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Employment and labour market in central European countries

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Introduction

This publication, now in its third year, is the continuation of a series originally started by Eurostat under the title "Central European Countries' Employment and Labour Market Review". The two issues produced in the first year both contained a brief summary of recent developments in all the countries covered, detailed country reports on national trends (first issue) and regional labour markets in five countries (second issue) and an annex with national statistical tables, supplemented in the first issue by notes on the materials used as well as definitions and methods of labour market statistics.

Beginning in 2001, three issues per year are produced with the same basic structure consisting of a section on "Data sources and methods", three analytical sections on "Recent labour market trends", "Regional labour markets" and a "Special topic", and an annex with standardized national and regional statistical tables. Also, the statistics have since been derived practically exclusively from national LFSs, and the analyses have taken a comparative approach across countries and regions rather than presenting separate country reports. Due to delays in data processing and analysis the three issues covering the 2001 LFS results actually carry the publication dates 1/2002, 1/2003 and 2/2003. In these issues, a new facet was added to the analytical sections by comparisons between the CECs and the EU, wherever appropriate. While this publication in previous years also covered Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, it now only includes the ten Candidate Countries Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia, together here referred to as CECs.

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.

The three analytical sections treat different aspects of employment and the labour market in each issue, including separate data annexes. 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" focussed 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" analysed 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 issue 1/2002, both the sections on "Recent labour market trends" and "Regional labour markets" again gave an overview of the major developments in employment and unemployment in the CECs and their regions, and the special topic was "Working time". In the present issue 1/2003, the section on "Recent labour market trends" deals with aspects of job quality, the section on "Regional labour markets" portrays the situation of border regions, while the analysis of "Regional labour markets in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia" undertaken this time as the special topic explores the possibility of using LFS data for level-3 statistical regions.

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 may be found in the section "Abbreviations and methodological notes".

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 covering the 2001 LFSs (though with the publication dates 1/2002, 1/2003 and 2/2003), the analyses of the situation and development in the CECs are 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". In the present issue 1/2003, the section on "Recent labour market trends" deals with aspects of job quality, the section on "Regional labour markets" portrays the situation of border regions, while the analysis of "Regional labour markets in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia" undertaken this time as the special topic explores the possibility of using LFS data for level-3 statistical regions. The main results of these three sections are summarized below.

Recent labour market trends

Especially in countries in transition as the CECs, the problem of employment is not only to provide jobs in sufficient number, but also to provide jobs insuring a certain level of resources and quality of life. Two important elements in the strategy for employment of the EU are the promotion of equal opportunities between men and women and the development of the aptitude to hold a job, especially for young people. The recent development of employment in the CECs therefore is analysed here under the viewpoint of the characteristics and quality of jobs, focusing on the situation of women and young people.

From 1998 to 2001, in spite of a generally positive GDP growth, the trend of employment has been negative in the CECs with the exception of Hungary and Slovenia. In general, women were affected less by these trends than men. The most characteristic feature of the development by age was the decline in the employment of young people aged 15–24. In comparison, the persons who belong to the central age group 25–54 succeed to preserve their employment much better, while the upper age group 55+ fared quite well in some countries and not so well, but still better than young people, in others.

In countries with a lack of job opportunities, poor unemployment compensation and a low level of pensions, many persons who under other circumstances would appear as unemployed or inactive are obliged to get resources through some informal activity and counted as employed. The great majority of informal and poor quality jobs may be found in countries with a high level of agricultural employment. Thus, the share of agriculture was close to 45% in Romania in 2001, with more than 20% of the employment in this sector or 10.5% of total employment composed of persons aged 65+. The country with the second highest share of agricultural employment was Poland with about 19%, closely followed by Lithuania and Latvia.

As there is no direct observation of poor quality jobs in LFSs, the share of self-employed without employees and family workers as opposed to that of employees is used as an indirect indicator. In Romania, the share of employees amounted to only 53.9% in 2001, while family workers and self-employed without employees together reached 44.9%, followed by Poland and Lithuania with values of 24.3% and 16.9%, respectively, for this indicator. Moreover, 93.4% of the self-employed without employees and family workers in Romania concentrated in agriculture. Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia also showed a high concentration of these jobs in agriculture.

Except in Romania, women in 2001 were more often employees than men. While they were more often family workers than men in Poland, Slovenia and Romania, their share was quite similar for men and women in the other countries. Again with the exception of Romania, young people were more often employees than older persons.

In all CECs the share of female employment was highest in the service sector. A large proportion of these jobs were occupied as employees. In agriculture the share of women was very different from country to country, not exceeding 25% in Estonia and Hungary, but reaching up to 44.6% in Slovenia, 46.0% in Poland and even 50.3% in Romania. In Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania, the share of female employment in industry was particularly high. Almost all of these jobs were occupied as employees. Generally, the share of youth employment in agriculture was below that in the other sectors in most CECs except in Romania, Poland and Lithuania. On the CEC average 90.3% of the young people in agriculture were family workers and self-employed, but this proportion varies greatly between countries.

The extent of voluntary and involuntary part-time jobs can also be considered as an indicator of the quality of jobs. An elevated share of voluntary part-time means that interested persons have a choice between a full-time activity and reduced hours, while a high degree of not voluntary part-

time is a sign that there are not enough full-time jobs. A similar reasoning can be made for temporary jobs. In 2001 the part-time share varied considerably from one country to the other. Most persons who worked part-time had not chosen voluntarily to do so. As expected, the share of part-time, voluntary as well as involuntary, was higher for women than for men in all CECs, and the share of involuntary part-time generally more elevated in youth than in total employment. While there was less variation in the share of temporary jobs, again most persons who held such jobs had not chosen this type of work contract voluntarily. Apart from the Czech Republic and Slovenia, the share of temporary jobs was lower for women than for men, while in all CECs the proportion of temporary employment, most of it involuntary, was much higher in youth than for all employees.

Regional Labour Markets

With the enlargement of the European Union by the Central and East European countries special problems could arise in the border regions between the Candidate Countries and the today's EU Member States. The section "Regional labour markets" in this issue therefore deals with the geographical, economic and demographic situation in the regions directly facing each other across the CEC-EU borders and compares their recent development with regard to employment, unemployment, economic structure and the qualification of employed.

Geographically separated over long stretches by rivers or mountains, but also due to the long separation of Europe with shifts of border lines and population relocations in the wake of the Second World War, almost all border regions on the EU or CEC side are in a peripheral location, even from the national point of view. Correspondingly, the per capita gross domestic product in these regions tends to be below average in comparison to the respective country values. Seen in a European context, as a rule, the regions on both sides of the borders also tend to be rather more thinly populated, only at the Czech-Saxon border both sides are clearly more densely populated.

Except for Bulgaria (and the Polish region Dolnoslaskie), the working-age population in the CEC border countries still increases, while the picture on the side of the EU border regions is much less uniform. Compared to the national average, the employment rates are clearly lower in the border regions in Poland, in the Czech Republic variably from region to region, and clearly higher in the capital region of Slovakia, in the western region of Hungary and in the South-West region of Bulgaria (with the capital Sofia). In the EU border regions with the CECs, one first notices in Germany that the employment rates in the east are substantially below average, in the Bavarian border regions clearly above average. In Austria, the north-western border regions register a more favourable value than the country as a whole, for the south-eastern border regions the rates are less favourable.

As to the economic structure, for Poland it is conspicuous that the employment share of agriculture in the border regions lies substantially under and the share of the service sectors clearly above the national average – however, compared to the neighbouring German regions, in part still ten percentage points lower. In contrast, quite similar shares can be observed for the Czech in comparison with the German and Austrian border regions. In Slovakia, the service sectors in the region Bratislava due to its function as capital already reach values which are quite comparable to the neighbouring city of Vienna. Similar economic structures also have developed in the neighbouring Austrian-Hungarian regions. Slovenia still is strongly dominated by manufacturing, while Friuli-Venezia Giulia has a strongly pronounced service sector. In the border area Bulgaria-Greece, the above-average share of agriculture in the Greek border region Anatoliki Makedonia/Thraki stands out in comparison to Greece as a whole, but also to the neighbouring Bulgarian regions.

For the CECs it is known that their population and employed as a rule have a qualified education. However, compared to international standards, the share of persons with high qualifications on the average still is relatively low. Conversely, the share of persons with low qualifications also is low. The border regions of the CECs basically do not deviate from this pattern. But in a greater part of these regions the share of persons with low qualifications even lies below the national average. In the border regions of the EU countries, the picture again is not uniform at all. In Germany, for example, the East German border regions exhibit above-average shares of persons with high qualifications and low shares of persons with low qualifications. In the Bavarian border regions just the opposite applies. In Austria, the qualification structures are relatively unfavourable in Oberösterreich and Burgenland. In Italy and Greece, the shares of persons with low qualifications reach very unfavourable values even by EU standards.

The unemployment rates are far above average in the border regions on both sides of the Polish-German border. Rather the opposite applies along the Czech-Bavarian and the Czech-Austrian border – with the exception of the region Severozapad. The border areas of Italy and Slovenia are characterized by a relatively favourable situation even by EU standards. In contrast, the border regions of Bulgaria and Greece, like the two countries as a whole, are battling with high unemployment rates, though in the Bulgarian border regions these lie a little lower than the national average.

Regional Labour Markets in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia

The analyses of regional labour markets published in this series normally are carried out on the level-2 statistical regions into which the bigger CECs (BG, CZ, HU, PL, RO and SK) are subdivided. Here the aim is to examine regional disparities in the four smaller countries (EE, LT, LV and SI) on

the statistical regions level-3. To a certain extent, this also turns the analysis into a methodological exercise to assess the applicability of national LFSs for such purposes.

The four countries are divided into a total of 32 level-3 statistical regions with five each in Estonia and Latvia, ten in Lithuania and twelve in Slovenia. While the area of an average level-3 unit is largest in Latvia with nearly 13 000 sq.km, the corresponding figure in Slovenia is less than 1700 sq.km. The most populous level-3 statistical region is Riga with 960 000 inhabitants. All four regions which have less than 100 000 inhabitants are found in Slovenia, with Zasavska having a population below 50 000. These differences influence the ability of LFSs to provide information on regional labour market conditions.

The lowest share of working-age population is found in four regions of Lithuania (Marijampoles, Siauliu, Taurages and Telsiu), the highest in Estonia (Kirde-Eesti). The polarisation of skill potentials between the capital and the rest of the country is most clearly developed in Estonia and Latvia where all other regions show an educational attainment below the national average, and Estonia also features the widest regional skill gap.

The regional variation in the employment rate is at least twice as large as between the countries. With 67.7% Jugovzhodna Slovenija exhibits the highest level, Latgale the lowest with 48.9%. In all countries, working-age women are employed to a smaller extent than men, with clearly higher female employment rates only found in Alytaus, Taurages and Latgale. The analysis of age-specific employment rates, above all at the edges of working-age, reminds one of the limitations of LFSs in providing finer disaggregations at the regional level.

With regard to the economic structure, the share of primary sector employment ranges from 1% in Pohja-Eesti to 42% in Taurages. Though not dominant in any region, a sizeable agricultural component with employment shares of 15% or more exists in two regions each in Estonia and Slovenia, seven regions in Lithuania, and all Latvian regions except the capital Riga. The employment shares in the secondary sector vary from just 15.6% in Taurages in Lithuania to 47.1% in Koroska in Slovenia, where nearly all regions in which industry accounts for over 40% of total employment are found, the only one with a similarly strong industrial profile being Kirde-Eesti in Estonia. Employment in the tertiary sector varies from 35.9% in Pomurska to 72.1% in Obalno-Kraska. It accounts for the largest share of the employed in all regions except four predominantly industrial regions in Slovenia. Spatially, tertiary sector employment is concentrated in large cities, and typically the capital regions display the highest share except in Slovenia where the coastal region Obalno-Kraska ranks first.

The share of self-employed and family workers ranges from 4.7% in Kirde-Eesti to 40.1% in Taurages with a clear association between self-employment and agriculture. In contrast, capital regions, regions with an above-average proportion of services and industrial regions feature the lowest self-employment rates. There seems to be no clearly discernible and common pattern of regional variation in either part-time or temporary employment.

The lowest regional level of unemployment is found in Goriska with a rate of 3.3%, the highest in Alytaus with 24.7%. In Estonia, unemployment is highest with 16.1% in Kirde-Eesti with a pronounced industrial profile and a large immigrant population, lowest with 9.2% in Kesk-Eesti with a relatively large agricultural sector. In Latvia, only the border region Latgale stands out above the national average with an unemployment rate of 20.6%. In Lithuania, only three regions (Vilniaus, Klaipedos and Panevezio) have an unemployment rate below 15%, while in Slovenia even the region with the highest unemployment rate of 8.8% (Podravska) remains below the level of every region in the other countries.

The share of long-term unemployed ranges from 34.3% in Pohja-Eesti to 83.8% in Obalno-Kraska, but in terms of rates the lowest and highest levels of long-term unemployment are again registered in Goriska (2.1%) and Alytaus (17.7%). Unemployment registration ranges from virtually complete coverage in several regions of Slovenia (Koroska, Spodnjeposavska and Notrjansko-Kraska) to below 20% in the capital region of Latvia, thus representing the only aspect of the labour market where intercountry variation clearly exceeds the regional variation within each country.

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, 13th ICLS),
- international classification of status in employment, ICSE (ILO, 15th ICLS)
- international classification of occupations, ISCO-88 (ILO)
- statistical classification of economic activities, NACE Rev. 1 (EU, adaptation of ISIC Rev. 3, UN),
- international standard classification of education, ISCED 1997 (UNESCO),
- regional classification, NUTS 2 (EU).

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.

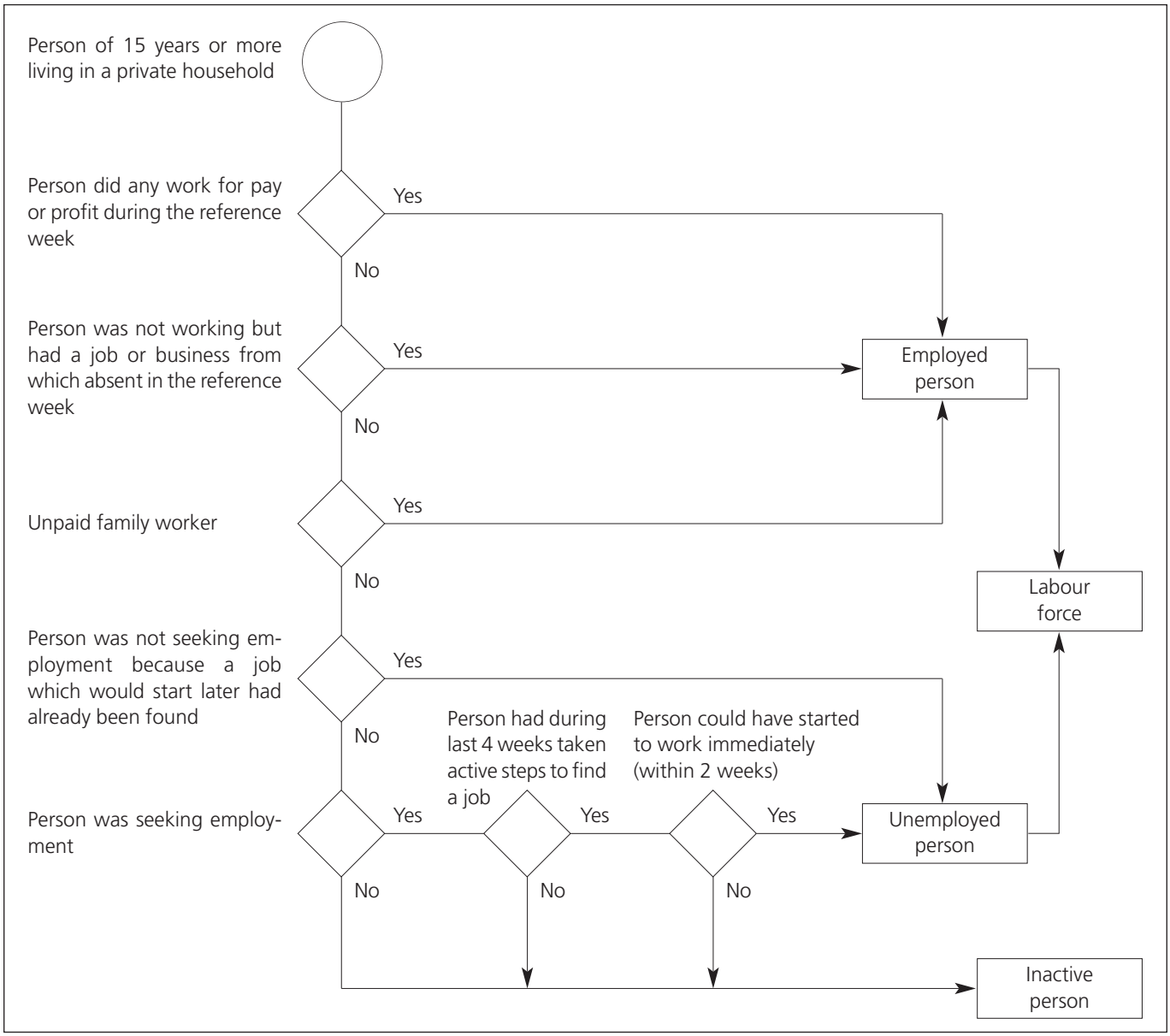
Persons who already had found a job which was to start later are also classified as unemployed.

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,

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



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

The permanency of a job only refers to employees. Temporary employment, work contracts of limited duration or fixed-term contracts are characterized by the agreement between employer and employee on objective conditions under which a job ends, such as a specific date, the completion of a task or the return of another employee who has been temporarily replaced. In particular, this applies to:
– persons with seasonal employment,
– persons engaged by an agency or employment exchange and hired to a third party to perform a specific task (unless there is a written contract of unlimited duration with the agency or employment exchange),
– persons with specific training contracts.

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

The distinction between full-time and part-time work is based on the subjective declaration of the respondent. A more precise, objective definition is not possible since working hours differ from country to country and from one branch of activity to the next. ***Involuntary part-time work*** is assumed for persons who declare that they work part-time because they were unable to find a full-time job.

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

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

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

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

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 2002/2003, 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 total employment as well as in employment by economic sector are, in the instrument panel of a country, central indicators for monitoring the development of the economic and social situation. Observing 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). Especially in the countries in transition, the problem of employment is not only *quantitative*, but also *qualitative*. It is not only necessary to create jobs in sufficient number, but to create "good" jobs insuring a certain level of resources and quality of life for the persons who hold them. In these countries, there are – particularly in agriculture, but also in services – a certain number of jobs which correspond to informal activities carried on in the absence of other opportunities and do not present the characteristics of "good" employment. Other jobs may be precarious, such as temporary jobs, or correspond to an underemployment situation.

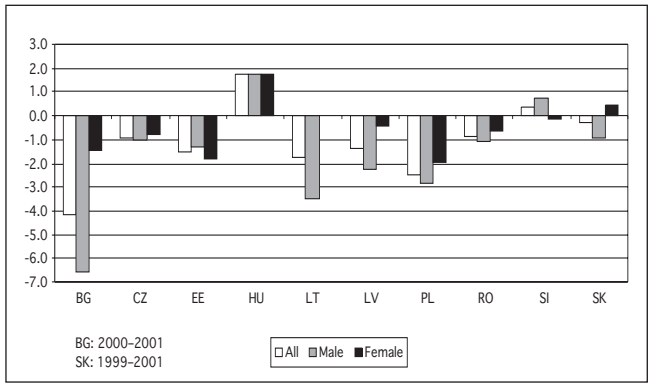
Among the guidelines of the strategy for employment of the European Union (EU) two important elements are the promotion of equal opportunities between men and women and the development of the aptitude to hold a job, especially for young people at their entry into working life. The accession to the EU will require an adjustment of labour markets and labour market policies in the Candidate Countries in order to implement the guidelines for employment. It seems then of particular interest to monitor the recent development of employment in the CECs from the point of view of the characteristics and the quality of jobs, focusing the attention on the situation of women and young people and making comparisons with the EU.

Overall developments of employment by gender and age

In spite of a generally positive GDP growth, the trend of employment has been negative in the CECs from 1998 to 2001, with the only exceptions of Hungary (+1.7% per year) and, to a much lesser degree, Slovenia (+0.3%) which have experienced an increase of employment during this period. In contrast, countries such as Bulgaria (-4.2% from 2000 to 2001), Poland (-2.5% per year during the period), Lithuania (-1.8%), Estonia (-1.5%) and Latvia (-1.3%) have shown sharp decreases in employment (Graph 1) – though these developments are by no means linear and can consist of up and down movements. These disappointing results seem to indicate that the process of restructuring and rationalisation continue to weigh heavily on employment while the production of goods and services profit from them.

In general, the development of female employment during this period has been at least as favourable as that of male employment, and in most cases much more favourable. In

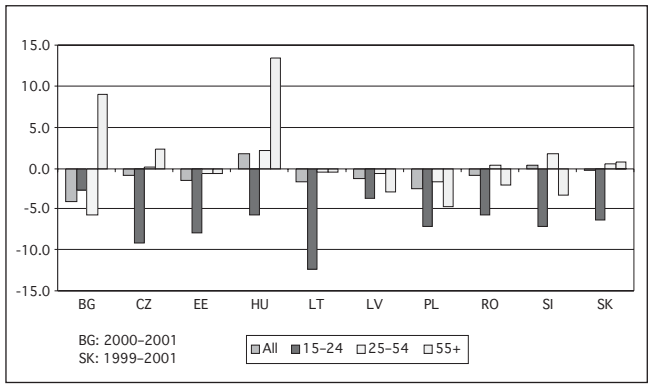
Graph 1: ***Average annual percentage changes in employment by sex, 1998–2001***



the two countries where one observes a growth of employment, the development of male employment was close to (Hungary: 1.7% against 1.8% per year) or greater (Slovenia: +0.8% against -0.1%) than that of female employment as if economic growth was propitious to hiring men. But with the only exception of Estonia, in all countries where a decrease of employment was experienced, this hit women less, and in a number of cases much less, than men. For instance, in Bulgaria male employment declined by -6.6% from 2000 to 2001, while female employment decreased only by -1.5%. For the period 1998–2001, the corresponding figures in Lithuania were -3.5% per year for men against stability for women, in Latvia -2.2% against -0.4%, in Poland -2.9% against -2.0%, and from 1999 to 2001 -0.9% against +0.4% in Slovakia. All this seems to indicate that the process of restructuring and rationalisation weighed less heavily on female than on male employment.

The most characteristic feature of the development of employment by age from 1998 to 2001 in the CECs is the extent of the decline in the employment of young people aged 15–24 (Graph 2). Of course, at these ages of transition from school to working life, a lot of young men and women still are in the education and training system. In the long-term the desirable improvement of the level of education and training means an extension of the average duration of

Graph 2: ***Average annual percentage changes in employment by age, 1998–2001***



studies and an elevation of the mean age of entry into active life which may result in a decrease of youth employment. But, it probably is not this long-term phenomenon which is at work in the CECs during this period. More likely, the lack of employment opportunities in these countries may induce young people to stay longer in the education system or look for other ways to escape unemployment.

As a result, none of the CECs has experienced a positive development in youth employment during this period and in most cases the rate of decline observed was tremendously high: while in two countries, Bulgaria and Latvia, the rate was roughly -3 to -4% per year, it was more than -5% per year in the eight remaining CECs, reaching about -7 to -8% in Slovenia, Poland and Estonia, -9% in the Czech Republic and -12.5% in Lithuania.

In comparison, the development of the employment of the central age group 25–54 seems much more favourable. If one puts aside the case of Bulgaria (-5.7% from 2000 to 2001), its rate of change was between -1.6% and 0% per year in five countries and positive in four others, Romania (+0.3% per year), Slovakia (+0.6%), Slovenia (+1.8%) and Hungary (+2.2%). Thus, the persons who belong to the central age group succeed to preserve their employment much better than young people do. This is not surprising since they currently have jobs. They may lose them by redundancy, while young people at their entry into working life first have to seek jobs in a context where employment opportunities are limited.

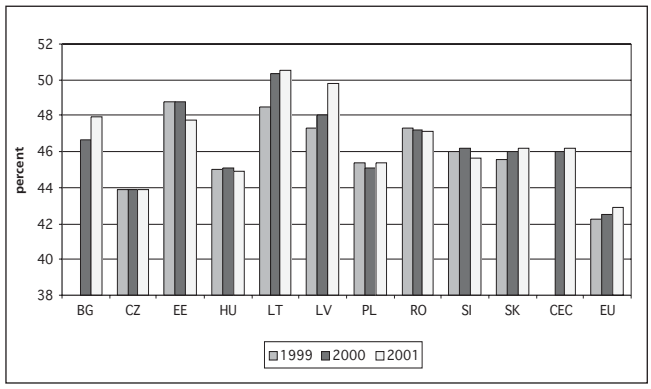
More unexpected is the variation in the employment of the upper age group 55+. In four countries, the development of this category is positive, with rates ranging from +0.8% per year in Slovakia and +2.4% in the Czech Republic up to +9.0% in Bulgaria and 13.3% in Hungary. The more amazing is that, in these two latter countries, the increase in senior employment is not due to family workers or self-employed in agriculture – that is to say to some kind of informal jobs – but to employees in industry and services, as if the 55+ age group had irreplaceable skills.

The share of women in total employment

The developments of employment described above have consequences on the share of women, young people and other age groups in total employment in the different CECs.

In four countries, Bulgaria, Lithuania, Latvia and Slovakia, the share of women in total employment has more or less steadily increased from 1999 to 2001. In the other CECs one observes either a slight decrease or a stability of this share (Graph 3). These movements take place from elevated levels of female employment, much higher than in the European Union. Thus, in two Baltic States, Lithuania and Latvia, women represent one half of total employment in 2001 and the third Baltic State, Estonia, is not far behind with a share of about 48%, hand in hand with Bulgaria. With about 47% Romania has a share of women in total

Graph 3: ***Share of women in total employment, 1999–2001***



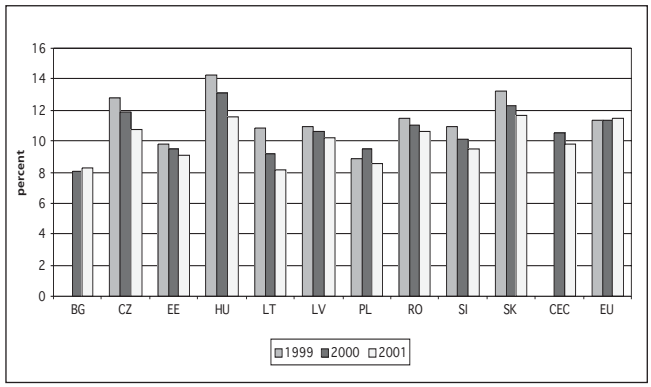
employment which still can be described as high. In the other countries, the share of female employment ranges from 44% in the Czech Republic to about 46% in Slovenia and Slovakia.

In all CECs, the share of women in total employment is far higher than the European Union average which is under 43%, though with a steady upward trend. Thus, at first sight, the respect of equal opportunity between men and women would be better insured in the CECs than in the EU. Still, the jobs held by women should be jobs of good quality, similar to those held by men.

The share of young people in total employment

As a result of the sharp decline in the employment of young people aged 15–24, their share in total employment has decreased steadily in almost all CECs, with the only exceptions of Bulgaria and Poland. In some cases, as in Hungary, Lithuania, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Slovakia, the reduction has been severe (Graph 4a). In these latter countries, with the exceptions of Lithuania and Slovakia, the rate of youth unemployment remained at low or moderate levels (see issue 1/2002) showing that the lack of employment opportunities may have led young people to stay longer in the education and training system and delay their entry into working life or to look for other ways to escape unemployment.

Graph 4a: ***Share of age groups in total employment, 1999–2001 / 15–24***

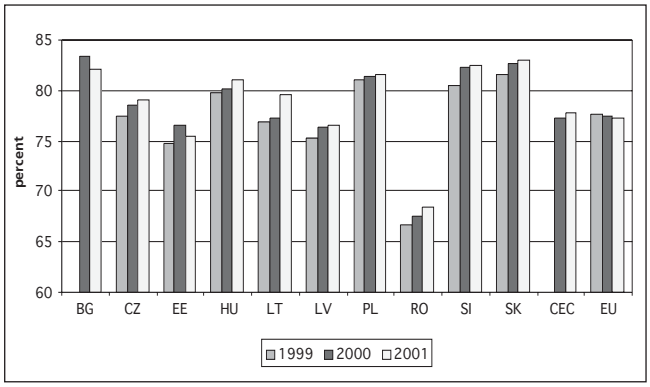


The range of the share of young people in total employment, which in 1999 extended from probably about 8% in Bulgaria to as much as 14.2% in Hungary, has narrowed in 2001 from still 8.2% in Bulgaria to 11.7% in Slovakia. The average share of young people in total employment in the CECs was under 10% in 2001, with a sharp downward trend, while in the EU it was stable at 11.4%.

The share of the central age group in total employment

Conversely to young people, with the exception of Bulgaria (for which the information is only available for 2000 and 2001), the share of the central group aged 25–54 in total employment has increased from 1999 to 2001 in the CECs, and more particularly in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia (Graph 4b). As shown above, this does not mean that the employment situation of the central age group improved in all CECs during the period, but that in all CECs but one its evolution was less unfavourable than that of the other age groups, essentially the 15–24.

Graph 4b: ***Share of age groups in total employment, 1999–2001 / 25–54***



The range of the share of 25–54 in total employment is very large. It extended in 2001 from 68.4% in Romania to more than 80% in five countries: Slovakia (83.0%), Slovenia (82.4%), Bulgaria (82.2%), Poland (81.6%) and Hungary (81.1%). The four other CECs had a share over 75%, from 75.5% in Estonia to 79.1% in the Czech Republic. Thus, the case of Romania appears as isolated and particular, all the more so since this low share of 25–54 in total employment is not due to a high share of young people (10.6%), which is near the CEC average, but essentially, as will be shown below, to a surprisingly high share of the persons of 65 years and more in total employment.

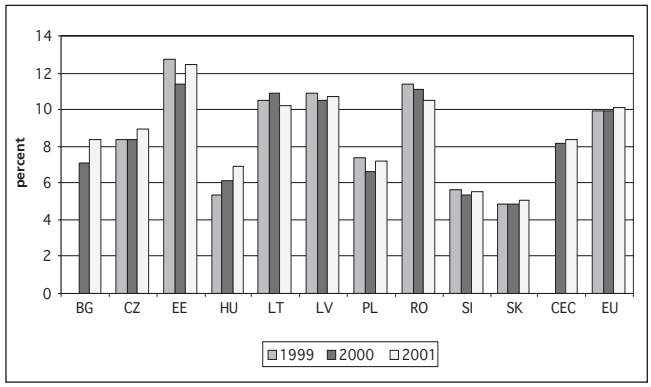
In 2001, the average share of the central age group in the CECs' total employment (77.8%) was about the same as in the EU (77.3%). But this result is due to the weight of Romania, the population of which represents about one fifth of the CECs' total population. Without Romania, the average share of the central age group in the CECs would be 81.0%, that is to say much higher than in the EU.

The share of the 55–64 age group in total employment

The share of the 55–64 age group in total employment in the different CECs is essentially determined by the timing of the exit from working life which is itself affected by the national regulations and conventions concerning the age of retirement, the effective possibilities to keep a job after a certain age and the level of pensions and social protection. The general context of economic and social hardship may induce two conflicting movements: the difficulty to keep a job after a certain age due to economic reasons urges persons of this age group to retire earlier, when possible, instead of becoming unemployed, while the low level of pensions push the same persons to stick to their jobs or to find new ones, whatever they are, to make a living.

The relative importance of these two movements being different from country to country, it is not surprising that the share of 55–64 in total employment varies greatly from one CEC to the other (Graph 4c). In 2001, four CECs (Slovakia, Slovenia, Hungary and Poland) showed a very low share of 55–64 (ranging from 5.0% in Slovakia to 7.2% in Poland) and four others (Lithuania, Romania, Latvia and Estonia) a high share of over 10% and up to 12.4% in Estonia, while the two remaining (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic) were in an intermediate position around 8–9%.

Graph 4c: ***Share of age groups in total employment, 1999–2001 / 55–64***

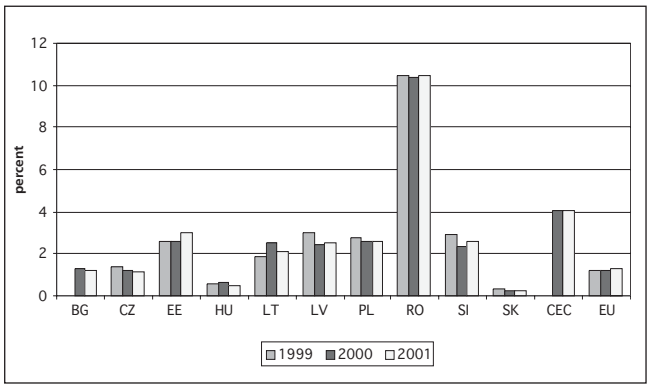


Nevertheless the average share of 55–64 in the CECs (8.4%) stayed below the EU average (10.1%), in spite of the numerous anticipated retirements plans having accompanied in the past the mass dismissals which have affected the Member States of the European Union.

The share of the elderly group in total employment

Generally the persons aged 65 years or more are not considered in the analyses of employment because they represent a very small part of total employment, for instance 1.3% on the EU average in 2001. And effectively, in some CECs (Slovakia, Hungary, the Czech Republic and Bulgaria) their proportion is very low, between 0.3 and 1.2% (Graph 4d). And in all other CECs but Romania, this share remains

Graph 4d: ***Share of age groups in total employment, 1999–2001 / 65+***



fairly small, never exceeding 3.0% in 2001. Again the case of Romania appears very particular, with the proportion of persons aged 65+ in total employment reaching 10.5%. This atypical situation of 65+ with regard to employment in Romania requires some explanation which will be given in the following section.

Without Romania the average share of the elderly group in the CECs' total employment would be 1.8%, that is to say not very much higher than the EU average (1.3%).

Measuring employment and the quality of jobs

In countries where there is an absence of job opportunities, a poor compensation of unemployment and a low level of pensions, a great number of persons who under other circumstances would appear as unemployed or inactive 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 tiny family holdings. The corresponding persons, often aged 65+, consider and declare themselves as employed in the labour force survey. They are classified as self-employed without employees or family workers. Of course, these jobs are makeshifts to get a living under hard economic and social conditions. The revenue they produce is generally insufficient and they do not entail social protection. They may in the main be qualified as poor quality jobs.

In other countries, as in Bulgaria, these informal agricultural occupations are often not considered as economic activities by the persons concerned who frequently declare themselves as unemployed or inactive persons in the labour force survey. In comparison with Romania there are fewer poor quality jobs held by self-employed (without employees) and family workers, but more unemployed or inactive persons.

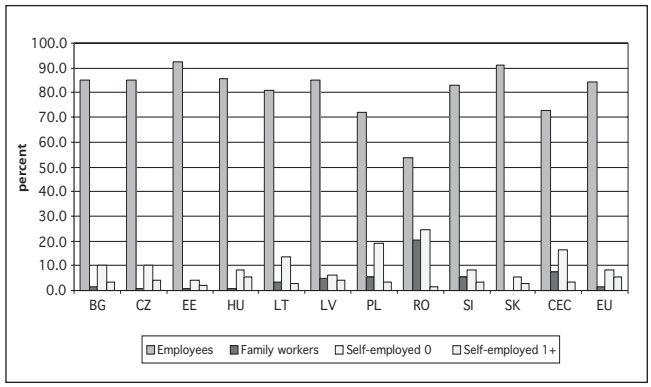
As a result, the share of agriculture in total employment was close to 45% in Romania in 2001, with more than 20% of the employment in this sector composed of persons aged 65+. This explains entirely the unusually high proportion of elderly persons in the total employment of this country reported in the preceding section. The country with the second highest share of agricultural employment in 2001 was Poland with about 19%, 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%). Of course, it is in these countries with a high level of agricultural employment where the great majority of informal or poor quality jobs may be found.

While informal jobs are mainly concentrated in agriculture, they are also present in the service sector and even, to a much lesser extent, in the industrial sector. As there is no direct observation of poor quality jobs in the labour force surveys, an indirect indicator has to be used: this is the share of self-employed without employees and family workers in total employment. Of course, not all family workers and self-employed without employees are involved in informal or poor quality jobs, but a large proportion of them are, especially in the agricultural sector.

Employees, family workers and self-employed in total employment

The share of employees in total employment varies very much from one CEC to the other. Romania, for the reasons explained above, is in a very singular position with a share of employees amounting to only 53.9% in 2001 (Graph 5). The country which came closest to it in this respect was Poland with 72.0% employees, immediately followed by Lithuania with 80.7%. These are also the three countries with the highest shares of agriculture in total employment, with 44.4, 19.2 and 16.5%, respectively. A group of CECs

Graph 5: ***Share of employees, family workers and self-employed in total employment, 2001***



(Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia and Slovenia) had a share of employees in total employment around 82–85%, while the last two countries, Slovakia and Estonia, reached 91.5 and 92.5%.

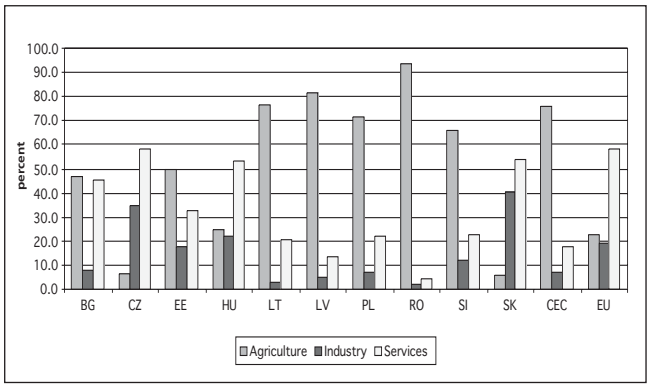
In 2001, the average share of employees in total employment for the CECs as a whole (73.0%) was much below the EU average (84.3%). But this result was largely due to the weight and the particular profile of Romania. Without this country, the average share of employees in the CECs would be 79.5%, much closer to the EU.

The share of family workers and self-employed in total employment is the negative mirror-image of the share of employees. Therefore, it is not surprising that the CECs fall into an inverse order compared to that for employees. If one restricts the non-employees to family workers and self-employed without employees to obtain an indicator of informal or poor quality jobs, as discussed above, then Romania ranked first in 2001 with a value of 44.9%, almost half of which was accounted for by family workers, followed by Poland and Lithuania with a value of 24.3% and 16.9%, respectively, of which one fourth to one fifth were accounted for by family workers. The group of CECs formed by Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia and Slovenia had only values around 9–13%, while Estonia and Slovakia had no more than 5.2% and 5.9% family workers and self-employed without employees.

The concentration of self-employed and family workers by sectors

In a large majority of the CECs, non-employees and more particularly self-employed without employees and family workers are found mainly in the agricultural sector (Graph 6). It is also in this sector that these jobs have a higher probability to be informal or poor quality jobs. Again, the situation of Romania was quite atypical with 93.4% of self-employed without employees and family workers concentrated in agriculture and only 4.4% in the service sector. Four other countries, Latvia (81.4%), Lithuania (76.7%), Poland (71.4%) and Slovenia (65.6%) also showed a high concentration of these jobs in agriculture. The positions of Estonia and Bulgaria were already more balanced with 49.6% and 46.7% of self-employed without employees and family workers in agriculture, but 32.8% and 45.2% in services. Lastly, three CECs, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Hungary, were in a quite opposite situation with a percentage of self-employed without employees and family workers in agriculture (5.8%, 6.7% and 24.7%, respectively) far below the percentage of those working in the service sector (53.7%, 58.3% and 53.4%, respectively) and in the case of Slovakia and the Czech Republic also far below the percentage in industry (40.5% and 35.1%).

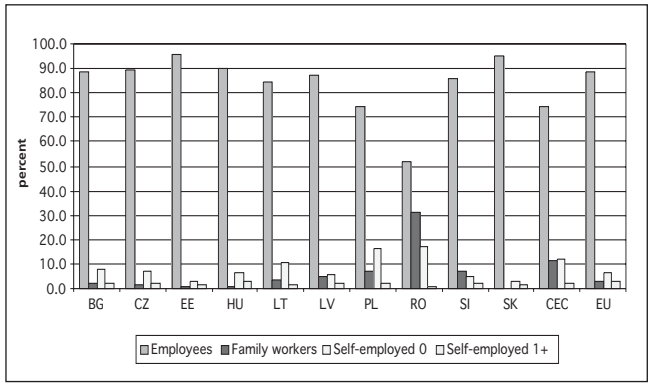
Graph 6: ***Share of agriculture, industry and services in self-employed (without employees) and family workers employment, 2001***



Women and young people by professional status

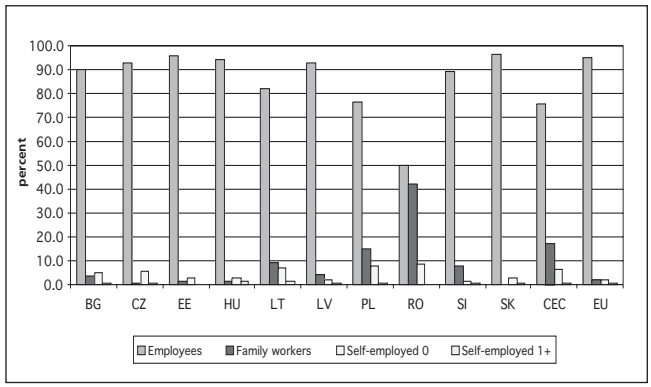
The profile of female employment with regard to the share of employees, family workers and self-employed (Graph 7) was close to that observed for total employment (Graph 5), but its features were more marked. With the only exception of Romania, women in 2001 were more often employees than men. Conversely, they were in all CECs less frequently self-employed than men, without as well as with employees. Lastly, they were more often family workers than men in Poland, Slovenia and more particularly Romania, where the percentage of family workers in female employment amounted to 31.0% against 10.9% for men. In the other countries the percentages of family workers were quite similar for men and women.

Graph 7: ***Share of employees, family workers and self-employed in female employment, 2001***



For young people aged 15–24 the differences between their profile and that of total employment were even more pronounced (Graph 8). Again with the only but notable exception of Romania, young people were more often

Graph 8: ***Share of employees, family workers and self-employed in youth employment, 2001***



employees than older persons. In Romania, the share of employees among young employed was only 49.7%, against 42.1% family workers and 8.2% self-employed without employees. The shares of family workers and self-employed without employees were still fairly high in Poland (14.8% and 8.0%, respectively) and Lithuania (9.6% and 7.2%), while in Slovenia family workers still represented 7.7% of the young employed, but self-employed without employees only 1.8%. In fact, the share of family workers in youth employment was higher than that for total employment in all CECs except Latvia. Conversely, the share of self-employed without employees in youth employment was below the percentage observed for total employment in all CECs. Lastly and not surprisingly, the percentage of young people who were self-employed with employees was very low and did not exceed 1.6%, the figure reached in Hungary.

Employment of women and young people in agriculture, industry and services

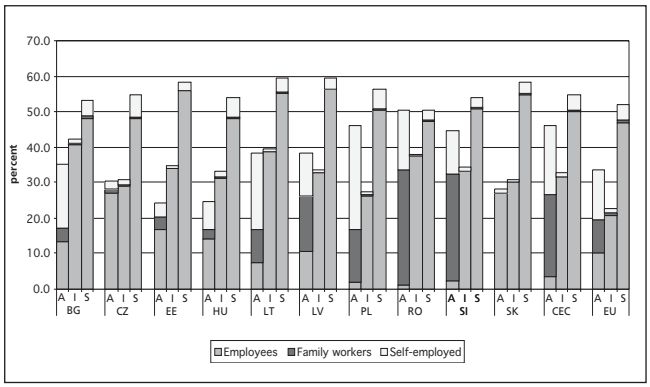
For all CECs the share of female employment was highest in the service sector. It was not very dispersed and in 2001 ranged from 50.3% in Romania to around 58–59% in the Baltic States and Slovakia (Graph 9). A large proportion of these jobs were occupied as salaried employees, from about 88% in the Czech Republic to 96% in Estonia. In contrast, the share of women in agricultural employment was very different from country to country, not exceeding 25% in Estonia and Hungary, but reaching up to 44.6% in Slovenia, 46.0% in Poland and even 50.3% in Romania. A high level of female work force in agriculture was strongly linked to a significant proportion of family workers and self-employed. This proportion attained 94.6% in Slovenia, 95.8% in Poland and 97.6% in Romania, while it was only 30.1% in Estonia and 43.4% in Hungary. Moreover, two countries showed a surprisingly low percentage of family workers and self-employed among women working in the agricultural sector: Slovakia with 3.5% and the Czech Republic with 11.4%. In these countries, it seems likely that the process of privatisation and redistribution of land has not yet taken place and produced results, but the respective figures also may be due to the fact that in the national LFSs members of cooperatives have been classified as employees rather than self-employed.

In three countries, Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania, the share of female employment in industry was particularly high with 42.2%, 39.4% and 38.1%, respectively. In the other CECs, this share was about one third, ranging from 27.4% in Poland to 34.8% in Estonia. Almost all of these jobs were occupied as salaried employees. In six CECs (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania and Slovakia), the proportion of women in industrial employment was higher or equal to that in agricultural employment.

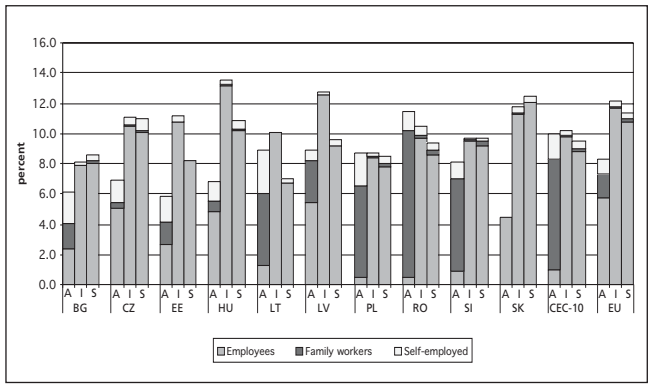
The average share of women in the employment of the three sectors in the CECs was always higher than in the EU. The difference was quite large in agriculture and industry with 46.3% and 32.7% in the CECs against 33.4% and 22.5% in the EU. The figures were much closer for services with 54.9% in the CECs against 52.0% in the EU. This also remains true if one drops Romania from the computation of the CEC average, which then yields 41.7% women in agriculture, 31.3% in industry and 55.8% in services.

The analysis of the share of youth employment in the three sectors agriculture, industry and services turns out to be quite a different problem. It is a matter of monitoring in what sector young people find the best opportunities to enter into working life. Generally, the share of youth employment in agriculture was below that in the other sectors (Graph 10). But there were exceptions: in Romania the share of young people in agricultural employment was above the corresponding figures for industry and services, while in Poland young workers were in the same proportion in all three sectors and in Lithuania proportionally more numerous in agriculture than in services, but less than in industry. On the CEC average, 90.3% of the young people employed in agriculture were family workers and self-employed, but this proportion differs greatly from one country to the other. In Romania, Poland, Slovenia and Lithuania, it was very high, reaching 95.5%, 94.6%, 89.5% and 86.0%, respectively, while it was only 26.8% and 28.4% in the Czech Republic and Hungary. The case of Slovakia is very special: the share of young people in agri-

Graph 9: ***Share of female employment in agriculture, industry and services, 2001***



Graph 10: ***Share of youth employment in agriculture, industry and services, 2001***



cultural employment was the lowest of all CECs with only 4.5%, and apparently all of them were employees.

In industry, the share of youth employment is either higher – this is the case in Hungary, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania and Romania – or similar to that in the service sector, as in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia. On the CEC average, 95.5% of the young people employed in industry and 93.1% of those in services were employees.

In the CECs the average share of young people in agricultural employment (10.0%) was higher than in the EU (8.3%), but it was above all composed of 74.1% family workers and 16.2% self-employed, among whom a great number engaged in informal jobs, while the corresponding figures for the EU were 19.8% and 4.6%, with only a few informal jobs. Conversely, young people were proportionally less numerous in industry and services in the CECs than in the EU, but with a similar small share of family workers and self-employed.

Voluntary and involuntary part-time and temporary jobs

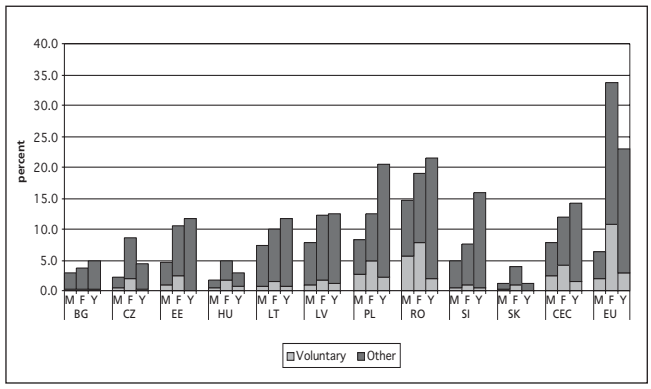
The extent of voluntary and involuntary part-time and temporary jobs can also be considered as an indicator of the quality of jobs. An elevated share of voluntary part-time in a country means that interested persons have a choice between a full-time activity and reduced hours, allowing a better quality of life. In contrast, a high degree of not voluntary part-time is a sign that there are not enough full-time jobs available. A similar reasoning can be made for temporary jobs which, moreover, can be considered as precarious jobs.

In 2001, the share of part-time jobs in total employment varied considerably from one country to the other, ranging from 2.4%, 3.1% and 3.2%, respectively, in Slovakia, Hungary and Bulgaria to 10.0%, 10.2% and 16.8% in Latvia, Poland and Romania. One will notice that this share was the most elevated in countries (Romania, Poland, Latvia and also Lithuania) where agricultural employment was a significant part of total employment. These part-time jobs probably also have to be put in relation with the existence of a more or less great number of informal jobs in the agricultural sector of those countries.

In their great majority, the persons who held part-time jobs had not chosen voluntarily to work part-time and their number therefore is not an indicator of a good quality of working life. However, the average share of part-time jobs in the CECs, voluntary as well as involuntary, was greatly below that share in the European Union.

As expected, the share of part-time, voluntary as well as involuntary, was higher for female than for male employment in all CECs (Graph 11). Nevertheless, on the average the differential was much greater in the EU than in the CECs. The Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia excepted, the share of part-time, and particularly involuntary part-time

Graph 11: ***Share of part-time jobs in male, female and youth employment, 2001***

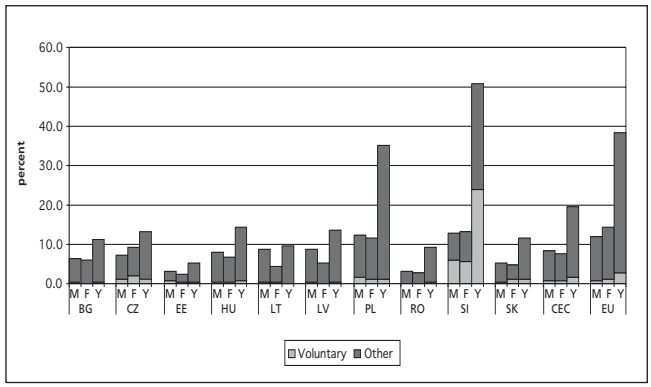


employment, was more elevated among young people than in total employment, showing that they were driven to accept unwillingly this kind of jobs when entering the working life. This phenomenon was particularly prevalent in Slovenia, Poland and Romania where the share of involuntary part-time in youth employment reached 15.3%, 18.2% and 19.5%, respectively. However, with an average of 12.9% the share of involuntary part-time in youth employment was much lower in the CECs than in the EU where it reached 19.9%.

The share of temporary jobs in salaried employment varied less across countries in 2001 than that of part-time jobs. Nevertheless, it ranged from 2.8% and 3.0%, respectively, in Estonia and Romania to 11.9% and 13.1% in Poland and Slovenia. While the share of part-time jobs is linked to agricultural employment, the proportion of temporary jobs is not. Hence, in general, countries with a high share of temporary jobs were different from those with a high proportion of part-time jobs. With the only exception of Slovenia, the great majority of persons who held temporary jobs had not chosen this type of work contract voluntarily. However, as was the case for part-time jobs, in the CECs as a whole the share of temporary jobs (8.0%) was fairly below that in the European Union (13.2%).

With the exception of the Czech Republic and Slovenia, the share of temporary jobs was lower for women than for men in salaried employment (Graph 12). This remained true for

Graph 12: ***Share of temporary jobs in male, female and youth salaried employment, 2001***



the CECs as a whole (7.6% against 8.2%), while the contrary applied to the EU where the share of temporary jobs was somewhat more elevated for women (14.4%) than for men in salaried employment (12.2%). In all CECs, the proportion of temporary employment was much higher in youth than in total salaried employment. The range was incredibly large, from 5.3% in Estonia to 35.3% in Poland and 51.0% in Slovenia. In all countries but Slovenia, it was essentially involuntary temporary jobs that young people were obliged to accept when entering the working life. Nevertheless, with 19.7% the average share of temporary jobs in youth salaried employment was far lower in the CECs as a whole than in the EU where it reached 38.4%.

Main indicators

Total employment													
		EU	**CEC**	**BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**HU**	**LT**	**LV**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	**SK**
2001	(1000)	160339	42436	2752	4701	613	3835	1482	964	14252	10807	914	2116
Average annual percentage changes in employment by sex													
				***BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**HU**	**LT**	**LV**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	****SK**
1998–	All			-4.2	-0.9	-1.5	1.7	-1.8	-1.3	-2.5	-0.9	0.3	-0.3
2001	Male			-6.6	-1.0	-1.3	1.7	-3.5	-2.2	-2.9	-1.1	0.8	-0.9
	Female			-1.5	-0.8	-1.8	1.8	0.0	-0.4	-2.0	-0.7	-0.1	0.4
Average annual percentage changes in employment by age													
				***BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**HU**	**LT**	**LV**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	****SK**
1998–	15–24			-2.7	-9.2	-8.0	-5.8	-12.5	-3.8	-7.2	-5.7	-7.1	-6.3
2001	25–54			-5.7	0.0	-0.8	2.2	-0.6	-0.7	-1.6	0.3	1.8	0.6
	55+			9.0	2.4	-0.7	13.3	-0.5	-3.0	-4.8	-2.0	-3.3	0.8
Share of men and women in total employment													
		EU	**CEC**	**BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**HU**	**LT**	**LV**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	**SK**
1999	Male	57.7			56.1	51.3	55.0	51.5	52.7	54.6	52.7	54.0	54.5
	Female	42.3			43.9	48.7	45.0	48.5	47.3	45.4	47.3	46.0	45.5
2000	Male	57.5	54.0	53.3	56.1	51.2	54.9	49.7	51.9	54.9	52.8	53.8	54.0
	Female	42.5	46.0	46.7	43.9	48.8	45.1	50.3	48.1	45.1	47.2	46.2	46.0
2001	Male	57.2	53.8	52.0	56.1	52.2	55.1	49.4	50.3	54.6	52.9	54.4	53.8
	Female	42.8	46.2	48.0	43.9	47.8	44.9	50.6	49.7	45.4	47.1	45.6	46.2
Share of age groups in total employment													
		EU	**CEC**	**BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**HU**	**LT**	**LV**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	**SK**
1999	15–24	11.3			12.8	9.9	14.2	10.9	10.9	8.9	11.5	11.0	13.2
	25–54	77.5			77.5	74.8	79.8	76.8	75.2	81.0	66.6	80.5	81.6
	55–64	9.9			8.3	12.7	5.4	10.5	10.9	7.3	11.4	5.6	4.8
	65+	1.2			1.3	2.6	0.6	1.8	3.0	2.8	10.5	2.9	0.3
2000	15–24	11.3	10.5	8.1	11.9	9.5	13.1	9.2	10.6	9.5	11.0	10.1	12.2
	25–54	77.5	77.3	83.5	78.5	76.6	80.1	77.4	76.4	81.3	67.5	82.2	82.7
	55–64	9.9	8.1	7.1	8.4	11.3	6.2	10.9	10.5	6.6	11.1	5.3	4.8
	65+	1.2	4.0	1.3	1.2	2.6	0.7	2.5	2.4	2.6	10.4	2.3	0.2
2001	15–24	11.4	9.8	8.2	10.8	9.1	11.6	8.2	10.2	8.6	10.6	9.5	11.7
	25–54	77.3	77.8	82.2	79.1	75.5	81.1	79.5	76.6	81.6	68.4	82.4	83.0
	55–64	10.1	8.4	8.4	8.9	12.4	6.9	10.2	10.7	7.2	10.5	5.5	5.0
	65+	1.3	4.0	1.2	1.2	3.0	0.5	2.1	2.5	2.6	10.5	2.6	0.3
Share of employees, family workers and self-employed in total employment													
		EU	**CEC**	**BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**HU**	**LT**	**LV**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	**SK**
2001	Employees	84.3	73.0	84.9	84.7	92.5	85.4	80.7	85.1	72.0	53.9	82.9	91.5
	Family workers	1.7	7.6	1.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	3.4	4.7	5.5	20.4	5.2	0.2
	Self-employed 0	8.5	16.2	10.0	10.5	4.4	8.4	13.5	5.8	18.8	24.5	8.1	5.7
	Self-employed 1+	5.5	3.2	3.6	4.1	2.3	5.5	2.5	4.4	3.7	1.2	3.7	2.7
Share of employees, family workers and self-employed in female employment													
		EU	**CEC**	**BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**HU**	**LT**	**LV**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	**SK**
2001	Employees	88.4	74.6	88.3	89.6	95.6	89.7	84.5	87.5	74.2	51.5	86.1	95.0
	Family workers	2.7	11.1	2.0	1.2	.	0.9	3.6	4.7	7.1	31.0	6.9	.
	Self-employed 0	6.1	12.4	7.8	7.1	2.6	6.2	10.4	5.4	16.3	16.8	4.9	3.0
	Self-employed 1+	2.9	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.3	3.2	1.5	2.4	2.5	0.7	2.1	1.7
Share of employees, family workers and self-employed in youth employment													
		EU	**CEC**	**BG**	**CZ**	**EE**	**HU**	**LT**	**LV**	**PL**	**RO**	**SI**	**SK**
2001	Employees	94.9	76.0	90.2	92.6	95.8	94.2	82.0	92.5	76.7	49.7	89.6	96.5
	Family workers	2.1	17.0	(3.8)	1.0	.	(1.1)	9.6	(4.1)	14.8	42.1	7.7	.
	Self-employed 0	2.2	6.4	4.9	5.9	.	3.1	7.2	.	8.0	8.2	(1.8)	2.6
	Self-employed 1+	0.7	0.6	.	0.5	0.0	1.6	.	.	(0.5)	.	.	.

**2000–2001* ***1999–2001*

Main indicators

Share of agriculture, industry and services in self-employed (without employees) and family workers employment

		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK
2001	Agriculture	22.5	75.5	46.7	6.7	49.6	24.7	76.7	81.4	71.4	93.4	65.6	5.8
	Industry	19.1	7.0	8.1	35.1	17.6	22.0	2.9	4.9	6.9	2.1	12.0	40.5
	Services	58.4	17.4	45.2	58.3	32.8	53.4	20.3	13.7	21.7	4.4	22.4	53.7

Share of female employment in agriculture, industry and services, 2001

		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK
Agri-culture	Employees	10.2	3.6	13.2	27.0	16.8	14.0	7.4	10.7	1.9	1.2	2.4	27.1
	Family workers	9.4	23.1	4.0	1.2	.	2.9	9.5	15.6	14.8	32.6	30.1	.
	Self-employed	13.9	19.6	18.2	2.3	.	7.8	21.3	12.2	29.3	16.5	12.1	.
	Total	33.4	46.3	35.3	30.5	24.1	24.6	38.2	38.5	46.0	50.3	44.6	28.1
Industry	Employees	20.7	31.5	40.7	29.1	34.1	31.3	38.7	32.9	26.2	37.6	33.1	30.0
	Family workers	0.6	0.2	.	0.3	.	(0.2)	.	.	(0.3)	.	.	.
	Self-employed	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.3	.	1.7	.	.	1.0	0.4	1.1	0.8
	Total	22.5	32.7	42.2	30.8	34.8	33.2	39.4	33.8	27.4	38.1	34.3	30.9
Services	Employees	46.8	49.9	48.2	48.0	55.9	48.3	55.1	56.3	50.5	47.2	50.8	54.9
	Family workers	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.6	.	0.3	.	.	0.6	0.4	(0.3)	.
	Self-employed	4.3	4.5	4.3	6.2	2.3	5.3	4.2	3.0	5.2	2.7	3.1	3.2
	Total	52.0	54.9	53.4	54.8	58.2	53.8	59.6	59.3	56.2	50.3	54.1	58.2

Share of youth employment in agriculture, industry and services, 2001

		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK
Agri-culture	Employees	5.7	1.0	(2.4)	5.1	.	4.9	.	5.5	0.5	0.5	0.9	4.5
	Family workers	1.6	7.4	.	.	.	.	4.8	(2.7)	6.0	9.7	6.2	.
	Self-employed	0.9	1.6	.	1.4	.	(1.3)	2.9	.	2.3	1.3	.	.
	Total	8.3	10.0	6.1	6.9	5.9	6.8	8.9	8.9	8.7	11.5	8.1	4.5
Industry	Employees	11.6	9.8	7.9	10.5	10.8	13.2	10.0	12.6	8.4	9.6	9.5	11.3
	Family workers	0.2	0.1	.	0.1	0.0	.	.	.	.	0.2	.	.
	Self-employed	0.3	0.4	.	0.6	.	(0.3)	.	.	(0.2)	0.6	.	0.4
	Total	12.1	10.2	8.1	11.1	11.2	13.6	10.1	12.7	8.7	10.5	9.7	11.7
Services	Employees	10.8	8.8	8.0	10.1	8.2	10.2	6.7	9.2	7.8	8.6	9.2	12.0
	Family workers	0.2	0.2	.	0.1	.	(0.1)	0.0	.	(0.2)	0.3	(0.2)	.
	Self-employed	0.3	0.5	.	0.7	.	0.6	.	.	0.5	0.5	.	0.4
	Total	11.3	9.4	8.6	10.9	8.2	10.9	7.0	9.5	8.5	9.4	9.6	12.4

Share of part-time jobs in male, female and youth employment, 2001

		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK
Total	Voluntary	5.7	3.3	(0.3)	1.1	1.7	1.0	1.1	1.4	3.7	6.6	0.8	0.5
	Other	12.3	6.4	3.0	3.8	5.7	2.1	7.6	8.6	6.5	10.2	5.3	1.9
	Total	18.0	9.6	3.2	4.9	7.4	3.1	8.7	10.0	10.2	16.8	6.1	2.4
Male	Voluntary	1.9	2.5	.	0.5	(1.0)	0.4	0.7	1.0	2.7	5.6	(0.6)	.
	Other	4.4	5.2	2.6	1.7	3.5	1.3	6.6	6.9	5.5	9.2	4.4	1.0
	Total	6.3	7.7	2.8	2.2	4.6	1.8	7.4	7.9	8.2	14.7	5.0	1.2
Female	Voluntary	10.8	4.2	.	1.9	2.5	1.7	1.4	1.8	4.8	7.7	1.1	1.0
	Other	22.9	7.7	3.4	6.6	8.0	3.2	8.6	10.3	7.7	11.4	6.4	2.9
	Total	33.7	11.9	3.7	8.4	10.4	4.8	9.9	12.1	12.6	19.1	7.4	3.8
Youth	Voluntary	3.0	1.4	.	.	.	(0.7)	.	.	2.3	2.0	.	.
	Other	19.9	12.9	4.5	4.2	11.7	2.3	11.0	11.2	18.2	19.5	15.3	1.1
	Total	22.9	14.2	4.8	4.4	11.7	2.9	11.8	12.4	20.5	21.4	15.8	1.2

Share of temporary jobs in male, female and youth salaried employment, 2001

		EU	CEC	BG	CZ	EE	HU	LT	LV	PL	RO	SI	SK
Total	Voluntary	0.9	0.9	(0.3)	1.6	(0.6)	0.3	.	.	1.3	0.1	5.9	0.8
	Other	12.3	7.0	5.9	6.6	2.2	7.2	6.3	6.9	10.7	2.9	7.1	4.2
	Total	13.2	8.0	6.2	8.1	2.8	7.5	6.5	7.1	11.9	3.0	13.1	5.0
Male	Voluntary	0.7	0.9	.	1.3	(0.7)	0.3	.	.	1.4	0.1	6.1	0.6
	Other	11.5	7.3	6.1	5.9	2.7	7.8	8.8	8.6	11.0	3.0	6.7	4.6
	Total	12.2	8.2	6.4	7.2	3.3	8.1	9.0	9.0	12.4	3.1	12.9	5.2
Female	Voluntary	1.1	0.9	.	1.9	.	0.4	.	.	1.1	0.2	5.7	1.1
	Other	13.3	6.7	5.7	7.3	1.8	6.5	4.1	5.3	10.4	2.7	7.6	3.8
	Total	14.4	7.6	5.9	9.2	2.3	6.8	4.3	5.4	11.4	2.8	13.3	4.9
Youth	Voluntary	2.9	1.4	.	1.2	.	(0.9)	.	.	(1.1)	.	23.9	1.2
	Other	35.5	18.3	10.7	12.0	4.7	13.7	9.5	13.0	34.2	9.0	27.1	10.3
	Total	38.4	19.7	11.2	13.1	5.3	14.6	9.5	13.6	35.3	9.2	51.0	11.5

Regional labour markets

The special situation of border regions between the CECs and EU Member States

The accession of eight Central European countries to the European Union is imminent. According to the resolution of the European Council of November 18, 2002, the accession date is envisaged for May 1, 2004. The European Agreement from the beginning of the 90ies already created the basis for the economic integration and the eventual enlargement of the European Union by the Central and East European countries. Support by the EU in the framework of PHARE and bilateral activities with regard to adaptation measures in the Central and East European countries have successfully advanced the integration process. Trade and capital flows between the EU and the present Candidate Countries no longer are subjected to substantial restrictions and have changed considerably in volume and structure in the years since the fall of the iron curtain. Thus, the integration already is reality in economic respects, and under this aspect the enlargement of the European Union will bring nothing new.

The exchange of labour (and similarly also of services) so far is excepted from this process. The free movement of employees – one of the basic freedoms of the European Union – only will be extended step-by-step (within a transition period of 2 + 3 + 2 years) to the Central and East European countries with their accession to the European Union. The freedom of services also will be introduced with certain restrictions at the beginning of the transition period.

It can be assumed that significant migration incentives will continue to exist over the coming years. However, the actual migration of labour should remain within the order of magnitude that was reached up to now. Thus, the concern will be less the order of magnitude, but rather the question which groups of persons and which regions of origin and destination might be under possible migration pressures.

Special problems could arise in the border regions between the Candidate Countries and the today's EU Member States. At present the employment of border commuters plays no special role in quantitative terms (for example, in Germany with 1.5% of the total employment in the Bavarian border areas to the Czech Republic), which among other things is due to the very restrictive access to the labour market. However, the quite high differences in nominal pay still represent a monetary incentive for daily commuters to work on the other side of the border. But the resulting situation must be differentiated according to the characteristics of the individual regions. Problems are more likely to be expected in regions with a high population density in connection with a relatively unfavourable labour market situation, for example in the border area Bohemia-Saxony. In other regions additional labour may be needed to make up for bottlenecks which possibly might develop by that time, for example in the central and southern regions along the Bavarian-Czech border. Studies about potential border commuters referring to Germany and Austria thus arrive at relative moderate orders of magnitude for the border areas.

Geographical location and economic growth

In this context border regions are defined as those areas in immediate neighbourhood on both sides of the border for which data are available on the lowest respective NUTS level, i.e. (as far as data from labour force surveys are concerned) essentially NUTS-2 areas. For some areas, however, only NUTS-1 (parts of East Germany) values are available, for some countries (Slovenia) even only data for the country as a whole. This and the very different size of areal units even on the NUTS-2 level make regional comparisons and analyses particularly in the border context difficult. Against this background it was decided not to include the Czech region CZ05 (Severovychod) because only a fraction of this area borders on the present EU. Conversely, however, the Slovak region SK02 (Zapadne Slovensko) was integrated into the analysis because a great part of it falls within the radiation sphere of the capital Bratislava (in the immediate border area).

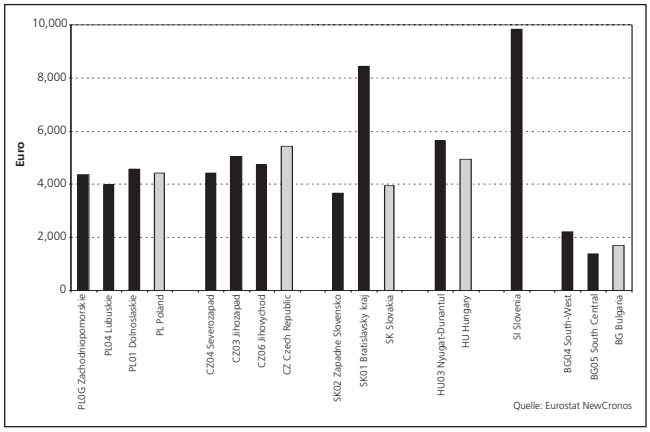
The long border between the EU and the Candidate Countries makes it impossible to arrive at a uniform statement about a basic character, apart from some exceptions. What can be stated is that especially the border regions – and this with few exceptions on both sides of the border – up to now strongly suffer under the effect of the political and economic division of Europe lasting for decades. In addition, shifts of borderlines and population relocations in large scale in the wake of the Second World War have led to structural breaks in the development. This applies in particular to western Poland and northern Bohemia.

Geographically, the border regions are separated over long stretches by rivers or mountains which often do not permit direct traffic connections or require a special traffic infrastructure (for example along the river border between Poland and Germany, the mountains between the Czech Republic and Germany or Austria, the Alps between Slovenia and Italy, or the mountains between Bulgaria and north-eastern Greece). This lack of traffic infrastructure also impedes the creation of common regions across national borders.

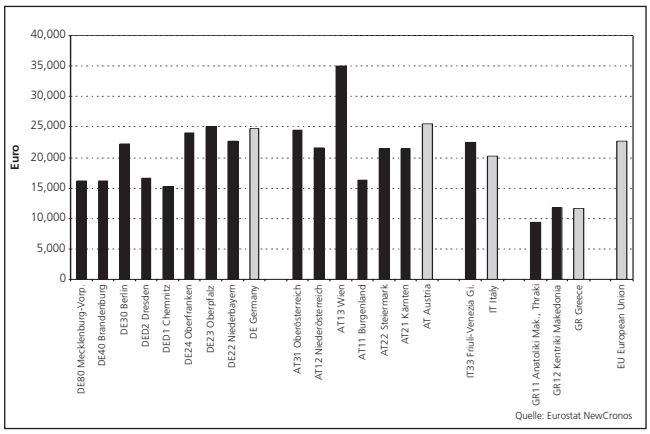
Due to the long separation of Europe, but also due to the described geographical situation, almost all border regions on the EU or CEC side are in a peripheral location, even from the national point of view. Correspondingly, the per capita gross domestic product in these regions tends to be below average in comparison to the respective country

values (Graph 1). Exceptions in this regard are the region around Vienna (AT13) and Bratislava (SK01), the Trieste area (IT33) and the Bulgarian region South-West (BG04, with the capital Sofia), which lie clearly above the respective country average. In Poland, the values for the regions Zachodniopomorskie (PL0G, with the industrial and port city of Szczecin) and Dolnoslaskie (PL01, with the large town of Wroclaw) lie about on the national average.

Graph 1a: ***Gross domestic product per capita, CEC-EU border regions, 2000***



Graph 1b: ***Gross domestic product per capita, EU-CEC border regions, 2000***



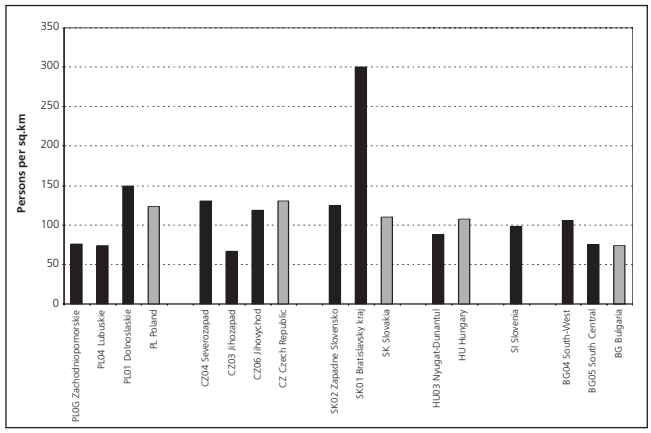
On the EU side, especially the German border regions Mecklenburg-Vorpommern (DE80), Brandenburg (DE40), Dresden (DED2) and Chemnitz (DED1), the Austrian regions Niederösterreich (AT12), Burgenland (AT11), Kärnten (AT21) and Steiermark (AT22) and the Greek region Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki (GR11) stand out with clearly below-average per capita GDP values in comparison with the respective country value.

Nevertheless, as a rule, the differences in per capita income between the eastern and western border regions remain very high. However, some exceptions can again also be found here: thus, the income differentials for example between Severozapad (CZ04) and Sachsen or between Jihozapad (CZ03) and the German regions at the border or between Slovenia and Friuli-Venezia Giulia (IT33) are considerably smaller than otherwise along the borders. The larger cities in the immediate or relative proximity to the border (Szczecin, Wroclaw, Bratislava, and Sofia or Berlin, Dresden, Vienna and Trieste) play a special role. On the one hand, they have an important function for the development of neighbouring border areas, on the other hand, they are attractive centres for border-crossing factor movements.

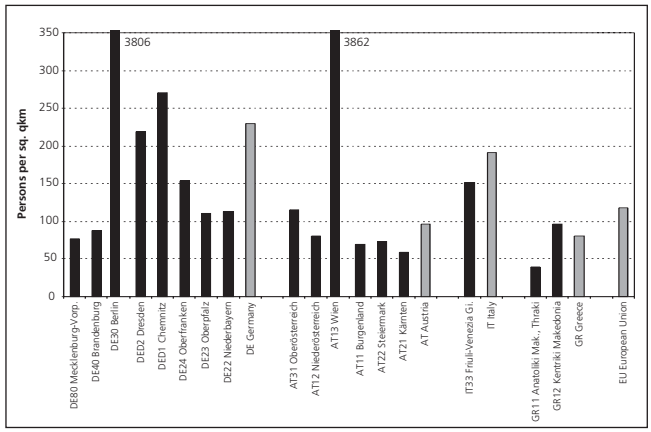
Population density and development

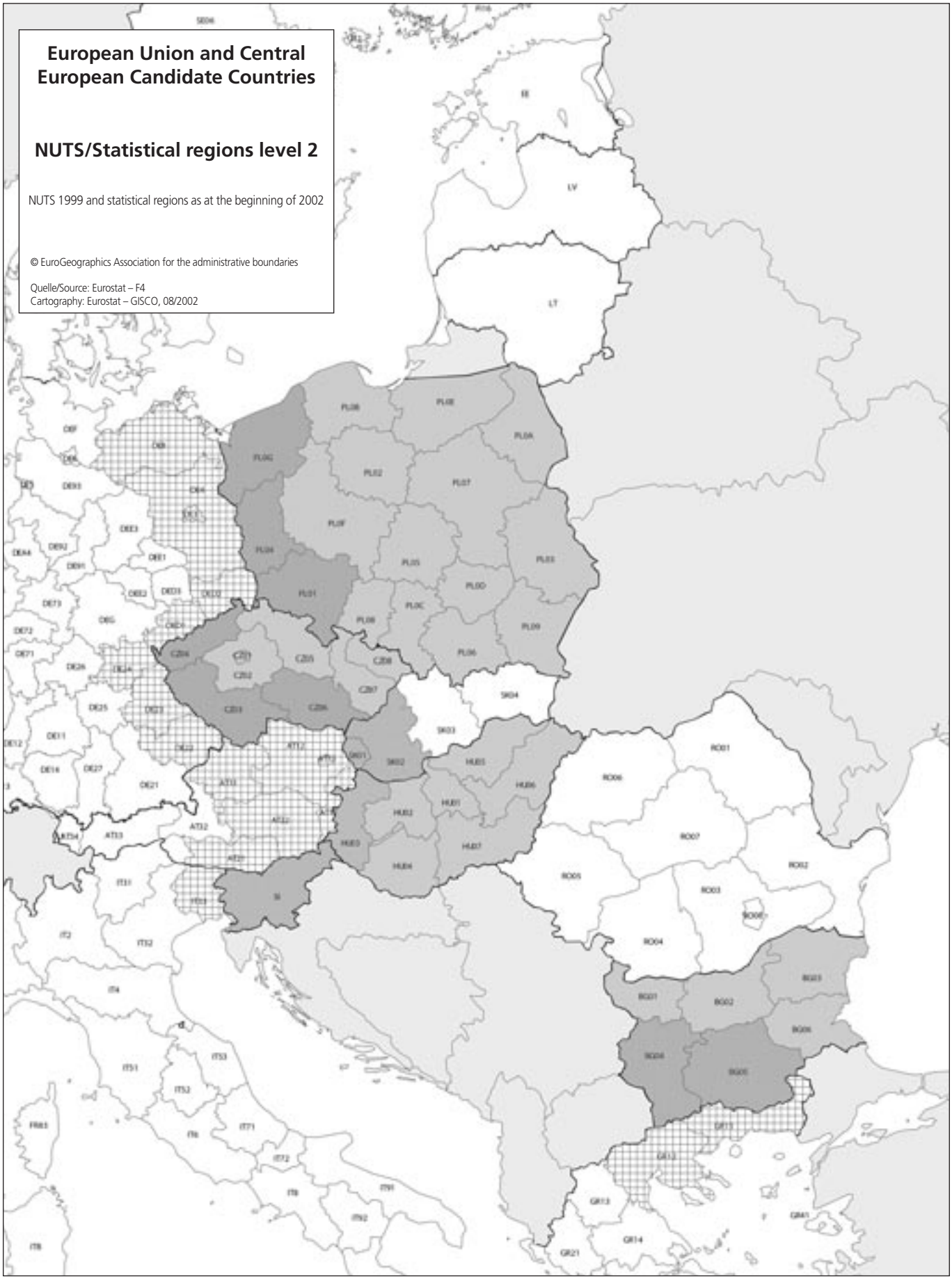
Similar differences can be found with regard to population density (Graph 2). Seen in a European context, as a rule, the regions on both sides of the borders tend to be rather more thinly populated. This applies in particular to both sides of the Polish-German border with the exception of Dolnoslaskie (PL01). The situation is quite different at the Czech-Saxon border: both sides are clearly more densely populated than the other border areas. In the central border areas, it is above all the high population density in the area of the two directly opposite capitals of Slovakia and Austria, Bratislava and Vienna (SK01 and AT13) which stands out. This area should continue to develop into a central border-transcending region in Central Europe in both demographic and economic respects.

Graph 2a: ***Population density, CEC-EU border regions, 2000***



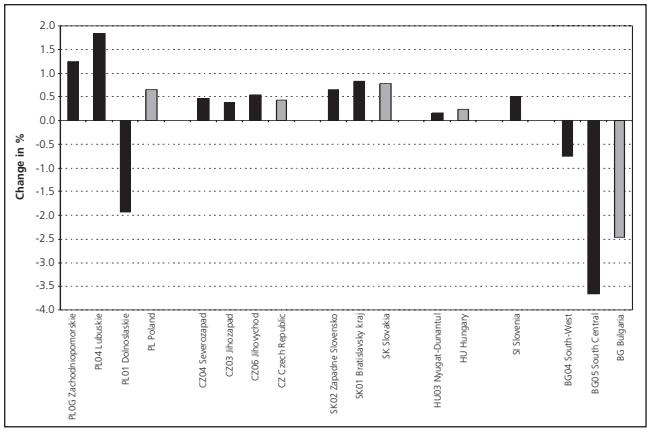
Graph 2b: ***Population density, EU-CEC border regions, 1999***



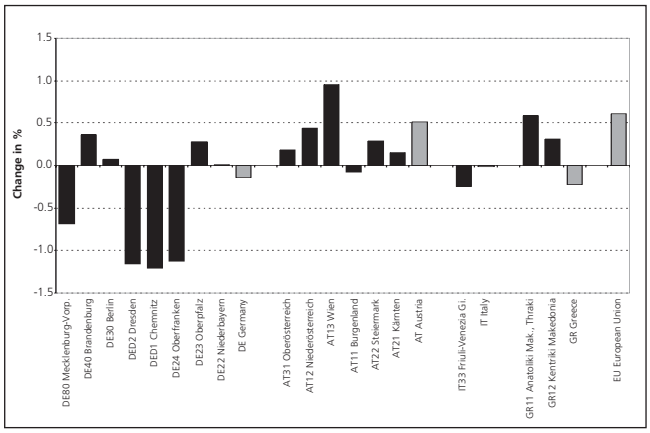

European Union and Central European Candidate Countries
NUTS/Statistical regions level 2
NUTS 1999 and statistical regions as at the beginning of 2002
© EuroGeographics Association for the administrative boundaries
Quelle/Source: Eurostat – F4
Cartography: Eurostat – GISCO, 08/2002

The development of the working-age population (15–64 years) is a general indicator for the potential supply (as a result of the natural population development and migration processes between regions or internationally) on the respective labour markets in the context of the overall population development. Except for Bulgaria, the working-age population in the CEC border countries still increases (Graph 3).

Graph 3a: ***Development of working-age population, CEC-EU border regions, 2001–2000***



Graph 3b: ***Development of working-age population, EU-CEC border regions, 2001–2000***



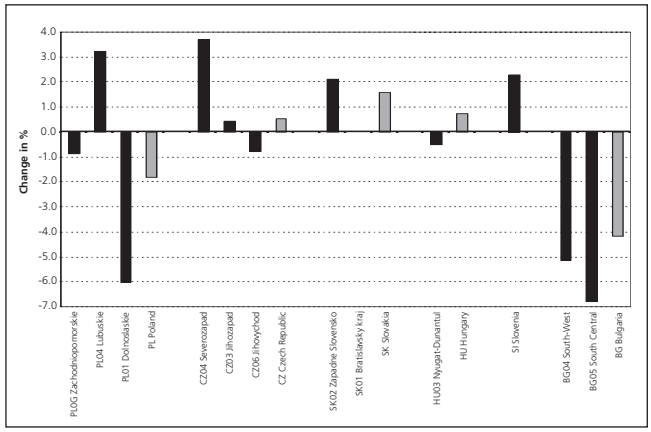
As far as the CEC border regions to the neighbouring EU countries are concerned, there seem to be no fundamental deviations from the respective national developments. The only exceptions are the regions Dolnoslaskie in Poland (PL01) with a decrease in the working-age population that runs completely opposite the trend in the country as a whole and the other border regions and the South Central region in Bulgaria (BG05) with a negative development that is even stronger than on the national average. Even the capital region South-West (BG04) registers a decrease in the working-age population.

The picture on the side of the EU border regions to the CECs is much less uniform. Austria registers an increase in the working-age population (as in the EU as a whole), the other three border countries a slight decrease. Among the border regions it is above all the capital regions Vienna (AT13) and Berlin (DE30) as well as Brandenburg (DE40), which as a surrounding area probably profits from the development in the capital, that stand out with clear increases against or above the national trend. In contrast, the three regions Dresden (DED2), Chemnitz (DED1) and Oberfranken (DE24) and the border region Friuli-Venezia Guilia (IT33) register a clear decrease in the working-age population. Besides in the mentioned capital regions positive trends (compared to the national development) can be observed only for the region Oberpfalz (DE23, located opposite the Czech south-western region Jihozapad, CZ03) and for the two Greek border regions Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki (GR11) and Kentriki Makedonia (GR12).

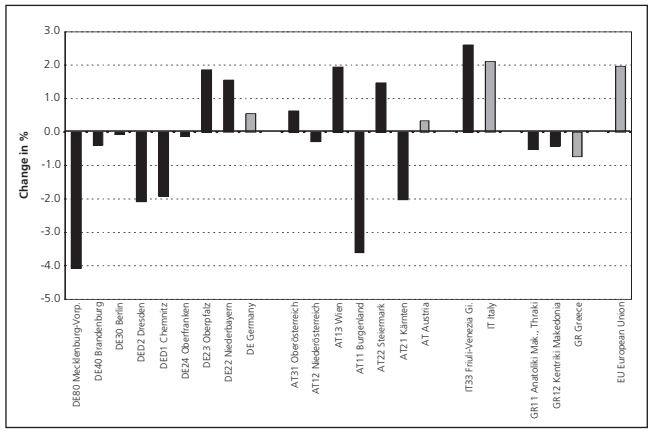
The development of employment

Up to the time of the interviews for the spring Labour Force Survey the year 2001 was still affected by the relatively positive economic development of the year 2000. Thus, the development of employment also showed an upward trend in almost all countries under consideration here with the exception of Poland, Bulgaria and Greece (Graph 4).

Graph 4a: ***Development of employment, CEC-EU border regions, 2001–2000***



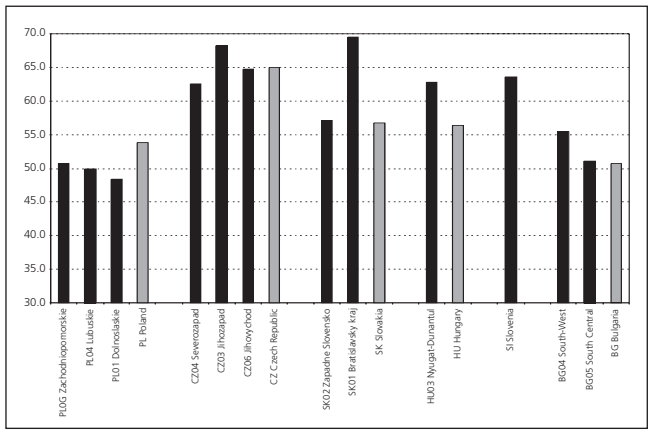
Graph 4b: ***Development of employment, EU-CEC border regions, 2001–2000***



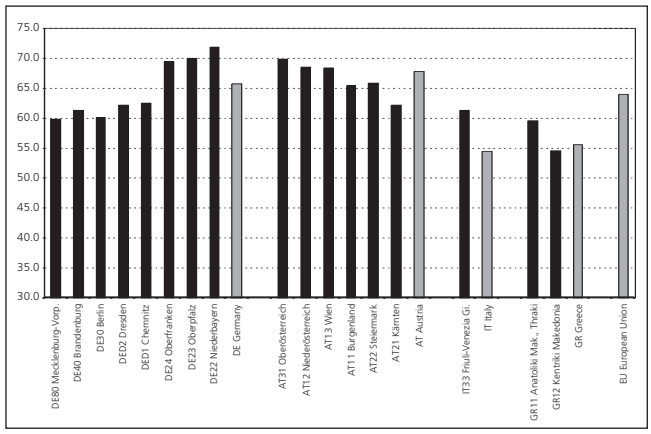
The comparison of developments in the border regions, however, reveals considerable differences. On the side of the CEC border regions, the voivodship Lubuskie in Poland (PL04, located on the border with Frankfurt/Oder and not far from Berlin) stands out with a very positive trend. A similar trend is found in the north-western region Severozapad in the Czech Republic (CZ04), which borders on Saxony and north-eastern Bavaria. The dynamic development of this region probably is determined by the western area around Cheb which turns its location near the border to its advantage as a traffic junction and trading centre. A positive deviation also is found for the western Slovak region Zapadne Slovensko (SK02) which probably profits from the developments of Bratislava and from its immediate neighbourhood with Austria. Negative deviations from the national trend are observed in Poland particularly in Dolnoslaskie (PL01) and a little surprisingly in Hungary in the western region Nyugat-Dunantul (HU03). In Bulgaria the development in the two border regions was even less favourable than on the national average.

On the side of the EU border regions, the development was not uniform at all. In Italy (Friuli-Venezia Guilia, IT33), it was relatively favourable. In Germany, the East German border regions Mecklenburg-Vorpommern (DE80), Dresden (DED2) und Chemnitz (DED1) register a strong reduction of employment. In contrast, the two Bavarian border regions Oberpfalz (DE23) and Niederbayern (DE22) exhibit above-average dynamics. In Greece, the two border regions are about level with the negative national trend.

Graph 5a: ***Employment rates, CEC-EU border regions, 2001***



Graph 5b: ***Employment rates, EU-CEC border regions, 2001***



Employment rates

The employment rate (the proportion of employed persons aged 15 to 64 in the population of the same age) indicates to what extent the population is actually involved in the production process. Compared to the national average, this value is clearly lower in the border regions in Poland, in the Czech Republic exactly the same for Jihovychod (CZ06), considerably lower for Severozapad (CZ04), a few percentage points higher for Jihozapad (CZ03), and clearly higher for the capital region of Slovakia (SK01), in the western region Nyugat-Dunantul (HU03) of Hungary and the South-West region (BG04, with the capital Sofia) of Bulgaria (Graph 5).

In the EU border regions with the CECs, one first notices with reference to Germany that there is a clear distinction between the situation in East and West Germany: the employment rates in the east are substantially below-average, in the Bavarian border regions clearly above average. In Austria, Oberösterreich (AT31), Niederösterreich (AT12) and Vienna (AT13) register a more favourable value than the country as a whole, for Burgenland (AT11), Steiermark (AT22) and Kärnten (AT21) the rates are less favourable. In Italy and in Greece for the region Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki (GR11), the deviations are positive.

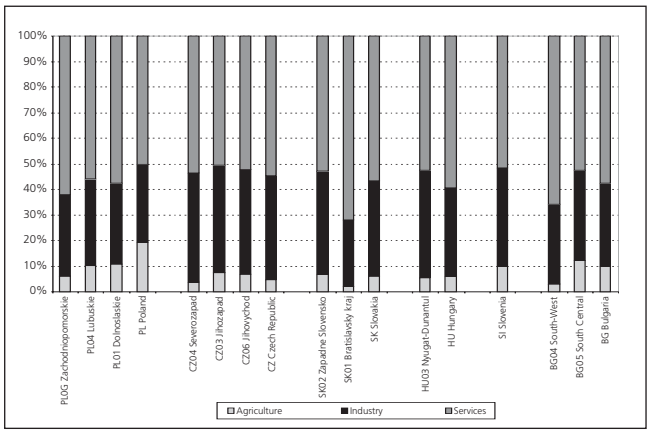
In the comparison between directly neighbouring border regions it is noticeable that only for the Polish regions and the Slovak region Zapadne Slovensko (SK02) the employment rates lie clearly (in part by more than 10 percentage points) under the values of the neighbouring regions on the EU side and, hence, it can be assumed that there is a strong underutilization of the available "potential" not only in general, but also in relative terms.

The sectoral structure of employment

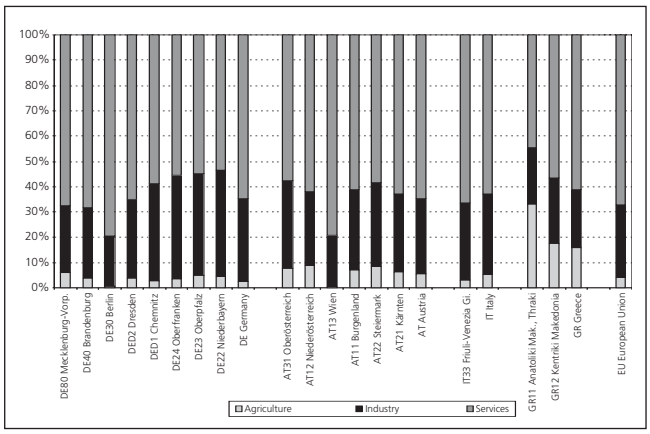
For the formation of border-transcending economic areas it is important, among other things, within which economic structures the economic actors can operate. A look at the structure of the employed according to the three main economic sectors can give a first indication of similarities or differences in neighbouring regional structures (Graph 6).

For Poland it is conspicuous that the employment share of agriculture in the border regions lies substantially under and the share of the service sectors clearly above the national average. However, it should be pointed out that, compared to the neighbouring German regions, the share of the service sectors in Lubuskie (PL04) and Dolnoslaskie (PL01) is

Graph 6a: ***Employment by sectors, CEC-EU border regions, 2001***



Graph 6b: ***Employment by sectors, EU-CEC border regions, 2001***



ten percentage points lower. In contrast, quite similar shares can be observed for the Czech in comparison with the German and Austrian border regions, particularly in relation to the regions in Bavaria and Oberösterreich (AT31). In Slovakia, the service sectors in the region Bratislava (SK01) due to its function as capital reach quite comparable values as in the neighbouring city of Vienna (AT13). Similar economic structures of employment also have developed in the neighbouring regions of Nyugat-Dunantul (HU03) and Burgenland (AT11). Slovenia still is strongly dominated by manufacturing (and by agriculture with about 10%), while Friuli-Venezia Giulia (IT33) has a strongly pronounced service sector. In the border area Bulgaria-Greece, the above-average share of agriculture in the Greek border region Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki (GR11) in comparison to Greece as a whole, but also to the neighbouring Bulgarian regions stands out. On the Bulgarian side, manufacturing and in the region South-West (BG04) also services are of greater importance than on the Greek side.

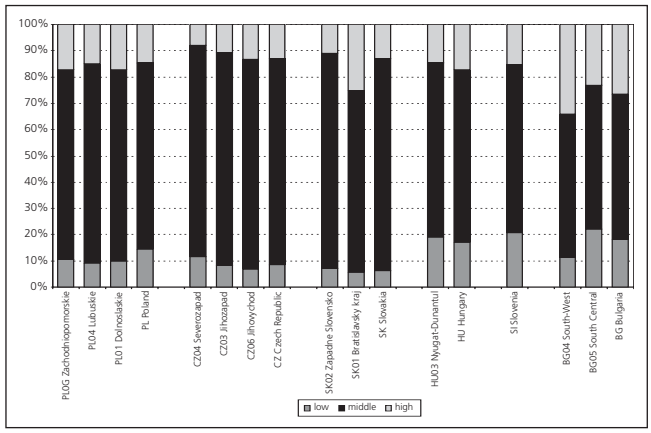
These observations only represent a snapshot and cannot indicate previous or expectable developments. However, they again underline also on this level that the situation in the regions along the borders between the CECs and the EU is in part very differentiated.

The qualification structure of employment

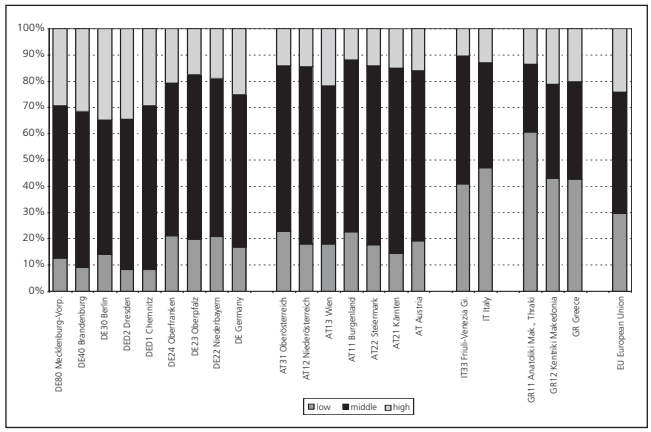
A good qualification of the employed is an essential prerequisite for necessary reactions in international and national adaptation processes in the framework of economic competition and thus for the positive development of the economy and the labour market. For the CECs it is known that their population and employed as a rule have a qualified education. However, compared to international standards, the share of persons with high qualifications on the average still is relatively low. Conversely, the share of persons with low qualifications also is low.

The border regions of the CECs basically do not deviate from this pattern (Graph 7). But in a greater part of these regions the share of persons with low qualifications even lies below the national average. The exceptions in this regard are above all the regions Severozapad in the Czech Republic (CZ04), the western region Nyugat-Dunantul of Hungary (HU03) and South Central in Bulgaria (BG05). The capital regions of Bratislava (SK01) and South-West in Bulgaria (BG04) are exceptions in the opposite direction: here the share of persons with high qualifications lie clearly above, that of persons with low qualifications clearly below the respective national averages.

Graph 7a: ***Employed by qualification, CEC-EU border regions, 2001***



Graph 7b: ***Employed by qualification, EU-CEC border regions, 2001***

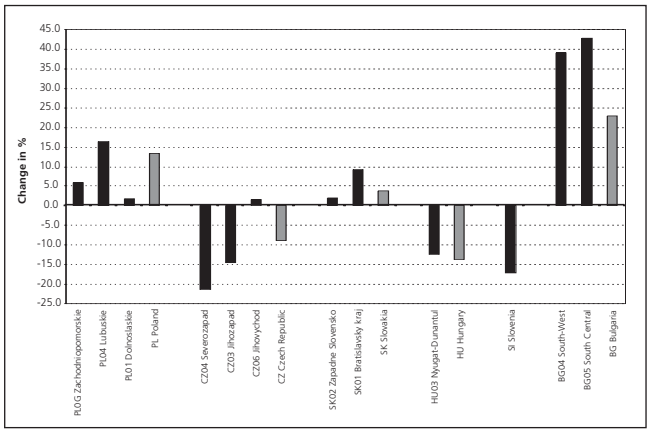


In the border regions of the EU countries, the picture again is not uniform at all. In Germany, for example, the East German border regions exhibit above-average shares of persons with high qualifications and low shares of persons with low qualifications. In contrast, the Bavarian border regions register above-average shares of persons with low qualifications and below-average shares of persons with high qualifications. In Austria, the qualification structures are relatively unfavourable in Oberösterreich (AT31) and Burgenland (AT11). In Italy and Greece, the shares of persons with low qualifications reach very unfavourable values even by EU standards.

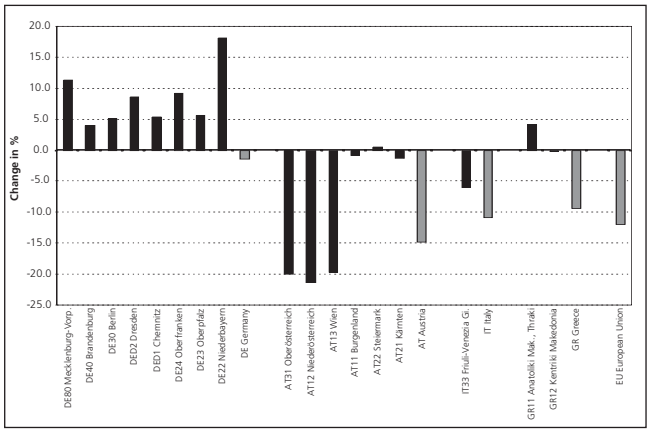
The development of unemployment

The development of unemployment in the CEC border regions roughly is a mirror-image of that of employment. That is to say that unemployment decreased in regions with a positive development of employment and vice versa (Graph 8).

Graph 8a: ***Development of unemployment, CEC-EU border regions, 2001–2000***



Graph 8b: ***Development of unemployment, EU-CEC border regions, 2001–2000***



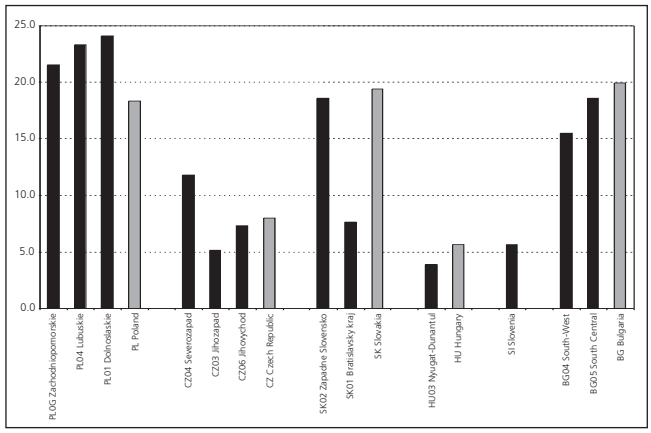
Negative exceptions can be observed for Lubuskie in Poland (PL04) and Zapadne Slovensko (SK02) in Slovakia with an increase in unemployment despite a partly relatively strong increase of employment. What is behind these developments in these cases are the corresponding increases of the working-age population. The west-Hungarian border region Nyugat-Dunantul (HU03) is a positive exception. Here unemployment has decreased despite a decrease of employment and a slight increase of the working-age population.

Unemployment has increased in all German border regions no matter what course the development of employment has taken. Conversely, unemployment has decreased in Oberösterreich (AT31), Niederösterreich (AT12) and Vienna (AT13) irrespective of the direction of the development of employment in contrast to a rather stagnating situation in Burgenland (AT11), Steiermark (AT22) and Kärnten (AT21). In Italy, unemployment was reduced in accordance with the positive trends of employment. In Greece, it rose in Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki (GR11).

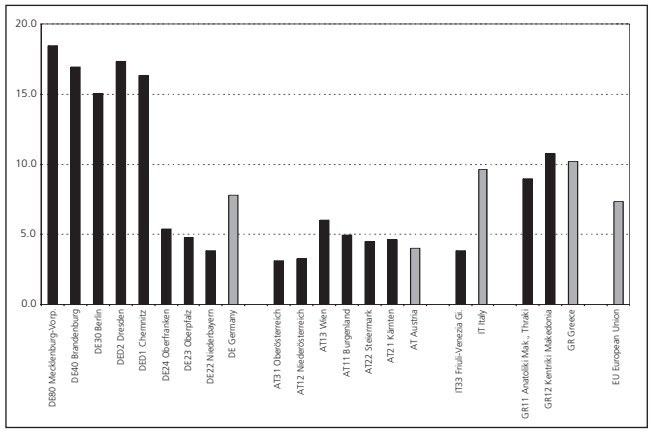
Unemployment rates

Unemployment rates represent the current result of longer-term developments of supply and demand on the labour markets. Their analysis shows that very different situations are found on the labour markets of neighbouring regions on this level, too.

Graph 9a: ***Unemployment rates, CEC-EU border regions, 2001***



Graph 9b: ***Unemployment rates, EU-CEC border regions, 2001***



Thus, the unemployment rates are far above average in the border regions on both sides of the Polish-German border (Graph 9). Rather the opposite applies along the Czech-Bavarian and the Czech-Austrian border. Again, the Czech region Severozapad (CZ04) is an exception. However, the negative situation here is based mainly on the northern part of this region, stemming from the difficulties there above all in coal mining. The border areas of Italy and Slovenia are characterized by a relatively favourable situation even by EU standards. In contrast, the border regions of Bulgaria and Greece, like the two countries as a whole, are battling with high unemployment rates, though in the Bulgarian border regions these lie a little lower than the national average.

Main indicators
a) CEC-EU border regions

Country/Region	Code	GDP per capita (1)	Population density	Working-age population	Employed	Employ-ment rates	Employment by sectors (NACE)		
							Agriculture (A, B)	Industry (C–F)	Services (G–Q)
		2000	2000	2001–2000	2001–2000	2001	2001	2001	2001
		Euro	persons/ sq.km	change in %	change in %	rate	% of total	% of total	% of total
Zachodniopomorskie	PL0G	4,363.3	75.7	1.2	-0.9	50.7	6.2	31.8	62.0
Lubuskie	PL04	3,967.0	73.2	1.8	3.2	50.0	10.3	33.8	56.0
Dolnoslaskie	PL01	4,571.8	149.1	-1.9	-6.0	48.3	10.8	31.5	57.7
Poland	**PL**	**4,422.1**	**123.6**	**0.6**	**-1.8**	**53.8**	**19.2**	**30.7**	**50.1**
Severozapad	CZ04	4,423.9	130.8	0.5	3.7	62.6	3.8	42.8	53.4
Jihozapad	CZ03	5,059.8	66.8	0.4	0.4	68.2	7.6	41.9	50.6
Jihovychod	CZ06	4,726.2	118.5	0.5	-0.8	64.8	6.9	41.0	52.1
Czech Republic	**CZ**	**5,427.8**	**130.3**	**0.4**	**0.5**	**65.0**	**4.9**	**40.5**	**54.6**
Zapadne Slovensko	SK02	3,669.0	125.1	0.6	2.1	57.2	6.9	40.2	52.8
Bratislavsky kraj	SK01	8,426.4	300.6	0.8	0.0	69.5	1.9	26.3	71.7
Slovakia	**SK**	**3,949.7**	**110.1**	**0.8**	**1.6**	**56.7**	**6.3**	**37.1**	**56.7**
Nyugat-Dunantul	HU03	5,641.5	87.9	0.2	-0.5	62.8	5.4	42.2	52.5
Hungary	**HU**	**4,952.6**	**107.8**	**0.2**	**0.7**	**56.3**	**6.1**	**34.5**	**59.4**
Slovenia	**SI**	**9,815.0**	**98.2**	**0.5**	**2.3**	**63.6**	**9.8**	**38.2**	**50.9**
South-West	BG04	2,207.0	105.7	-0.8	-5.2	55.5	3.1	31.2	65.5
South Central	BG05	1,389.7	75.1	-3.7	-6.8	51.1	12.3	35.2	52.5
Bulgaria	**BG**	**1,681.0**	**73.7**	**-2.5**	**-4.2**	**50.7**	**9.7**	**32.7**	**57.5**

b) EU-CEC border regions

Country/Region	Code	GDP per capita (1)	Population density	Working-age population	Employed	Employ-ment rates	Employment by sectors (NACE)		
							Agriculture (A, B)	Industry (C–F)	Services (G–Q)
		2000	1999	2001–2000	2001–2000	2001	2001	2001	2001
		Euro	persons/ sq.km	change in %	change in %	rate	% of total	% of total	% of total
Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	DE80	16,101.6	77	-0.7	-4.1	59.8	5.8	26.5	67.7
Brandenburg	DE40	16,117.9	88	0.4	-0.4	61.3	4.0	27.9	68.1
Berlin	DE30	22,197.6	3807	0.1	-0.1	60.2	0.6	20.0	79.4
Dresden	DED2	16,627.9	218	-1.2	-2.1	62.2	3.7	31.2	65.0
Chemnitz	DED1	15,303.1	270	-1.2	-1.9	62.5	2.9	38.3	58.8
Oberfranken	DE24	24,044.5	154	-1.1	-0.1	69.4	3.4	41.3	55.4
Oberpfalz	DE23	25,029.8	111	0.3	1.9	70.0	5.0	40.2	54.7
Niederbayern	DE22	22,573.7	113	0.0	1.5	72.0	4.6	41.9	53.5
Germany	**DE**	**24,699.5**	**230**	**-0.1**	**0.6**	**65.7**	**2.6**	**32.8**	**64.6**
Oberösterreich	AT31	24,445.6	115	0.2	0.6	69.9	7.8	34.6	57.6
Niederösterreich	AT12	21,616.2	80	0.4	-0.3	68.5	8.7	29.5	61.7
Wien	AT13	35,067.6	3862	0.9	1.9	68.4	0.9	20.0	79.1
Burgenland	AT11	16,362.3	70	-0.1	-3.6	65.5	6.9	31.8	61.2
Steiermark	AT22	21,417.8	73	0.3	1.5	65.9	8.5	33.3	58.3
Kärnten	AT21	21,440.0	59	0.2	-2.0	62.2	6.3	30.6	63.0
Austria	**AT**	**25,528.7**	**97**	**0.5**	**0.4**	**67.8**	**5.8**	**29.4**	**64.8**
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	IT33	22,559.6	151	-0.2	2.6	61.3	3.3	30.3	66.5
Italy	**IT**	**20,164.9**	**191**	**0.0**	**2.1**	**54.5**	**5.2**	**31.7**	**63.1**
Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki	GR11	9,407.6	40	0.6	-0.5	59.6	33.2	22.3	44.6
Kentriki Makedonia	GR12	11,701.3	96	0.3	-0.4	54.5	17.8	25.7	56.5
Greece	**GR**	**11,661.4**	**80**	**-0.2**	**-0.7**	**55.6**	**16.0**	**22.8**	**61.2**
European Union	**EU**	**22,602.8**	**118**	**0.6**	**2.0**	**64.0**	**4.1**	**28.6**	**66.9**

1) Source: Eurostat NewCronos

Main indicators
a) CEC-EU border regions

Country/Region	Code	Employment by service sections					Employed by qualification			Unemployed	Unemployment rates
		Trade & repair, hotels & restaur. (G, H)	Transport & communication (I)	Finance, real est. & business (J, K)	Public administration (L)	Others (M–Q)	low	middle	high		
		2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001–2000	2001
		% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	change in %	rate
Zachodniopomorskie	PL0G	19.5	9.0	8.2	9.6	15.6	10.4	72.4	17.2	6.0	21.5
Lubuskie	PL04	18.0	8.0	6.9	6.0	17.1	9.3	76.0	14.7	16.4	23.4
Dolnoslaskie	PL01	20.4	5.7	7.9	6.0	17.6	10.0	72.9	17.1	1.8	24.1
Poland	**PL**	**15.7**	**6.2**	**6.6**	**5.3**	**16.3**	**14.6**	**70.7**	**14.7**	**13.4**	**18.4**
Severozapad	CZ04	16.0	8.4	5.3	6.9	16.8	11.4	80.7	7.8	-21.2	11.8
Jihozapad	CZ03	16.2	7.5	6.0	6.8	14.1	8.2	81.1	10.7	-14.6	5.1
Jihovychod	CZ06	15.1	6.5	7.0	6.8	16.7	6.8	80.0	13.2	1.5	7.3
Czech Republic	**CZ**	**16.1**	**7.6**	**7.6**	**6.6**	**16.7**	**8.7**	**78.2**	**13.0**	**-8.9**	**8.0**
Zapadne Slovensko	SK02	15.4	6.6	5.3	7.5	18.0	7.2	81.9	10.9	2.1	18.6
Bratislavsky kraj	SK01	16.7	9.1	17.7	9.2	19.0	5.6	69.4	25.1	9.2	7.7
Slovakia	**SK**	**15.5**	**7.6**	**6.9**	**7.6**	**19.2**	**6.4**	**80.8**	**12.8**	**3.7**	**19.4**
Nyugat-Dunantul	HU03	18.1	6.9	5.3	5.3	16.8	19.2	66.3	14.5	-12.3	3.9
Hungary	**HU**	**18.1**	**8.0**	**7.7**	**6.9**	**18.6**	**17.2**	**65.6**	**17.2**	**-13.7**	**5.7**
Slovenia	**SI**	**16.2**	**6.3**	**7.5**	**5.2**	**15.7**	**20.2**	**62.6**	**14.8**	**-17.1**	**5.7**
South-West	BG04	21.4	8.2	9.1	8.9	17.9	11.6	54.4	34.0	39.1	15.5
South Central	BG05	17.5	6.9	3.6	6.5	17.9	22.2	54.8	23.0	42.9	18.6
Bulgaria	**BG**	**19.5**	**8.0**	**5.3**	**7.6**	**17.0**	**18.2**	**55.4**	**26.4**	**23.0**	**19.9**

b) EU-CEC border regions

Country/Region	Code	Employment by service sections					Employed by qualification			Unemployed	Unemployment rates
		Trade & repair, hotels & restaur. (G, H)	Transport & communication (I)	Finance, real est. & business (J, K)	Public administration (L)	Others (M–Q)	low	middle	high		
		2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001–2000	2001
		% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	% of total	change in %	rate
Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	DE80	19.4	6.8	7.0	11.3	23.2	12.4	57.8	29.1	11.3	18.5
Brandenburg	DE40	17.9	7.4	9.4	10.0	23.4	8.9	58.5	30.8	4.0	16.9
Berlin	DE30	16.6	6.8	16.4	11.4	28.2	13.5	49.6	33.8	5.1	15.1
Dresden	DED2	15.8	5.9	12.7	9.5	21.1	8.1	57.0	34.0	8.6	17.4
Chemnitz	DED1	15.2	4.8	9.8	8.4	20.5	8.0	62.0	29.0	5.4	16.3
Oberfranken	DE24	15.8	4.7	10.2	7.3	17.4	20.5	56.7	20.1	9.1	5.4
Oberpfalz	DE23	16.7	4.3	9.3	7.2	17.2	19.3	61.0	17.0	5.7	4.8
Niederbayern	DE22	16.7	4.0	9.1	6.9	16.7	20.2	58.5	18.5	18.1	3.8
Germany	**DE**	**17.6**	**5.7**	**11.9**	**8.1**	**21.4**	**16.1**	**56.1**	**24.2**	**-1.4**	**7.8**
Oberösterreich	AT31	19.8	5.9	9.3	5.5	17.1	22.8	63.2	14.0	-20.0	3.1
Niederösterreich	AT12	18.8	6.9	9.8	8.0	18.2	18.1	67.6	14.2	-21.3	3.2
Wien	AT13	21.2	9.0	19.2	7.0	22.7	17.9	60.4	21.7	-19.7	6.0
Burgenland	AT11	21.3	5.1	8.7	8.5	17.6	22.6	65.6	11.8	-0.9	5.0
Steiermark	AT22	21.2	5.5	9.0	5.4	17.1	17.8	68.2	13.9	0.5	4.5
Kärnten	AT21	22.2	5.7	9.4	6.7	19.0	14.3	70.5	15.1	-1.3	4.6
Austria	**AT**	**21.4**	**6.8**	**11.4**	**6.3**	**18.9**	**19.3**	**64.8**	**15.9**	**-14.8**	**4.0**
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	IT33	20.3	6.4	12.2	8.9	18.6	40.9	48.9	10.3	-6.0	3.8
Italy	**IT**	**19.7**	**5.4**	**10.4**	**9.0**	**18.7**	**46.9**	**40.4**	**12.7**	**-10.9**	**9.6**
Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki	GR11	19.3	3.5	3.5	7.9	10.3	60.7	25.9	13.5	4.2	9.0
Kentriki Makedonia	GR12	23.1	5.2	6.6	5.4	16.3	42.9	36.0	21.1	-0.2	10.8
Greece	**GR**	**23.7**	**6.4**	**8.2**	**7.4**	**15.5**	**42.7**	**37.3**	**20.0**	**-9.4**	**10.2**
European Union	**EU**	**18.7**	**6.2**	**12.3**	**7.6**	**22.1**	**29.0**	**45.0**	**23.6**	**-12.0**	**7.3**

Regional labour markets in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia

Labour market indicators on the country level are used to describe and assess the performance of national economies. In order to understand the prevailing patterns of the economic and social situation in individual countries, however, the discussion of national level developments should be complemented with a regional perspective. The extent of disparities observed at the regional level is often greater than the variation between countries. Existing imbalances are attributable to a broad spectrum of factors, ranging from geographic location and demographic situation to the sectoral composition of the economy and uneven attractiveness.

The variation in regional conditions has called into being specially targeted policies which aim at providing the whole population – irrespective of the place of residence – with some accepted standard in terms of access to employment, income and basic social services. Although essential from the viewpoint of social cohesion, a balanced regional development is also a means of increasing the overall rate of economic growth the countries are able to sustain. Both considerations make it equally important to reduce structural impediments stemming from inadequate infrastructure, lack of support services, deficiencies in the education and training system etc. which make it difficult for businesses to compete on equal terms with those elsewhere.

These considerations are indeed highly relevant for Central and Eastern Europe. Along the increasing differentiation of the labour market by gender, age, education and related characteristics, the period since the onset of transition has been marked by the sharp expansion of regional disparities which have reached a remarkable scale. In virtually every country, one can find regions displaying good economic performance and sustainable growth, but there are also regions which have failed to keep up with the general dynamics.

Regional labour market issues have been addressed regularly in the present publication series, based on harmonised data from national labour force surveys (LFS). The analyses have focused primarily on variations on the level-2 regions, introduced in the bigger CECs (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Slovakia). The goal here is to examine the scale of regional disparities in labour market performance in four smaller countries – Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia. For all these countries, presented patterns of employment, unemployment and economic inactivity refer to the second quarter of 2001.

Given the smallness of the countries, the analysis is undertaken on the statistical regions level 3. To a certain extent, this also turns the analysis into a methodological exercise with the aim to assess the applicability of the Estonian, Latvian, Lithuanian and Slovenian LFS for the referred purpose. In particular, the criteria of statistical reliability deserve attention in this respect. In some cases, the LFS samples become so small that the results would no longer be representative, especially regarding the breakdown by gender, age groups or other characteristics.

It is not possible here to undertake a comprehensive survey of the development of regions which requires information beyond a set of basic labour market indicators over a period of several years. Instead, this section tests the feasibility of level-3 analysis on the basis of national LFSs and tries to outline some general patterns of regional differentiation in the year 2001. Before discussing substantive and methodological issues, however, a short reference to the area and population of the regions in the four CECs is given.

The countries and their regions

Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia belong to the small nations in Central and Eastern Europe with respect to their territory as well as population. In terms of area, Slovenia is the smallest with just 20273 sq.km. Among the Baltic countries, Estonia (43432 sq.km) is smaller compared to Latvia (64589 sq.km) and Lithuania (65300 sq.km). Regarding population, the figures at the beginning of 2001 ranged from 1.4 mill. in Estonia to 3.7 mill. in Lithuania, with Latvia and Slovenia falling in between with 2.4 and 2.0 mill., respectively.

Table 1 and the corresponding maps present the division of the countries into level-3 regions. Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia are subdivided into 32 regions, but the number of regions varies significantly across countries. Estonia and Latvia are both divided into five regions, Lithuania has ten regions, and Slovenia – although the smallest in terms of territory – is divided into twelve regions on level 3. Accordingly, the area of an average level-3 unit appears largest in Latvia where it accounts for nearly 13000 sq.km. In Estonia and Lithuania, the average area is 8700 and 6500 sq.km, respectively. In Slovenia, the corresponding figure is limited to slightly less than 1700 sq.km.

The differentiation in the size of regions is to a noticeable extent compensated by population density. Thus, the population density in Slovenia (98 inhabitants per sq.km) clearly exceeds that of the other three countries. Due to the terrain, large proportions of the country are made up of forest and mountain areas and most people in Slovenia are concentrated in valleys and small river plains. In the Baltics, population density gradually decreases from south to north. In Lithuania the average density is 57 inhabitants per sq.km, the corresponding figures for Latvia and Estonia are lower with 37 and 33 inhabitants per sq.km. By Central European standards the Baltic countries are thinly populated, but exceeding the typical population density in the neighbouring Scandinavian countries 2–3 times.

Although area and population density belong to the central characteristics of regions, from the viewpoint of survey-based labour market analysis, the variation in population size plays the decisive role. Across countries, the population size of level-3 regions appears largest in Latvia with an average of 473000, followed by Lithuania (369000) and Estonia (285000). Again, the Slovenian regions are the smallest with an average population of 166000. Although amounting to almost three times between the maximum and minimum, the variation in population size is clearly less than that in the territory of regions.

With respect to individual regions, the differences are indeed much greater. In terms of area the largest level-3 region can be found in northern Latvia – Vidzeme (LV002) with 20000 sq.km has almost the same territory as entire Slovenia. Altogether there are six regions with an area of more than 10000 sq.km, all belonging to Latvia or Estonia. On the other end of the scale, Zasavska (SI005) in central Slovenia covers only 264 sq.km.

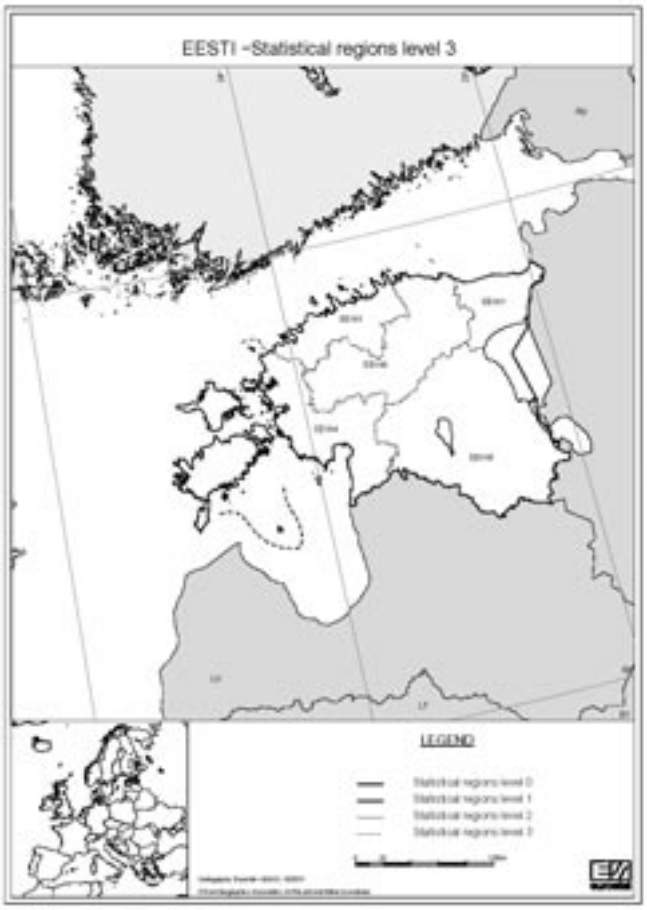
The most populous region is Riga (LV001), the capital region of Latvia with close to one million inhabitants (960000). Vilniaus (LT00A), the capital region of Lithuania has a population of almost 900000 inhabitants, followed by Kauno (LT002), the pre-war capital of Lithuania. In Estonia and Slovenia the population of the capital regions stands around half a million. All four regions which have less than 100000 inhabitants can be found in Slovenia, with Zasavska (SI005) having a population below 50000.

As to imbalances in spatial distribution and the settlement system, Estonia and Latvia deserve attention because of the particularly strong concentration of population in the capital regions. In Latvia, 40.5% of the total population are settled in the Riga region, in Estonia the corresponding figure amounts to 37.7%. In both Lithuania and Slovenia, the share of the capital region does not exceed 25% of the total population. Although partially explained by the smaller number of level-3 regions, the main reason behind the diversity lies evidently in the massive immigration to Estonia and Latvia during post-war decades. In both cases, a major part of the immigrants (originating from the areas of the former Soviet Union) were channelled into the capital region.

The differences in population size influence the ability of LFSs to provide information on regional labour market conditions. The smaller the population size of the regions, the weaker is the potential of the survey to provide estimates. In addition, the sample size also enters the equation. Among the countries concerned, the quarterly/semi-annual sample varies from 8000 households in Latvia to 2000 households in Estonia. The sample of the Slovenian LFS amounts to 7000 households, the Lithuanian LFS has a sample of 3000 households. This leaves Lithuania with the smallest sample per region (on the average 300 households), followed by Estonia (400 households) and Slovenia (580 households). Reflecting the combination of a small

Table 1: ***Level-3 regions in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia***

Country/ capital	Level-3 region	Code	Population ('000)	Area (sq.km)	Population density
Estonia	**5 regions**	**EE**	**1429**	**43432**	**33**
Tallinn	Põhja-Eesti	EE001	538	4332	124
	Lääne-Eesti	EE004	186	11135	17
	Kesk-Eesti	EE006	152	11629	13
	Kirde-Eesti	EE007	192	6829	28
	Lõuna-Eesti	EE008	361	9507	38
Lithuania	**10 regions**	**LT**	**3693**	**65300**	**57**
	Alytaus	LT001	202	5425	37
	Kauno	LT002	749	8060	93
	Klaipedos	LT003	403	5209	77
	Marijampoles	LT004	198	4463	44
	Panevezio	LT005	320	7881	41
	Siauliu	LT006	394	8540	46
	Taurages	LT007	142	4411	32
	Telsiu	LT008	189	4350	43
	Utenos	LT009	199	7201	28
Vilniaus	Vilniaus	LT00A	896	9760	92
Latvia	**5 regions**	**LV**	**2365**	**64589**	**37**
Riga	Riga	LV001	959	3459	277
	Vidzeme	LV002	360	19792	18
	Kurzeme	LV003	321	13601	24
	Zemgale	LV004	345	13199	26
	Latgale	LV005	381	14547	26
Slovenia	**12 regions**	**SI**	**1991**	**20273**	**98**
	Pomurska	SI001	124	1337	93
	Podravska	SI002	320	2170	147
	Koroska	SI003	74	1041	71
	Savinjska	SI004	258	2384	108
	Zasavska	SI005	46	264	176
	Spodnjepo-savska	SI006	69	885	79
	Gorenjska	SI009	197	2325	85
	Notranjsko-kraska	SI00A	50	1044	48
	Goriska	SI00B	119	2683	44
	Obalno-kraska	SI00C	104	2547	41
	Jugovzhodna Slovenija	SI00D	138	2137	65
Ljubljana	Osrednjeslo-venska	SI00E	490	1458	336


EESTI -Statistical regions level 3
LEGEND


LIETUVA -Statistical regions level 3
LEGEND


LATVIJA -Statistical regions level 3
LEGEND

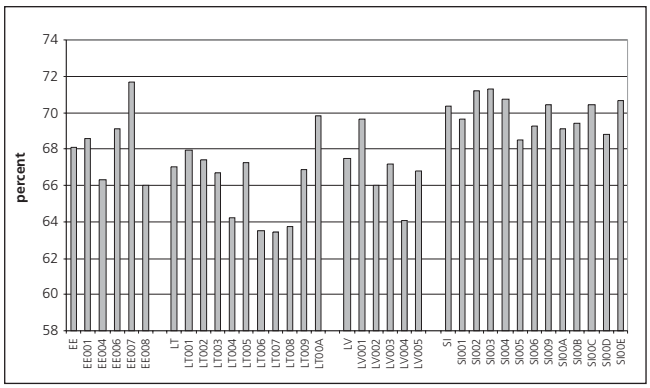

SLOVENIJA -Statistical regions level 3
LEGEND

number of regions and a relatively large sample, Latvia stands out with the biggest average LFS sample per level-3 region (1600 households).

Demographics of regional populations

From the viewpoint of social and economic development, the population size should be complemented with information on basic demographic characteristics of regional populations. The distribution of the population by age provides a reference base for the most important indicators which are used to outline the situation and developments in the labour market. Graph 1 presents the proportion of working-age population, commonly defined as age group 15–64 (for detailed statistics see section annex). From the economic point of view, this measure represents the relative supply of people who are available for employment.

Graph 1: ***Proportion of working-age population***



Slovenia features the highest proportion of working-age population (70.3%). The Baltic countries are clustered in a fairly close range, with Estonia (68.1%) having a slightly higher level than Latvia (67.5%) and Lithuania (67.0%). The graph shows that differences in the age structure across regions tend to exceed those observed between the countries. Only in Slovenia, where interregional variation in the proportion of aggregate age groups is comparatively small, this tendency is not clearly expressed.

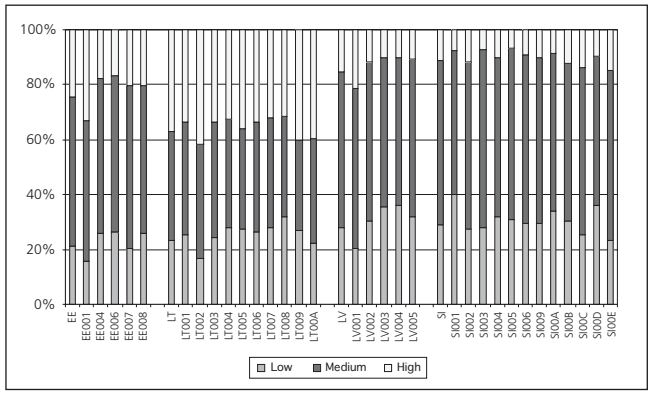
Interestingly, the highest proportion of working-age population in the regions is not found in Slovenia, which holds the leading position with respect to the relative labour supply, but in Estonia. In the year 2001, the share of the population aged 15–64 amounted to 71.7% in Kirde-Eesti (EE007). Situated in the north-eastern part of the country, Kirde-Eesti includes the major industrial agglomeration of Ida-Virumaa. The high proportion of working-age population represents the outcome of massive immigration during post-war decades, mainly from the Russian Federation and other Slavic republics.

The regions with the lowest share of working-age population also are found in the Baltic area. Four Lithuanian regions – Marijampoles (LT004), Siauliu (LT006), Taurages (LT007), and Telsiu (LT008) – have a relative size of working-age population below or close to 64%. This is not only due to the generally lower share of working-age population in Lithuania but also to the strongest variation in regional demographics among the countries concerned. To this group of regions with disproportionately low shares of working-age population, and hence the highest demographic dependency rates, one also could add Zemgale (LV004) in southern Latvia which borders on Siauliu and Telsiu. Geographically these five regions form a compact belt which starts south of Riga and stretches to the border of the Kaliningrad enclave. Such clustering suggests that the pattern is evidently not a coincidence but rather stems from regional development. The low proportion of working-age population in these regions does not ensue from particularly advanced ageing and/or depopulation, but the high overall dependency rate results from above-average contributions of both components, old-age and child-dependency.

There also is a difference in the spatial pattern between Latvia and Lithuania, on the one hand, and Estonia and Slovenia, on the other. In the two former countries, the capital regions – Riga (LV001) and Vilniaus (LT00A) – display clearly the most favourable position in terms of demographic dependency. In the latter countries, Pohja-Eesti (EE001) and Osrednjeslovenska (SI00E) are also above the national average, but only hold the third and fourth positions, respectively.

Another essential characteristic of regional populations is educational attainment, which to an important extent shapes the quality of existing human resources and, hence, the productivity of the labour force. The modernisation of the economic structure and the accelerating development towards a knowledge-based society have sharply increased the contribution of education also in the Baltic countries and Slovenia, particularly against the background of the stagnation observed towards the end of central planning. Maintaining and upgrading the skills of the workforce determines the ability of regions to keep up with new developments and create more productive and better jobs. The educational attainment of the working-age population by three broad categories shows that in this respect the possibilities of regions are far from equal (Graph 2).

Graph 2: ***Educational attainment***



The variation between countries is dependent on national classifications of educational qualifications and may not be completely comparable. Thus, the remarkably large proportion of tertiary education in Lithuania probably results from the different classification of vocational training, particularly compared to Estonia and Latvia with a closely similar system of education until the early 1990s.

In all four countries the capital regions feature above-average proportions of highly-skilled and lower shares of those with a low level of schooling. The polarisation of skill potentials between the capital and the rest of the country is most clearly developed in Estonia and Latvia where all other regions show an educational attainment below the national average, and in relative terms Estonia also features the widest regional skill gap.

Among the four countries Lithuania forms the only exception with the capital region (LT00A) not having the highest educational attainment. Interestingly, there are even two regions in Lithuania which exceed Vilniaus in the share of population with advanced education – Kauno (LT002) and Utenos (LT009). The Kauno region includes the second largest city of Lithuania, capital until the Second World War, with a university and a number of research institutions. The relatively small Utenos region on the border with Belorussia owes its position evidently to the Ignalina nuclear power plant which employs a large technical and engineering staff. The pattern in Slovenia appears also more varied, but with the smallest gap between regions. Apart from the capital and its surroundings, three other regions display an educational attainment level clearly above the national average, including Goriska (SI00B) and Obalno-Kraska (SI00C) in the western part of the country and Podravska (SI002) with the second largest city Maribor in the eastern part.

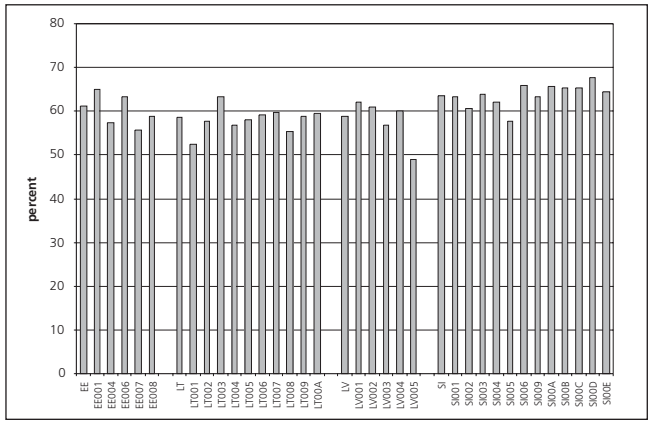
From the viewpoint of statistical reliability, the LFS supports the analysis of educational attainment for all regions. Only for the three smallest regions of Slovenia (Koroska, SI003, Zasavska, SI005, and Notrjansko-Kraska, SI00A) a word of warning about the reliability of estimates is in order with respect to the highly-educated population.

Employment levels

Prior to reforms, today's transition economies featured remarkably high levels of labour force participation and employment. The turn towards a market economy a decade ago brought to an end the incentives to maintain the largely unproductive supply of manpower, resulting in sharp reductions in the demand for labour. To capture the principal outcomes of this development and compare the labour market performance of the countries and regions, employment rates provide an integrated measure of the supply of jobs available for the working-age population (Graph 3).

Slovenia has the highest employment rate, amounting to 63.6% in the year 2001. Within the internationally recommended age limit of 15–64, Estonia ranked second

Graph 3: ***Employment rates***



with an employment rate of 61.1%. In Latvia and Lithuania, the proportion of employed was closely similar, 58.9% and 58.6%, respectively. Although lower than in Slovenia and Estonia, these levels were also above the average employment rate of the CECs in 2001. As discussed further below, the observed pattern is determined primarily by the uneven incidence of unemployment across countries. The proportion of economically active and inactive population exhibits relatively less variation, the activity rate in the age group 15–64 ranges from 70.4% in Lithuania to 67.5% per cent in Slovenia.

The regional variation in the employment rate is at least twice as large as between the countries. Across 32 regions, the difference between the lowest and highest employment level amounts to almost 20 percentage points. With 67.7% Jugovzhodna Slovenija (SI00D) exhibits the highest employment rate, Latgale (LV005) at the other end has the lowest rate with 48.9%.

At the same time, the patterns of regional variation are not identical in individual countries. In Estonia, the highest proportion of employed is found in the capital region, the lowest employment rate can be observed in industry-oriented Kirde-Eesti (EE007), but the level of employment is not markedly higher in Lääne-Eesti (EE004) with a significant component of agricultural employment. In contrast, the employment level in agriculturally oriented Kesk-Eesti (EE006) falls only slightly behind the capital. In other words, there is a lack of clear association between sectoral structure and employment performance in Estonia.

In Latvia, the capital region also holds the leading position, but all other regions with the exception of Latgale (LV005) have largely comparable employment rates. Latgale, in contrast, shows an extremely low proportion of employed – it is the only region out of 32 where less than half of the working-age population had work during the reference period. From the viewpoint of main labour market statuses, this situation results from the combination of high unemployment and very low levels of economic activity.

In Lithuania, the highest employment rate is found not in the capital but in the coastal region of Klaipedos (LT003),

which is also the only Lithuanian region where the employment level stands clearly above the national average. The lowest proportion of employed – the second lowest among the 32 regions – is featured by Alytaus (LT001) on the border with Belorussia and Poland. Although the range between the extremes appears largest in Lithuania, the other regions are clustered in a relatively narrow range around the average.

The same holds basically for Slovenia where the clearest outlier is the industrial region of Zasavska (SI005) with an employment level strongly below the national average. In the opposite direction, Jugovzhodna Slovenija (SI00D) on the border with Croatia has the highest employment rate of all 32 regions. Evidently, the lack of some universal pattern across countries is explained by the broad range of factors which shape the overall employment rate.

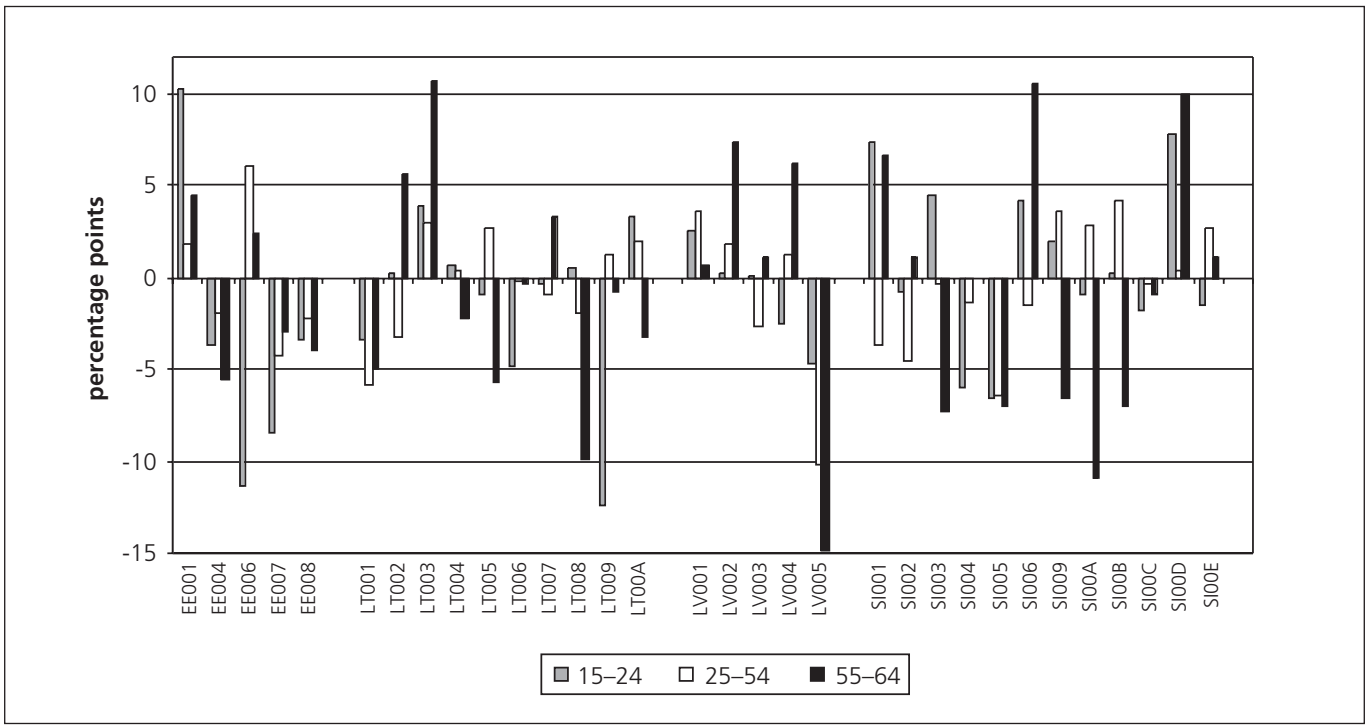
Within the limits of working-age, the employment rate displays considerable variation across age and gender. Across age, the bulk of variability indeed occurs at the edges of working age. Among youth, represented by the age group 15–24, employment levels are primarily dependent on the duration of schooling and chances of entering employment. In the case of the upper age group 55–64, employment levels are almost entirely determined by the timing of the exit from the work force/retirement, with unemployment playing a much less important role. The age group 25–54 is not given separate consideration here because the differences in prime working age largely coincide with the overall pattern discussed above.

Across countries, the youth employment rate ranges from 22.9% in Lithuania to 30.3% in Slovenia, with the other two Baltic countries standing closer to Slovenia. In the regions, Utenos (LT009) in Lithuania witnesses the lowest youth employment with only slightly more than one tenth of the age group having a job. At the other end of the scale, in Põhja-Eesti (EE001), Pomurska (SI001) and Jugovzhodna Slovenija (SI00D) youth employment amounts to 37–38%.

In the age group 55–64, the highest employment level is found in Estonia with 48.6%, the lowest proportion of employed is featured by Slovenia with 23.4%. Latvia and Lithuania have employment rates in pre-retirement age closer to the Estonian than the Slovenian level. To an important extent, these differences are due to the higher statutory retirement age in the Baltic countries (in the year 2001, 63 years for males and 58 years for females in Estonia, 61.5 years for males and 57.5 years for females in Latvia, and 61 years for males and 58 years for females in Lithuania). In Slovenia, the statutory retirement age was 58 years for males (with an insurance period of 40 years) and 53 years and 8 months for females (with an insurance period of 35 years) in 2001. Across regions, in Pohja-Eesti (EE001), Kesk-Eesti (EE006) and Klaipedos (LT003) more than half of those aged 55–64 continue working, whereas in a number of Slovenian regions less than one fifth of the age group still works.

The pattern of age-specific employment is summarised in Graph 4. To eliminate the differences in national circumstances the graph presents the deviation of regional employment rates from the average of each country. Although the extent of deviation varies, in the majority of cases the regional deviation appears consistent across age groups. In

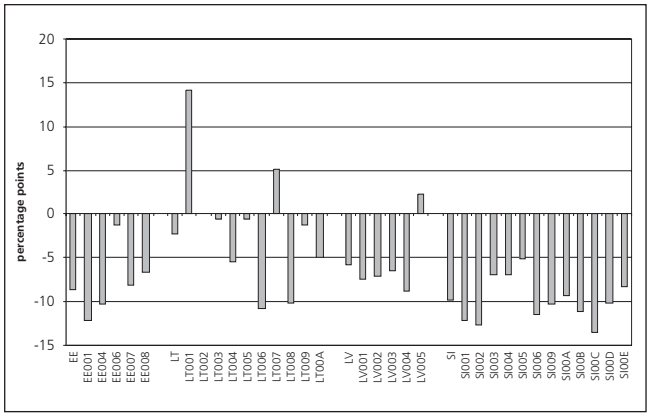
Graph 4: ***Age-specific employment rates, deviation from national average***



Estonia, an inconsistency is found only in Kesk-Eesti (EE006) where youth employment, differently from other age groups, falls strongly below the national average. In Latvia, inconsistencies are limited to two regions (Kurzeme, LV003, and Zemgale, LV004), though with relatively small departures from the average. Regarding the other two countries, the consistency of regional employment across age groups appears significantly lower. Thus, in Lithuania the number of regions with inconsistent age-specific deviations amounts to seven, in Slovenia eight out of twelve regions feature deviations in opposite directions. Evidently, the presented results indicate the diversity of factors which determine the employment among younger, prime-age and older persons, and moreover, these determinants are not necessarily the same across countries.

The analysis of age-specific employment rates also reminds one of the limitations of LFSs in providing finer disaggregations at the regional level. Above all, this refers to the groups at the edges of working age where the proportion of employed becomes relatively low. Due to the smaller size of regions, such limitations appear strongest in Slovenia where the estimates for the 15–24 and/or 55–64 age group do not meet the established standard of statistical reliability for several regions. When employment rates are examined separately for men and women, difficulties are extended to regions in other countries – for that reason the gender difference in employment is addressed only with respect to the working-age population as a whole (Graph 5).

Graph 5: ***Gender difference in employment rates, women-men***



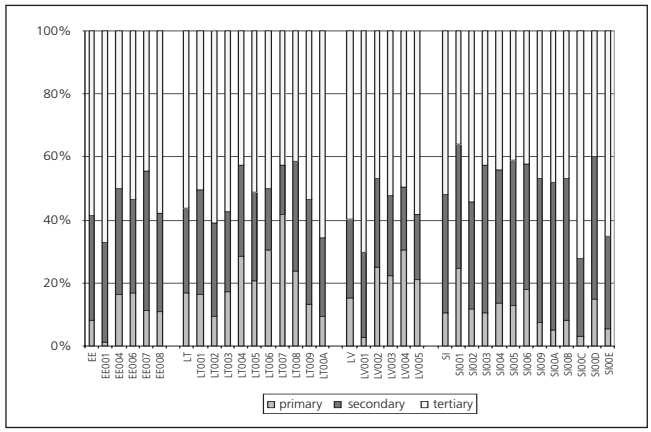
In all countries, working-age women are employed to a smaller extent than men, reflecting the classical division of responsibilities with respect to work and family, but also gender differences in unemployment, educational enrolment and retirement. Across countries, the traditional role pattern is more pronounced in Slovenia (9.9 percentage points) and Estonia (8.7 percentage points). In Latvia the proportion is close to five percentage points, whereas Lithuania exhibits a remarkably close similarity between female and male employment levels (2.3 percentage points).

Across regions, the picture looks more diverse. In Slovenia and Estonia the gender difference is maintained throughout all regions. In Slovenia, the difference amounts to over 10 percentage points in more than half of the regions, in no region it falls below 5 percentage points. Also, the largest difference of 13.6 percentage points can be found in the Slovenian coastal region Obalno-Kraska (SI00C). In Estonia, the employment gap ranges from over 12 percentage points in the capital region Pohja-Eesti (EE001) to 1.2 percentage points in agriculturally oriented Kesk-Eesti (EE006). However, there seems to be no relationship between gender differences in employment and sectoral structure either in Estonia or Slovenia. In Latvia, Latgale (LV005) forms an exception with a slight difference in the opposite direction. In Lithuania, clearly higher female employment rates can be found in two regions – Alytaus (LT001) and Taurages (LT007) on the south-eastern and southern border, respectively. In contrast, Siauliu (LT006) and Telsiu (LT008) in the north of the country represent the strongly classical pattern, thus making Lithuania the country with the greatest regional variability in gender employment differences.

Employment by broad economic sectors

The changes in the structure of economic activity over the transition years have been marked by a growth of employment in services and a decline in agriculture and industry, which were strongly favoured under central planning. The extent of shifts between economic sectors provides a major indication of the progress of countries and regions towards a viable service-oriented economy (Graph 6). From the methodological point of view it should be noted that the LFS data on employment refers to those resident in a region rather than those working there. In the case of big countries and/or large regions this fact could be basically ignored; however, in smaller countries the potential discrepancy between jobs and people employed in a region should be kept in mind. Short distances and relatively developed transportation networks allow daily commuting, and the latter seems to have increased during the transition period, mainly from the periphery to growth centres.

Graph 6: ***Sectoral structure***



In all four countries, primary sector employment – agriculture, forestry, fishing and mining – accounts for a lower proportion than the CEC average. By the year 2001, in Estonia the share of the primary sector in total employment had fallen to 8.2%, followed by Slovenia with 10.4%. In Latvia and Lithuania the primary sector still plays a relatively important role, with 15.2% and 16.8%, respectively.

On the regional level, the share of the primary sector shows considerable differences. It ranges from 1% in Põhja-Eesti (EE001) to 42% in Taurages (LT007), exceeding clearly the variation in secondary and tertiary sector employment. Although there is no region where agriculture was the largest sector, a sizeable agricultural component with employment shares of 15% or more can be found in two regions (Lääne-Eesti, EE004, and Kesk-Eesti, EE006) out of five in Estonia, in seven regions out of ten in Lithuania, and in all Latvian regions, except the capital Riga. Notably, in a total of five regions in Latvia and Lithuania, close to or more than one fifth of total employment can be found in the primary sector.

On the one hand, such high proportions evidently still reflect the role of Baltic countries as major food suppliers in the context of the former Soviet Union. On the other hand, they indicate a certain buffering role of small-scale/subsistence agricultural production in times of social and economic hardship when employment opportunities in other sectors are sharply reduced. In Slovenia, agricultural employment above 15% of the total is observed in Pomurska (SI001) and Spodnjeposavska (SI006). In contrast to Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, restructuring of the agricultural sector never became a major issue in Slovenia, as the land for the most part remained in private hands during the Socialist era. Accordingly, the situation in rural regions of the country has undergone less abrupt transformation than in the Baltic countries.

Employment in the secondary sector reaches its highest degree in Slovenia with 37.6%. In Estonia industrial employment accounts for one third, in Latvia and Lithuania its proportion just exceeds 25–26%.

In the regions, the employment shares in the secondary sector vary quite considerably from 47.1% in Koroska (SI003) in Slovenia to just 15.6% in Taurages (LT007) in Lithuania. Reflecting the position of Slovenia as the most advanced industrial centre in former Yugoslavia, nearly all regions where industry accounts for over 40% of total employment (Koroska, SI003, Savinjska, SI004, Zasavska, SI005, Spodnjeposavska, SI006, Jugovzhodna Slovenija, SI00D, Gorenjska, SI009, Notrjansko-Kraska SI00A, and Goriska, SI00B) are found in that country. In the Baltic countries, only the Kirde-Eesti region (EE007) in Estonia demonstrates a similarly strong industrial profile with an employment share in the secondary branches reaching 44%.

Besides the presence/absence of prevailingly industrial regions, there are also noticeable differences in the spatial pattern of secondary sector employment. In Slovenia, there is no pronounced spatial concentration of industry, but the distribution follows a polycentric model. Estonia represents a country with a single region (Kirde-Eesti, EE007) of overwhelmingly industrial profile, in all other regions the share of secondary sector employment is close to the national average with minor variation. Latvia is the only country where the capital region is characterised by an above-average proportion of industrial employment. At the same time, Latvia features also the smallest regional variation in the share of the secondary sector. In Lithuania, concentrations of industrial employment can be found in different parts of the country (Alytaus, LT001, Telsiu, LT008, and Utenos, LT009).

During the transition period, job losses in agriculture and industry have been paralleled by an increase of employment opportunities in services, which constitutes the largest economic sector in all countries concerned. In Latvia, the employment share of services reaches 59.7%, followed by Estonia (58.7%) and Lithuania (56.3%). Reflecting its large industrial sector, the proportion of services is somewhat lower in Slovenia (52.0%).

In the regions, employment in the service sector varies from 72.1% in Obalno-Kraska (SI00C) to 35.9% in Pomurska (SI001). It accounts for the largest share of the employed in almost all regions, with the exception of four regions in Slovenia (Pomurska, SI001, Koroska, SI003, Zasavska, SI005, and Jugovzhodna Slovenija, SI00D).

Spatially, tertiary sector employment is concentrated in large cities, and typically the capital regions display the highest share of services. This appears true for the three Baltic countries with up to 70% of the employed in this sector (in the Riga region). In Estonia and Latvia, the capital regions also constitute the only regions which have a proportion of tertiary employment above the national average. In Lithuania, above-average employment in the service sector can also be found in the Kauno (LT002) and Klaipedos (LT003) regions. The latter includes a major seaport of the country and a university. Slovenia forms an interesting case where the highest concentration of services is not located in the capital region, but in the coastal region Obalno-Kraska (SI00C), for which the port of Koper and a developed tourism industry are evidently responsible. Finally, all regions exhibit the typical pattern that female employment is concentrated in the tertiary sector, whereas employment in the primary and secondary sector is dominated by males.

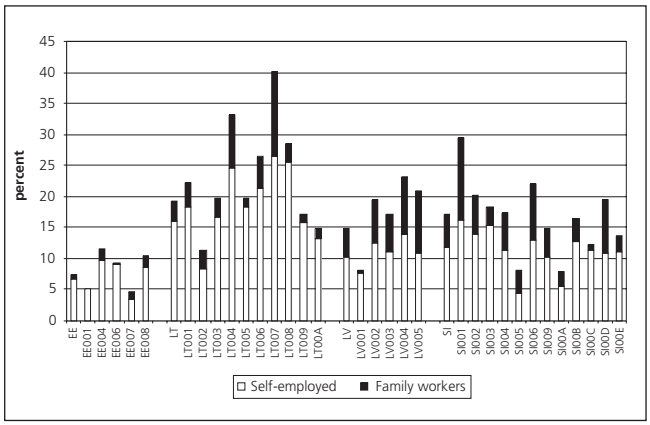
Self-employment

The transition to a market economy and the (re)-emergence of private entrepreneurship has been accompanied by the differentiation of the employed population into employees, self-employed and contributing family members. An increase in self-employment tends to be associated with the establishment of new businesses which expand employment opportunities and compensate for losses in the

declining state-run sector. Apart from that, in transition countries self-employment – particularly in subsistence agriculture – often plays the role of a buffer and offers certain segments of the population a possibility to survive under relatively modest social security provisions.

The proportion of self-employed shows considerable differences across countries. The share of self-employed appears highest in Lithuania, accounting for close to one sixth of the employed (15.9%). In Estonia the corresponding figure is only 6.7%, which is the very lowest level observed in the CECs. Latvia and Slovenia occupy intermediate positions, with 10.2% and 11.8%, respectively. It should be noted that the above figures do not include family workers who contribute to the household enterprise but whose distinction from the self-employed is not always clear-cut. The inclusion of contributing family members would increase the incidence of self-employment between 0.8 % in Estonia and 5.2% in Slovenia, though it would not change the ranking of the countries. Graph 7 presents the regional variation in the proportion of self-employed as well as family workers, as opposed to employees.

Graph 7: ***Share of self-employed and family workers***



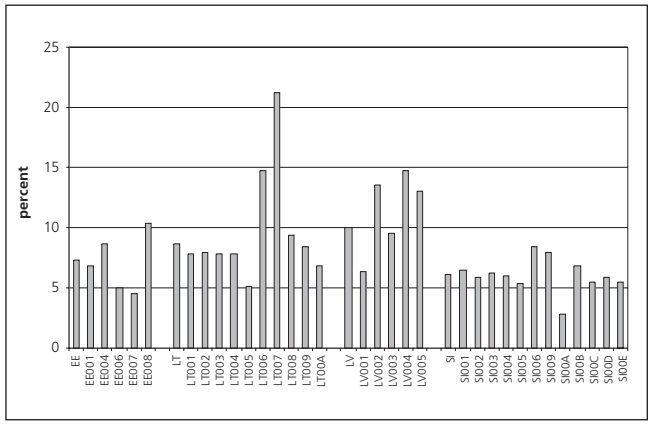
In the regions the share of self-employed and family workers ranges from 4.7% in Kirde-Eesti (EE007) to 40.1% in Taurages (LT007), and there is a clear association between the incidence of self-employment and the proportion of agriculture. Thus, as noted above, in Lithuania Taurages stands out with the highest share of self-employment as well as with the largest proportion of primary sector employment. Basically the same holds true for Pomurska (SI001) in Slovenia and Zemgale (LV004) in Latvia. Capital regions, the regions with above-average proportion of services and industrial regions, in contrast, feature the lowest incidence of self-employment. From the viewpoint of economic development this implies that self-employment is not necessarily associated with sectors which generate innovation, but rather with traditional spheres of economic activity. Indirectly this points to the importance of the cushioning role of self-employment in transition economies.

Graph 7 also provides an insight into the ratio between self-employed and contributing family members. Although in all regions the number of self-employed exceeds that of family workers, the proportion displays considerable variation. In a total of ten regions – Taurages (LT007) in Lithuania, all non-capital regions in Latvia, Pomurska (SI001), Savinjska (SI004), Zasavska (SI005), Spodnjeposavska (SI006) and Jugovzhodna Slovenija (SI00D) in Slovenia – family workers account for more than half of the number of self-employed. Among these regions, a particularly significant contribution of family workers is observed in Latgale (LV005) where their number is almost equal to that of the self-employed. However, in several regions the number of family workers falls short for reliable estimates.

Part-time and temporary employment

A characteristic feature of the population's work patterns in the CECs is a relatively low incidence of part-time employment. Belonging to the inheritance of central planning which aimed at full mobilisation of available labour resources, this feature has undergone only limited change since the onset of transition. Among countries, overall levels of part-time employment are not markedly different (Graph 8). In the year 2001, Slovenia demonstrated the lowest incidence of part-time employment with 6.1%, followed by Estonia with 7.4%. The highest proportion of part-time work was observed in Latvia where it accounted for one tenth of total employment. Lithuania was also closer to the higher end with 8.7%.

Graph 8: ***Share of part-time employment***



As expected, differences in the incidence of part-time employment in the regions are much greater than on the country level. The extent of working less than full hours ranges from less than 3% in Notranjsko-Kraska (SI00A) in the south-west of Slovenia to 21.2% in Taurages (LT007) in northern Lithuania. However, there seems no clearly discernible and common pattern of regional variation.

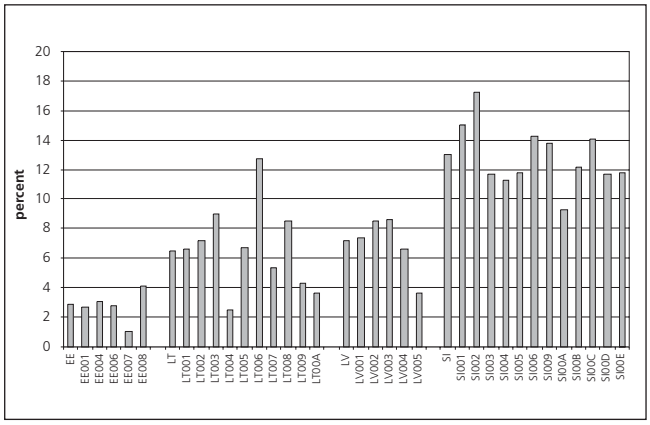
Across countries, Slovenia demonstrates the greatest similarity between the regions. In Estonia, part-time employment appears most common in Louna-Eesti (EE008), centred around the city of Tartu with one of the major

universities in the Baltic countries. The lowest levels can be found in the industrial region of Kirde-Eesti (EE007), on the one hand, and Kesk-Eesti (EE006) with a relatively large agricultural sector, on the other.

In Latvia, part-time employment is least prevalent in the capital region Riga (LV001), with other regions showing levels more than twice as high, except Kurzeme (LV003) at the coast. Lithuanian regions demonstrate the biggest variation from under 5% in Panevezio (LT005) to more than one fifth in Taurages, and it is interesting to note that Panevezio and Taurages are also the only regions where the gender pattern in the incidence of part-time employment is reversed. While part-time employment tends to be more common among women since it facilitates the combination of family responsibilities and work, the opposite appears to be the case in these two regions.

Compared to part-time work, inter-country variation in the spread of temporary employment is greater and follows a different pattern (Graph 9). Temporary jobs are most common in Slovenia where such arrangements accounted for 13.1% of all employees. This figure is the highest among transition countries, comparable to the average of EU member states. Estonia, in contrast, features the lowest incidence of temporary jobs among the CECs (2.8%). Latvia and Lithuania occupy intermediate positions with 7.1% and 6.5%, respectively. The extent of differences, however, does not necessarily imply a corresponding differentiation in job security. The observed pattern indicates rather a variation in legal regulatory frameworks and national practices. In Estonia, for example, the relatively short period of advance notification for dismissals explains why temporary contracts are quite rare.

Graph 9: ***Share of temporary employment***



Regional variation also indicates that there is no discernible relationship between the incidence of temporary employment, on the one hand, and unemployment levels and sectoral structure, on the other. Thus, the lowest share of temporary employment (1%) can be observed in Kirde-Eesti (EE007), an industrial region in the north-east of Estonia. Noticeably, the same region demonstrates the worst unemployment level in the country. The pattern appears fairly similar in Latvia, where the lowest level of temporary employment is found in Latgale (LV005), a bordering region with the Russian Federation which features an unemployment rate beyond 20%. Differences between other regions are relatively modest in Estonia as well as in Latvia.

Similar to part-time work, the largest regional differences with respect to temporary employment can be observed in Lithuania. Above-average shares of temporary jobs are found in Siauliu (LT006), followed by the service-oriented region of Klaipedos (LT003) and Telsiu (LT008) with strong industrial orientation. A quite similar pattern exists in Slovenia where the highest incidence of temporary jobs is found in Podravska (SI002) with the highest employment share of the secondary sector and high levels on unemployment, followed by the agricultural region Pomurska (SI001), but also the well-performing service region Obalno-Kraska (SI00C).

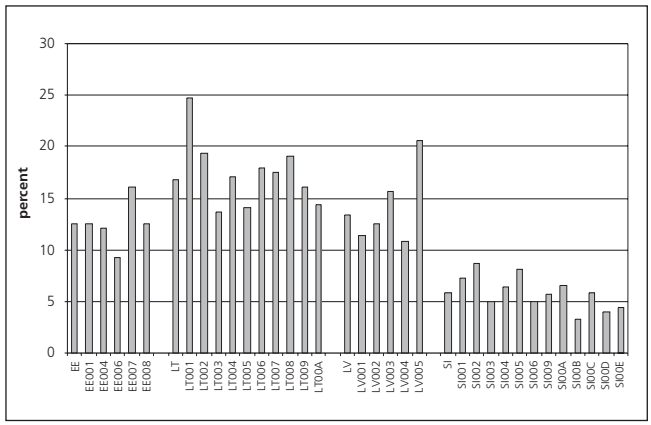
A separate analysis of the voluntary and involuntary components of both part-time and temporary employment for the level-3 units of these countries is not possible due to the lack of statistically reliable numbers for most regions.

Unemployment levels

Unemployment represents the explicit underutilisation of labour resources which requires consideration from an economic but also from the social point of view. Persistent unemployment brings considerable hardship to individuals and households, particularly against the background of extraordinary job security provided under central planning. For that reason the importance of monitoring unemployment and alleviating its consequences can hardly be overestimated under the regional perspective.

The incidence of unemployment – commonly measured as the proportion of those out of employment, seeking and ready to take up a job among the labour force – displays considerable variation across countries (Graph 10). In Slovenia, the unemployment rate appears remarkably low with only 5.8% of the labour force in the year 2001, being the lowest among the CECs as well as noticeably below the average of EU countries. The performance of the Baltic

Graph 10: ***Unemployment rates***



countries is clearly worse, with unemployment ranging from 12.6% in Estonia and 13.4% in Latvia to 16.8% in Lithuania, the fourth highest level observed in the CECs.

In the regions, the variation in joblessness is understandably even bigger. The lowest level is found in Goriska (SI00B) with an unemployment rate of 3.3%. At the other extreme, in Alytaus (LT001) close to one fourth (24.7%) of the labour force is out of employment and seeking a job.

Within individual countries, the regional variation of unemployment follows different patterns. In Estonia, unemployment is highest in Kirde-Eesti, EE007 (16.1%), with a pronounced industrial profile and a large immigrant population. Compared to the national average, the best performance is registered in Kesk-Eesti, EE006 (9.2%), which features a relatively large agricultural sector. Notably, this is also the only region outside Slovenia where unemployment remains below the 10%-level.

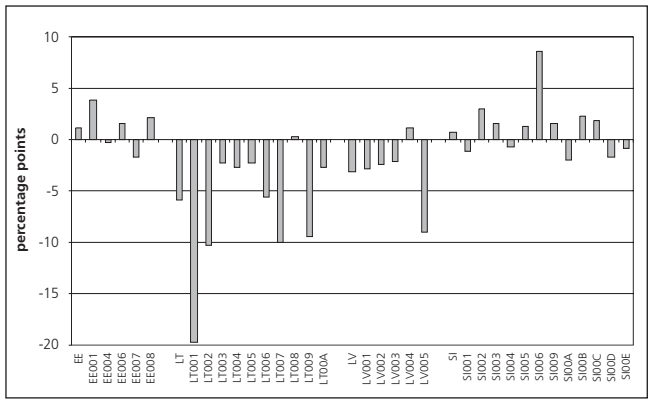
In the other two Baltic countries, regional variation in unemployment appears stronger. In Latvia, Latgale (LV005) on the border with Russia and Belorussia stands out with a very high joblessness, exceeding one fifth of the labour force (20.6%). Also in Kurzeme (LV003) the unemployment rate is clearly above the national average, whereas other regions are clustered around the level of 11–12%. In Lithuania, only three regions out of ten – the capital region Vilniaus (LT00A), Klaipedos (LT003) and Panevezio (LT005) – feature an unemployment rate below 15%. Notably, the second highest unemployment level can be found in Kauno (LT002), indicating a relatively big difference between the two major urban centres of the country.

Despite the comparatively low incidence of unemployment, discernible regional variation can also be observed in Slovenia. An unemployment rate noticeably above the national average is registered in Pomurska (SI001), Podravska (SI002) and Zasavska (SI005), reflecting the loss of jobs in industry and mining, but also in agriculture and forestry. Geographically, regions with higher unemployment levels tend to be concentrated in the eastern part of the country. Nevertheless, even the Slovenian region with the highest unemployment rate remains below the level of every region in the other countries.

Compared to the analysis of employment levels, the relatively small number of unemployed sets serious limits to disaggregations by age and gender. In particular, this prevents one from the systematic analysis of youth unemployment across countries. In Slovenia, for example, with a national youth unemployment rate of 15.7%, the estimates for all regions fail to meet the criteria of statistical reliability. In the Baltic countries, too, where youth unemployment ranges from 22.9% in Latvia and 24.5% in Estonia to 30.9% in Lithuania, the figures for most regions lie below or just above reliable limits.

Noticeable variation can also be observed with respect to gender differences in unemployment (Graph 11). In Estonia

Graph 11: ***Gender difference in unemployment rate, women-men***



and Slovenia the difference between the unemployment rate of working-age women and men is very small, with a slightly higher incidence of unemployment among women. In contrast, Latvia and particularly Lithuania have a stronger gender difference to the disadvantage of men.

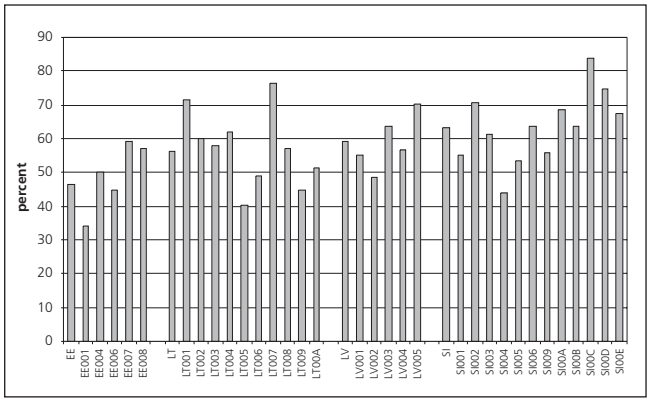
Regionally women seem to have the strongest disadvantage in Spodnjeposavska (SI006) in Slovenia, but the number of unemployed men in that region falls short for a valid conclusion. The second largest gender difference in the same direction can be found in Põhja-Eesti (EE001), the capital region of Estonia. The biggest excess of male unemployment – almost 20 percentage points – is registered in Alytaus (LT001). In Lithuania as well as Latvia, the regions with the largest gender difference tend to coincide with those featuring the highest unemployment rate. In other words, male unemployment appears to be primarily responsible for extremely high levels.

Long-term and registered unemployment

The severity of unemployment depends to a large degree on the time span over which failures in job search are experienced. For the individuals concerned short-term breaks in employment tend to be more easily acceptable than long-term unemployment which involves considerable social and economic strain. From the policy perspective, long-term unemployment has proven also much more difficult to cure since it typically stems from persistent structural imbalances and/or skill mismatches rather than passing cyclical factors. Moreover, long-term joblessness itself creates obstacles for market clearing mechanisms – the longer a person stays out of work, the less attractive he/she becomes to potential employers until giving up efforts to find employment.

In 2001 all four countries demonstrated a relatively high share of long-term unemployed, consistent with international recommendations the cut-off line between short and long-term unemployment being set at 12 months (Graph 12). The lowest proportion of long-term unemployed can be found in Estonia (46.6%), in the remaining countries more than half of the unemployed have been looking for a

Graph 12: ***Share of long-term unemployed***

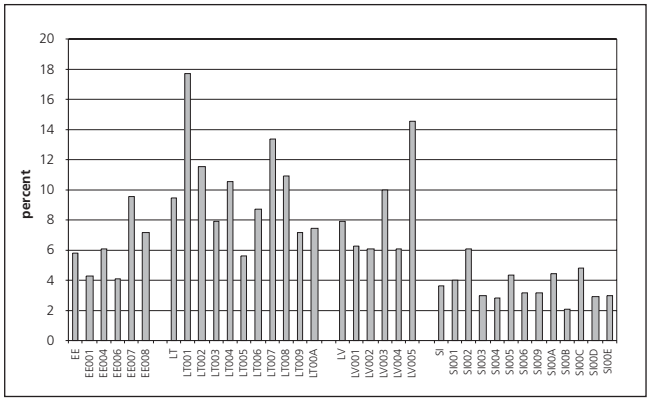


job for one year or more. The highest proportion of long-term unemployed was registered in Slovenia where the corresponding figure approached two thirds (63.3%), which is one of the highest levels observed among the CECs. Latvia and Lithuania form an intermediate group with the percentage of long-term unemployment somewhat below three fifths.

On the regional level, the share of long-term unemployed displays greater variation – from 34.3% in Pohja-Eesti (EE001) to 83.8% in Obalno-Kraska (SI00C). Substantial regional differences also exist within each individual country, with the strongest variation being demonstrated by Slovenia where the proportion of long-term unemployment ranges between 44.1% and 83.8%.

To assess the severity of long-term unemployment from the population perspective, it is necessary to consider not only the share of those seeking employment over long periods but also to take into account the incidence of long-term unemployment relative to the labour force. For that purpose, Graph 13 shows the long-term unemployment rate the for working-age population. Compared to the share of long-term jobseekers, this measure reveals a noticeably different picture. With respect to countries, the most important change concerns Slovenia which shifts from the very top right to the bottom of the ranking. In Slovenia, the long-term unemployed constitute 3.7% of the country's labour force. The highest long-term unemployment rate can

Graph 13: ***Long-term unemployment rates***

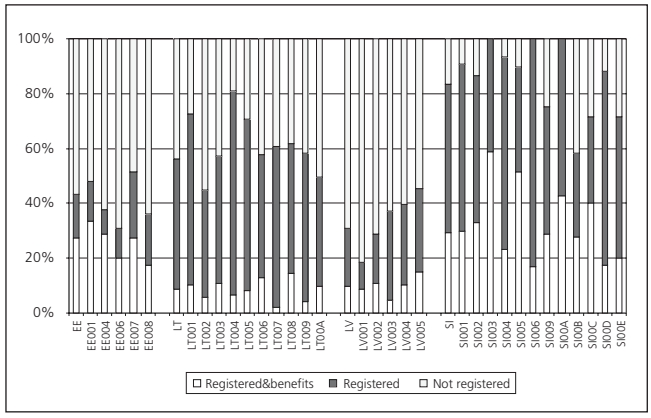


be found in Lithuania (9.4%), with Estonia (5.9%) and Latvia (7.9%) holding intermediate positions. Leaving aside a few exceptions, across regions the pattern resembles the variation of the general unemployment rate. Thus, the highest incidence of long-term unemployment is registered in Alytaus in Lithuania (17.7%) and the lowest level correspondingly in Goriska in Slovenia (2.1%)

In all countries, men have a higher incidence of long-term unemployed than women, but the small number of long-term unemployed, particularly in Slovenian regions, prevents the analysis by gender and age groups on the regional level.

With their complete coverage of unemployment existing in the population, LFSs also provide an insight into the extent to which jobseekers are supported by labour market institutions. From that perspective, three main categories of unemployed can be distinguished: those reporting to be registered and receiving benefits, registered but receiving no benefits, and not registered (Graph 14).

Graph 14: ***Registration and benefits***



Of the countries under examination, Slovenia features almost comprehensive registration (83.5%). In Lithuania, too, more than a half of the unemployed (57.2%) are registered. In Estonia and Latvia, the share of registered jobseekers is significantly lower with 43.1% and 33.2%, respectively. Across regions, the range extends from virtually complete registration in several regions of Slovenia (Koroska, SI003, Spodnjeposavska, SI006, and Notrjansko-Kraska, SI00A) to below 20% in the capital region of Latvia (LV001).

Interestingly, the registration of unemployment represents the only aspect of the labour market where the extent of intercountry variation clearly exceeds the corresponding variation within each individual country. This observation underlines the importance of national legislation and procedures governing unemployment registration. Evidently, the remarkably low shares of registration in Estonia and Latvia point to a relatively low level of assistance available which translates into a very small incentive for people to register.

Regarding the receipt of unemployment benefits, differences between the countries are smaller, and also the ranking appears somewhat modified. Slovenia again ranks first (29.2%), followed relatively closely by Estonia (27.2%). In Latvia and Lithuania the proportion of benefit recipients appears extremely low, with 9.9% and 9.5% of the unemployed, respectively.

In the regions, the differences are even more striking – in Koroska (SI003) close to 60% of the unemployed are entitled to benefits, whereas in several regions of Lithuania this number drops to 5% or below. With some exceptions, intercountry variation in the receipt of benefits tends to exceed that within individual countries.

From the methodological point of view this underlines that the influence of national legislation and procedures make registered unemployment statistics inappropriate for international comparisons of the level of unemployment. Similar to long-term unemployment, LFSs support the disaggregation of neither registered unemployment nor the receipt of benefits by gender and age groups.

Selected labour market indicators for level-3 regions in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia, 2001

Country Region	Code	Population			Employment				
		Total 1000	15–64 %	Depend-ency rate	(total) 15+ 1000	15–24 rate	25–54 rate	55–64 rate	15–64 rate
Estonia	**EE**	**1429**	**68.1**	**46.9**	**613**	**27.1**	**75.8**	**48.6**	**61.1**
Põhja-Eesti	EE001	538	68.6	45.9	251	37.4	77.7	53.1	65.1
Lääne-Eesti	EE004	186	66.3	50.8	72	23.4	73.9	43.1	57.6
Kesk-Eesti	EE006	152	69.1	44.8	69	15.8	81.8	51.0	63.2
Kirde-Eesti	EE007	192	71.7	39.6	77	18.7	71.5	45.6	55.7
Lõuna-Eesti	EE008	361	66.0	51.5	144	23.7	73.6	44.7	59.0
Lithuania	**LT**	**3693**	**67.0**	**49.2**	**1482**	**22.9**	**75.5**	**39.5**	**58.7**
Alytaus	LT001	202	68.0	47.1	73	19.5	69.7	34.5	52.5
Kauno	LT002	749	67.4	48.4	298	23.1	72.3	45.0	57.8
Klaipedos	LT003	403	66.7	50.0	173	26.7	78.6	50.2	63.3
Marijampoles	LT004	198	64.2	55.7	74	23.6	75.9	37.3	56.9
Panevezio	LT005	320	67.3	48.7	127	22.0	78.2	33.8	58.1
Siauliu	LT006	394	63.5	57.5	153	18.1	75.3	39.1	59.3
Taurages	LT007	142	63.4	57.6	56	(22.5)	74.6	42.7	59.9
Telsiu	LT008	189	63.7	56.9	67	23.4	73.7	29.6	55.4
Utenos	LT009	199	66.9	49.5	79	(10.5)	76.7	38.8	58.8
Vilniaus	LT00A	896	69.8	43.2	382	26.2	77.5	36.2	59.5
Latvia	**LV**	**2365**	**67.5**	**48.2**	**964**	**29.0**	**75.9**	**36.4**	**58.9**
Riga	LV001	959	69.6	43.6	423	31.6	79.5	37.1	62.1
Vidzeme	LV002	360	66.0	51.6	151	29.2	77.7	43.7	61.0
Kurzeme	LV003	321	67.2	48.8	125	29.1	73.3	37.5	56.9
Zemgale	LV004	345	64.1	56.0	138	26.4	77.2	42.5	60.2
Latgale	LV005	381	66.8	49.8	127	24.2	65.6	21.6	48.9
Slovenia	**SI**	**1991**	**70.3**	**42.2**	**914**	**30.3**	**83.8**	**23.4**	**63.6**
Pomurska	SI001	124	69.6	43.6	60	37.7	80.2	30.0	63.2
Podravska	SI002	320	71.2	40.5	141	29.6	79.3	24.5	60.7
Koroska	SI003	74	71.3	40.3	34	34.7	83.5	(16.2)	63.8
Savinjska	SI004	258	70.7	41.4	116	24.4	82.5	23.4	62.1
Zasavska	SI005	46	68.5	46.1	19	(23.8)	77.5	...	57.8
Spodnjeposavska	SI006	69	69.2	44.4	33	34.5	82.3	(33.9)	66.1
Gorenjska	SI009	197	70.4	42.1	91	32.3	87.5	16.8	63.4
Notranjsko-kraska	SI00A	50	69.1	44.7	23	(29.4)	86.7	...	65.5
Goriska	SI00B	119	69.4	44.1	55	30.6	88.0	(16.4)	65.3
Obalno-kraska	SI00C	104	70.5	41.9	48	28.5	83.5	(22.5)	65.3
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	SI00D	138	68.8	45.4	68	38.1	84.3	33.5	67.7
Osrednjeslovenska	SI00E	490	70.6	41.6	227	28.8	86.6	24.6	64.5

Selected labour market indicators for level-3 regions in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovenia, 2001

Country / Region	Code	Employment						Unemployment		
		primary %	second-ary %	tertiary %	self-empl. %	part-time %	tempo-rary %	(total) 15+ 1000	15–64 rate	long-term %
Estonia	**EE**	**8.2**	**33.1**	**58.7**	**6.7**	**7.4**	**2.8**	**87.0**	**12.6**	**46.6**
Põhja-Eesti	EE001	(1.0)	31.7	67.3	5.0	6.8	2.7	34.6	12.5	34.3
Lääne-Eesti	EE004	16.4	33.4	50.1	9.8	(8.6)	(3.1)	9.7	12.0	50.3
Kesk-Eesti	EE006	16.7	29.7	53.6	9.0	(5.0)	(2.7)	6.9	9.2	(44.9)
Kirde-Eesti	EE007	11.2	44.1	44.7	(3.6)	4.5	...	15.0	16.1	59.0
Lõuna-Eesti	EE008	11.1	31.1	57.8	8.7	10.4	4.1	20.8	12.6	57.1
Lithuania	**LT**	**16.8**	**26.9**	**56.3**	**16.0**	**8.7**	**6.5**	**293.1**	**16.8**	**56.2**
Alytaus	LT001	16.4	33.2	50.5	18.3	7.9	(6.6)	23.6	24.7	71.7
Kauno	LT002	9.2	30.0	60.8	8.4	8.0	7.2	69.7	19.3	60.0
Klaipedos	LT003	17.3	25.4	57.3	16.7	7.8	9.0	26.8	13.6	58.1
Marijampoles	LT004	28.4	29.0	42.6	24.6	7.8	...	14.8	17.0	62.0
Panevezio	LT005	20.6	28.3	51.1	18.2	5.1	6.7	20.4	14.0	40.2
Siauliu	LT006	30.5	19.6	49.9	21.4	14.8	12.8	32.5	17.9	48.9
Taurages	LT007	42.0	15.6	42.5	26.4	21.2	...	11.4	17.4	76.6
Telsiu	LT008	23.8	34.7	41.6	25.5	9.4	(8.5)	15.7	19.1	57.2
Utenos	LT009	13.3	33.4	53.4	15.8	8.4	(4.3)	15.0	16.1	44.6
Vilniaus	LT00A	9.5	24.9	65.6	13.2	6.8	3.6	62.8	14.4	51.6
Latvia	**LV**	**15.2**	**25.1**	**59.7**	**10.2**	**10.0**	**7.1**	**145.3**	**13.4**	**59.1**
Riga	LV001	2.9	26.9	70.2	7.8	6.4	7.4	53.6	11.4	55.0
Vidzeme	LV002	24.8	28.3	46.9	12.5	13.5	8.6	20.6	12.5	48.6
Kurzeme	LV003	22.4	25.3	52.3	11.1	9.6	8.6	22.9	15.7	63.8
Zemgale	LV004	30.3	20.2	49.6	14.0	14.8	6.6	16.0	10.7	56.6
Latgale	LV005	21.3	20.6	58.1	10.9	13.0	3.6	32.2	20.6	70.4
Slovenia	**SI**	**10.4**	**37.6**	**52.0**	**11.9**	**6.1**	**13.1**	**55.1**	**5.8**	**63.3**
Pomurska	SI001	24.6	39.4	35.9	16.1	6.4	15.0	4.3	7.3	(55.1)
Podravska	SI002	11.8	33.9	54.4	13.9	5.9	17.2	13.1	8.6	70.7
Koroska	SI003	10.4	47.1	42.5	15.3	(6.2)	(11.7)	(1.7)	(4.9)	(61.2)
Savinjska	SI004	13.8	42.1	44.2	11.3	6.0	11.3	7.7	6.4	44.1
Zasavska	SI005	(12.8)	46.4	40.9	...	...	11.7	(1.6)	(8.2)	...
Spodnjeposavska	SI006	17.8	40.0	42.2	13.0	(8.5)	(14.3)	(1.7)	(5.0)	(63.7)
Gorenjska	SI009	7.4	45.5	47.1	10.3	8.0	13.8	5.3	5.7	(56.1)
Notranjsko-kraska	SI00A	(5.2)	46.6	48.2	(5.6)	...	(9.3)	(1.6)	(6.5)	(68.6)
Goriska	SI00B	8.1	45.0	46.9	12.7	6.8	12.2	(1.8)	(3.3)	(63.6)
Obalno-kraska	SI00C	3.0	24.9	72.1	11.3	(5.5)	14.1	(3.1)	(5.8)	(83.8)
Jugovzhodna Slovenija	SI00D	14.7	45.6	39.7	11.0	5.9	11.7	(2.6)	(3.9)	(74.7)
Osrednjeslovenska	SI00E	5.5	29.1	65.4	11.1	5.5	11.8	10.4	4.5	67.3

Bulgaria	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**
Population										
total (2000: 15+)	1000				6832	3266	3566	7933	3848	4085
age group 15–64	1000				5502	2687	2815	5366	2630	2736
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000				2872	1532	1341	2752	1431	1321
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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	44.8	45.5	43.4
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000				556	304	252	684	377	307
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

Czech Republic	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**
Population										
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
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	4716	2644	2071	4675	2623	2052	4701	2638	2063
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	437	204	233	449	207	242	409	190	220
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

Estonia	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**
Population										
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
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	615	315	300	604	309	295	613	320	293
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	81	47	34	92	53	39	87	43	44
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

Hungary	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**
Population										
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
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	3785	2081	1703	3807	2092	1715	3835	2113	1722
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	282	169	113	267	162	105	231	142	88
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

Lithuania	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**
Population										
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
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	1613	831	782	1525	757	767	1482	733	749
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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	40.0	41.0	38.3	39.9	40.6	38.9	39.5	40.3	38.4
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	183	104	79	281	165	116	293	176	117
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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**
Population										
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
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	997	525	472	968	503	466	964	484	479
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	159	86	73	161	89	72	145	83	63
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

Poland	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	-2.8	+23.5	+4.1	-2.8	+35.2	+4.0	-1.8	+13.4
	unit	**1999**			**2000**			**2001**		
		all	**male**	**female**	**all**	**male**	**female**	**all**	**male**	**female**
Population										
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
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	14940	8164	6776	14518	7975	6543	14252	7782	6470
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	2093	1066	1028	2830	1362	1468	3208	1589	1619
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

Romania	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**
Population										
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
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	11022	5808	5214	10898	5750	5148	10807	5712	5095
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	733	428	305	816	466	351	758	433	326
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

Slovenia	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**
Population										
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
age group 15+ by education										
< 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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	889	480	409	894	481	413	914	497	417
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	70	37	33	66	35	31	55	28	27
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

Slovakia	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**
Population										
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
dependency and activity										
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
Employment										
total (15+)	1000	2128	1159	969	2083	1125	958	2116	1138	978
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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
by economic activity										
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
usual weekly hours										
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
Unemployment										
total (15+)	1000	404	220	183	491	271	219	509	286	223
by age groups										
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
by education										
< 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

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 (%)
Bulgaria	**2000**	**6832**	**5502**	**2872**	**51.5**	**56.1**	**47.2**	**13.2**	**32.8**	**54.0**
	2001	**7933**	**5366**	**2752**	**50.7**	**53.6**	**47.9**	**9.7**	**32.7**	**57.6**
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
Czech Republic	**2000**	**10222**	**7111**	**4675**	**64.9**	**73.1**	**56.8**	**5.2**	**39.9**	**54.8**
	2001	**10216**	**7142**	**4701**	**65.0**	**73.2**	**57.0**	**4.9**	**40.5**	**54.6**
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
Estonia	**2000**	**1430**	**972**	**604**	**60.6**	**64.3**	**57.1**	**7.0**	**34.7**	**58.3**
	2001	**1429**	**973**	**613**	**61.1**	**65.6**	**56.9**	**7.1**	**34.2**	**58.7**
Hungary	**2000**	**9927**	**6760**	**3807**	**55.9**	**62.7**	**49.4**	**6.5**	**33.8**	**59.8**
	2001	**9900**	**6776**	**3835**	**56.3**	**63.3**	**49.6**	**6.1**	**34.5**	**59.4**
Közep-Magyarorszag	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-Magyarorszag	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
Lithuania	**2000**	**2967**	**2472**	**1525**	**60.1**	**61.8**	**58.5**	**18.4**	**27.4**	**54.2**
	2001	**2981**	**2478**	**1482**	**58.6**	**59.8**	**57.4**	**16.5**	**27.2**	**56.3**
Latvia	**2000**	**2424**	**1637**	**968**	**57.7**	**62.3**	**53.5**	**14.4**	**26.8**	**58.7**
	2001	**2365**	**1596**	**964**	**58.9**	**61.9**	**56.1**	**15.1**	**25.3**	**59.6**

Employment			Unemployment							
self-employed (% of total)	temporary (% of employees)	part-time (% of total)	total (1000)	all 15–64 (rate)	males 15–64 (rate)	females 15–64 (rate)	youth unempl. (rate)	long-term unempl. (% of total)	Year	Country / Region
14.6			**556.0**	**16.4**	**16.8**	**15.9**	**33.3**	**58.4**	**2000**	**Bulgaria**
13.6	**6.2**	**3.2**	**683.9**	**20.0**	**21.0**	**19.0**	**39.3**	**62.6**	**2001**	
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	
14.5	**8.1**	**5.3**	**449.0**	**8.8**	**7.4**	**10.6**	**17.0**	**49.1**	**2000**	**Czech Republic**
14.6	**8.1**	**4.9**	**409.1**	**8.1**	**6.8**	**9.6**	**16.3**	**51.5**	**2001**	
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	Severovychod
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	Jihovychod
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	
8.1	**2.3**	**6.7**	**92.0**	**13.5**	**15.0**	**11.8**	**23.7**	**47.4**	**2000**	**Estonia**
6.7	**2.8**	**7.4**	**87.0**	**12.6**	**12.0**	**13.2**	**24.5**	**46.6**	**2001**	
14.5	**6.9**	**3.2**	**267.4**	**6.6**	**7.2**	**5.8**	**12.3**	**47.8**	**2000**	**Hungary**
13.9	**7.5**	**3.1**	**230.7**	**5.7**	**6.3**	**4.9**	**10.5**	**44.8**	**2001**	
15.0	4.9	3.4	68.1	5.5	5.9	5.1	11.6	49.4	2000	Közep-Magyarorszag
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-Magyarorszag
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	
15.9	**3.7**	**8.6**	**281.0**	**15.9**	**18.2**	**13.5**	**27.5**	**52.4**	**2000**	**Lithuania**
15.9	**6.5**	**8.7**	**293.1**	**16.8**	**19.7**	**13.8**	**30.9**	**56.2**	**2001**	
10.6	**6.7**	**10.7**	**160.6**	**14.5**	**15.3**	**13.6**	**21.4**	**56.9**	**2000**	**Latvia**
10.2	**7.1**	**10.0**	**145.3**	**13.4**	**14.9**	**11.8**	**22.9**	**59.1**	**2001**	

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 (%)
Poland	**2000**	**30535**	**25652**	**14518**	**55.1**	**61.2**	**49.3**	**18.7**	**31.1**	**50.3**
	2001	**30794**	**25819**	**14252**	**53.8**	**59.2**	**48.4**	**19.2**	**30.7**	**50.1**
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
Romania	**2000**	**22338**	**15213**	**10898**	**64.2**	**69.5**	**59.0**	**45.2**	**25.8**	**29.0**
	2001	**22345**	**15278**	**10807**	**63.3**	**68.6**	**58.2**	**44.4**	**25.8**	**29.7**
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
Slovenia	**2000**	**1988**	**1393**	**894**	**62.7**	**66.7**	**58.5**	**9.6**	**37.7**	**52.7**
	2001	**1991**	**1400**	**914**	**63.6**	**68.5**	**58.6**	**9.9**	**38.6**	**51.4**
Slovak Republic	**2000**	**5377**	**3691**	**2083**	**56.3**	**61.6**	**51.1**	**6.9**	**37.3**	**55.8**
	2001	**5376**	**3720**	**2116**	**56.7**	**61.8**	**51.8**	**6.3**	**37.1**	**56.7**
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							
self-employed (% of total)	temporary (% of employees)	part-time (% of total)	total (1000)	all 15–64 (rate)	males 15–64 (rate)	females 15–64 (rate)	youth unempl. (rate)	long-term unempl. (% of total)	Year	Country / Region
22.5	**5.8**	**10.6**	**2829.9**	**16.6**	**14.8**	**18.6**	**35.7**	**44.7**	**2000**	**Poland**
22.5	**11.9**	**10.2**	**3208.0**	**18.7**	**17.3**	**20.4**	**41.5**	**50.1**	**2001**	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
25.4	**2.9**	**16.4**	**816.1**	**7.7**	**8.2**	**7.1**	**17.8**	**49.2**	**2000**	**Romania**
25.7	**3.0**	**16.8**	**758.5**	**7.3**	**7.7**	**6.8**	**17.6**	**48.6**	**2001**	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
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	
11.2	**12.9**	**6.1**	**66.4**	**7.1**	**6.9**	**7.2**	**16.4**	**62.7**	**2000**	**Slovenia**
11.8	**13.1**	**6.1**	**55.1**	**5.8**	**5.5**	**6.2**	**15.7**	**63.3**	**2001**	
7.8	**4.0**	**1.7**	**490.6**	**19.1**	**19.5**	**18.6**	**36.9**	**53.8**	**2000**	**Slovak Republic**
8.4	**5.0**	**2.4**	**508.7**	**19.4**	**20.1**	**18.6**	**38.9**	**58.3**	**2001**	
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	
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	
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	
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	

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
EKDK	Eesti Korgkoolidevaheline Demouuringute Keskus, Tallinn
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

Concepts and Classifications

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICSE	International Classification of Status in Employment
ISIC	International Standard Industrial Classification
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
LFS	Labour Force Survey
NACE	Nomenclature general des Activités Économiques dans les Communeautés Européennes
NUTS	Nomenclature des Unités Territoriales pour Statistiques

Methodological notes

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

Reference period

The LFS data included here generally refer to the second quarter of 1999, 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.

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 2002/2003 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 was 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. Thus, the results presented here for Latvia are not yet based on LFS data revised according to the latest national population census.

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).