers (6)	43.2	40.9	43.1	42.1	40.3	45.9	43.5	42.5	(41.5)	43.3	42.5	41.5
craft & related trades workers (7)	41.1	40.8	41.4	41.3	40.6	43.1	42.7	40.9	41.5	42.0	41.7	40.1
plant & machine operators (8)	41.5	41.1	41.8	41.3	40.6	44.7	43.5	41.5	41.5	42.0	42.0	40.9
elementary occupations (9)	40.8	40.3	41.3	40.7	40.3	42.7	42.4	41.7	41.3	41.9	41.6	40.2

## Working time

Table 1: Number of weekly hours usually worked by employment status, sex, economic activity and occupation, 2001

Employees, part-time	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK	CEC	EU
All	21.1	25.2	22.2	24.2	21.3	22.0	23.6	33.7	19.5	24.4	23.8	19.8
Males	21.6	24.0	22.4	24.3	21.9	23.0	25.0	36.0	19.9	23.6	24.8	19.3
Females	20.8	25.6	22.1	24.2	21.0	21.5	22.6	31.4	19.3	24.6	23.3	20.0
<i>by economic activity (all)</i>												
agriculture & fishery (A–B)	.	25.3	.	(24.9)	.	23.2	25.4	.	(25.6)	24.3	24.9	22.1
mining & quarrying (C)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	25.7	.
manufacturing (D)	.	27.6	(22.8)	25.7	23.2	(24.5)	25.0	37.2	20.0	25.1	26.3	20.2
electricity, gas, water (E)	.	23.5	.	.	.	.	(23.0)	.	.	.	23.0	27.1
construction (F)	.	26.9	.	(24.4)	.	.	26.7	.	.	.	25.9	20.4
trade & repair (G)	(22.0)	27.8	22.6	24.7	22.0	22.9	23.9	32.5	18.1	23.4	24.4	19.1
hotels & restaurants (H)	.	24.9	(20.0)	25.5	.	.	24.7	.	(19.0)	.	24.3	17.7
transport & communication (I)	.	25.3	22.9	(22.9)	23.3	(23.1)	26.8	36.3	(18.6)	27.1	25.8	20.7
financial intermediation (J)	.	22.6	.	.	.	.	(20.5)	.	(20.2)	.	20.6	21.3
real estate & business (K)	.	23.9	24.9	23.2	.	(22.1)	25.1	.	(16.9)	23.4	24.4	19.0
public administration (L)	.	22.3	.	23.3	.	.	23.6	31.0	21.6	22.3	23.0	22.5
education (M)	.	23.4	20.0	22.3	19.6	18.8	17.1	.	19.2	24.2	19.6	19.3
health & social work (N)	.	23.4	24.5	25.5	21.4	(20.1)	22.7	24.4	(24.5)	26.4	23.1	21.9
other services (O)	.	23.8	22.2	23.7	21.3	(20.1)	25.1	.	(16.7)	23.3	24.0	18.3
<i>by occupation (all)</i>												
legislators & managers (1)	.	24.0	(26.9)	.	.	.	(23.3)	.	.	.	23.5	23.6
professionals (2)	(20.4)	19.7	18.0	21.9	19.2	17.7	17.1	30.9	16.7	22.2	18.5	21.1
technicians (3)	.	25.2	22.4	24.6	21.6	21.7	22.0	30.7	22.0	22.3	22.8	21.8
clerks (4)	.	24.6	22.2	23.2	23.4	(23.0)	24.9	25.9	20.4	25.9	24.3	21.0
service & sales workers (5)	(21.9)	27.7	23.1	24.2	22.4	24.6	25.3	36.3	17.1	25.0	25.3	19.3
agriculture & fishery workers (6)	.	24.2	.	.	.	.	(22.6)	.	.	.	23.2	19.9
craft & related trades workers (7)	.	28.8	(24.2)	26.1	23.7	(21.4)	26.2	35.9	(20.2)	24.5	27.3	21.7
plant & machine operators (8)	.	27.5	(24.5)	26.6	.	.	29.5	36.2	(20.3)	24.4	27.7	20.8
elementary occupations (9)	21.6	24.2	21.5	24.6	20.6	23.0	23.8	27.0	21.8	25.0	23.7	17.0
<b>Self-employed</b>	<b>BG</b>	<b>CZ</b>	<b>EE</b>	<b>HU</b>	<b>LT</b>	<b>LV</b>	<b>PL</b>	<b>RO</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>SK</b>	<b>CEC</b>	<b>EU</b>
All	44.8	49.1	46.9	44.5	39.5	47.0	45.6	39.9	49.6	48.7	44.6	46.2
Males	45.5	51.1	48.4	45.7	40.3	49.4	48.4	41.2	50.0	49.6	46.7	48.8
Females	43.4	43.9	42.8	42.2	38.4	43.3	41.0	36.8	48.4	46.3	40.8	39.5
<i>by economic activity (all)</i>												
agriculture & fishery (A–B)	44.8	53.2	49.1	45.7	38.4	48.2	44.2	38.9	55.8	49.8	42.5	48.5
mining & quarrying (C)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	52.4	.
manufacturing (D)	42.7	49.4	48.4	43.5	46.9	47.0	50.1	43.5	48.7	47.4	48.0	46.8
electricity, gas, water (E)	.	46.6	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	44.5	.
construction (F)	(42.9)	50.0	41.6	46.0	.	51.3	49.7	50.2	46.8	49.1	49.2	46.2
trade & repair (G)	46.0	50.2	45.3	44.6	40.5	47.5	47.6	44.3	46.0	49.7	47.0	47.7
hotels & restaurants (H)	46.4	54.7	.	47.4	.	.	54.8	50.0	50.1	52.1	52.0	56.2
transport & communication (I)	46.7	52.3	(45.0)	46.7	.	(45.3)	50.3	46.2	45.8	49.3	49.5	49.5
financial intermediation (J)	.	45.0	.	(42.8)	.	.	43.1	.	.	.	43.6	44.3
real estate & business (K)	44.8	47.4	(63.0)	44.1	.	(43.6)	43.8	42.7	43.5	47.9	45.3	44.0
public administration (L)	.	45.6	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	44.3	.
education (M)	.	35.5	.	(40.8)	.	.	(38.0)	.	.	.	37.8	30.5
health & social work (N)	(40.8)	46.1	.	40.1	.	.	33.2	40.9	(42.5)	42.5	39.4	41.1
other services (O)	(39.3)	41.6	(41.6)	41.4	34.5	37.7	42.9	41.6	43.5	44.3	41.9	39.9
<i>by occupation (all)</i>												
legislators & managers (1)	45.5	54.5	51.7	45.5	42.8	48.8	50.3	47.5	47.0	50.7	49.6	50.5
professionals (2)	41.9	46.4	.	42.6	.	43.1	41.5	40.8	44.2	46.4	43.6	42.8
technicians (3)	(42.8)	45.7	42.8	41.7	.	.	46.7	36.8	46.3	49.4	45.8	42.7
clerks (4)	(45.1)	42.1	.	41.8	.	.	39.9	38.1	(43.6)	.	41.7	35.5
service & sales workers (5)	45.7	47.1	44.8	44.1	38.0	(32.1)	47.2	42.4	46.8	47.5	45.9	44.4
agriculture & fishery workers (6)	44.6	53.5	48.7	48.6	38.4	48.3	44.1	39.0	56.0	54.9	42.5	48.4
craft & related trades workers (7)	41.1	49.1	42.4	45.0	45.3	45.4	47.2	44.4	46.2	48.2	47.1	47.0
plant & machine operators (8)	45.5	51.6	(44.0)	43.9	.	.	49.5	45.5	46.2	47.7	48.4	48.2
elementary occupations (9)	(46.5)	42.1	.	(40.5)	.	45.0	40.5	39.6	41.7	44.7	40.7	38.3

Table 2: *Employed by professional status and part-time shares, 2001*

Country	Employed by professional status (1000)			Total	Part-time shares (%)			Total
	Employees	Family workers	Self-employed		Employees	Family workers	Self-employed	
BG	2249	27	264	2539	2.4	32.5	9.5	3.5
CZ	3915	31	684	4630	5.1	15.7	3.8	5.0
EE	567	5	41	613	7.0	15.5	11.2	7.4
HU	3089	15	359	3463	3.2	22.0	4.9	3.5
LT	1196	50	236	1482	7.4	19.9	12.9	8.7
LV	818	45	99	961	6.4	46.3	21.1	9.8
PL	10268	781	3203	14252	7.3	45.7	10.8	10.2
RO	5825	2203	2779	10807	1.2	37.5	33.0	16.8
SI	758	48	108	914	4.4	33.1	6.1	6.1
SK	1933	3	177	2113	2.5	30.8	1.4	2.4
CEC	30617	3207	7950	41775	4.7	38.9	17.6	9.8

 Table 3: *Recent evolution of working time in main aggregates, 1999–2001*

All employed Country	Male			Female			All		
	1999	2000	2001	1999	2000	2001	1999	2000	2001
BG		41.2	41.7		40.1	40.4		40.7	41.1
CZ	45.4	45.4	43.2	41.3	41.3	39.6	43.6	43.6	41.6
EE	42.1	41.8	42.0	39.1	39.2	39.0	40.6	40.5	40.6
HU	42.4	42.5	41.9	39.9	39.8	39.8	41.4	41.2	40.9
LT	40.0	38.0	39.6	38.1	38.2	37.1	39.1	38.8	38.3
LV	43.7	43.3	44.0	40.7	40.9	41.3	42.3	42.1	42.6
PL			43.1			38.3			40.9
RO	41.6	41.6	41.2	39.5	39.6	39.3	40.7	40.7	40.3
SI	42.9	42.5	42.6	40.8	40.6	40.8	41.9	41.6	41.8
SK	43.4	43.5	43.0	41.5	41.5	41.2	42.6	42.6	42.2
Employees FT Country	Male			Female			All		
BG			41.3			40.6			40.9
CZ	44.1	44.0	41.7	42.4	42.4	40.4	43.3	43.3	41.1
EE	42.2	41.9	42.0	40.4	40.5	40.7	41.3	41.2	41.4
HU	42.1	42.2	41.7	40.5	40.4	40.4	41.3	41.3	41.0
LT		40.4	40.5		39.2	38.5		39.7	39.5
LV	44.1	43.8	44.2	41.8	42.3	42.9	43.0	43.0	43.5
PL			42.9			39.8			41.4
RO	41.3	41.6	41.5	40.9	41.1	41.0	41.1	41.4	41.3
SI	42.0	41.8	41.8	40.9	41.0	41.1	41.5	41.4	41.5
SK	42.7	42.7	42.4	41.7	41.7	41.6	42.2	42.2	42.0
Employees PT Country	Male			Female			All		
BG			21.6			20.8			21.1
CZ	24.5	24.4	24.0	26.7	26.2	25.6	26.2	25.8	25.2
EE	23.6	19.8	22.4	21.2	21.5	22.1	22.1	21.0	22.2
HU	23.3	23.2	24.3	23.4	23.7	24.2	23.4	23.5	24.2
LT		23.5	21.9		23.3	21.0		23.4	21.3
LV	25.7	25.0	23.0	22.0	21.2	21.5	23.3	22.7	22.0
PL			25.0			22.6			23.6
RO	37.9	33.5	36.0	29.6	31.7	31.4	34.0	32.4	33.7
SI	17.0	18.4	19.9	18.4	19.9	19.3	17.8	19.3	19.5
SK	25.8	24.2	23.6	24.4	24.0	24.6	24.8	24.1	24.4
Self-employed Country	Male			Female			All		
BG		43.4	45.5		40.7	43.4		42.5	44.8
CZ	53.7	53.1	51.1	45.2	45.6	43.9	51.4	51.0	49.1
EE	48.2	48.2	48.4	43.1	43.0	42.8	46.5	46.2	46.9
HU	46.6	46.8	45.7	43.2	43.1	42.2	45.5	45.6	44.5
LT	41.0	40.6	40.3	38.3	38.9	38.4	40.0	39.9	39.5
LV	48.6	47.4	49.4	43.9	42.8	43.3	46.7	45.6	47.0
PL			48.4			41.0			45.6
RO	43.1	41.8	41.2	37.2	37.3	36.8	41.3	40.4	39.9
SI	51.1	50.5	50.0	48.6	48.0	48.4	50.4	49.8	49.6
SK	52.0	51.3	49.6	48.0	48.8	46.3	50.9	50.7	48.7

## National time series

<b>Bulgaria</b>										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	+4.0			+2.3			+5.4	-4.2	+23.0
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total (2000: 15+)	1000				6832	3266	3566	7933	3848	4085
age group 15-64	1000				5502	2687	2815	5366	2630	2736
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%				43.9	43.1	44.7	40.9	40.0	41.7
upper secondary	%				42.3	44.6	40.2	42.9	46.0	40.1
tertiary	%				13.7	12.3	15.1	16.2	14.0	18.2
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate							22.5	23.9	21.1
old age dependency	rate				24.2	21.6	26.7	25.4	22.4	28.2
activity age group 15-64	rate				61.6	67.4	56.1	63.3	67.8	59.1
effective dependency	rate				137.9	113.2	166.0	144.5	125.0	165.6
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000				2872	1532	1341	2752	1431	1321
<i>by age groups</i>										
15-24	rate				20.5	23.0	18.0	21.0	20.9	21.1
25-54	rate				69.7	72.1	67.4	68.0	69.3	66.8
55-64	rate				22.1	34.9	11.2	23.9	34.2	14.8
65+	rate				2.9	4.4	1.7	2.5	3.9	1.4
15-64	rate				51.5	56.1	47.2	50.7	53.6	47.9
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%				22.1	24.8	18.9	18.2	20.3	15.8
upper secondary	%				55.2	57.0	53.1	55.4	58.6	52.0
tertiary	%				22.8	18.2	28.0	26.4	21.2	32.1
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%				13.2	15.4	10.6	9.7	12.1	7.1
mining & quarrying	%				1.5	2.2	0.6	1.5	2.3	0.7
manufacturing	%				23.5	23.3	23.8	24.1	22.9	25.3
electricity, gas, water	%				2.0	2.7	1.2	2.2	3.1	1.2
construction	%				5.9	9.5	1.8	4.9	8.0	1.6
trade & repair	%				14.1	13.2	15.2	15.1	14.3	15.9
hotels & restaurants	%				5.0	3.9	6.2	4.5	3.6	5.4
transport & communication	%				7.5	10.2	4.4	8.0	11.0	4.8
financial intermediation	%				1.1	0.7	1.6	1.4	1.1	1.8
real estate & business	%				3.2	3.0	3.5	3.9	3.9	3.8
public administration	%				6.8	8.1	5.4	7.6	9.0	6.1
education	%				7.4	2.7	12.7	7.7	3.2	12.6
health & social work	%				5.8	2.5	9.6	5.8	2.5	9.4
other services	%				3.1	2.7	3.6	3.5	3.1	4.0
self-employed	% of total				14.6	18.2	10.5	13.6	17.2	9.7
part-time	% of total							3.2	2.8	3.7
temporary	% of employees							6.2	6.4	5.9
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average				} 40.4	} 40.8	} 40.0	40.9	41.3	40.6
part-time employees	average			21.1				21.6	20.8	
self-employed	average			42.5				43.4	40.7	
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000				556	304	252	684	377	307
<i>by age groups</i>										
15-24	rate				33.3	36.1	29.6	39.3	42.8	35.5
25-54	rate				14.6	14.6	14.7	17.6	18.4	16.8
55-64	rate				12.2	12.6	10.8	18.4	18.1	19.0
15-64	rate				16.4	16.8	(15.9)	20.0	21.0	19.0
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate				25.0	23.6	27.0	33.1	33.2	33.0
upper secondary	rate				15.8	16.0	15.6	19.4	19.7	19.0
tertiary	rate				6.7	7.0	6.5	8.8	8.4	9.2
long-term	% of total				58.4	58.5	58.3	62.6	62.5	62.7

<b>Czech Republic</b>										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	-1.2	-2.4	+44.2	-0.4	-0.9	+2.6	+2.9	+0.5	-8.9
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total	1000	10237	4956	5281	10222	4948	5274	10216	4949	5267
age group 15–64	1000	7087	3523	3564	7111	3535	3576	7142	3554	3588
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	23.0	16.2	29.3	23.8	16.9	30.2	24.2	17.6	30.2
upper secondary	%	68.3	73.2	63.8	67.0	72.0	62.5	66.6	71.1	62.4
tertiary	%	8.7	10.6	6.9	9.1	11.1	7.3	9.3	11.3	7.4
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate	24.5	25.2	23.7	23.8	24.5	23.0	23.1	23.8	22.4
old age dependency	rate	20.0	15.4	24.5	20.0	15.4	24.4	19.9	15.4	24.4
activity age group 15–64	rate	71.8	79.7	63.9	71.2	79.0	63.5	70.7	78.5	63.0
effective dependency	rate	80.3	53.8	114.2	82.5	55.6	116.8	82.2	55.6	116.4
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	4716	2644	2071	4675	2623	2052	4701	2638	2063
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	38.3	42.7	33.9	36.4	39.3	33.6	34.4	37.4	31.5
25–54	rate	82.0	89.5	74.3	81.5	89.2	73.7	82.0	89.6	74.3
55–64	rate	37.6	53.2	23.6	36.1	51.6	22.1	36.9	52.4	23.0
65+	rate	4.5	6.9	2.9	4.1	6.8	2.3	3.9	6.5	2.2
15–64	rate	65.6	74.0	57.4	64.9	73.1	56.8	65.0	73.2	57.0
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	8.8	6.5	11.6	8.8	6.2	12.0	8.7	6.5	11.6
upper secondary	%	79.3	80.6	77.7	78.7	80.2	76.7	78.2	79.5	76.6
tertiary	%	12.0	12.9	10.7	12.6	13.6	11.2	13.0	14.0	11.8
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%	5.3	6.4	3.9	5.2	6.3	3.8	4.9	6.0	3.4
mining & quarrying	%	1.7	2.7	0.4	1.6	2.4	0.5	1.4	2.0	0.6
manufacturing	%	27.7	29.8	25.0	27.4	29.9	24.2	28.1	30.9	24.6
electricity, gas, water	%	1.7	2.4	0.9	1.6	2.3	0.8	1.8	2.4	1.1
construction	%	9.4	15.5	1.8	9.4	15.3	1.7	9.1	14.6	2.1
trade & repair	%	13.7	11.4	16.6	12.9	10.7	15.8	12.7	10.4	15.7
hotels & restaurants	%	3.4	2.6	4.4	3.4	2.6	4.5	3.4	2.7	4.3
transport & communication	%	7.8	9.6	5.6	7.9	9.6	5.8	7.6	9.4	5.3
financial intermediation	%	2.1	1.3	3.1	2.0	1.2	3.1	2.1	1.6	2.8
real estate & business	%	5.4	5.3	5.5	5.7	5.6	5.8	5.5	5.5	5.4
public administration	%	6.3	5.8	6.9	6.6	6.3	7.0	6.6	6.5	6.8
education	%	6.0	2.5	10.5	6.4	2.6	11.2	6.5	2.7	11.3
health & social work	%	5.6	1.7	10.7	6.1	2.0	11.3	6.3	2.2	11.7
other services	%	3.8	3.0	4.8	3.7	3.2	4.4	3.9	3.1	5.0
self-employed	% of total	13.9	18.0	8.7	14.5	18.7	9.0	14.6	18.9	9.2
part-time	% of total	5.7	2.5	9.7	5.3	2.2	9.2	4.9	2.2	8.4
temporary	% of employees	7.4	6.1	8.9	8.1	7.0	9.4	8.1	7.2	9.2
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average	43.3	44.1	42.4	43.3	44.0	42.4	41.1	41.7	40.4
part-time employees	average	26.2	24.5	26.7	25.8	24.4	26.2	25.2	24.0	25.6
self-employed	average	51.4	53.7	45.2	51.0	53.1	45.6	49.1	51.1	43.9
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	437	204	233	449	207	242	409	190	220
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	16.6	16.3	16.9	17.0	17.4	16.4	16.3	16.5	16.2
25–54	rate	7.4	5.8	9.3	7.8	6.0	10.0	7.2	5.6	9.0
55–64	rate	4.9	4.8	4.9	5.3	5.3	5.2	4.4	4.2	4.9
15–64	rate	8.5	7.2	10.2	8.8	7.4	10.6	8.1	6.8	9.6
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	20.7	22.6	19.4	22.6	26.1	20.1	21.5	23.4	20.1
upper secondary	rate	7.7	6.4	9.4	7.8	6.3	9.7	7.1	5.8	8.7
tertiary	rate	3.0	2.6	3.7	3.0	2.3	4.0	2.5	2.0	3.3
long-term	% of total	36.5	32.0	40.4	49.1	48.3	49.8	51.5	49.6	53.1

## National time series

<b>Estonia</b>										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	+5.0	-4.3	+19.5	-0.7	-1.7	+13.3	+6.9	+1.5	-5.4
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total	1000	1436	667	770	1430	663	767	1429	664	764
age group 15–64	1000	966	464	502	972	470	502	973	472	500
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	26.1	27.0	25.4	26.2	26.4	26.1	24.8	26.7	23.2
upper secondary	%	50.5	54.7	47.0	51.3	56.0	47.2	51.4	54.6	48.6
tertiary	%	23.3	18.4	27.6	22.5	17.6	26.7	23.8	18.7	28.2
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate	27.0	28.8	25.3	25.3	26.5	24.3	24.6	25.6	23.7
old age dependency	rate	21.7	14.8	28.0	21.8	14.8	28.4	22.2	15.0	29.0
activity age group 15–64	rate	70.3	76.2	64.8	70.0	75.6	64.8	69.9	74.5	65.6
effective dependency	rate	91.2	69.1	114.5	95.9	74.3	118.6	93.9	69.7	120.3
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	615	315	300	604	309	295	613	320	293
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	29.2	34.1	24.4	27.4	31.4	23.2	27.1	32.4	21.3
25–54	rate	77.3	79.4	75.2	76.8	79.5	74.2	75.8	79.5	72.2
55–64	rate	47.9	59.2	39.3	43.0	50.2	37.5	48.6	57.1	41.9
65+	rate	7.6	11.0	5.9	7.3	10.8	5.7	8.6	14.5	5.7
15–64	rate	62.0	66.3	58.0	60.6	64.3	57.1	61.1	65.6	56.9
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	11.6	13.9	9.2	10.7	12.2	9.2	11.5	14.0	8.9
upper secondary	%	56.9	61.0	52.5	57.4	63.7	50.8	57.4	61.8	52.5
tertiary	%	31.5	25.0	38.3	31.8	24.1	39.9	31.1	24.2	38.6
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%	8.8	10.9	6.7	7.0	8.7	5.2	7.1	10.3	3.6
mining & quarrying	%	1.4	2.4	.	1.7	2.4	(0.9)	1.1	1.6	(0.7)
manufacturing	%	20.9	22.3	19.4	23.0	26.6	19.3	23.9	25.4	22.3
electricity, gas, water	%	3.0	4.1	1.8	2.1	2.9	1.3	1.9	2.8	(0.9)
construction	%	6.5	11.4	1.3	7.8	14.5	(0.8)	7.3	13.0	(1.0)
trade & repair	%	14.5	11.9	17.1	12.8	9.5	16.2	13.0	11.4	14.7
hotels & restaurants	%	2.1	(0.6)	3.7	3.0	(0.9)	5.1	3.2	(1.0)	5.7
transport & communication	%	8.9	13.0	4.7	10.4	14.7	5.9	10.4	13.3	7.2
financial intermediation	%	1.4	(1.1)	1.8	1.5	(1.1)	1.8	1.0	(1.1)	(0.9)
real estate & business	%	6.6	7.2	6.1	6.8	6.7	6.8	6.1	6.2	6.0
public administration	%	6.4	6.6	6.3	5.6	5.1	6.2	6.0	6.5	5.5
education	%	8.9	3.7	14.4	7.8	2.4	13.5	8.4	2.9	14.4
health & social work	%	5.7	1.6	10.0	4.8	1.2	8.6	5.7	1.5	10.2
other services	%	4.8	3.4	6.3	5.7	3.2	8.4	4.9	3.1	6.9
self-employed	% of total	8.2	10.6	5.6	8.1	9.7	6.4	6.7	9.3	3.9
part-time	% of total	7.1	5.2	9.0	6.7	4.2	9.3	7.4	4.6	10.4
temporary	% of employees	2.0	2.3	1.7	2.3	3.1	1.4	2.8	3.3	2.3
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average	41.3	42.2	40.4	41.2	41.9	40.5	41.4	42.0	40.7
part-time employees	average	22.1	23.6	21.2	21.0	19.8	21.5	22.2	22.4	22.1
self-employed	average	46.5	48.2	43.1	46.2	48.2	43.0	46.9	48.4	42.8
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	81	47	34	92	53	39	87	43	44
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	22.1	22.2	21.9	23.7	24.7	22.4	24.5	17.6	33.8
25–54	rate	11.2	12.4	10.0	12.8	13.9	11.5	11.5	11.9	11.1
55–64	rate	6.1	8.0	.	8.2	11.4	.	8.6	(7.1)	10.1
15–64	rate	11.8	13.1	10.5	13.5	15.0	11.8	12.6	12.0	13.2
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	20.4	21.6	18.3	25.3	26.9	23.1	18.6	18.7	18.5
upper secondary	rate	12.6	13.7	11.3	14.7	14.8	14.6	13.3	11.4	15.7
tertiary	rate	6.0	5.2	6.5	5.0	6.3	4.1	8.0	8.4	7.7
long-term	% of total	42.6	43.6	41.3	47.4	48.2	46.4	46.6	51.8	41.6



<b>Hungary</b>										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	+4.9	+4.0	-21.0	+4.2	+0.6	-5.1	+5.2	+0.7	-13.7
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total	1000	9976	4753	5223	9927	4727	5200	9900	4715	5185
age group 15–64	1000	6788	3314	3473	6760	3312	3448	6776	3321	3456
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	34.2	27.7	40.1	38.5	34.0	42.7	38.0	33.5	42.2
upper secondary	%	54.4	61.0	48.4	50.3	54.7	46.2	50.7	55.2	46.6
tertiary	%	11.4	11.3	11.5	11.2	11.3	11.1	11.2	11.3	11.2
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate	25.5	26.7	24.3	25.2	26.4	24.1	24.8	26.0	23.7
old age dependency	rate	21.5	16.7	26.1	21.6	16.3	26.7	21.3	16.0	26.4
activity age group 15–64	rate	59.6	67.5	52.0	59.9	67.6	52.5	59.7	67.6	52.2
effective dependency	rate	117.9	85.8	157.2	116.0	84.2	154.7	114.3	82.4	153.5
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	3785	2081	1703	3807	2092	1715	3835	2113	1722
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	34.9	38.6	31.2	33.1	37.0	29.2	31.4	35.6	27.1
25–54	rate	72.2	78.8	65.8	72.8	79.0	66.7	73.1	79.4	67.0
55–64	rate	19.1	29.3	11.1	21.9	33.0	13.0	23.7	35.0	14.6
65+	rate	1.5	2.5	0.9	1.7	2.7	1.1	1.2	1.9	0.8
15–64	rate	55.4	62.4	48.8	55.9	62.7	49.4	56.3	63.3	49.6
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	15.0	12.8	17.6	17.4	16.1	19.1	17.2	15.7	19.2
upper secondary	%	67.5	71.5	62.5	65.5	68.4	61.9	65.6	68.8	61.6
tertiary	%	17.5	15.7	19.9	17.1	15.5	19.0	17.2	15.5	19.2
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%	7.0	9.7	3.7	6.5	9.0	3.3	6.1	8.4	3.4
mining & quarrying	%	0.7	1.0	0.3	0.6	0.9	(0.2)	0.4	0.6	.
manufacturing	%	24.6	26.7	22.2	24.2	25.8	22.3	24.8	26.3	23.1
electricity, gas, water	%	2.3	3.0	1.4	2.0	2.7	1.0	2.0	2.8	1.1
construction	%	6.7	11.3	1.1	7.0	11.7	1.2	7.2	12.2	1.2
trade & repair	%	13.9	11.9	16.4	14.5	12.9	16.4	14.3	12.9	16.0
hotels & restaurants	%	3.7	3.1	4.3	3.5	2.9	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.3
transport & communication	%	8.1	10.7	4.9	8.1	10.7	4.9	8.0	10.5	5.0
financial intermediation	%	2.1	1.3	3.2	2.2	1.4	3.2	2.0	1.1	3.1
real estate & business	%	4.7	4.9	4.6	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.7	5.7	5.8
public administration	%	6.8	6.4	7.3	7.0	6.6	7.4	6.9	6.5	7.2
education	%	8.3	3.5	14.1	8.2	3.3	14.2	8.1	3.3	14.0
health & social work	%	6.4	2.6	11.1	6.5	2.9	10.9	6.2	2.6	10.6
other services	%	4.6	4.0	5.4	4.4	3.9	5.1	4.4	3.7	5.2
self-employed	% of total	14.9	18.8	10.2	14.5	18.7	9.5	13.9	17.6	9.3
part-time	% of total	3.5	2.1	5.3	3.2	1.8	5.0	3.1	1.8	4.8
temporary	% of employees	6.1	6.4	5.8	6.9	7.3	6.4	7.5	8.1	6.8
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average	41.3	42.1	40.5	41.3	42.2	40.4	41.0	41.7	40.4
part-time employees	average	23.4	23.3	23.4	23.5	23.2	23.7	24.2	24.3	24.2
self-employed	average	45.5	46.6	43.2	45.6	46.8	43.1	44.5	45.7	42.2
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	282	169	113	267	162	105	231	142	88
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	12.3	13.5	10.6	12.3	13.7	10.4	10.5	11.4	9.3
25–54	rate	6.2	6.7	5.7	5.9	6.3	5.3	5.2	5.8	4.5
55–64	rate	2.7	3.3	.	3.1	3.8	.	2.9	3.5	.
15–64	rate	7.0	7.5	6.2	6.6	7.2	5.8	5.7	6.3	4.9
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	13.7	16.2	11.4	11.5	13.3	9.6	11.2	13.8	8.3
upper secondary	rate	6.7	7.0	6.3	6.4	6.9	5.9	5.2	5.6	4.8
tertiary	rate	1.2	1.5	(1.0)	1.4	1.6	(1.3)	1.2	(1.1)	1.4
long-term	% of total	47.9	48.6	46.8	47.8	50.6	43.6	44.8	45.6	43.5

## National time series

<b>Lithuania</b>										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	+5.1	+3.2	-18.1	-3.9	-5.5	+53.2	+3.8	-2.8	+4.3
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total (15+)	1000	2958	1373	1585	2967	1370	1597	2981	1374	1607
age group 15–64	1000	2435	1183	1251	2472	1198	1274	2478	1200	1279
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	36.3	36.1	36.4	31.3	28.7	33.5	32.4	30.9	33.7
upper secondary	%	32.0	34.6	29.8	36.8	42.0	32.3	34.2	38.7	30.2
tertiary	%	31.7	29.3	33.8	31.9	29.3	34.2	33.4	30.3	36.1
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate									
old age dependency	rate	19.8	14.1	25.2	20.0	14.3	25.4	20.3	14.5	25.7
activity age group 15–64	rate	72.6	77.7	67.7	71.5	75.5	67.6	70.4	74.5	66.5
effective dependency	rate	80.8	62.4	100.3	94.6	80.8	108.2	101.2	87.5	114.5
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	1613	831	782	1525	757	767	1482	733	749
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	33.8	38.3	29.2	26.7	30.2	23.2	22.9	24.5	21.3
25–54	rate	81.5	82.4	80.7	76.0	75.1	76.8	75.5	74.6	76.4
55–64	rate	42.6	56.7	31.8	42.2	52.2	34.5	39.1	48.6	31.8
65+	rate	6.2	9.7	4.3	7.8	9.7	6.8	6.1	8.5	4.8
15–64	rate	65.0	68.9	61.4	60.1	61.8	58.5	58.6	59.8	57.4
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	17.8	21.7	13.7	11.4	13.3	9.7	11.0	12.8	9.2
upper secondary	%	37.4	39.7	34.9	42.6	46.8	38.5	39.3	44.5	34.2
tertiary	%	44.8	38.6	51.4	45.9	39.9	51.8	49.7	42.7	56.5
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%	21.4	25.3	17.3	18.4	22.3	14.6	16.5	20.7	12.5
mining & quarrying	%	.	.	.	0.3	.	.	.	.	.
manufacturing	%	17.5	16.6	18.4	18.6	19.3	17.9	18.4	17.9	19.0
electricity, gas, water	%	2.3	3.2	1.3	2.6	3.3	1.9	2.5	4.0	1.1
construction	%	6.5	11.5	1.3	5.9	10.8	1.0	5.9	11.0	1.0
trade & repair	%	13.8	14.1	13.5	13.7	12.6	14.9	14.8	15.6	14.1
hotels & restaurants	%	1.7	0.7	2.8	1.8	1.1	2.5	2.1	1.3	3.0
transport & communication	%	6.5	8.5	4.3	6.8	9.2	4.5	6.3	8.9	3.7
financial intermediation	%	1.0	0.8	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.8
real estate & business	%	3.1	3.2	2.9	2.8	3.1	2.5	3.1	3.2	3.0
public administration	%	5.2	6.1	4.2	5.4	6.4	4.4	5.7	6.5	5.0
education	%	10.2	4.7	16.0	12.1	5.4	18.6	11.4	4.8	17.8
health & social work	%	6.5	2.0	11.2	6.6	1.7	11.5	7.7	1.9	13.3
other services	%	4.2	3.1	5.3	3.9	3.7	4.0	4.4	3.2	5.6
self-employed	% of total	17.0	20.3	13.4	15.9	19.2	12.7	15.9	20.1	11.9
part-time	% of total				8.6	7.6	9.6	8.7	7.4	9.9
temporary	% of employees	5.3	7.3	3.4	3.7	4.9	2.7	6.5	9.0	4.3
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average	} 39.2	} 40.2	} 38.2	39.7	40.4	39.2	39.5	40.5	38.5
part-time employees	average				23.4	23.5	23.3	21.3	21.9	21.0
self-employed	average				39.9	40.6	38.9	39.5	40.3	38.4
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	183	104	79	281	165	116	293	176	117
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	21.3	22.7	19.3	27.5	27.6	27.4	30.9	35.9	24.0
25–54	rate	9.4	10.0	8.9	15.1	17.5	12.8	15.3	17.5	13.2
55–64	rate	4.0	6.4	0.6	9.2	12.4	5.3	14.3	18.2	9.3
15–64	rate	10.4	11.4	.	15.9	18.2	.	16.8	19.7	13.8
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	15.3	16.9	12.5	22.5	25.5	18.0	23.1	27.0	17.1
upper secondary	rate	11.8	12.6	10.9	19.9	21.2	18.1	21.7	22.7	20.3
tertiary	rate	6.6	6.0	7.0	9.0	10.4	8.0	10.1	12.7	8.1
long-term	% of total	38.5	40.7	35.5	52.4	56.0	47.3	56.2	58.9	52.1

Latvia										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	+3.9	-0.7	-6.9	+1.1	-2.9	+1.2	+6.8	-0.5	-9.6
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total	1000	2439	1128	1312	2424	1123	1301	2365	1089	1277
age group 15–64	1000	1627	783	843	1637	788	848	1596	764	832
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	29.7	28.8	30.4	30.6	29.7	31.4	34.2	35.1	33.6
upper secondary	%	56.2	58.1	54.6	55.3	56.6	54.1	51.4	52.1	50.9
tertiary	%	14.2	13.1	15.1	14.1	13.6	14.5	14.3	12.9	15.5
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate	27.7	29.1	26.4	26.4	28.1	24.8	25.6	27.3	24.0
old age dependency	rate	22.3	14.9	29.2	21.7	14.4	28.5	22.6	15.1	29.5
activity age group 15–64	rate	69.1	76.0	62.6	67.5	73.6	61.9	68.0	72.7	63.6
effective dependency	rate	99.5	71.3	131.0	105.7	79.3	134.2	103.0	81.6	124.6
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	997	525	472	968	503	466	964	484	479
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	33.2	37.6	28.7	30.1	35.2	24.9	29.0	33.3	24.5
25–54	rate	74.7	78.5	71.1	73.6	75.4	71.8	75.9	76.8	75.1
55–64	rate	36.6	50.2	26.4	35.4	48.3	25.9	36.4	44.8	30.1
65+	rate	8.3	12.2	6.4	6.6	10.2	5.0	6.8	10.1	5.2
15–64	rate	59.4	65.2	54.1	57.7	62.3	53.5	58.9	61.9	56.1
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	13.5	16.0	10.6	12.8	14.9	10.4	17.5	20.7	14.2
upper secondary	%	66.2	67.3	65.0	66.2	66.9	65.6	61.4	62.2	60.7
tertiary	%	20.3	16.7	24.3	21.0	18.2	24.0	21.1	17.1	25.2
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%	17.2	19.1	15.1	14.4	16.0	12.8	15.1	18.4	11.7
mining & quarrying	%	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
manufacturing	%	17.4	19.8	14.8	18.5	20.5	16.4	16.3	17.6	15.1
electricity, gas, water	%	2.2	3.0	1.3	2.1	2.8	1.3	2.1	3.3	0.9
construction	%	6.1	10.2	1.6	6.0	10.8	0.9	6.7	12.2	1.2
trade & repair	%	14.4	12.4	16.5	15.3	12.7	18.1	16.5	13.2	19.9
hotels & restaurants	%	2.1	0.9	3.4	2.3	1.2	3.5	2.6	1.3	4.0
transport & communication	%	8.5	11.4	5.4	8.5	11.5	5.3	8.2	11.5	4.9
financial intermediation	%	1.3	(0.8)	1.9	1.2	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.7
real estate & business	%	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.9	5.0	4.7	4.1	4.3	3.9
public administration	%	7.5	8.0	6.9	7.8	8.7	6.7	7.1	8.1	6.1
education	%	8.8	3.6	14.5	9.0	4.0	14.4	9.1	3.2	15.0
health & social work	%	5.5	2.4	9.0	5.0	1.2	9.1	5.1	1.6	8.7
other services	%	5.0	4.3	5.8	4.7	4.3	5.1	5.6	4.2	7.1
self-employed	% of total	11.1	12.9	9.2	10.6	12.5	8.6	10.2	12.7	7.8
part-time	% of total	11.8	10.9	12.9	10.8	9.5	12.2	10.0	7.9	12.1
temporary	% of employees	7.4	10.1	4.5	6.7	8.8	4.6	7.1	9.0	5.4
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average	43.0	44.1	41.8	43.0	43.8	42.3	43.5	44.2	42.9
part-time employees	average	23.5	25.8	22.0	22.7	25.0	21.2	22.0	23.0	21.5
self-employed	average	46.7	48.6	43.9	45.6	47.4	42.8	47.0	49.4	43.3
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	159	86	73	161	89	72	145	83	63
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	23.4	26.1	19.5	21.4	21.1	21.8	22.9	24.0	21.4
25–54	rate	13.2	13.0	13.3	14.1	15.0	13.2	12.1	13.3	11.0
55–64	rate	8.2	7.1	9.8	9.4	10.5	(7.9)	11.9	14.4	8.8
15–64	rate	13.9	14.2	13.6	14.5	15.3	13.6	13.4	14.9	11.8
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	17.5	18.9	15.1	21.3	23.7	17.2	21.0	22.9	18.0
upper secondary	rate	15.0	14.4	15.7	14.8	14.8	14.8	13.0	13.6	12.4
tertiary	rate	6.3	7.6	5.3	7.2	7.0	7.3	5.5	6.1	5.1
long-term	% of total	53.7	52.6	54.9	56.9	56.9	56.9	59.1	61.2	56.3

## National time series

<b>Poland</b>	<b>unit</b>	<b>1999</b>			<b>2000</b>			<b>2001</b>		
<b>Macroeconomic indicators</b>		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	+4.8	-2.8	+23.5	+4.1	-2.8	+35.2	+4.0	-1.8	+13.4
	<b>unit</b>	<b>1999</b>			<b>2000</b>			<b>2001</b>		
		<b>all</b>	<b>male</b>	<b>female</b>	<b>all</b>	<b>male</b>	<b>female</b>	<b>all</b>	<b>male</b>	<b>female</b>
<b>Population</b>										
total (15+)	1000	30136	14343	15793	30535	14551	15984	30794	14678	16116
age group 15–64	1000	25252	12457	12795	25652	12670	12982	25819	12761	13058
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	35.2	32.0	38.1	33.1	29.7	36.2	32.5	29.2	35.5
upper secondary	%	56.4	59.5	53.5	58.3	62.1	54.9	58.5	62.4	55.0
tertiary	%	8.4	8.5	8.4	8.6	8.2	8.9	9.0	8.4	9.5
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate									
old age dependency	rate	19.3	15.1	23.4	19.0	14.8	23.1	19.3	15.0	23.4
activity age group 15–64	rate	65.8	72.1	59.6	66.1	71.8	60.5	66.1	71.6	60.8
effective dependency	rate	101.7	75.7	133.1	110.3	82.5	144.3	116.1	88.6	149.1
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	14940	8164	6776	14518	7975	6543	14252	7782	6470
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	24.3	27.2	21.5	24.1	26.4	21.9	21.4	23.1	19.8
25–54	rate	73.7	79.8	67.6	71.0	77.5	64.5	69.5	75.5	63.5
55–64	rate	32.5	41.8	24.5	29.0	37.4	21.8	30.5	38.3	23.8
65+	rate	8.5	12.7	6.0	7.6	12.0	4.9	7.5	11.7	4.9
15–64	rate	57.5	63.6	51.6	55.1	61.2	49.3	53.8	59.2	48.4
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	16.5	16.7	16.2	14.8	14.9	14.8	14.6	14.7	14.6
upper secondary	%	70.1	71.4	68.7	71.3	73.5	68.6	70.7	73.0	68.0
tertiary	%	13.4	11.9	15.1	13.9	11.6	16.6	14.7	12.4	17.4
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%				18.7	18.9	18.4	19.2	19.0	19.4
mining & quarrying	%				2.1	3.2	0.7	2.0	3.1	0.6
manufacturing	%				19.8	22.9	15.9	20.2	23.6	16.0
electricity, gas, water	%				1.8	2.7	0.7	1.9	2.7	0.9
construction	%				7.4	12.3	1.5	6.7	11.4	1.1
trade & repair	%				14.0	12.0	16.5	13.9	11.8	16.4
hotels & restaurants	%				1.7	0.9	2.6	1.8	1.1	2.7
transport & communication	%				6.2	8.4	3.5	6.2	8.4	3.6
financial intermediation	%				2.5	1.4	3.9	2.3	1.2	3.6
real estate & business	%				3.5	3.6	3.4	4.3	4.8	3.8
public administration	%				5.3	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.4
education	%				6.9	3.0	11.6	6.6	2.9	11.1
health & social work	%				6.5	2.1	11.8	6.5	1.9	11.9
other services	%				3.6	3.2	4.1	3.2	2.9	3.5
self-employed	% of total	22.8	26.1	19.0	22.5	25.9	18.4	22.5	25.6	18.8
part-time	% of total	9.6	7.4	12.2	10.6	8.4	13.2	10.2	8.2	12.6
temporary	% of employees	4.8	5.1	4.5	5.8	6.6	4.8	11.9	12.4	11.4
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average							41.4	42.9	39.8
part-time employees	average							23.6	25.0	22.6
self-employed	average							45.6	48.4	41.0
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	2093	1066	1028	2830	1362	1468	3208	1589	1619
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	29.6	27.9	31.6	35.7	34.3	37.2	41.5	41.0	42.1
25–54	rate	10.6	9.9	11.6	14.2	12.3	16.3	16.0	14.3	18.0
55–64	rate	7.3	8.5	5.6	9.7	9.1	10.6	10.1	11.5	8.1
15–64	rate	12.6	11.8	13.4	16.6	14.8	18.6	18.7	17.3	20.4
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	17.0	17.6	16.4	21.5	20.9	22.1	23.9	23.1	24.8
upper secondary	rate	12.7	11.4	14.3	17.0	14.6	20.0	19.4	17.5	21.8
tertiary	rate	3.2	2.9	3.5	5.5	5.0	5.9	5.6	4.0	6.9
long-term	% of total	41.6	36.6	46.9	44.7	40.4	48.7	50.1	46.1	53.9

<b>Romania</b>										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	-4.8	-0.7	+10.8	-1.2	-1.1	+11.3	+1.8	-0.8	-7.1
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total	1000	22358	10870	11487	22338	10863	11475	22345	10878	11467
age group 15–64	1000	15190	7477	7713	15213	7499	7714	15278	7551	7727
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	43.6	37.8	49.0	43.2	37.2	48.8	42.4	36.6	47.9
upper secondary	%	49.8	54.4	45.5	49.9	54.8	45.4	50.2	55.1	45.6
tertiary	%	6.6	7.8	5.5	6.9	8.0	5.8	7.4	8.3	6.6
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate	28.1	29.1	27.0	27.3	28.4	26.3	26.5	27.4	25.6
old age dependency	rate	19.1	16.2	21.9	19.5	16.5	22.4	19.8	16.6	22.8
activity age group 15–64	rate	69.8	76.1	63.7	69.6	75.7	63.6	68.3	74.3	62.4
effective dependency	rate	64.2	49.7	80.4	66.8	51.9	83.5	69.3	54.2	86.3
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	11022	5808	5214	10898	5750	5148	10807	5712	5095
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	35.3	38.8	31.9	34.0	36.9	31.1	32.7	35.3	30.0
25–54	rate	79.6	85.2	74.1	78.6	84.6	72.7	77.6	83.5	71.7
55–64	rate	52.9	59.4	47.3	52.0	57.4	47.3	50.5	56.0	45.8
65+	rate	39.7	45.0	35.8	38.2	43.5	34.4	37.5	42.5	34
15–64	rate	65.0	70.4	59.7	64.2	69.5	59.0	63.3	68.6	58.2
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	37.1	32.2	42.6	36.8	32.0	42.3	35.5	30.6	40.9
upper secondary	%	54.5	58.8	49.7	54.4	58.8	49.6	55.2	59.7	50.1
tertiary	%	8.4	9.0	7.7	8.7	9.2	8.1	9.4	9.7	9.0
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%	44.0	40.8	47.6	45.2	42.8	47.9	44.4	41.7	47.4
mining & quarrying	%	1.7	2.8	0.5	1.6	2.6	0.5	1.6	2.7	0.4
manufacturing	%	19.6	20.6	18.5	18.6	19.2	18.0	18.4	18.2	18.5
electricity, gas, water	%	2.1	3.2	0.8	1.8	2.7	0.9	1.9	2.7	1.0
construction	%	3.6	6.1	0.9	3.7	6.1	1.0	4.0	6.7	1.0
trade & repair	%	8.3	6.9	9.8	8.3	6.9	9.9	8.4	7.2	9.8
hotels & restaurants	%	1.1	0.7	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.4	1.2	0.7	1.7
transport & communication	%	4.4	6.2	2.4	4.5	6.5	2.2	4.7	6.7	2.4
financial intermediation	%	0.8	0.4	1.2	0.9	0.5	1.3	0.8	0.5	1.1
real estate & business	%	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.4	0.9
public administration	%	3.7	5.0	2.4	3.9	5.1	2.7	4.3	5.9	2.6
education	%	4.0	2.3	5.9	4.0	2.1	6.1	4.0	2.1	6.1
health & social work	%	3.1	1.3	5.0	2.9	1.1	5.0	3.1	1.2	5.2
other services	%	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.3	1.9
self-employed	% of total	23.8	30.1	16.8	25.4	32.6	17.4	25.7	33.0	17.5
part-time	% of total	16.5	14.0	19.2	16.4	14.3	18.6	16.8	14.7	19.1
temporary	% of employees	3.1	3.0	3.2	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.1	2.8
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average	41.1	41.3	40.9	41.4	41.6	41.1	41.3	41.5	41.0
part-time employees	average	34.0	37.9	29.6	32.4	33.5	31.7	33.7	36.0	31.4
self-employed	average	41.3	43.1	37.2	40.4	41.8	37.3	39.9	41.2	36.8
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	733	428	305	816	466	351	758	433	326
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	17.3	18.8	15.5	17.8	19.3	15.9	17.6	18.1	17.1
25–54	rate	5.8	6.2	5.5	6.9	7.1	6.7	6.3	6.6	5.9
55–64	rate	0.9	1.5	0.3	1.1	1.7	0.4	1.7	2.9	0.4
15–64	rate	6.9	7.5	6.2	7.7	8.2	7.1	7.3	7.7	6.8
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	3.6	4.8	2.5	3.9	4.9	3.1	4.0	5.5	2.6
upper secondary	rate	8.5	8.6	8.3	9.4	9.4	9.5	8.6	8.3	8.9
tertiary	rate	2.7	2.5	3.0	3.6	4.0	3.1	3.9	3.6	4.2
long-term	% of total	45.2	41.8	50.0	49.2	50.2	48.0	48.6	47.4	50.3

## National time series

<b>Slovenia</b>										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	+3.8	-1.8	-2.7	+5.2	+0.6	-5.4	+4.6	+2.3	-17.1
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total	1000	1980	964	1015	1988	971	1018	1991	972	1018
age group 15–64	1000	1379	698	681	1393	704	689	1400	708	692
<i>age group 15+ by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	35.4	28.8	41.5	33.9	27.8	39.7	33.8	27.4	39.8
upper secondary	%	53.1	59.9	46.6	53.9	60.2	48.1	55.5	62.5	48.9
tertiary	%	11.6	11.3	11.9	12.1	12.0	12.2	10.7	10.0	11.4
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate	23.4	23.8	23.1	22.7	23.0	22.4	22.2	22.5	21.8
old age dependency	rate	20.1	14.3	26.0	20.0	14.9	25.3	20.0	14.8	25.4
activity age group 15–64	rate	67.6	72.2	63.0	67.4	71.7	63.1	67.5	72.5	62.5
effective dependency	rate	86.4	66.3	110.1	87.1	68.1	109.3	83.9	63.5	108.1
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	889	480	409	894	481	413	914	497	417
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	32.9	34.7	31.2	31.2	34.7	27.4	30.3	34.1	26.4
25–54	rate	82.2	85.6	78.6	82.6	85.5	79.6	83.8	87.5	80.0
55–64	rate	23.4	32.2	14.9	22.3	31.0	14.3	23.4	33.0	14.4
65+	rate	9.4	13.3	7.3	7.4	10.8	5.4	8.5	11.7	6.5
15–64	rate	62.5	66.8	58.1	62.7	66.7	58.5	63.6	68.5	58.6
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	21.0	18.8	23.5	19.9	18.0	22.2	20.7	18.7	23.1
upper secondary	%	62.5	67.0	57.1	62.8	67.4	57.4	64.1	69.2	58.1
tertiary	%	16.6	14.2	19.3	17.3	14.6	20.4	15.1	12.1	18.8
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%	10.8	10.7	11.0	9.6	9.5	9.7	9.9	10.1	9.7
mining & quarrying	%	0.7	1.3	.	0.8	1.4	(0.3)	0.6	1.0	.
manufacturing	%	31.1	35.2	26.4	30.3	33.5	26.5	30.7	33.8	27.1
electricity, gas, water	%	0.9	1.3	(0.4)	1.1	1.7	(0.5)	1.2	2.0	(0.3)
construction	%	5.1	8.6	1.0	5.4	9.0	1.2	6.1	10.0	1.5
trade & repair	%	12.3	11.2	13.6	13.4	11.9	15.1	12.6	11.5	13.8
hotels & restaurants	%	3.8	3.0	4.7	3.8	3.0	4.8	3.8	2.6	5.2
transport & communication	%	6.0	8.8	2.8	6.7	9.7	3.3	6.3	8.9	3.3
financial intermediation	%	2.3	1.1	3.7	2.4	1.5	3.6	2.6	1.8	3.7
real estate & business	%	5.5	5.2	5.9	4.8	5.1	4.5	5.0	5.1	4.8
public administration	%	5.5	5.3	5.8	6.0	5.5	6.4	5.3	4.7	6.1
education	%	6.7	2.9	11.2	6.4	2.6	10.9	6.9	3.0	11.4
health & social work	%	5.1	1.9	8.8	5.2	2.0	9.0	5.2	2.1	8.8
other services	%	4.1	3.5	4.8	3.9	3.6	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.3
self-employed	% of total	12.6	16.6	8.0	11.2	15.3	6.5	11.8	15.9	7.0
part-time	% of total	6.6	5.6	7.8	6.1	4.7	7.7	6.1	5.0	7.4
temporary	% of employees	10.5	9.7	11.4	12.9	12.4	13.5	13.1	12.9	13.3
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average	41.5	42.0	40.9	41.4	41.8	41.0	41.5	41.8	41.1
part-time employees	average	17.8	17.0	18.4	19.3	18.4	19.9	19.5	19.9	19.3
self-employed	average	50.4	51.1	48.6	49.8	50.5	48.0	49.6	50.0	48.4
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	70	37	33	66	35	31	55	28	27
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	18.5	17.2	19.8	16.4	14.8	18.5	15.7	15.0	16.6
25–54	rate	6.1	6.1	6.0	5.8	5.7	6.0	4.6	4.2	5.0
55–64	rate	(3.7)	(4.8)	.	(6.1)	(7.6)	.	(4.8)	(5.0)	.
15–64	rate	7.5	7.4	7.7	7.1	6.9	7.2	5.8	5.5	6.2
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	9.9	10.5	9.3	10.6	11.4	9.8	8.9	9.4	8.4
upper secondary	rate	7.5	7.1	8.2	6.9	6.6	7.4	5.5	5.0	6.3
tertiary	rate	3.0	(3.2)	(2.9)	(2.2)	.	(2.9)	(2.3)	(2.3)	(2.2)
long-term	% of total	41.8	45.2	38.0	62.7	64.9	60.3	63.3	63.9	62.6



<b>Slovakia</b>										
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
Macroeconomic indicators		GDP (1998)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (1999)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed	GDP (2000)	Em- ployed	Unem- ployed
annual change	%	+4.0			+1.3	-2.1	+21.5	+2.2	+1.6	+3.7
	unit	1999			2000			2001		
		all	male	female	all	male	female	all	male	female
<b>Population</b>										
total	1000	5369	2599	2770	5377	2604	2773	5376	2600	2776
age group 15–64	1000	3657	1802	1855	3691	1821	1870	3720	1834	1886
age group 15+ by education										
< upper secondary	%	30.1	23.6	36.1	28.8	22.6	34.5	27.6	21.4	33.2
upper secondary	%	62.5	67.9	57.6	63.5	68.8	58.7	64.5	69.8	59.7
tertiary	%	7.3	8.5	6.3	7.6	8.6	6.8	7.9	8.7	7.2
<i>dependency and activity</i>										
youth dependency	rate	30.1	31.3	29.0	29.0	30.1	28.0	27.9	28.9	26.8
old age dependency	rate	16.7	13.0	20.3	16.7	12.9	20.3	16.7	12.9	20.4
activity age group 15–64	rate	69.0	76.3	62.0	69.6	76.5	62.8	70.4	77.4	63.6
effective dependency	rate	100.5	75.6	130.2	106.7	82.8	134.9	105.1	81.9	132.1
<b>Employment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	2128	1159	969	2083	1125	958	2116	1138	978
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	31.1	33.1	29.1	28.3	28.7	27.9	27.7	28.5	26.9
25–54	rate	75.9	81.3	70.5	74.3	79.1	69.4	74.6	78.7	70.5
55–64	rate	22.2	36.4	10.6	21.4	35.2	10.2	22.5	37.7	10.0
65+	rate	1.2	2.2	.	0.8	1.6	.	0.9	1.8	.
15–64	rate	58.0	64.0	52.1	56.3	61.6	51.1	56.7	61.8	51.8
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	%	8.2	6.3	10.4	6.9	5.0	9.2	6.4	4.6	8.4
upper secondary	%	80.0	81.8	77.9	80.7	82.8	78.3	80.8	82.9	78.3
tertiary	%	11.8	11.9	11.6	12.4	12.3	12.5	12.8	12.5	13.3
<i>by economic activity</i>										
agriculture & fishery	%	7.2	9.3	4.8	6.9	9.2	4.3	6.3	8.4	3.8
mining & quarrying	%	1.4	2.3	0.4	1.2	2.0	0.3	1.0	1.6	0.3
manufacturing	%	25.7	28.0	22.9	25.8	28.3	22.9	25.6	28.5	22.2
electricity, gas, water	%	2.4	3.6	0.9	2.2	3.5	0.8	2.5	4.0	0.9
construction	%	9.0	14.9	1.9	8.0	13.6	1.5	7.9	13.5	1.4
trade & repair	%	12.4	8.8	16.6	12.5	9.5	15.9	12.0	9.5	15.0
hotels & restaurants	%	3.1	2.1	4.3	3.0	2.1	4.1	3.5	2.6	4.5
transport & communication	%	7.8	10.1	4.9	8.2	10.5	5.6	7.6	9.7	5.1
financial intermediation	%	1.7	0.9	2.8	1.8	1.1	2.5	1.8	0.9	3.0
real estate & business	%	3.7	4.1	3.1	4.1	4.6	3.6	5.1	5.7	4.3
public administration	%	7.1	7.1	7.0	7.7	7.0	8.5	7.6	6.8	8.4
education	%	7.8	3.1	13.5	7.8	3.2	13.1	8.1	3.0	14.0
health & social work	%	7.3	2.5	13.0	7.0	2.4	12.5	6.9	2.3	12.3
other services	%	3.5	3.2	3.9	3.7	3.2	4.3	4.2	3.6	4.9
self-employed	% of total	7.4	10.1	4.2	7.8	10.9	4.1	8.4	11.4	4.8
part-time	% of total	1.9	1.0	3.0	1.7	0.9	2.8	2.4	1.2	3.8
temporary	% of employees	3.7	3.8	3.7	4.0	3.8	4.3	5.0	5.2	4.9
<i>usual weekly hours</i>										
full-time employees	average	42.2	42.7	41.7	42.2	42.7	41.7	42.0	42.4	41.6
part-time employees	average	24.8	25.8	24.4	24.1	24.2	24.0	24.4	23.6	24.6
self-employed	average	50.9	52.0	48.0	50.7	51.3	48.8	48.7	49.6	46.3
<b>Unemployment</b>										
total (15+)	1000	404	220	183	491	271	219	509	286	223
<i>by age groups</i>										
15–24	rate	32.0	33.1	30.8	36.9	40.0	33.3	38.9	42.6	34.5
25–54	rate	13.0	12.8	13.1	15.9	15.8	16.0	16.1	16.3	15.9
55–64	rate	10.3	11.7	.	12.6	14.1	.	11.7	12.2	10.0
15–64	rate	16.0	16.0	15.9	19.1	19.5	18.6	19.4	20.1	18.6
<i>by education</i>										
< upper secondary	rate	34.1	39.4	29.7	40.4	48.7	33.6	42.5	50.4	35.8
upper secondary	rate	15.1	15.0	15.2	18.4	18.4	18.4	18.7	19.1	18.2
tertiary	rate	4.1	4.0	4.3	5.3	6.1	4.3	5.2	6.0	4.4
long-term	% of total	46.4	43.0	50.6	53.8	53.4	54.4	58.3	57.0	59.9

## Regional time series

Country Region	Year	Population		Employment						
		total (1000)	15–64 (1000)	total (1000)	all 15–64 (rate)	males 15–64 (rate)	females 15–64 (rate)	in agriculture (%)	in industry (%)	in services (%)
<b>Bulgaria</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>6832</b>	<b>5502</b>	<b>2872</b>	<b>51.5</b>	<b>56.1</b>	<b>47.2</b>	<b>13.2</b>	<b>32.8</b>	<b>54.0</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>7933</b>	<b>5366</b>	<b>2752</b>	<b>50.7</b>	<b>53.6</b>	<b>47.9</b>	<b>9.7</b>	<b>32.7</b>	<b>57.6</b>
North-West	2000	493	367	154	41.6	43.2	40.1	8.7	33.9	57.4
	2001	558	351	152	42.0	44.0	40.1	13.0	32.9	54.1
North Central	2000	1037	813	417	50.0	54.8	45.4	15.0	37.6	47.4
	2001	1187	788	398	49.6	51.9	47.3	10.6	36.5	52.9
North-East	2000	1107	916	449	48.1	53.7	42.8	19.3	27.7	53.1
	2001	1315	903	451	49.4	54.1	44.7	14.3	28.4	57.3
South-West	2000	1807	1468	859	58.1	62.2	54.3	5.2	31.0	63.7
	2001	2095	1457	815	55.5	57.7	53.4	3.1	31.2	65.7
South Central	2000	1711	1385	736	52.7	57.6	48.0	19.0	36.4	44.6
	2001	1980	1334	686	51.1	53.7	48.6	12.3	35.2	52.5
South-East	2000	677	554	257	45.6	50.7	40.6	12.6	29.3	58.0
	2001	799	534	250	46.0	50.0	42.0	12.3	32.4	55.3
<b>Czech Republic</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>10222</b>	<b>7111</b>	<b>4675</b>	<b>64.9</b>	<b>73.1</b>	<b>56.8</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>39.9</b>	<b>54.8</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>10216</b>	<b>7142</b>	<b>4701</b>	<b>65.0</b>	<b>73.2</b>	<b>57.0</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>40.5</b>	<b>54.6</b>
Praha	2000	1180	823	607	71.4	77.3	65.9	0.7	21.7	77.7
	2001	1174	824	611	72.0	77.4	67.0	0.7	21.6	77.7
Stredni Cechy	2000	1107	767	515	66.5	76.0	57.0	5.6	41.2	53.2
	2001	1112	774	520	66.6	75.8	57.4	5.6	40.0	54.5
Jihozapad	2000	1172	815	560	68.1	77.0	59.1	7.5	42.3	50.2
	2001	1172	818	562	68.2	76.8	59.6	7.6	41.9	50.6
Severozapad	2000	1124	793	484	60.4	68.9	52.0	3.6	41.2	55.2
	2001	1124	796	502	62.6	71.5	53.6	3.8	42.8	53.5
Severovychod	2000	1481	1022	689	66.4	74.4	58.5	6.2	43.5	50.3
	2001	1481	1028	693	66.4	75.1	57.8	5.5	46.8	47.6
Jihovychod	2000	1652	1141	757	65.7	74.1	57.4	7.8	41.0	51.2
	2001	1651	1147	751	64.8	72.2	57.3	6.9	41.0	52.1
Stredni Morava	2000	1233	856	538	62.5	72.1	53.1	5.8	45.6	48.6
	2001	1232	860	542	62.5	71.7	53.4	5.6	46.1	48.3
Ostravsko	2000	1275	894	525	58.4	65.5	51.3	3.5	44.2	52.3
	2001	1270	895	520	57.8	66.0	49.6	2.6	44.5	52.9
<b>Estonia</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>1430</b>	<b>972</b>	<b>604</b>	<b>60.6</b>	<b>64.3</b>	<b>57.1</b>	<b>7.0</b>	<b>34.7</b>	<b>58.3</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>1429</b>	<b>973</b>	<b>613</b>	<b>61.1</b>	<b>65.6</b>	<b>56.9</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>34.2</b>	<b>58.7</b>
<b>Hungary</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>9927</b>	<b>6760</b>	<b>3807</b>	<b>55.9</b>	<b>62.7</b>	<b>49.4</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>33.8</b>	<b>59.8</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>9900</b>	<b>6776</b>	<b>3835</b>	<b>56.3</b>	<b>63.3</b>	<b>49.6</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>34.5</b>	<b>59.4</b>
Közep-Magyarország	2000	2807	1941	1180	60.2	66.8	54.2	1.5	27.0	71.4
	2001	2797	1944	1185	60.6	68.2	53.8	1.8	26.4	71.7
Közep-Dunantul	2000	1097	761	449	58.8	65.8	51.9	6.4	42.7	50.9
	2001	1097	764	460	60.1	67.5	52.7	5.9	45.1	49.0
Nyugat-Dunantul	2000	972	667	423	63.1	70.4	56.0	6.1	41.5	52.4
	2001	970	668	421	62.8	70.5	55.1	5.4	42.2	52.5
Del-Dunantul	2000	964	655	349	53.1	59.6	46.9	10.0	32.4	57.6
	2001	960	657	348	52.7	59.3	46.4	9.8	33.2	56.9
Eszak-Magyarország	2000	1256	841	417	49.2	55.3	43.3	5.3	38.3	56.4
	2001	1253	840	418	49.6	55.6	43.6	5.0	38.6	56.4
Eszak-Alföld	2000	1506	1009	491	48.4	55.1	41.8	8.6	34.9	56.5
	2001	1502	1014	501	49.2	55.6	42.9	8.0	34.9	57.1
Del-Alföld	2000	1326	886	497	55.7	63.6	48.1	14.9	31.2	53.9
	2001	1321	890	501	56.0	63.0	49.3	13.7	34.4	51.9
<b>Lithuania</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2967</b>	<b>2472</b>	<b>1525</b>	<b>60.1</b>	<b>61.8</b>	<b>58.5</b>	<b>18.4</b>	<b>27.4</b>	<b>54.2</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>2981</b>	<b>2478</b>	<b>1482</b>	<b>58.6</b>	<b>59.8</b>	<b>57.4</b>	<b>16.5</b>	<b>27.2</b>	<b>56.3</b>
<b>Latvia</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2424</b>	<b>1637</b>	<b>968</b>	<b>57.7</b>	<b>62.3</b>	<b>53.5</b>	<b>14.4</b>	<b>26.8</b>	<b>58.7</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>2365</b>	<b>1596</b>	<b>964</b>	<b>58.9</b>	<b>61.9</b>	<b>56.1</b>	<b>15.1</b>	<b>25.3</b>	<b>59.6</b>

Employment			Unemployment						Year	Country Region
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)		
<b>14.6</b>			<b>556.0</b>	<b>16.4</b>	<b>16.8</b>	<b>15.9</b>	<b>33.3</b>	<b>58.4</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Bulgaria</b>
<b>13.6</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>683.9</b>	<b>20.0</b>	<b>21.0</b>	<b>19.0</b>	<b>39.3</b>	<b>62.6</b>	<b>2001</b>	
9.6			59.4	28.0	29.9	25.8	51.7	77.0	2000	North-East
15.5		(3.6)	64.3	30.4	31.6	29.0	51.5	76.0	2001	
16.6			83.6	17.1	17.5	16.5	32.3	61.5	2000	North Central
12.8	6.6	3.0	97.3	19.9	21.3	18.2	36.0	64.9	2001	
18.6			125.7	22.2	22.1	22.3	42.2	55.9	2000	North-West
16.6	10.3	4.1	131.2	22.7	22.8	22.5	43.6	59.9	2001	
10.9			107.5	11.1	11.7	10.5	23.3	51.5	2000	South-East
9.7	4.4	3.1	149.5	15.5	16.4	14.6	31.7	58.5	2001	
16.7			109.7	13.1	13.3	12.8	28.2	54.5	2000	South Central
16.0	5.6	2.9	156.8	18.6	20.3	16.8	38.1	59.9	2001	
13.6			70.1	21.7	21.2	22.3	43.3	60.1	2000	South-West
14.0	7.8	(2.9)	84.8	25.7	25.2	26.2	52.8	66.1	2001	
<b>14.5</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>449.0</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>10.6</b>	<b>17.0</b>	<b>49.1</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Czech Republic</b>
<b>14.6</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>409.1</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>6.8</b>	<b>9.6</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>51.5</b>	<b>2001</b>	
20.0	6.5	6.1	25.2	4.1	3.7	4.5	11.3	29.4	2000	Praha
19.1	6.4	5.9	24.0	3.7	3.1	4.4	9.2	34.6	2001	
15.5	6.0	5.1	42.0	7.6	5.5	10.3	11.6	51.3	2000	Stredni Cechy
15.9	5.8	3.9	37.4	6.8	5.0	9.0	12.7	47.5	2001	
14.3	7.5	5.6	35.8	6.1	4.8	7.7	10.8	41.4	2000	Jihozapad
14.3	6.9	4.8	30.5	5.2	4.6	6.0	7.5	48.2	2001	
12.5	9.1	3.8	85.2	15.1	13.8	16.6	25.6	56.8	2000	Severozapad
13.0	7.5	3.6	67.1	11.8	10.5	13.5	22.1	56.7	2001	
14.7	10.3	6.1	50.6	6.9	5.5	8.6	14.3	41.6	2000	Severovýchod
14.3	10.4	5.4	42.3	5.8	4.0	8.0	13.2	40.2	2001	
13.8	7.9	5.2	58.2	7.2	5.8	8.9	12.7	46.9	2000	Jihovýchod
14.6	7.9	5.1	59.1	7.4	6.7	8.2	15.2	54.6	2001	
13.2	8.7	5.6	65.6	10.9	8.7	13.6	20.0	47.6	2000	Stredni Morava
13.8	9.2	5.4	55.3	9.3	7.9	11.1	17.9	51.1	2001	
10.8	8.8	4.4	86.4	14.2	12.4	16.4	30.5	56.5	2000	Ostravsko
11.3	10.5	4.9	93.3	15.3	12.7	18.4	31.4	58.3	2001	
<b>8.1</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>92.0</b>	<b>13.5</b>	<b>15.0</b>	<b>11.8</b>	<b>23.7</b>	<b>47.4</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Estonia</b>
<b>6.7</b>	<b>2.8</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>87.0</b>	<b>12.6</b>	<b>12.0</b>	<b>13.2</b>	<b>24.5</b>	<b>46.6</b>	<b>2001</b>	
<b>14.5</b>	<b>6.9</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>267.4</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>5.8</b>	<b>12.3</b>	<b>47.8</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Hungary</b>
<b>13.9</b>	<b>7.5</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>230.7</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>44.8</b>	<b>2001</b>	
15.0	4.9	3.4	68.1	5.5	5.9	5.1	11.6	49.4	2000	Közep-Magyarország
15.0	5.5	3.2	55.2	4.5	4.8	4.0	8.6	50.3	2001	
13.3	5.7	2.9	24.5	5.2	5.3	5.1	8.0	42.0	2000	Közep-Dunantul
12.2	6.3	2.6	18.3	3.8	3.6	4.1	(5.1)	31.9	2001	
12.8	5.7	2.5	19.3	4.4	4.1	4.8	8.4	44.8	2000	Nyugat-Dunantul
13.3	6.0	2.5	16.9	3.9	4.0	3.8	9.6	50.8	2001	
16.0	9.5	3.9	30.1	7.9	9.2	6.2	12.4	46.1	2000	Del-Dunantul
13.6	10.1	3.7	28.5	7.6	8.9	5.9	14.9	47.1	2001	
12.6	10.1	3.6	46.1	10.0	11.8	7.8	20.2	53.3	2000	Eszak-Magyarország
11.2	9.6	3.2	36.9	8.1	9.6	6.2	13.5	48.3	2001	
12.3	8.1	3.4	52.9	9.8	10.6	8.6	16.7	48.7	2000	Eszak-Alföld
12.4	9.5	3.7	45.8	8.4	9.6	6.9	13.1	41.7	2001	
18.8	8.2	3.0	26.4	5.1	5.6	4.4	8.0	41.9	2000	Del-Alföld
17.4	9.0	2.9	29.1	5.5	6.1	4.8	11.8	37.1	2001	
<b>15.9</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>8.6</b>	<b>281.0</b>	<b>15.9</b>	<b>18.2</b>	<b>13.5</b>	<b>27.5</b>	<b>52.4</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Lithuania</b>
<b>15.9</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>8.7</b>	<b>293.1</b>	<b>16.8</b>	<b>19.7</b>	<b>13.8</b>	<b>30.9</b>	<b>56.2</b>	<b>2001</b>	
<b>10.6</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>10.7</b>	<b>160.6</b>	<b>14.5</b>	<b>15.3</b>	<b>13.6</b>	<b>21.4</b>	<b>56.9</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Latvia</b>
<b>10.2</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>10.0</b>	<b>145.3</b>	<b>13.4</b>	<b>14.9</b>	<b>11.8</b>	<b>22.9</b>	<b>59.1</b>	<b>2001</b>	

## Regional time series

Country Region	Year	Population		Employment						
		total (1000)	15-64 (1000)	total (1000)	all 15-64 (rate)	males 15-64 (rate)	females 15-64 (rate)	in agriculture (%)	in industry (%)	in services (%)
<b>Poland</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>30535</b>	<b>25652</b>	<b>14518</b>	<b>55.1</b>	<b>61.2</b>	<b>49.3</b>	<b>18.7</b>	<b>31.1</b>	<b>50.3</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>30794</b>	<b>25819</b>	<b>14252</b>	<b>53.8</b>	<b>59.2</b>	<b>48.4</b>	<b>19.2</b>	<b>30.7</b>	<b>50.1</b>
Dolnoslaskie	2000	2268	1903	972	50.7	56.0	45.4	10.1	33.0	56.9
	2001	2243	1866	914	48.3	53.8	43.2	10.8	31.5	57.7
Kujawsko-Pomorskie	2000	1723	1481	785	52.5	59.2	46.1	17.6	31.8	50.6
	2001	1778	1492	789	52.0	57.2	47.1	19.6	31.1	49.3
Lubelskie	2000	1936	1570	997	60.2	64.0	56.5	40.2	20.0	39.8
	2001	1908	1567	950	57.7	61.4	53.9	38.0	20.1	41.9
Lubuskie	2000	832	716	359	49.6	55.4	43.8	9.9	35.8	54.3
	2001	856	729	371	50.0	57.6	42.5	10.3	33.8	56.0
Lodzkie	2000	2498	2092	1202	56.0	61.1	51.4	14.7	30.6	54.6
	2001	2493	2087	1145	53.7	59.0	48.6	17.2	33.0	49.8
Malopolskie	2000	2664	2221	1350	59.0	64.4	53.7	21.2	30.4	48.4
	2001	2584	2163	1346	60.1	65.8	54.5	24.8	29.5	45.7
Mazowieckie	2000	4093	3315	2109	61.2	67.0	55.5	19.4	25.2	55.5
	2001	4127	3364	2052	59.2	62.8	55.5	20.4	24.2	55.4
Opolskie	2000	867	729	418	55.9	65.1	46.9	21.8	35.2	43.0
	2001	857	719	394	53.2	58.6	47.6	20.1	36.1	43.8
Podkarpackie	2000	1618	1356	808	56.3	59.9	52.7	29.1	28.2	42.7
	2001	1565	1323	778	55.3	59.4	51.1	30.4	28.5	41.1
Podlaskie	2000	903	743	452	58.4	65.4	51.3	33.4	23.2	43.4
	2001	982	797	494	58.3	64.7	51.9	36.4	21.6	42.0
Pomorskie	2000	1475	1262	672	53.0	61.6	44.9	10.3	30.7	59.0
	2001	1529	1281	694	53.4	61.1	46.3	8.6	30.7	60.7
Slaskie	2000	3139	2682	1324	48.7	55.6	41.8	4.3	47.7	48.0
	2001	3535	3045	1497	48.5	55.2	41.8	5.4	43.2	51.4
Swietokrzyskie	2000	1127	941	527	53.4	58.8	47.9	30.3	26.8	42.9
	2001	1134	921	472	50.0	54.2	45.8	30.3	29.2	40.5
Warminsko-Mazurskie	2000	1208	1041	529	50.5	56.3	44.8	12.5	30.7	56.8
	2001	1159	996	495	49.2	55.5	43.0	14.3	31.4	54.3
Wielkopolskie	2000	2884	2493	1434	56.7	63.8	49.8	20.6	34.6	44.8
	2001	2737	2347	1288	54.0	59.8	48.3	19.3	35.2	45.6
Zachodniopomorskie	2000	1301	1107	578	51.7	58.6	45.0	7.0	31.8	61.2
	2001	1307	1120	573	50.7	57.3	44.3	6.2	31.8	62.0
<b>Romania</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>22338</b>	<b>15213</b>	<b>10898</b>	<b>64.2</b>	<b>69.5</b>	<b>59.0</b>	<b>45.2</b>	<b>25.8</b>	<b>29.0</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>22345</b>	<b>15278</b>	<b>10807</b>	<b>63.3</b>	<b>68.6</b>	<b>58.2</b>	<b>44.4</b>	<b>25.8</b>	<b>29.7</b>
Nord-Est	2000	3817	2524	1975	67.2	70.5	63.8	58.5	19.2	22.2
	2001	3833	2540	1999	66.9	69.7	64.1	57.8	20.1	22.1
Sud-Est	2000	2929	2005	1377	61.9	68.0	56.0	48.2	21.3	30.5
	2001	2931	2022	1297	58.9	67.2	50.7	44.1	23.2	32.7
Sud	2000	3462	2319	1781	66.9	73.8	60.1	51.0	25.1	23.9
	2001	3462	2319	1751	65.5	71.9	59.1	52.5	23.4	24.2
Sud-Vest	2000	2403	1610	1324	70.0	73.2	66.9	61.3	20.0	18.7
	2001	2403	1615	1342	70.4	74.5	66.2	59.8	20.3	19.9
Vest	2000	2022	1398	936	61.6	67.1	56.4	40.1	26.8	33.1
	2001	2016	1401	937	61.9	67.7	56.4	36.0	30.1	33.9
Nord-Vest	2000	2834	1939	1343	63.2	68.2	58.3	42.1	27.4	30.5
	2001	2826	1941	1354	63.4	67.5	59.4	42.3	26.3	31.4
Centru	2000	2633	1821	1188	61.1	66.3	55.9	32.5	37.4	30.1
	2001	2628	1825	1217	62.2	66.8	57.6	32.4	36.2	31.3
Bucuresti	2000	2238	1599	973	59.5	67.1	52.8	6.1	37.3	56.5
	2001	2244	1617	911	55.5	61.7	49.9	5.5	36.1	58.4
<b>Slovenia</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>1988</b>	<b>1393</b>	<b>894</b>	<b>62.7</b>	<b>66.7</b>	<b>58.5</b>	<b>9.6</b>	<b>37.7</b>	<b>52.7</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>1991</b>	<b>1400</b>	<b>914</b>	<b>63.6</b>	<b>68.5</b>	<b>58.6</b>	<b>9.9</b>	<b>38.6</b>	<b>51.4</b>
<b>Slovak Republic</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>5377</b>	<b>3691</b>	<b>2083</b>	<b>56.3</b>	<b>61.6</b>	<b>51.1</b>	<b>6.9</b>	<b>37.3</b>	<b>55.8</b>
	<b>2001</b>	<b>5376</b>	<b>3720</b>	<b>2116</b>	<b>56.7</b>	<b>61.8</b>	<b>51.8</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>37.1</b>	<b>56.7</b>
Bratislavsky kraj	2000	615	439	311	70.2	75.3	65.5	2.5	22.4	75.1
	2001	614	443	311	69.5	74.6	64.8	1.9	26.3	71.8
Zapadne Slovensko	2000	1869	1297	731	56.3	62.1	50.7	8.9	40.4	50.6
	2001	1867	1305	747	57.2	62.3	52.1	6.9	40.3	52.8
Stredne Slovensko	2000	1350	921	505	54.7	61.8	47.8	6.5	41.1	52.4
	2001	1347	926	513	55.2	61.3	49.3	6.7	41.1	52.2
Vychodne Slovensko	2000	1544	1034	536	51.7	55.1	48.4	7.2	37.9	55.0
	2001	1548	1046	545	52.1	56.5	47.8	7.4	35.0	57.5

Employment			Unemployment						Year	Country Region
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)		
<b>22.5</b>	<b>5.8</b>	<b>10.6</b>	<b>2829.9</b>	<b>16.6</b>	<b>14.8</b>	<b>18.6</b>	<b>35.7</b>	<b>44.7</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Poland</b>
<b>22.5</b>	<b>11.9</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>3208.0</b>	<b>18.7</b>	<b>17.3</b>	<b>20.4</b>	<b>41.5</b>	<b>50.1</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>Poland</b>
19.7	5.8	9.6	284.6	22.8	21.1	24.7	42.1	45.7	2000	Dolnoslaskie
19.0	11.2	9.2	289.8	24.3	22.4	26.5	46.7	55.0	2001	Dolnoslaskie
21.5	4.8	7.9	174.7	18.2	16.3	20.5	38.1	54.4	2000	Kujawsko-Pomorskie
21.5	13.8	8.3	220.0	22.1	21.8	22.4	43.8	49.3	2001	Kujawsko-Pomorskie
32.8	7.4	18.2	156.7	14.1	13.5	14.8	34.9	41.5	2000	Lubelskie
32.2	14.2	15.2	163.9	15.3	14.0	16.7	38.3	38.0	2001	Lubelskie
15.8	6.0	9.4	97.1	21.4	18.7	24.5	(35.4)	30.6	2000	Lubuskie
19.3	9.7	8.1	112.9	23.6	19.9	28.0	49.6	43.8	2001	Lubuskie
23.1	4.4	10.9	231.7	16.5	15.9	17.1	41.2	50.1	2000	Lodzkie
24.3	14.4	9.9	278.9	19.9	16.8	23.0	45.1	55.2	2001	Lodzkie
25.6	5.3	13.7	177.8	12.0	11.0	13.1	27.6	42.1	2000	Malopolskie
25.7	11.2	14.0	198.9	13.3	11.8	14.9	35.0	52.7	2001	Malopolskie
23.6	4.6	9.3	323.9	13.6	13.1	14.1	32.0	41.9	2000	Mazowieckie
23.7	11.8	10.4	341.6	14.6	14.7	14.6	32.4	53.1	2001	Mazowieckie
17.9	8.9	10.0	71.3	14.9	10.0	20.7	(31.4)	(25.3)	2000	Opolskie
18.6	13.7	9.5	93.5	19.6	18.1	21.4	43.8	39.5	2001	Opolskie
24.9	5.6	13.6	137.2	15.2	15.7	14.7	41.6	51.9	2000	Podkarpackie
27.4	10.7	11.9	163.6	18.2	17.2	19.4	46.1	60.1	2001	Podkarpackie
33.6	7.5	12.6	84.3	16.3	14.1	18.9	(30.9)	53.5	2000	Podlaskie
34.1	10.6	11.6	92.7	16.6	14.9	18.7	40.3	57.8	2001	Podlaskie
16.1	4.5	7.9	139.1	17.2	14.0	21.0	33.6	43.7	2000	Pomorskie
15.1	15.1	8.6	151.2	18.1	16.8	19.6	33.3	39.8	2001	Pomorskie
12.7	5.7	9.1	307.7	19.0	15.5	23.1	34.1	38.1	2000	Slaskie
12.9	10.6	10.5	383.0	20.6	18.4	23.2	44.8	59.9	2001	Slaskie
35.1	6.6	10.3	107.1	17.5	16.3	19.0	40.3	46.9	2000	Swietokrzyskie
33.0	8.8	6.1	118.1	20.4	21.3	19.3	51.6	44.9	2001	Swietokrzyskie
16.0	9.8	6.8	152.8	22.5	20.7	24.6	41.2	49.1	2000	Warminsko-Mazurskie
17.2	12.3	5.9	142.4	22.5	20.3	25.2	50.1	54.2	2001	Warminsko-Mazurskie
23.9	6.0	10.0	235.5	14.3	10.8	18.1	32.9	43.7	2000	Wielkopolskie
22.9	10.8	9.2	300.2	19.1	17.2	21.3	40.7	38.1	2001	Wielkopolskie
15.4	6.0	6.5	148.4	20.2	17.5	23.4	46.2	52.8	2000	Zachodniopomorskie
14.6	11.7	5.6	157.3	21.6	20.6	22.8	47.3	39.9	2001	Zachodniopomorskie
<b>25.4</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>16.4</b>	<b>816.1</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>17.8</b>	<b>49.2</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Romania</b>
<b>25.7</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>16.8</b>	<b>758.5</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>6.8</b>	<b>17.6</b>	<b>48.6</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>Romania</b>
32.9	3.4	25.4	145.2	7.9	8.1	7.7	15.3	53.0	2000	Nord-Est
32.8	3.1	25.8	118.1	6.5	7.2	5.8	15.0	52.0	2001	Nord-Est
26.1	3.8	18.2	134.7	9.8	10.1	9.4	20.1	40.0	2000	Sud-Est
24.1	4.9	18.8	122.7	9.3	9.6	8.9	23.1	50.8	2001	Sud-Est
29.2	2.7	17.4	125.1	7.5	8.0	6.8	21.4	45.5	2000	Sud
30.7	2.5	19.6	122.3	7.5	7.5	7.4	22.9	41.3	2001	Sud
30.5	2.1	6.2	69.5	5.8	6.0	5.6	14.0	49.0	2000	Sud-Vest
30.9	2.8	6.3	71.0	5.9	6.0	5.8	16.8	41.9	2001	Sud-Vest
21.0	2.8	16.3	76.9	8.2	9.2	7.0	20.9	45.0	2000	Vest
23.9	2.0	13.2	49.6	5.4	6.2	4.5	10.9	46.8	2001	Vest
24.5	2.6	12.6	100.8	7.6	8.0	7.1	15.4	48.0	2000	Nord-Vest
22.5	1.8	13.8	101.1	7.6	8.8	6.2	13.0	53.2	2001	Nord-Vest
20.2	3.1	20.4	94.8	7.9	8.6	7.0	16.6	63.3	2000	Centru
21.8	3.3	20.5	77.8	6.4	6.0	6.8	17.2	51.5	2001	Centru
7.0	2.7	7.4	69.0	6.8	7.5	6.0	22.4	53.5	2000	Bucuresti
7.3	3.2	7.3	95.8	9.6	10.5	8.7	23.9	49.7	2001	Bucuresti
<b>11.2</b>	<b>12.9</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>66.4</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>6.9</b>	<b>7.2</b>	<b>16.4</b>	<b>62.7</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Slovenia</b>
<b>11.8</b>	<b>13.1</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>55.1</b>	<b>5.8</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>15.7</b>	<b>63.3</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>Slovenia</b>
<b>7.8</b>	<b>4.0</b>	<b>1.7</b>	<b>490.6</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>19.5</b>	<b>18.6</b>	<b>36.9</b>	<b>53.8</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>Slovak Republic</b>
<b>8.4</b>	<b>5.0</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>508.7</b>	<b>19.4</b>	<b>20.1</b>	<b>18.6</b>	<b>38.9</b>	<b>58.3</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>Slovak Republic</b>
10.2	3.4	2.0	25.2	7.4	7.2	7.6	18.9	29.7	2000	Bratislavsky kraj
11.0	5.6	3.2	25.8	7.6	7.3	7.9	19.9	39.9	2001	Bratislavsky kraj
8.2	2.7	1.6	155.8	17.6	17.7	17.5	32.8	53.3	2000	Zapadne Slovensko
8.2	2.9	2.3	170.2	18.6	18.8	18.3	35.6	66.5	2001	Zapadne Slovensko
7.1	3.6	2.2	134.4	21.0	19.9	22.4	37.5	54.4	2000	Stredne Slovensko
8.6	4.2	2.7	136.9	21.1	21.5	20.7	41.2	53.5	2001	Stredne Slovensko
6.4	6.7	1.4	175.1	24.6	26.8	22.1	47.4	57.3	2000	Vychodne Slovensko
6.8	8.3	1.9	175.8	24.4	26.0	22.4	48.3	56.7	2001	Vychodne Slovensko

### Abbreviations and methodological notes

#### Abbreviations

##### Countries

CC, CEC	Candidate Country, Central European Country: BG, CZ, EE, HU, LT, LV, PL, RO, SI, SK
BG	Bulgaria
CZ	Czech Republic
EE	Estonia
HU	Hungary
LT	Lithuania
LV	Latvia
PL	Poland
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia

##### 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
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNL	Universidade Nova de Lisboa

##### 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 Communautés Européennes
NUTS	Nomenclature des Unités Territoriales pour Statisti- ques

#### 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, 2000 or 2001. 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.

For the comparisons with the EU Member States in the analytical sections LFS results were not yet available for 2001 from all countries at the time the data were processed for the respective analyses. For the sections “Recent labour market trends” and “Working time” this applies to Germany, Luxembourg and Sweden, for the section “Regional labour markets” only to the latter country. EU averages for 2001 therefore were computed using LFS results from the year 2000 for the missing countries.

##### 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 (2000), Lithuania (1999–2001) and Poland (1999–2001) the LFS does not cover the population under 15 years of age.

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

##### Data availability, inconsistencies and reliability

Generally, in its three issues for 2002 this publication presents LFS results for individual countries only from records available at Eurostat. In contrast to the issues of the year 2001, data requested directly from NSIs are no longer used due to compatibility problems. However, the analytical sections still may contain some figures derived from data which were provided separately by the respective NSIs.

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.

Apart from different reference periods and survey coverage noted above, inconsistencies in data on the same subject within this issue or in comparison to the 2001 publication may result from rounding errors or, particularly in the case of shares, whether persons with no answer are taken into account. In other cases, apparent inconsistencies are due to the application of different age limits for the persons included. Finally, national LFS data also are revised occasionally for methodological reasons or their weighting is adjusted on the basis of new census figures.

Some countries also made recent revisions in their GDP figures, which have been corrected in the "National time series", but could not be taken into account in the text, graphs or tables of the analytical sections.

Figures which are unreliable owing to the small size of the sample are set in brackets ( ). In the case of extremely unreliable data, figures are replaced by a ".".

### Other

The figures for the CECs as a whole 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 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.

The order of regions within countries follows their numbering according to Eurostat. In Bulgaria, the regions have been renumbered, switching the codes BGO1 (now: North-West) against BG03 (now: North-East) and BG04 (now: South-West) against BG06 (now: South-East), although the regional borders remained identical.

Also for Bulgaria, it should be noted that significant changes have been made in the national LFS design (sampling and weighting procedures) which hamper the comparability of 2001 results with previous years, especially for unemployment estimates (new questionnaire).

---

European Commission

Employment and labour market in Central European countries

No. 1, June 2002

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities

2002 – 64 pp. – 21 x 29,7 cm

ISSN 1609-6266