



flexibility@work

global  
mobility

and

labor  
migration.

 randstad

human forward.



people  
to jobs

jobs to  
people.

# flexibility@work contents.



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people to jobs, jobs to people.

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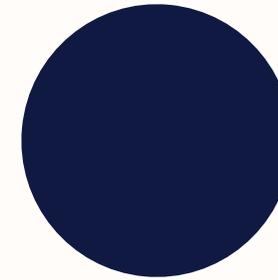
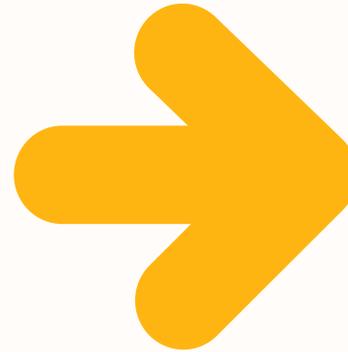
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# preface.



Significant talent challenges are looming over the next decade. In many countries and sectors shortages of available talent are already being felt. Economic growth expectations coinciding with projected waves of retirements will force employers to find, attract and retain scarce talent. Part of the solution to these skill shortages could be well-managed talent mobility of those who have the right skills.

The changes we are experiencing in this digital age raise profound issues on how to adapt labor market policy and institutions, including global mobility, decent flexible work arrangements and social security, in order to provide adequate security for workers while exploiting the potential of the new ways of working to enhance opportunities. Labor migration issues in particular, raise complex and sensitive political, human rights, economic and social concerns, as well as an array of legal and regulatory challenges. Migration

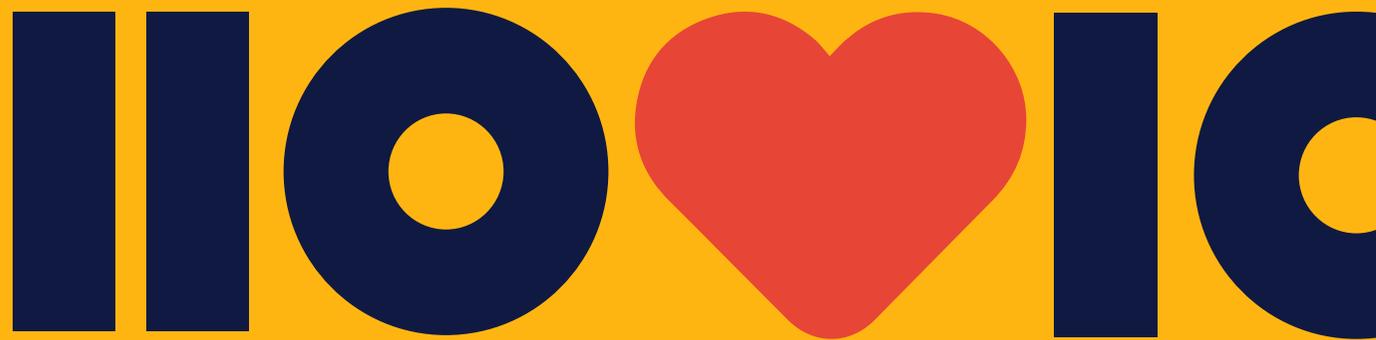
accordingly occupies a prominent place on both national and multilateral policy agendas, and in public discourse and debate.

Randstad is pleased to attribute to the public discourse with the 'People to Jobs, Jobs to People' research. Commissioned by Randstad, the IZA Institute of Labor Economics in Bonn has studied the determinants of worker migration, highlight expected changes in labor supply of targeted migration flows and offer a comprehensive discussion of firms' (re)location choices to investigate the potential of job flows in response to skills shortages.

Our aim in presenting this accompanying paper in this edition of flexibility@work is a summary of the research and put it in context to help organizations and policymakers to better understand the shifts currently taking place in the global labor market and how talent mobility can help us address some of the challenges ahead.

Jacques van den Broek,  
CEO Randstad

people  
to jobs



jobs to  
people

a randstad summary.

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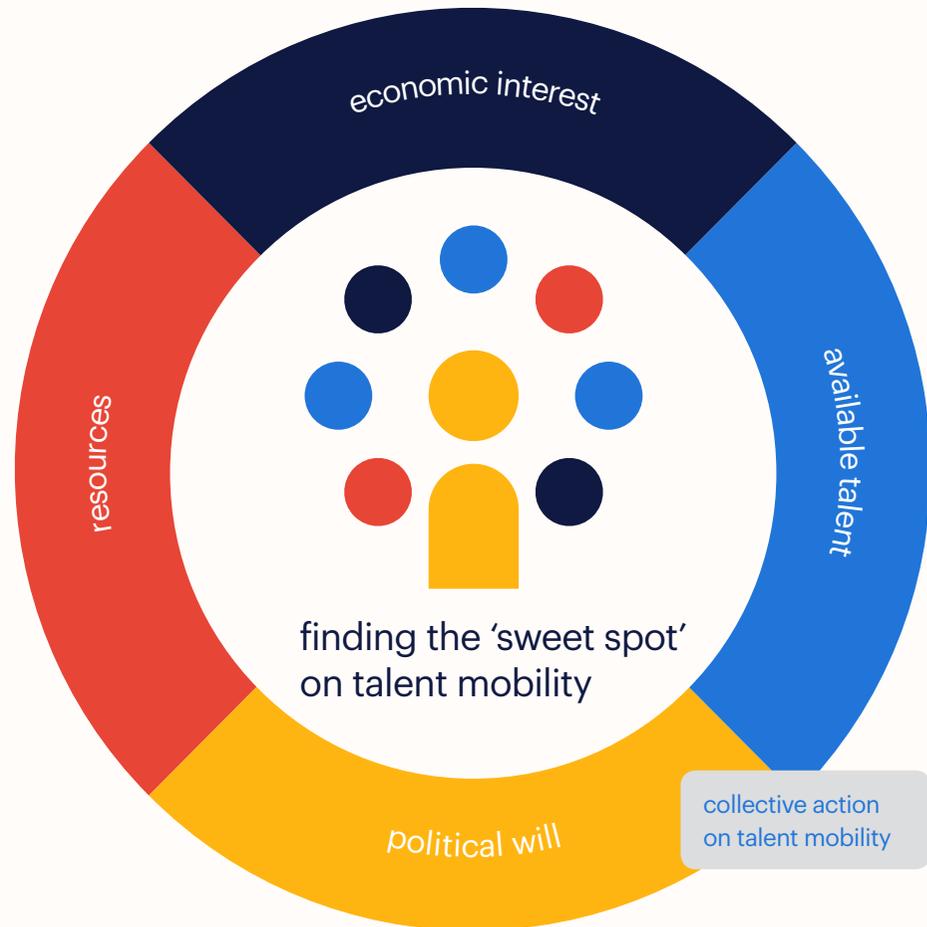


# introduction.

The Information Age is affecting the workforce in several ways. The balance among employment sectors – and the kinds of skills they require – has been shifting. As a result, a mismatch has arisen between the skills that are in demand on the labor markets and those that are available.

## training or managed migration

Traditionally, one way of solving such mismatches between the supply and demand of skills has been to train people at the desired location to acquire the missing skills and then supply them. Of course, such reskilling can play an important part in solving the problem, but, realistically, it is not enough. A complementary solution to the mismatch could be the managed migration of those who have the right skills. Viewed in this light, the real problem for the world economy is not a global shortage of skills (mostly in STEM: Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) but a location mismatch between employers and employees. Talented people are often not in a position to move to where the jobs are. The global labor market is already here, but we need to manage it better to make it work effectively.



### profound impact

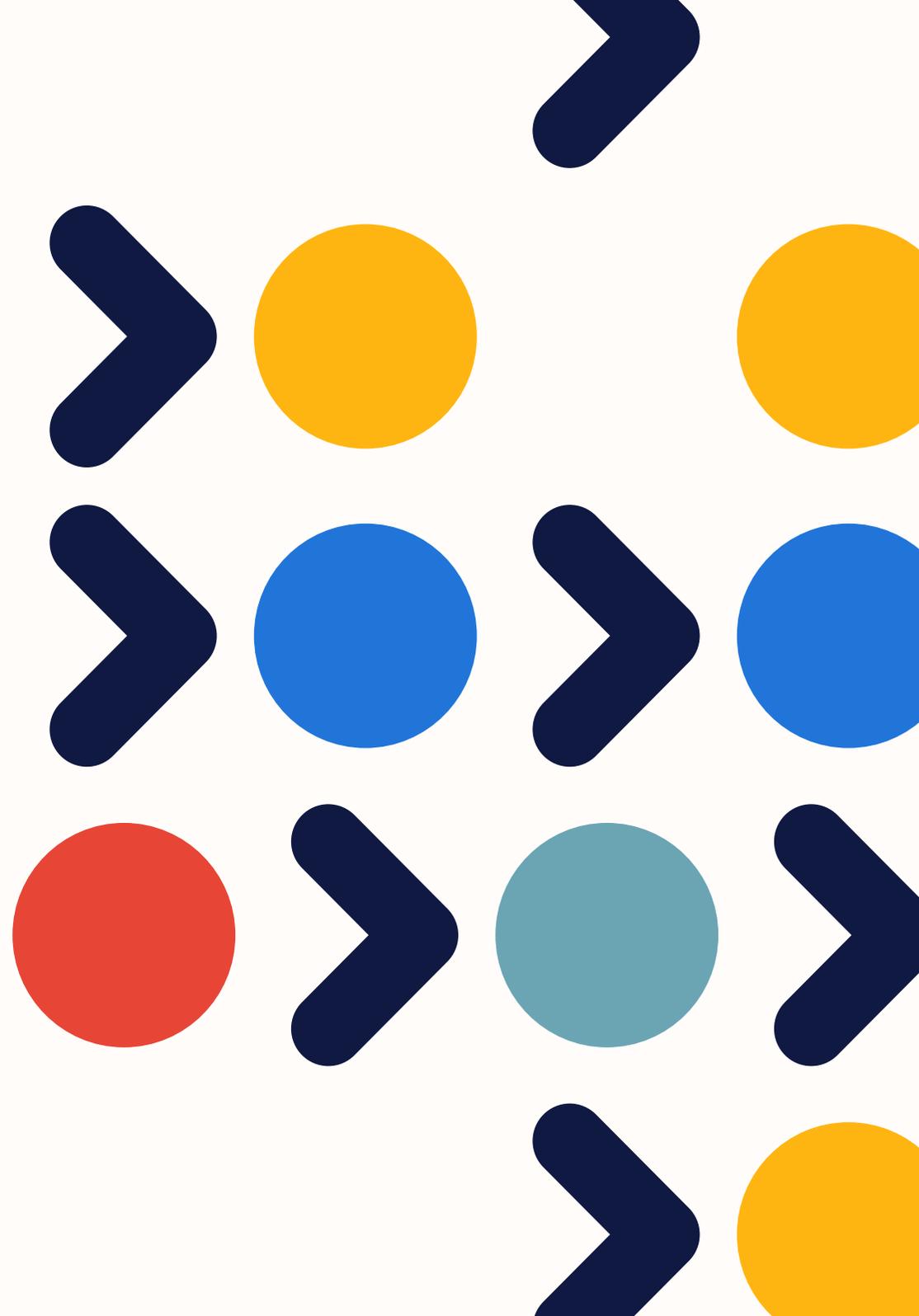
Of course, labor migration is by no means a new phenomenon. The movement of labor locally, regionally and globally has always been an important dynamic in every economy. Without it, there would be huge skills mismatches everywhere. Certainly, in many developed markets, the demographics are clear: without a steady inflow of workers and skills from elsewhere, they face an impending talent crisis as their population becomes older. Now, as global attention turns to controlling migration, there has never been a more important time for us all to make sure we clearly understand how policy-making can have a profound impact on the well-being of a labor market.

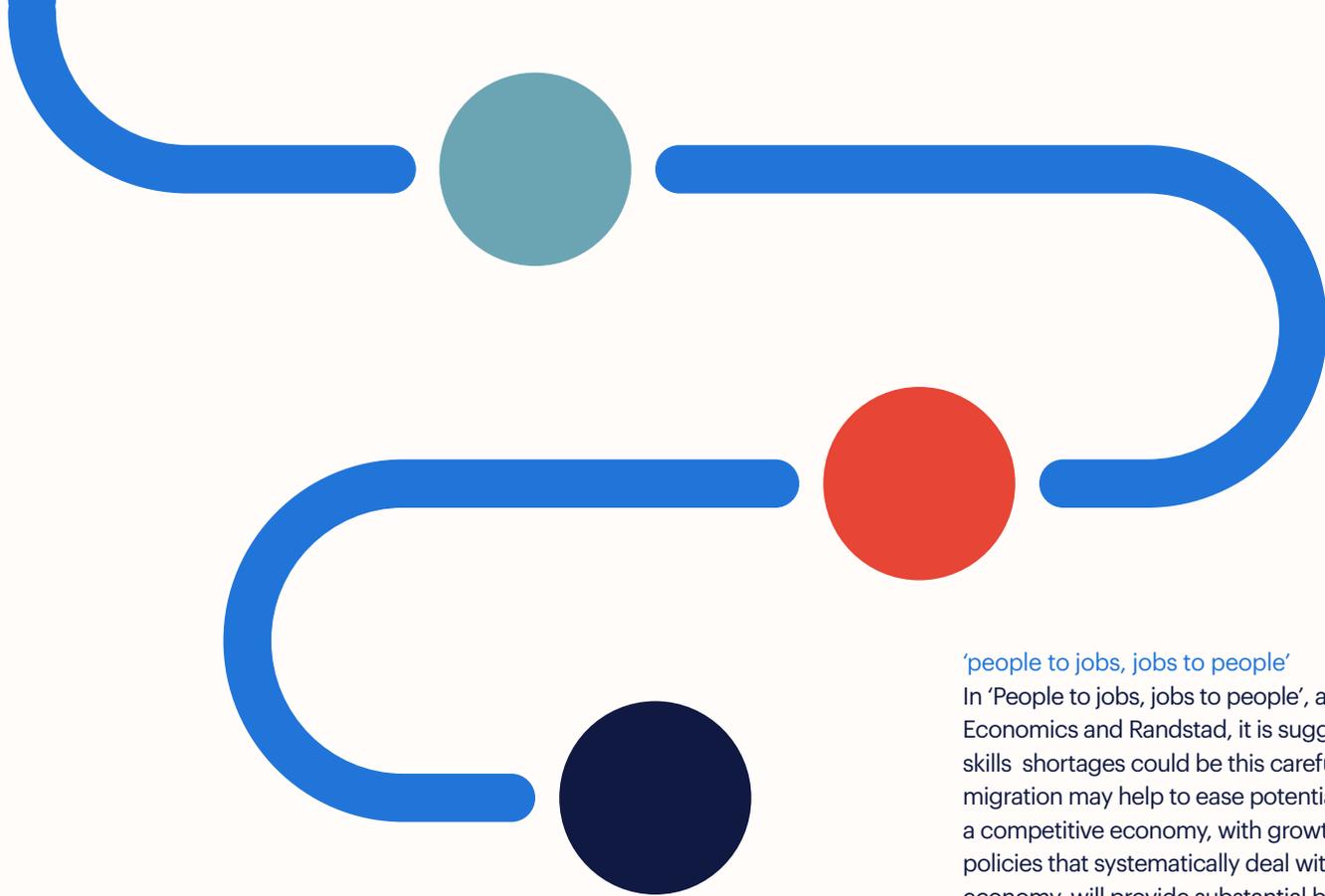
### 'people to jobs, jobs to people'

In 'People to jobs, jobs to people', a research project carried out by IZA Institute of Labor Economics and Randstad, it is suggested that one effective way of offsetting impending skills shortages could be this careful management of skilled migrants. Facilitating labor migration may help to ease potential labor shortages substantially, and contribute to a competitive economy, with growth and jobs. Coherent migration policies, especially policies that systematically deal with skill-specific demands on the part of the national economy, will provide substantial benefits. Already, for many companies, access to qualified personnel is a key determinant in deciding where to locate their activities. Given the expected demographic developments in Western societies, paired with the technological progress being made in many non-Western countries, this trend can only be expected to increase over the coming years.

### categories of migrants

In this paper, we are concerned with skilled migrants who enter a given country legally and have the necessary documents to enable them to work. They should not be confused with other types of migrants, such as refugees or asylum seekers fleeing conflict and persecution, or with those who enter and try to stay in the country illegally, for whatever reason. However, that does not mean that businesses or employers have no responsibility with respect to these groups who appear on the labor market of the country in which they find themselves. We believe that companies should undertake activities to support those who are legal migrants to find their way on to the job market in an appropriate way.





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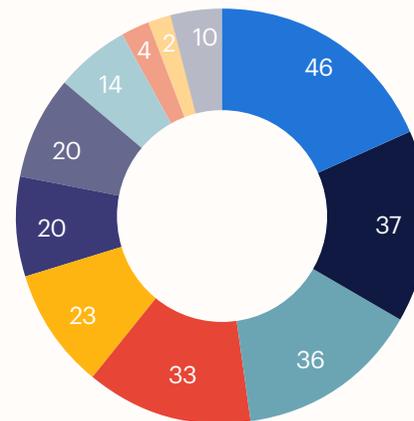
# patterns of migration.

In 2015, approximately 244 million people were living in a country other than the country they were born in. Most of them had gravitated to places where they believed they would find jobs and opportunities. Approximately 65 percent of them were residing in developed economies. In fact, about half of all migrants globally had moved from developing to developed countries, making this the fastest-growing type of migration flow.

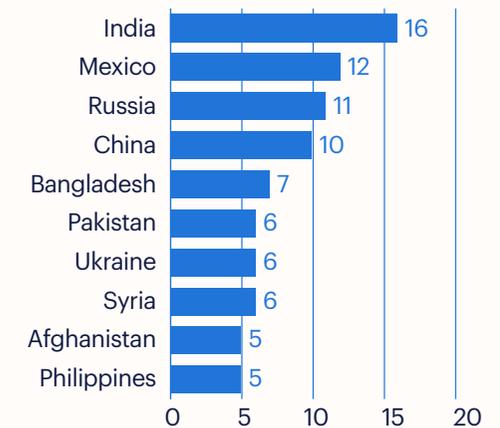
## origins and destination

Where did these people come from? Roughly 80 percent of the world's migrants originally hail from developing regions. The top three regions of origin are developing Latin America, developing Eastern Europe, and Central Asia. The leading countries of origin, for their part, are the Middle East and North Africa, India, Mexico, and China. Although migrants come from all corners of the globe, their destinations are more concentrated. Just five regions – Western Europe, North America, the Gulf States, Oceania, and developed East and Southeast Asia – have collectively attracted 87 percent of the 160 million migrants who reside in developed destinations. In sheer numbers, the United States tops the list of destinations. In 2015, it was home to some 47 million immigrants.

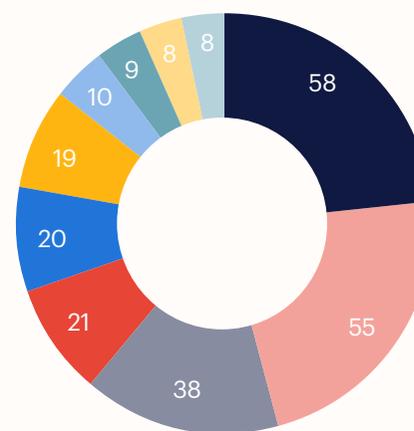
origin of migrants (millions)



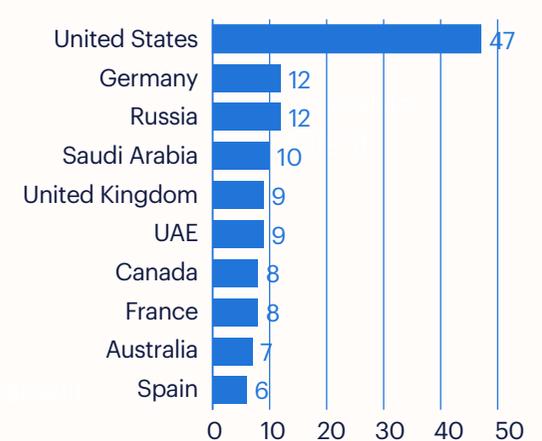
top 10 countries



destination of migrants (millions)

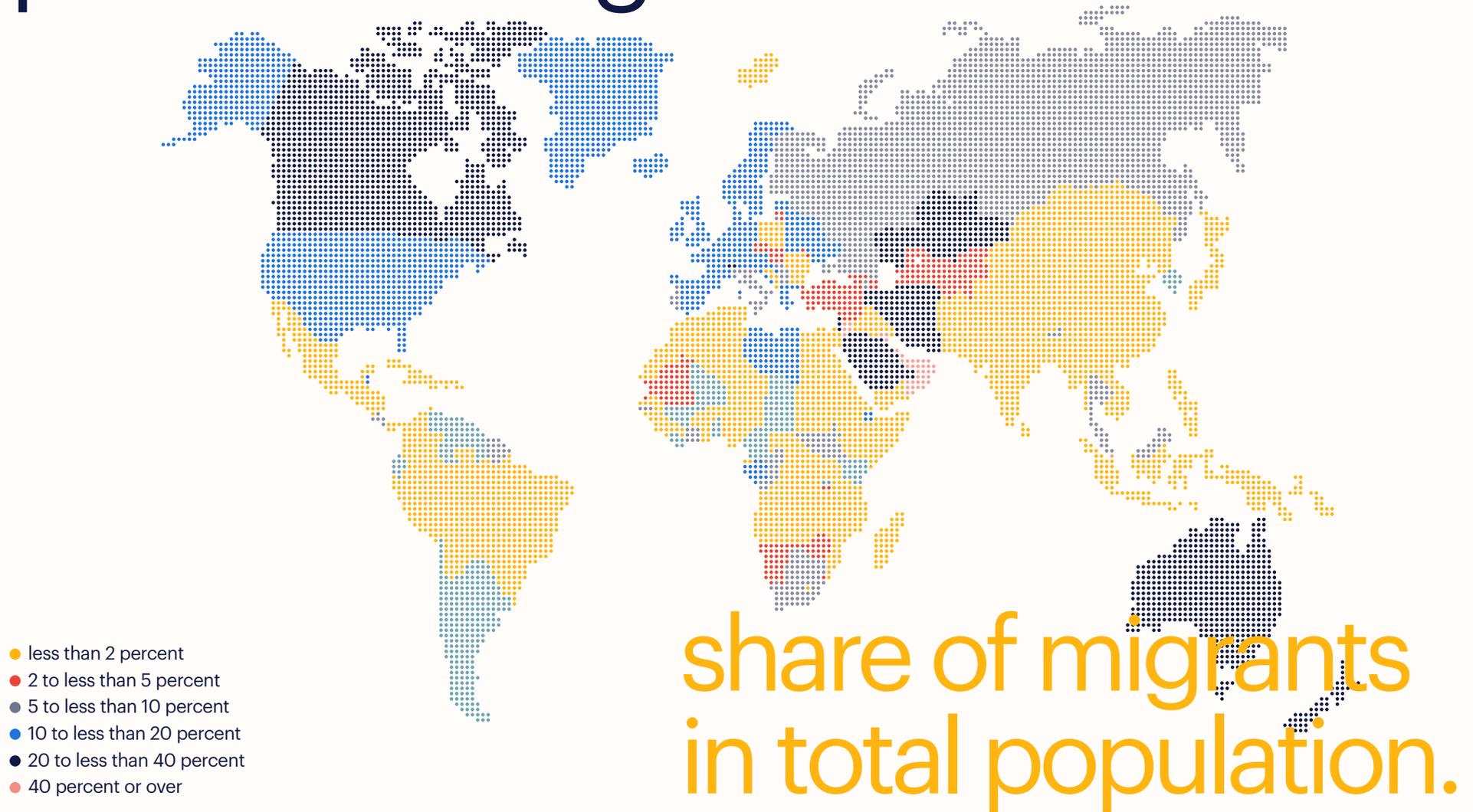


top 10 countries



- South-Central Asia
- European Union
- Latin America
- Africa
- Rest of Europe
- South-Eastern Asia
- Western Asia
- Eastern Asia
- Northern America
- Oceania
- Undefined

# patterns of migration



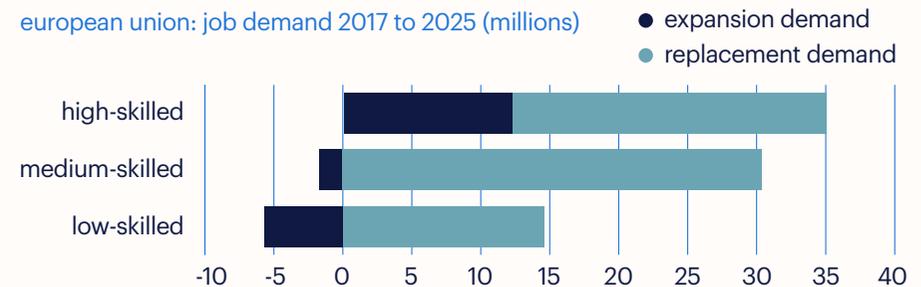
# demographic challenge.

Many advanced countries around the world are facing what has been called a “demographic time-bomb”. Large numbers of workers are beginning to retire as the post-World War 2 generation turns 65. At the same time, birth rates are falling. On top of this, the workforces in these countries are experiencing severe skills shortages. Naturally, governments and businesses are concerned about how this situation will affect their own economies. In the Northern hemisphere, the expected talent gaps will be caused mainly by demographic shifts – notably, the retirement of baby boomers. For example in the United States, Germany, Canada and the United Kingdom, but also in Japan and China expected birth rates will not balance the workforce losses caused by aging populations.

## funding pensions and healthcare

An aging population will pose a challenge for public budget and pension systems and also for healthcare systems. Improving the old-age-dependency ratio is of critical importance to countries like Germany, Spain, Canada, and the United an important part in solving the problem, but, realistically, it is not enough.

european union: job demand 2017 to 2025 (millions)



A Kingdom, where most public pensions have a pay-as-you-go structure, and worsening dependency ratios threaten to make many pension plans unsustainable. The falling share of the population at what are traditionally productive ages means that relatively fewer people will pay taxes and social contributions at a time when the rising proportion of elderly people implies that more people will be receiving pensions and need costly health services. In response, many countries have implemented reforms, such as a rise in the retirement age, designed to slow down the rate at which pension costs rise. More serious concerns relate to public healthcare expenditures, which, in most countries, are rising faster than pension expenditures.

## skilled migrants as driver of labor market growth

For many countries facing dire demographic changes, there is little they can do about the aging of their population. While some countries have started encouraging their younger citizens to have more children, these efforts are unlikely to make much difference in growing their indigenous workforce. Government incentives, such as tax credits and free childcare services, are often unable to overcome shifting societal attitudes and economic conditions. A more effective approach to ensuring a sufficient workforce is to develop a sound migration policy that attracts the talent the country needs. The presence of both first-and second-generation migrants can help combat such unfavorable demographic trends, particularly because migrant groups tend to be young and have higher fertility rates than native-born populations in these countries.

# demographic challenge

## population growth 2015-2030.



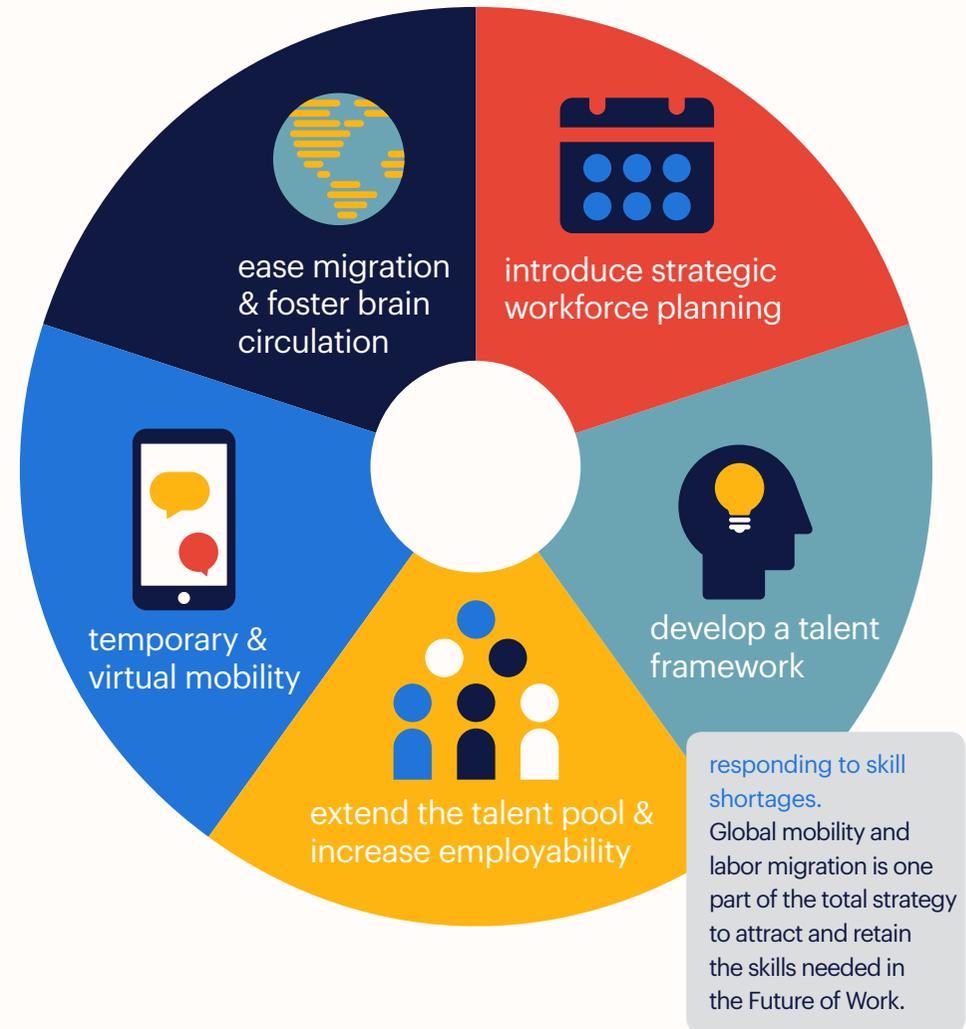
- baseline (in millions)
- no migration (in millions)

# global skills mismatch.

The growing skills gap around the world is spurring leaders in many sectors to sit up and take action. Companies are expending more effort to acquire talent and retrain employees. Governments are boosting spending on similar programs. Academic institutions are actively steering students into future-safe careers. Never before have the private and public sectors been more collaborative in addressing a looming workforce challenge.

## closing the skills gap

Nevertheless, the skills gap continues to grow. What does the inability to close the skills gap mean for markets around the world? In the United States, billions of dollars are lost each year in productivity because companies can't fill vacancies. Last year, the U.K. Science and Technology Committee within the House of Commons found that a digital skills gap cost the country's economy £63 billion. Retention is a growing problem in Asia as talent mobility rises, leading to pressures on companies in the region. As the gap grows, repercussions can be expected to grow louder. The problem is being exacerbated by the fast-moving, global, post-digital economy, which seems to transform so often and so quickly that the skills of today's university graduates are already obsolete by the time they join the workforce. Today, huge gaps exist in some of the most dynamic sectors, such as IT, engineering and healthcare. At the same time, large portions of the population in industrialized nations are facing unemployment and underemployment due to factors such as offshoring and automation. So while in some industries the skills gap is rising, in others it is negligible.



# global skills mismatch.

## reskilling – or something more?

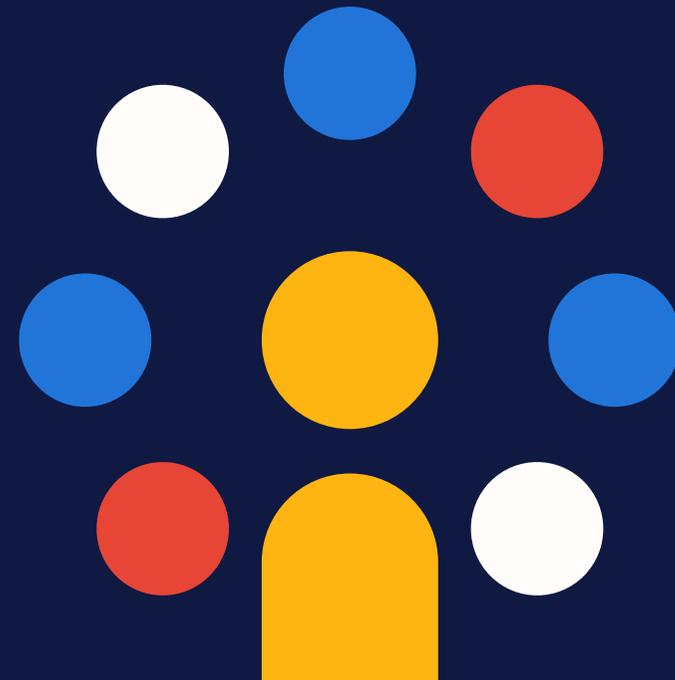
So what is the answer to resolving the skills-gap dilemma? The future of the global economy rests on the efficacy of a number of solutions. These include retraining existing workers, encouraging students to pursue new-economy careers, enticing older workers to remain active in the workforce, utilizing more contingent workers and turning to robotics and automation. Businesses and governments are engaged in multiple partnerships to close this skills gap to ensure that all those who are willing to work will have opportunities to do so. Such efforts include educational reform, apprenticeships, diversity and inclusion programs, and reforms to labor market policies. Reskilling is, of course, an important element in this whole, but realistically, on its own, it is not enough. Mobility of talent across borders is a small but important piece of maximizing global economic opportunity.

## the effect of migration on economic growth

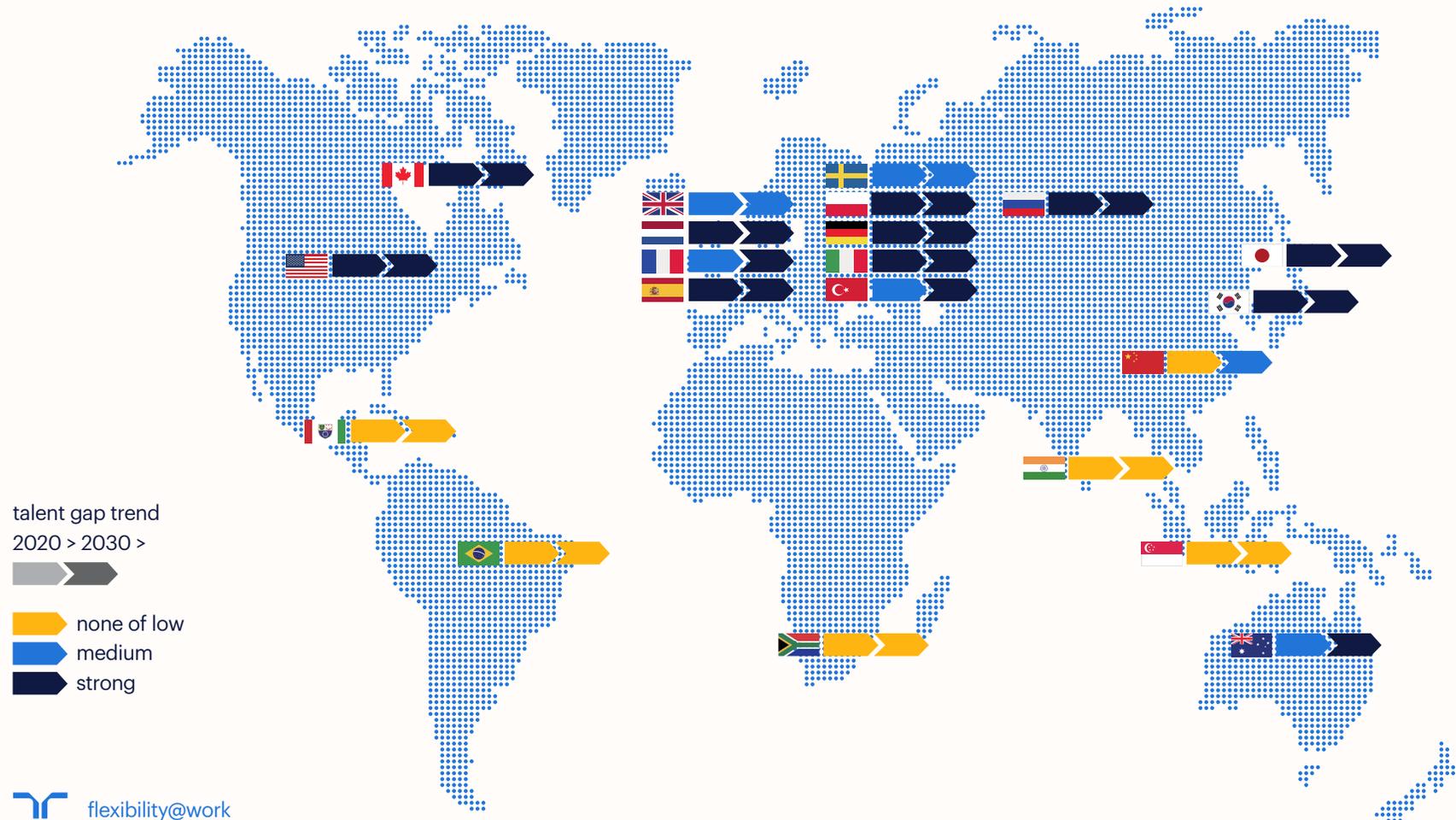
When workers move to higher-productivity settings, global GDP is boosted. McKinsey Global Institute for instance, estimates that migrants contributed roughly \$6.7 trillion, or 9.4 percent, to global GDP in 2015. Both high- and low-skilled immigrants contribute to productivity and labor force growth in destination countries. Migrants of all skill levels have a positive impact on productivity. In fact, according to these estimates, the contribution to global GDP output made by low- and medium-skilled migrants together is about the same as that of high-skilled migrants.

## the benefits of a diverse workforce

In the increasingly global marketplace, organizations have many choices when it comes to talent. Aided by labor mobility and migration, dissolving borders and the proliferation of virtual workplaces, many companies no longer feel bound by geography when seeking out the critical skills they need. With an ever-expanding talent pool, they can source the best from anywhere around the world. This newly found freedom often comes with an overlooked benefit: greater workforce diversity. As companies seek out talent around the world, they will inevitably gain from a more diverse group of workers, whose varying race, gender, ethnic background, age, and sexual orientation give their employers interesting new viewpoints. With a more diverse workforce, companies become more representative of their customer base, tend to be more innovative in their thinking and produce stronger business outcomes as a result. Despite the obvious benefits of diversity, many organizations are still finding it difficult to attract more talent from among minority groups. It is, however, encouraging that they are trying, and as they increasingly look around the globe for talent, they are increasingly likely to be more inclusive in their hiring practices



# global skills mismatch global location mismatch of skills.



# people to jobs

Migration has recently become political tinder. It is therefore high time for organizations and policymakers to make sure that they fully understand the dynamics of talent mobility and the impact it has on developing and mature economies. This has become an issue for markets worldwide, because the way immigration is viewed and controlled could have significant reverberations on markets for generations to come.

## Randstad attributes to the public discourse

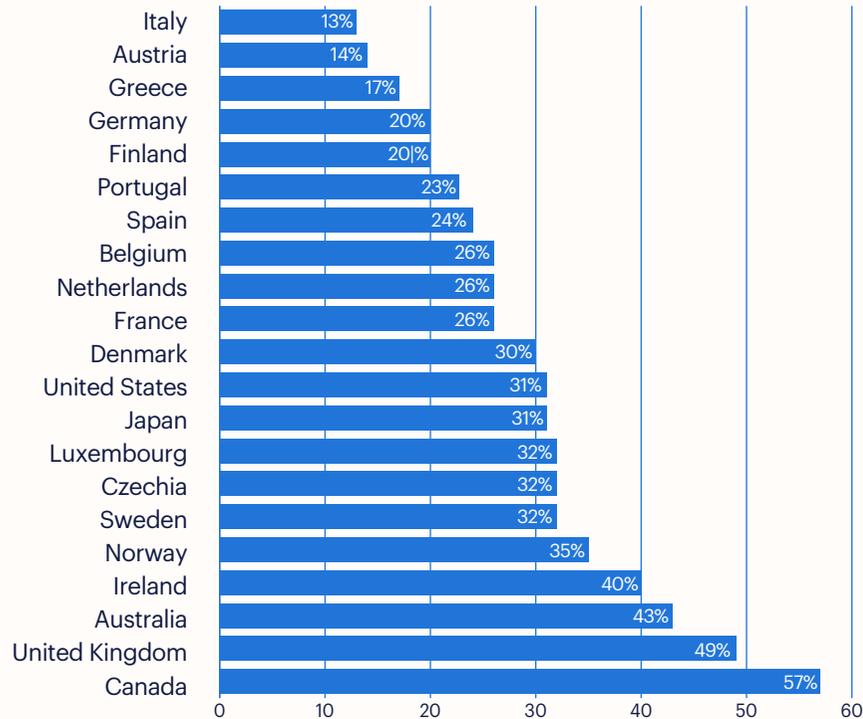
However, migration in the wider sense has recently become a polarizing issue, as many markets have expressed concerns about opening their borders to foreign nationals. But policymakers and indeed the general public need to clearly separate labor migration from migration due to political and economic factors. When authorities consider migration policies, they should develop sound regulations that attract the skilled workers and overseas students they need to sustain local economic growth.

In this context Randstad is pleased to attribute to the public discourse with the 'People to jobs, jobs to people' research. Commissioned by Randstad, the IZA Institute of Labor Economics in Bonn has studied the determinants of talent migration, highlight expected changes in labor supply of targeted migration flows and offer a comprehensive discussion of firms' (re)location choices to investigate the potential of job flows in response to skill shortages.

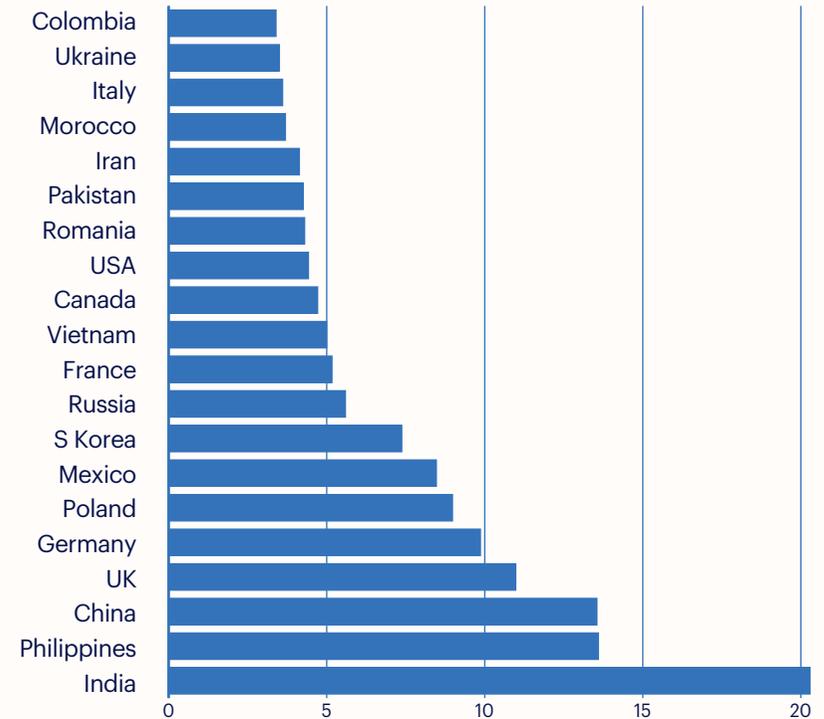
# jobs to people.

# people to jobs, jobs to people high-skilled migrants.

highest share in anglo-saxon countries  
share of high-skilled migrants in total migrant population



most high-skilled migrants from SE Asia  
number of high-skilled migrants by country or origin (in millions)



# people to jobs, jobs to people what moves talent.

Political implications aside, there are many economic facets to talent migration requiring examination. The ‘People to jobs, jobs to people’ research shows that the movement of labor is a complex phenomenon, determined by an array of factors, some of which are as yet little understood. The result was a comprehensive examination of the factors that push and pull workers to seek employment outside their home countries.

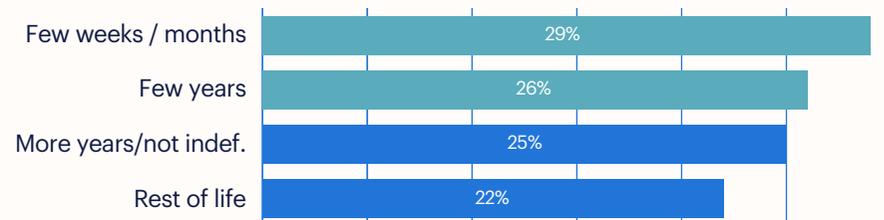
## migration intentions

Overall, the extent of migration intentions and their determinants vary considerably across regions and skill groups. However, several unifying themes emerge. First, highly-educated individuals are most likely to express migration intentions, desires, and aspirations. Previous stays abroad or networks of family and friends in foreign countries are robust determinants of migration intentions.

About 58 percent of the variation in the stock of high-skilled migrants can be attributed to push factors in the country of origin; correspondingly, only 42 percent of this variation is due to pull factors in the receiving country. Among the pull factors, economic variables – such as tax rates, average wages, unemployment rates, and GDP growth – largely account for differences in the magnitude and the composition of migration stocks across countries. In particular, high average wages and low tax-rates in the host country are positively correlated with the number of high-skilled immigrants as well as English being the native tongue.

pull factors of country of destination	impact
high average wage	++
english speaking	++
low tax rates	+
high unemployment benefits	+
high employment protection	-
high union density	-
high minimum wage	-

These factors affect not only the amount of labor migration but some of these considerations also help determine how long an migrant remains in the host country. For example, the research showed that the majority of expatriates eventually return home (although they may later also return to the same or a different country).



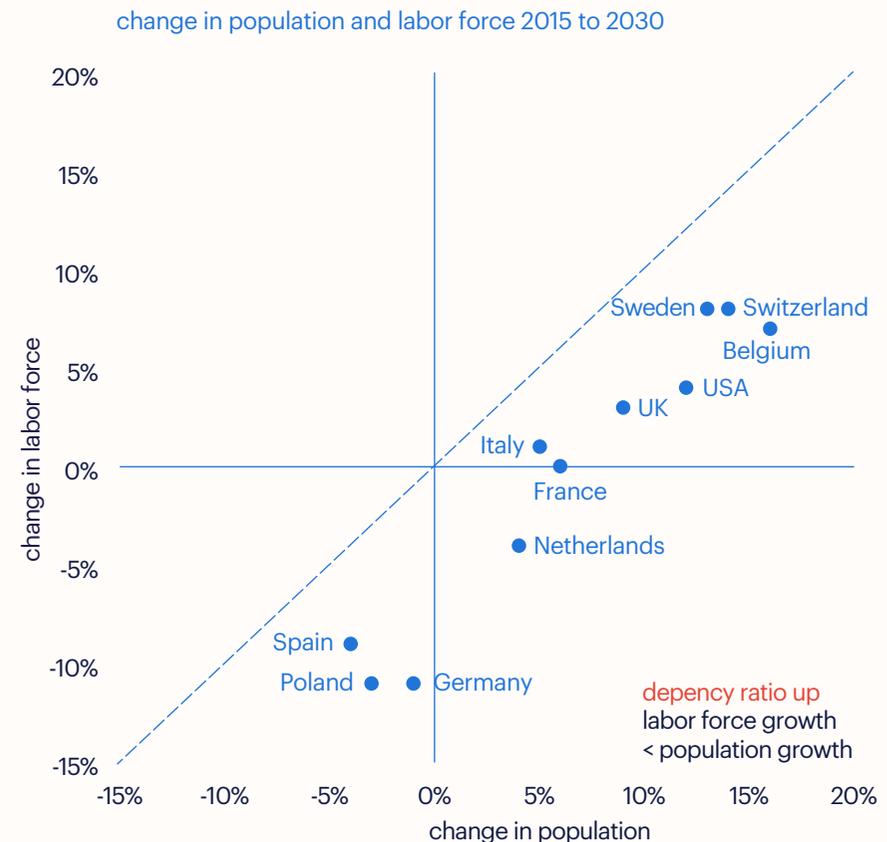
# people to jobs, jobs to people

## projecting developments in labor supply and demands.

The projections indicate that the population as a whole is likely to increase in seven out of the ten countries investigated. Only in Germany, Poland and Spain is the population likely to decline. When we look at changes in the working population (as defined by the number of individuals aged 15 to 64), we see a gloomier picture. In all countries the size of the labor force is predicted to increase more slowly or decrease more strongly than the overall population. This implies a general aging of these societies and increasing dependency ratios, as a smaller share of individuals in the overall population is working.

### migration policies play key role

However, the general trend in aging is accompanied by steadily increasing educational attainment. Over time, a greater share of the workforce is predicted to receive tertiary education. According to the projections, changes in hours worked will exceed expected changes in the size of the labor force. For countries whose labor force is decreasing, losses are thus partially mitigated by behavioral responses in labor supply. The main driver of this development is the increasing share of high-educated workers, who supply considerably more hours than medium- and low-educated workers. Both the baseline and constant-migration scenario lead to similar results, although negative developments are mitigated by more intensive migration. Targeted migration policies may hence play a key role for economies that are expected to face major demographic transitions.



# people to jobs, jobs to people

## assessing firm location choice behaviour.

The research shows that the reasons firms have for choosing a location are complex. From a vast amount of empirical research, it emerges that one key determinant of location choice is market potential. A region's GDP or purchasing power, the presence of competitors/suppliers, and the quality of the infrastructure crucially affect firms' assessments of markets and their choice of location. In addition, they seem to like locations where similar firms have settled, creating industrial clusters. Not surprisingly, they also welcome the presence of suitable employees, a factor that has been shown to foster the extent of entrepreneurial activities. For example, the foundation of new, high-tech firms in the United States can be related to the close proximity of scientists and universities, which provide these new firms with valuable scientific knowledge and expertise.

Given the complexity and variety of determinants affecting firms' choice of location, it appears unlikely that companies are inclined to relocate their entire production process to different regions in response to moderate changes in the availability of one factor in production. Relocation is generally due to external growth – and is rather infrequent. Increased offshoring rather than relocation may be a more common behavioral response to skill shortages. Access to qualified personnel already serves as a key determinant of companies' decision to offshore activities. Jobs to people? Reasons for (re)location of firms.



# people to jobs, jobs to people

## key messages.

The observed aging of populations, paired with ongoing technological change in favor of high-skilled and/ or non-automatable labor in developed countries, has led to continuous discussions about suitable policies for counteracting potential shortages of skills. Although increasing educational attainment or changes in working arrangements may help to alleviate skill shortages, the researchers argue that migration should be seen as one of the key policy instruments to align skill-specific labor supply and demand in developed countries or regions and thus to ensure economic progress and avoid companies relocating to skill-abundant countries.

### growth and employment

Facilitating labor migration helps to substantially ease potential labor shortages and contributes to growth and employment. Coherent migration policies, especially policies that systematically account for skill-specific demands by the national economy, lead to substantial benefits.

### good institutions

National institutions in both destination and origin countries have important effects on the size and composition of the migrant population. Features such as unemployment

benefits or employment protection influence different groups in the potential migration pool in different ways. Apart from explicit (skill-oriented) migration policies, national policymakers have strong incentives to create “good” institutions in order to attract or retain skilled and productive migrant workers in an increasingly global market.

### transnational networks

Transnational diaspora networks (linking migrants in the receiving countries with their families and friends “back home”) provide potential migrants with important information about what they can expect to find in terms of prospective working conditions and job opportunities in the “new country”. These networks give employers in these countries access to a reliable pool of migrant workers. In addition, it can be advantageous for the sending countries to understand these networks and engage with them (e.g., to encourage return migration and the circulation of talent), as well as with destination societies (e.g., to reduce illegal migration). From the destination countries’ point of view, an influx of highly educated newcomers is key to addressing problems related to population aging, labor shortages, and skill mismatches.

### offshoring

The presence of suitable employees has been shown to guide firms’ location choices, and to foster the extent of entrepreneurial activities. Increased offshoring rather than relocation serves as firms’ more common behavioral response to skill shortages. Access to qualified personnel already serves as a key determinant of firms’ decision to offshore activities. Given the expected demographic developments in Western societies paired with the technological progress in many non-Western countries (in particular Asia), this trend can be expected to increase over the upcoming years.

# conclusion.

It is clear that the labor market has changed radically over the past decade or more. And more (and more fundamental) change lies ahead. The mobility and diversity of the future workforce will benefit business greatly, as it strives to remain agile, fast and responsive. Migration has already shown itself to be an effective way of combating mismatches of skills and location – more so than re-skilling or promoting a higher birthrate. However, for a new migration-based economy to take hold, the present, outdated infrastructure for managing migration will need to be totally re-designed. In this process, policymakers – before developing new or revised labor migration structures – will need to join with employers (and, indeed, workers themselves) to consider how the needs of modern business can be met in the new context.

## a balanced skill-related labor migration system

What should a balanced migration system be like? It should include a robust and flexible framework, one that is accessible and transparent, with clearly defined migration categories and objective eligibility criteria. It should be efficient and coherent, with timely and predictable processes. A range of categories is needed to spur innovation, fill skills gaps and promote development. These categories should reflect and adapt to the evolving workplace.

## governments need to consult with business

Employers are in the best position to determine the skills and business models they need to effectively achieve their objectives, and governments therefore need to actively consult with them. They will need to administer immigration agencies, and the adjudicators of these agencies must be charged with the consistent application of the law and policy. This includes setting up and monitoring ethical standards to give those policies credibility. On a practical level, the use of 'Trusted Employer' programs would do much to both promote consistency and conserve resources.

## business advocacy on responsible labor migration

Businesses should play a prominent role in advocating fair and open migration policies, identifying policy challenges and emphasizing the benefits of well-managed skill-related migration. Businesses should counter common misconceptions about migration in society, by promoting the successes of migrants and highlighting their positive economic, social and cultural contributions. Businesses should also partner with policymakers and responsible recruitment agencies to help develop and promote fair recruitment initiatives

yearly  
report on

and  
employment.



flexible  
labor

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# future of work.

The world of work is being reshaped by tremendous forces. Economic shifts are redistributing power, wealth, competition and opportunity around the globe. Disruptive innovations, radical thinking, new business models and resource scarcity are impacting every sector. Technology is changing industries at a rapid pace and the labor market is therefore entering a period of uncertainty. Managing this transition is an important challenge, as is preparing for the future for the workforce of tomorrow.

The balance among employment sectors – and the kinds of skills required by those sectors – has been shifting for five decades. Occupations, both traditional and new, require more highly skilled workers now than before. The Information Age is affecting the workforce in several ways. Especially the medium-skilled workers are being replaced by computers that can do the job more effectively and faster. This has created a situation in which workers who perform tasks which are easily automated being forced to find work which involves tasks that are not easily automated and workers are being forced to compete in a global job market.



source: WEF, Future of Jobs (2016)

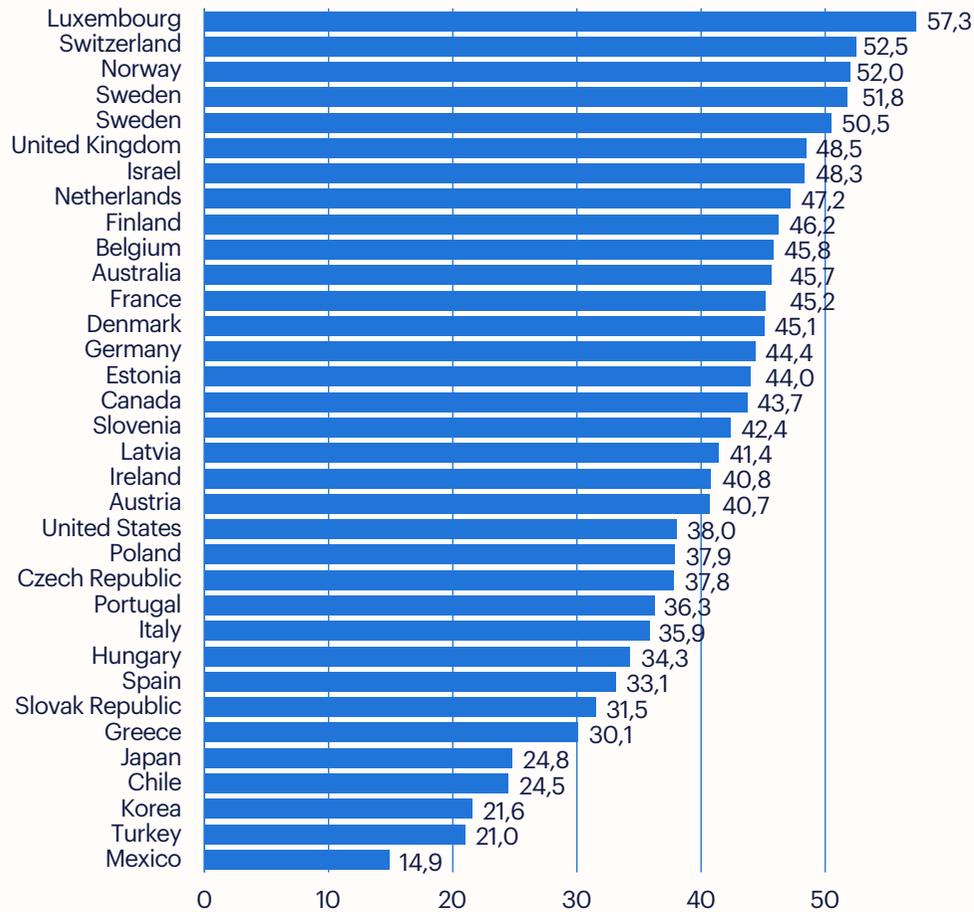
# skills are needed more than ever.

Being skilled has always been an advantage – if not a necessity – for individual workers. Today, having a skilled workforce is just as much a necessity for countries competing in an advanced economy. Promoting education and training is an important facet of developing a skilled workforce. Skilled people generate knowledge that can be used to create and implement innovations and educated workers have a better start for acquisition of further skills. On the other hand, a concern is that in the future of work, only the highly skilled will have access to rewarding professional careers, and that this trend will increase inequality on the labor market. Countries can, through the education system, develop the skills needed for participation in the labor market. This requires a broad range of skills that raise employability in the short term (and ease their transition to the labor market) as well as in the long term, by giving people the capacity to learn, develop further and adapt their knowledge to labor market needs. Education and labor policy need to be re-examined to make them more reactive and relevant to the ever-changing market realities. On average, developed countries spend about 6 percent of their GDP on educational institutions. Most countries have worked to increase the proportion of students who complete secondary education and move on to post-secondary and higher education. The importance of science education is recognized on both sides of the Atlantic but the debate gets particularly heated when it intersects with immigration. Europe is in a similar position to the United States, but has much more rigid immigration policies making that Europe attracts fewer high-skilled workers than not only the United States, but also Canada and Australia. Only 3 percent of scientists in the European Union come from non-EU countries, whereas in the United States 16 percent of scientists come from abroad.



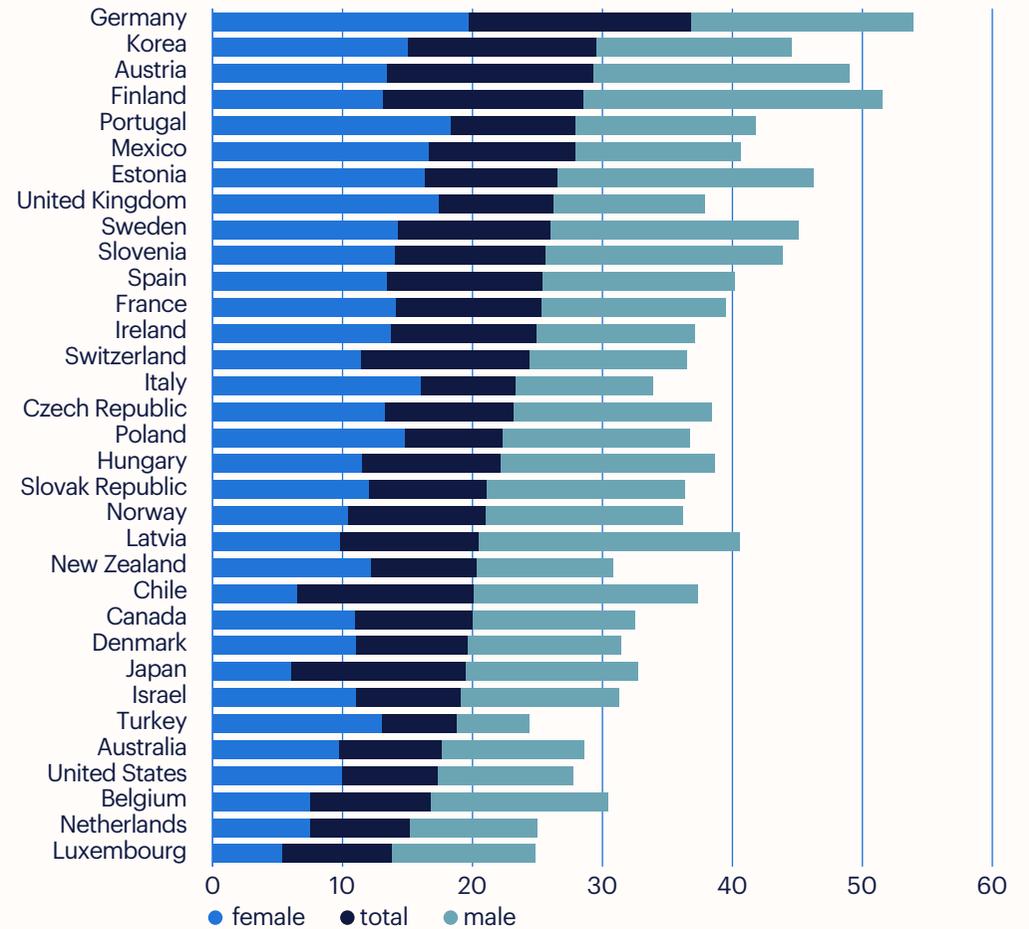
# skill shares.

share of high-skilled in employment  
2016 - age 15 to 64 - in %



source: OECD.stats

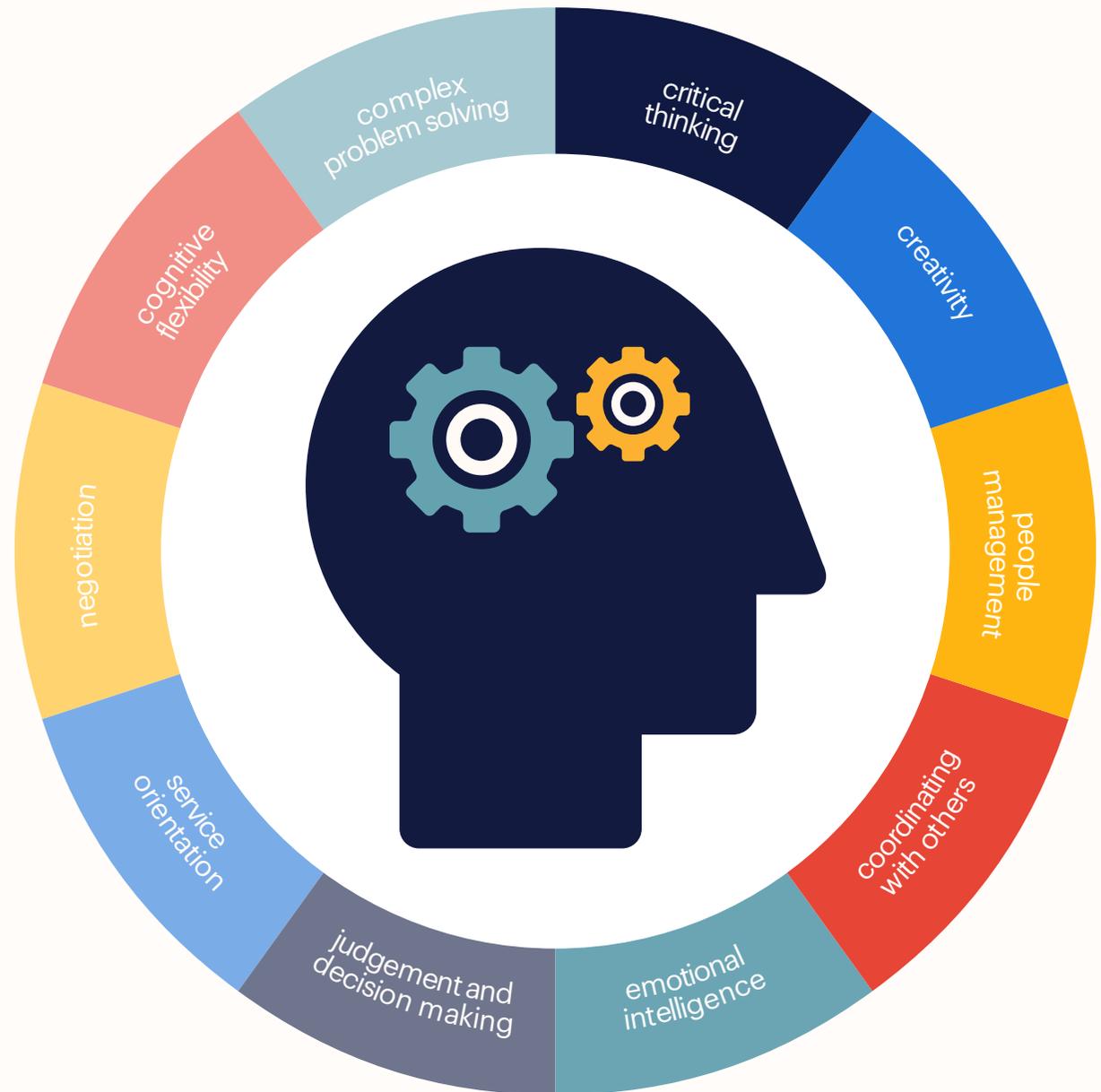
share of STEM studies in total studies  
2015 - in %



source: OECD.stats

# soft skills.

Even at the height of the crisis employers reported having difficulties in finding workers with the appropriate skills. Employers say they cannot fill vacancies because even highly-qualified candidates have the wrong skills. The education systems 'educate graduates of tomorrow in the skills needed in the industry yesterday' as they claim. Many employers are concerned that applicants lack 'soft skills', such as interpersonal, communication and analytical problem-solving abilities. This clearly indicates that jobs in growing sectors such as health, education and other services require a different set of skills than those acquired by unemployed people who worked in declining sectors, such as agriculture and manufacturing. Youth often lack certain social and emotional skills such as those involved in working in teams, which can undermine the use of their cognitive skills.



# educate for the 21st century.

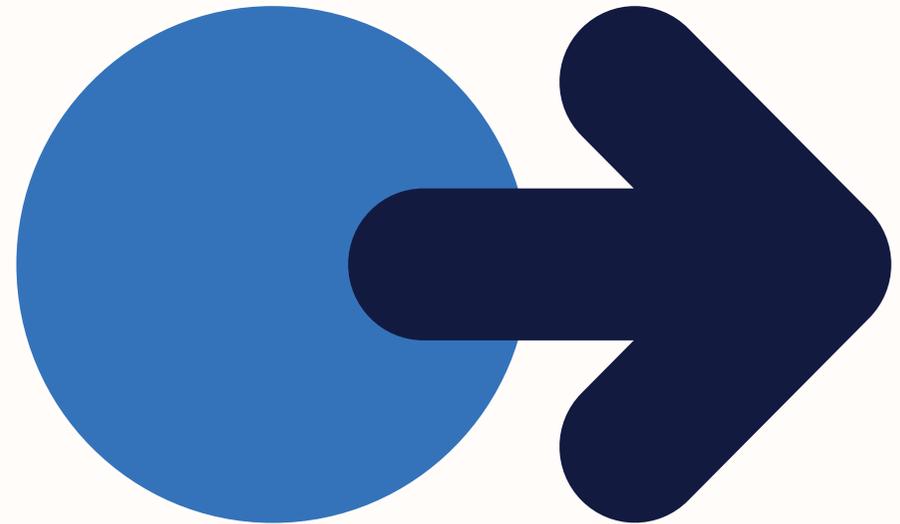
The future of work requires a systemic change in education and training. The types of skills that employers need are changing all the time. Employees need to continually learn and adapt to changing and new industries. Business needs are reshaped continuously by technology, creating ongoing skill gaps both individuals and countries will have to address. Education systems are often badly equipped to develop these dynamic skills in students, most schools and universities are teaching a 20th-century education to young people who will need cutting-edge 21st-century skills. Employers need to collaborate with schools and universities on the development of curricula and a shared practical knowledge of the market. The education system also needs to change to allow a focus on lifelong learning.



# demographic shifts are upon us.

Demographic shifts are upon us and will significantly lower economic growth. The number of “super-aged” countries – where more than one in five of the population is 65 or older – will reach 27 in 2030. Only Germany, Italy and Japan meet that definition today. Thanks to the aging of today’s middle-aged demographic swell and ongoing improvements in life expectancy, the population of seniors is projected to surge to 1.5 billion in 2050.

The result will be a much older world, a future in which roughly one-in-six people is expected to be 65 and older by 2050, double the proportion today. In the coming decades, aging and slower rates of growth are expected to characterize the populations of all major regions in the world. Ranked by median age, Europe is currently the oldest region in the world and should remain so in 2050. Even relatively young countries such as Brazil and Turkey are aging. Moreover, the pace of aging in some of these countries is more rapid than in developed economies. Some societies in Eastern Asia are forecast to age particularly fast. The population of children, meanwhile, will be at a virtual standstill due to long-term declines in birth rates around the world. The number of children younger than 15 is expected to increase with only 0.2 billion to 2 billion in 2050. Consequently, more countries will find that they have more adults over 65 than they have children younger than 15. Aging of the population will be challenging for public budgets and pension systems.



The falling share of the population at traditionally productive ages means relatively fewer people will pay taxes and social contributions at a time when the rising share of older persons implies that more people will receive pensions and costly health services. In response, many countries have implemented reforms, such as a rise in the retirement age, designed to delay the rate of increase. Nonetheless, public pension expenditures are expected to consume about 15 percent of GDP in several European countries by 2050. Pension expenditures in the United States are projected to increase to 8.5 percent in the same period. Larger concerns revolve around public health care expenditures, which are rising faster than pension expenditures in most countries. Health care expenditures are pushed up not just by aging but by cost inflation as well. In the U.S., public health expenditures are projected to more than double to 15 percent in 2050. Similarly, large increases are expected in Japan and several countries in Europe.

# dawn of



# super-aged societies.

source: UN population division

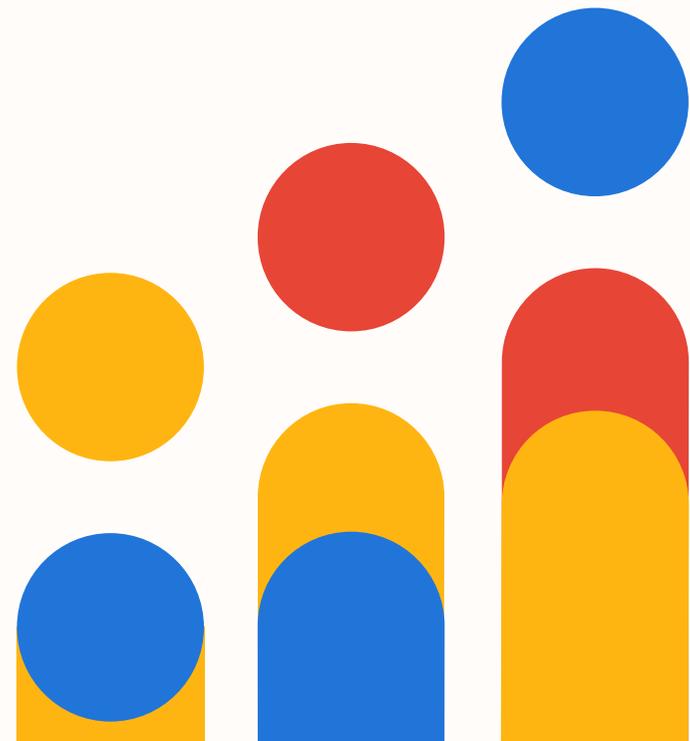
# recovering labor markets.

After a long period of high unemployment and underemployment labor market conditions are finally improving even in those countries hit hardest by the global financial and economic crisis. In many countries there has been a drop in unemployment numbers since the global financial crisis, but there is some evidence that this is not only due to jobs growth but also because long-term unemployed are giving up on trying to find a job. In Europe labor market conditions are slowly improving and may continue to do so in the short term.

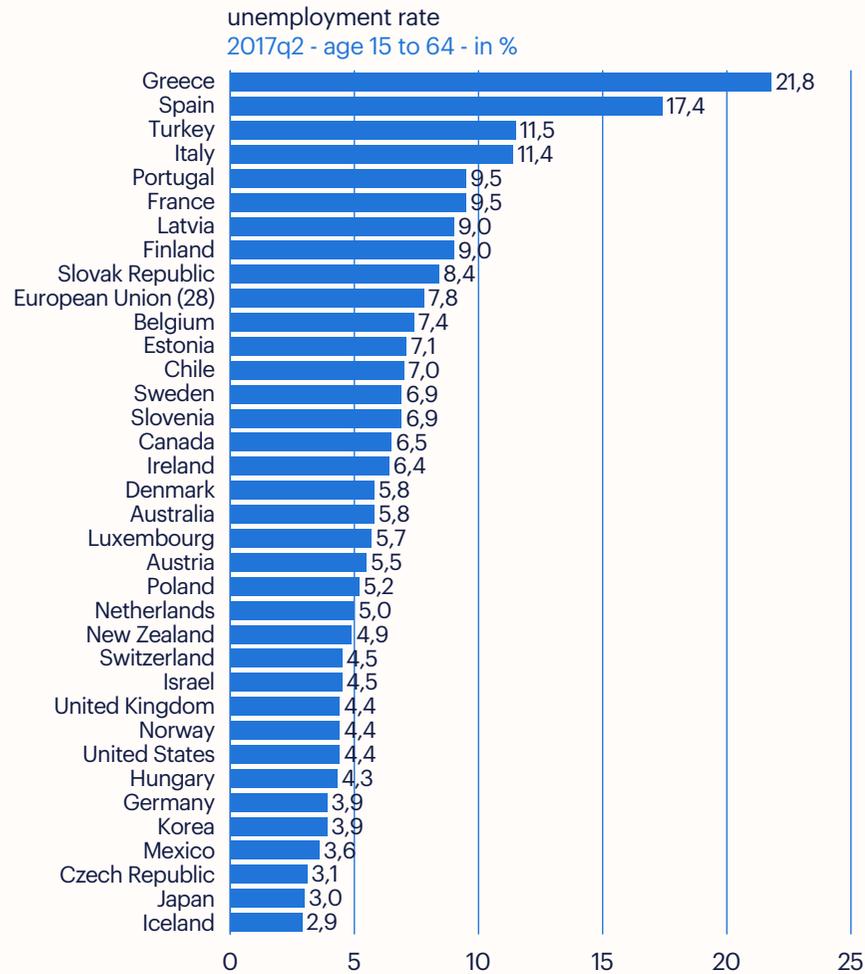
The unemployment rate in the European Union has reached 7.8% in 2017, down from 10.8% in 2013 and 10.1% in 2014 – the lowest rate since 2008. Improvements have been most notable in Southern Europe. In Greece, Portugal and Spain, the unemployment rates have fallen from their very high peaks, declining on average by almost 5 percentage points in the past 2 years, although in the case of Greece and Spain they remain above 15%.

In the United States the unemployment rate has been falling since 2010 from 9.6% to 4.4% in 2017. Also in Japan and Canada unemployment has been falling for over

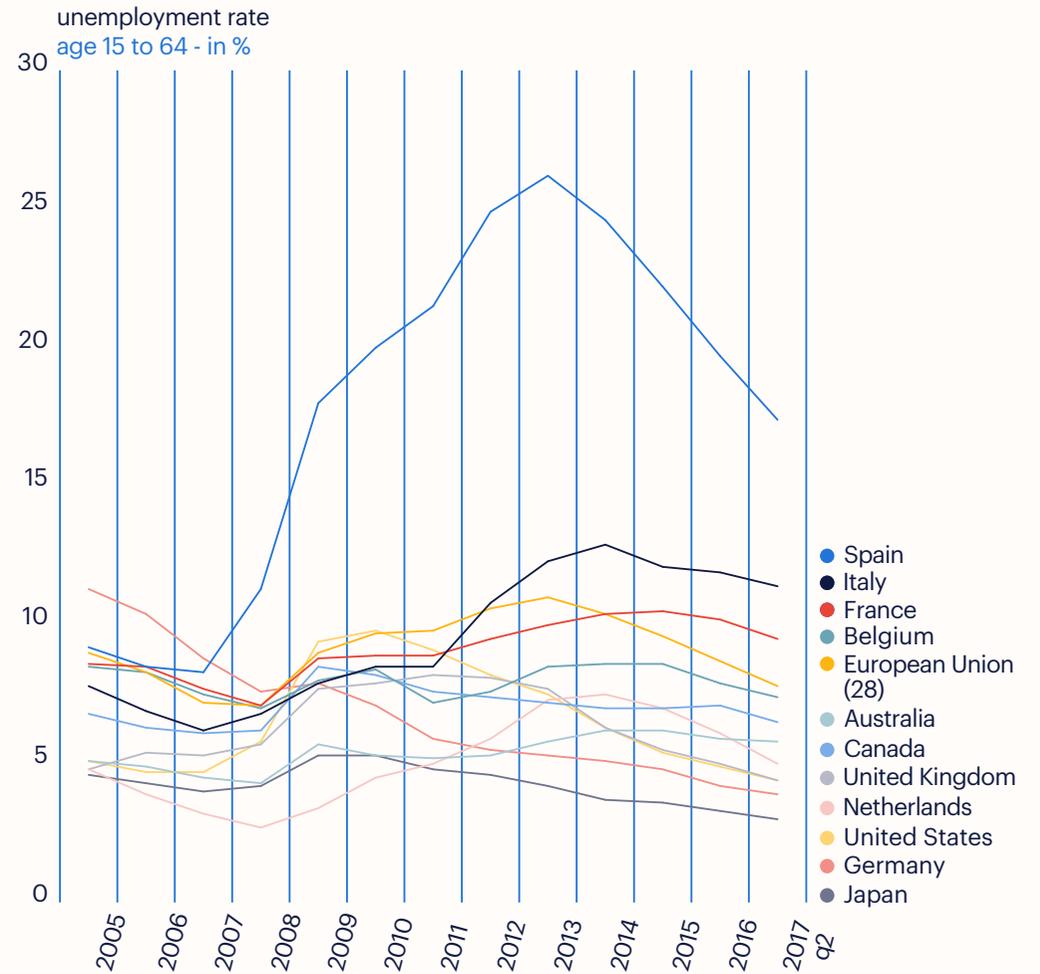
8 years. In Australia on the other hand unemployment has increased since 2011. The EU unemployment rate is projected to continue to fall steadily over the next couple of years. Nonetheless, virtually all the countries in Europe, with the exception of Germany and the United Kingdom, will continue to post unemployment rates higher than the pre-crisis level.



# unemployment rates.



source: LFS (OECD.stats)



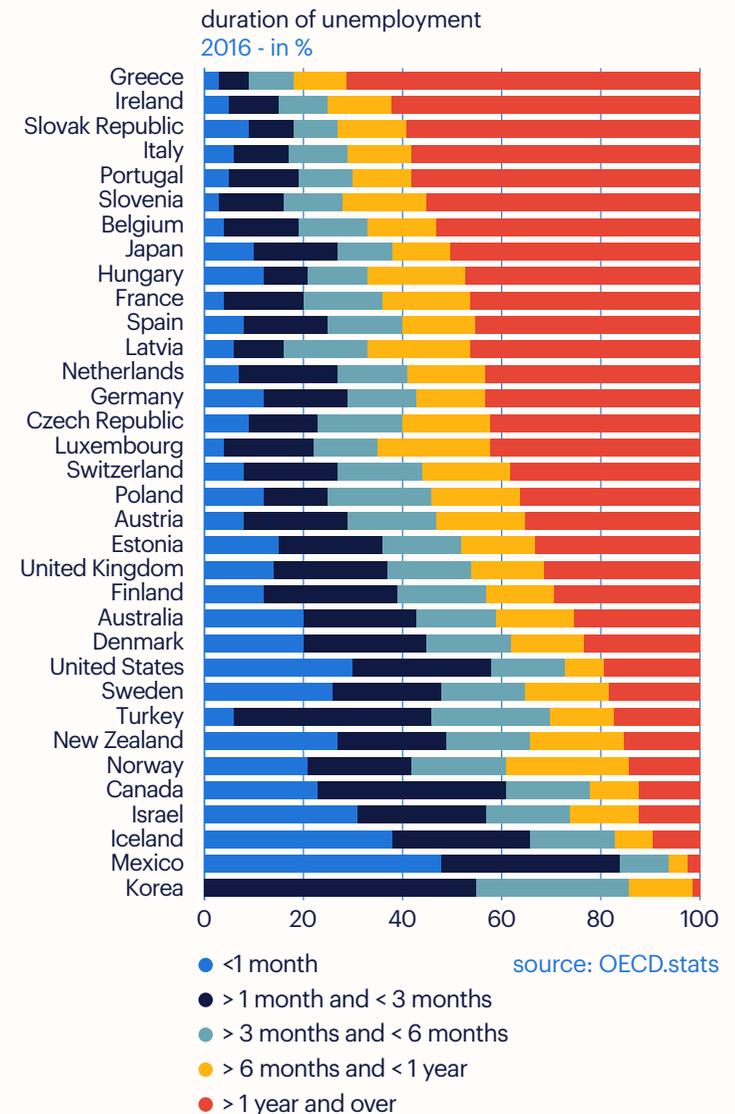
source: LFS (OECD.stats)

# persistant long-term unemployment.

The long-term unemployed continue to comprise a large share of the total number of unemployed. In 2017, around half of all unemployed persons in Europe had been without work for one year or longer. Workers unemployed for long periods risk losing their skills, face reduced employability and are at greater risk of poverty.

Long-term unemployment has likely peaked but remains a major concern. In countries hardest hit, notably in Southern Europe, this has led to a rise in structural unemployment which will not be automatically reversed by a pick-up in economic growth. Long-term unemployment reveals an important problem of labor market. Because the longer one stays unemployed, the smaller becomes the chance of getting back into employment. This means that high unemployment on itself is not necessarily the problem, but the persistence of unemployment is. As long as mobility is high, people won't stay unemployed for too long.

In the US long-term unemployment has been limited until the latest crisis, but increased sharply since then. While in the EU the average has always been much higher (around 40 percent of all unemployed persons) but decreased in 2009 because so many new people became unemployed. As not all of these newly unemployed could find jobs immediately, the share of long-term unemployment rose again in the last years. These figures point at a serious problem because this kind of unemployment is persistent. Chances that these people will return into employment have become quite low during the unemployment period, and it will take a lot of extra effort to make labor market policy work for this group.



# youth, scars of the recession.

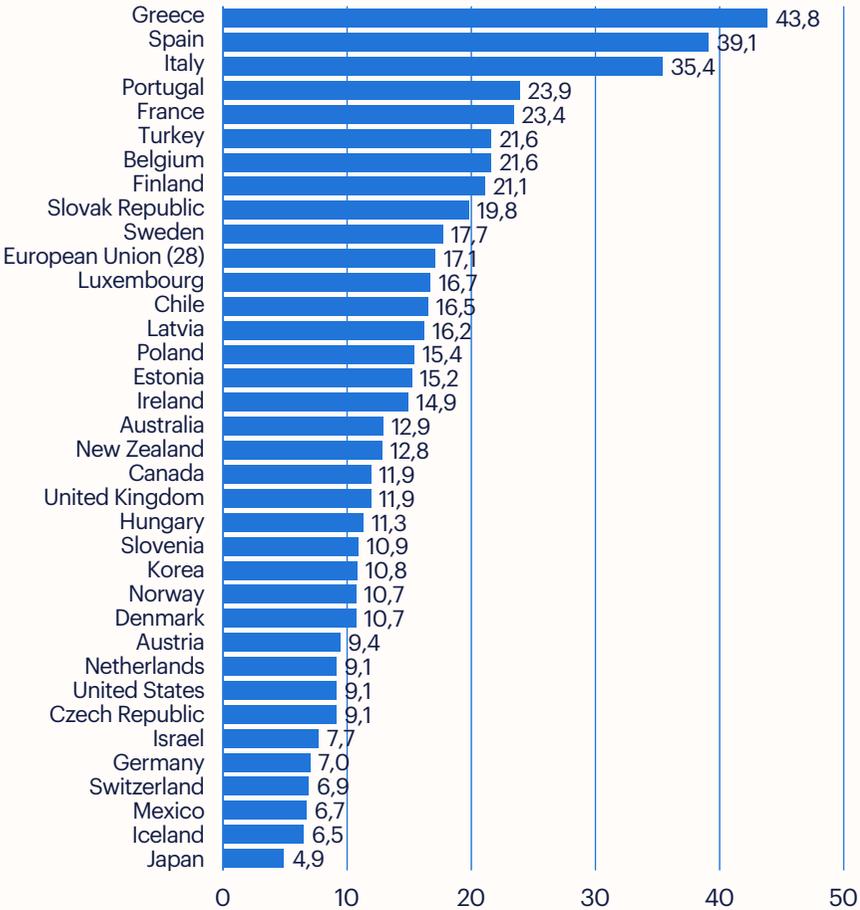
It is not easy to be young in the labor market today. Young people have suffered a disproportionate share of job losses during the global economic crisis. Coping with unemployment is difficult for everyone. But for low-skilled youth, and especially those who have left school without qualifications, failure to find a first job or keep it for long can have negative long-term consequences on career prospects – a phenomenon often referred to as “scarring”. The risks posed by a scarred generation have motivated many governments to take vigorous action, notably by scaling up funds for youth labor market programs.

In the context of today’s fragile recovery and mounting fiscal pressures, there is a strong need to keep momentum, by maintaining adequate resources for cost-effective measures for youth. But governments cannot do everything alone, and well-coordinated supports and incentives must come from all key stakeholders, including employers, trade unions, NGOs, and naturally from youth themselves.



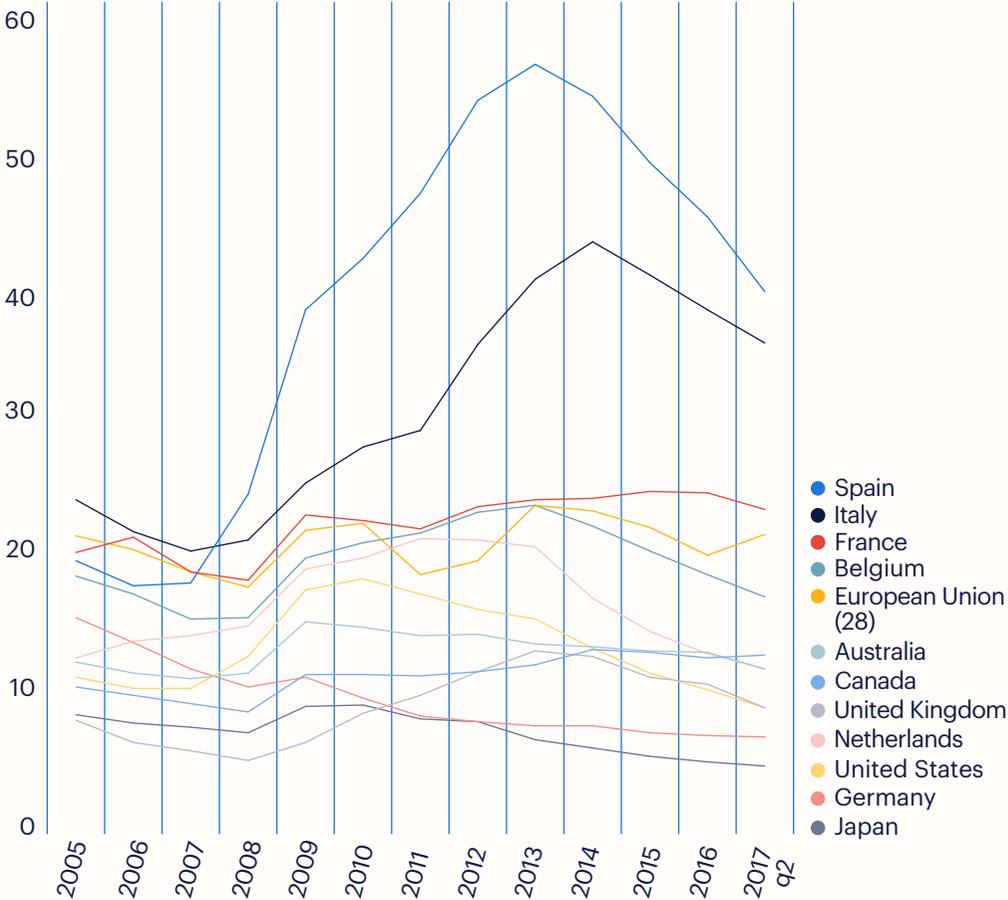
# youth unemployment rates.

youth unemployment rate  
2017q2 - age 15 to 24 - in %



source: LFS (OECD.stats)

youth unemployment rate  
age 15 to 64 - in %



source: LFS (OECD.stats)

# tackle the youth

## tackle the current youth unemployment crises

- Tackle weak aggregate demand and boost job creation.
- Maintain, and where possible expand cost-effective labor market measures.
- Tackle demand-side barriers to the employment of low-skilled youth.
- Encourage employers to continue or expand quality apprenticeship and internship programmes.
- Provide adequate income support to unemployed youth until labor market improve, but subject to strict mutual obligations.

## strengthen the long-term employment prospects

- Strengthen the education system and prepare all young people for the world of work
- Strengthen the role and effectiveness of vocational education and training
- Assist the transition to the world of work
- Reshape labor market policy and institutions to facilitate access to employment and tackle social exclusion

unemployment  
crisis.

# unemployment data sheet.

unemployment rate in %

country	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017q2
Australia	5,1	4,9	4,5	4,3	5,7	5,3	5,2	5,3	5,8	6,2	6,2	5,9	5,8
Austria	5,7	5,3	4,9	4,2	5,4	4,9	4,6	4,9	5,4	5,7	5,8	6,1	5,5
Belgium	8,5	8,3	7,5	7,0	8,0	8,4	7,2	7,6	8,5	8,6	8,6	7,9	7,4
Canada	6,8	6,3	6,1	6,2	8,5	8,2	7,6	7,4	7,2	7,0	7,0	7,1	6,5
Chile	8,3	7,9	7,4	8,0	10,0	8,4	7,4	6,7	6,2	6,6	6,5	6,8	7,0
Czech Republic	8,0	7,2	5,4	4,4	6,7	7,4	6,8	7,1	7,0	6,2	5,1	4,0	3,1
Denmark	4,9	4,0	3,8	3,5	6,1	7,6	7,7	7,7	7,2	6,8	6,3	6,4	5,8
Estonia	8,3	6,1	4,8	5,6	13,9	17,1	12,6	10,3	8,9	7,6	6,3	7,0	7,1
Finland	8,5	7,8	7,0	6,4	8,3	8,5	7,9	7,8	8,3	8,8	9,6	9,0	9,0
France	8,6	8,5	7,7	7,1	8,8	8,9	8,9	9,5	10,0	10,4	10,5	10,2	9,5
Germany	11,3	10,4	8,8	7,6	7,9	7,1	5,9	5,5	5,3	5,1	4,8	4,2	3,9
Greece	10,2	9,2	8,5	7,9	9,8	12,9	18,1	24,7	27,7	26,7	25,1	23,7	21,8
Hungary	7,2	7,6	7,5	7,9	10,1	11,3	11,1	11,1	10,3	7,8	6,9	5,2	4,3
Iceland	2,6	2,9	2,3	3,0	7,4	7,8	7,1	6,1	5,5	5,1	4,2	3,1	2,9
Ireland	4,4	4,5	4,8	6,6	12,2	14,1	14,9	15,0	13,3	11,6	9,6	8,1	6,4
Israel	9,2	8,5	7,4	6,2	7,7	6,8	5,7	7,0	6,3	6,0	5,3	4,9	4,5
Italy	7,8	6,9	6,2	6,8	7,9	8,5	8,5	10,8	12,3	12,9	12,1	11,9	11,4
Japan	4,6	4,3	4,0	4,2	5,3	5,3	4,8	4,6	4,2	3,7	3,6	3,3	3,0
Korea	3,9	3,6	3,4	3,3	3,8	3,8	3,5	3,3	3,3	3,7	3,7	3,8	3,9
Latvia	10,2	7,2	6,2	8,1	18,0	19,8	16,5	15,4	12,1	11,1	10,1	9,9	9,0
Luxembourg	4,5	4,7	4,1	5,1	5,2	4,4	5,0	5,2	5,9	5,9	6,7	6,3	5,7
Mexico	3,7	3,7	3,8	4,0	5,6	5,5	5,4	5,1	5,1	5,0	4,5	4,0	3,6
Netherlands	4,8	3,9	3,2	2,7	3,4	4,5	5,0	5,9	7,3	7,5	7,0	6,1	5,0
New Zealand	3,9	3,9	3,7	4,2	6,1	6,3	6,3	6,7	6,0	5,6	5,6	5,4	4,9
Norway	4,4	3,5	2,5	2,6	3,2	3,6	3,3	3,2	3,5	3,6	4,5	4,8	4,4
Poland	18,0	14,1	9,7	7,2	8,3	9,7	9,8	10,2	10,5	9,1	7,6	6,3	5,2
Portugal	8,1	8,1	8,5	8,0	10,0	11,4	13,4	16,3	17,0	14,5	13,0	11,5	9,5
Slovak Republic	16,3	13,4	11,2	9,6	12,1	14,4	13,7	14,0	14,3	13,2	11,5	9,7	8,4
Slovenia	6,7	6,1	5,0	4,5	6,0	7,4	8,4	9,0	10,3	9,9	9,1	8,1	6,9
Spain	9,2	8,5	8,3	11,3	18,0	20,0	21,5	24,9	26,2	24,6	22,2	19,7	17,4
Sweden	7,6	7,1	6,3	6,3	8,5	8,8	8,0	8,2	8,2	8,2	7,6	7,2	6,9
Switzerland	4,5	4,1	3,7	3,4	4,2	4,9	4,5	4,6	4,9	5,0	4,9	5,1	4,5
Turkey	..	9,0	9,1	10,0	12,9	10,9	9,0	8,4	8,9	10,1	10,5	11,1	11,5
United Kingdom	4,8	5,4	5,3	5,7	7,7	7,9	8,2	8,1	7,7	6,3	5,5	5,0	4,4
United States	5,1	4,7	4,7	5,8	9,4	9,8	9,1	8,2	7,5	6,3	5,4	4,9	4,4
European Union (28)	9,0	8,3	7,2	7,1	9,0	9,7	9,8	10,6	11,0	10,4	9,6	8,7	7,8

source: LFS (OECD.stats)

# unemployment data sheet.

## unemployment rate in %

country	female	male	age 15-24	age 25-54	age 55-64	low	medium	high
Australia	5,9	5,7	12,9	4,4	4,0	-	-	-
Austria	5,1	5,9	9,4	5,0	4,6	12,9	4,9	3,1
Belgium	7,6	7,3	21,6	6,3	5,9	15,0	7,0	4,1
Canada	5,9	7,1	11,9	5,5	5,8	-	-	-
Chile	7,6	6,6	16,5	6,1	4,5	-	-	-
Czech Republic	3,9	2,5	9,1	2,8	2,5	14,5	2,8	1,3
Denmark	6,1	5,6	10,7	5,3	3,5	9,1	4,1	4,6
Estonia	6,5	7,7	15,2	6,8	5,3	15,1	7,7	3,7
Finland	8,8	9,2	21,1	7,1	8,3	24,7	10,0	4,9
France	9,4	9,6	23,4	8,4	6,2	16,9	9,8	4,7
Germany	3,3	4,4	7,0	3,6	3,4	9,7	3,4	1,9
Greece	26,2	18,2	43,8	20,9	18,2	23,7	23,6	16,2
Hungary	4,6	4,0	11,3	3,8	3,8	11,9	3,8	1,5
Iceland	2,8	3,1	6,5	1,7	3,8	5,7	3,0	2,0
Ireland	5,2	7,4	14,9	5,6	5,3	12,1	7,8	3,6
Israel	4,6	4,4	7,7	3,9	3,6	-	-	-
Italy	12,4	10,6	35,4	10,8	5,6	15,3	10,1	6,2
Japan	2,9	3,1	4,9	2,9	2,7	-	-	-
Korea	3,7	4,0	10,8	3,6	2,5	-	-	-
Latvia	7,6	10,5	16,2	8,3	8,5	20,9	10,2	3,6
Luxembourg	5,3	5,9	16,7	4,6	5,2	8,8	4,7	3,5
Mexico	3,9	3,5	6,7	3,1	1,8	-	-	-
Netherlands	5,5	4,6	9,1	3,8	6,1	9,1	4,9	2,7
New Zealand	5,0	4,9	12,8	3,6	2,8	-	-	-
Norway	4,1	4,6	10,7	3,9	1,5	10,2	3,9	2,4
Poland	5,1	5,2	15,4	4,3	3,9	12,6	5,7	2,4
Portugal	10,0	9,1	23,9	8,4	8,2	9,9	9,4	6,6
Slovak Republic	8,6	8,3	19,8	7,7	6,6	28,5	7,6	4,2
Slovenia	7,9	6,0	10,9	6,4	6,1	11,1	6,3	5,4
Spain	19,2	15,9	39,1	15,9	15,5	25,1	17,0	9,7
Sweden	6,5	7,2	17,7	5,4	5,2	21,0	5,3	4,2
Switzerland	4,9	4,2	6,9	4,3	3,7	7,7	4,4	3,3
Turkey	15,0	9,8	21,6	9,6	7,1	8,9	12,2	11,3
United Kingdom	4,3	4,6	11,9	3,2	3,5	7,5	4,7	2,6
United States	4,4	4,4	9,1	3,8	3,0	-	-	-
European Union (28)	8,0	7,7	17,1	7,1	5,8	15,0	6,9	4,3

source: LFS (OECD.stats)

# increasing activity.

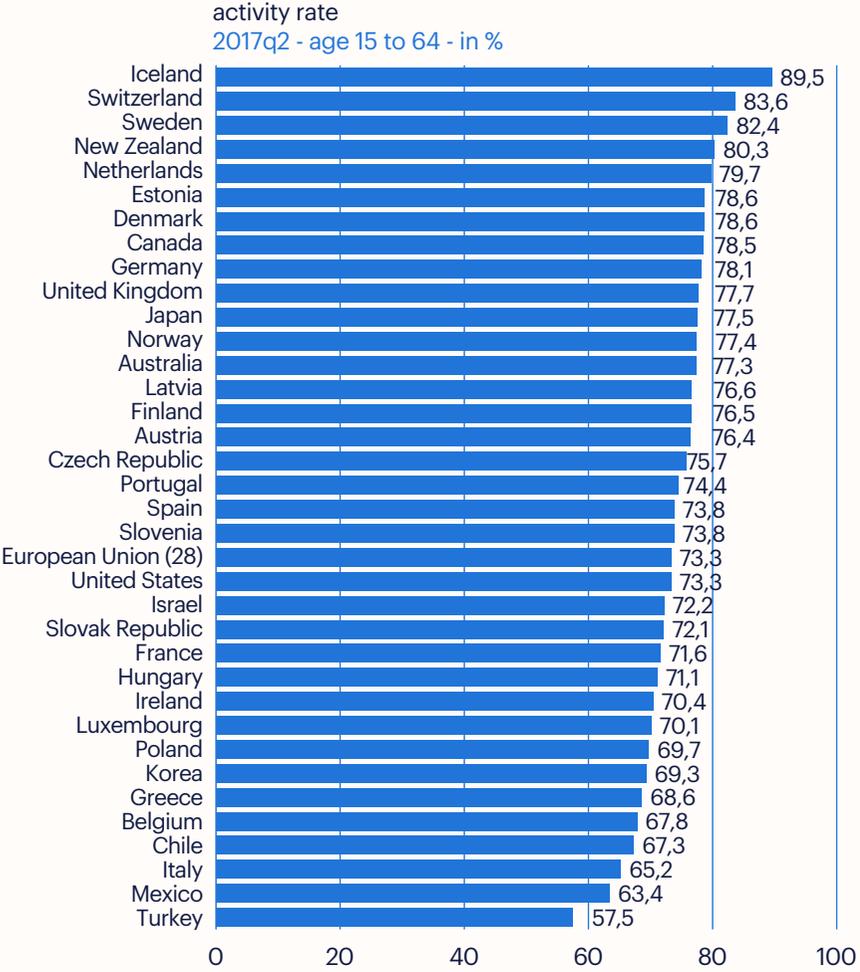
Globally, there are over 2 billion working-age people who are not participating in the labor market. Some 26 million joined these ranks in 2015. The share of the population over the age of 15 that is active in the labor market varies tremendously. Variation in participation rates are due to both cyclical and structural factors. When jobs are scarce due to recession or slow recovery in the economic cycle, some jobseekers become discouraged and drop out of the labor market. In terms of structural factors, population ageing and increasing years spent in education in many countries result in shrinking or slower growth in the working-age population. These two effects need to be differentiated to provide a clearer understanding of the future path of labor force participation and to design and implement an effective set of policy interventions.



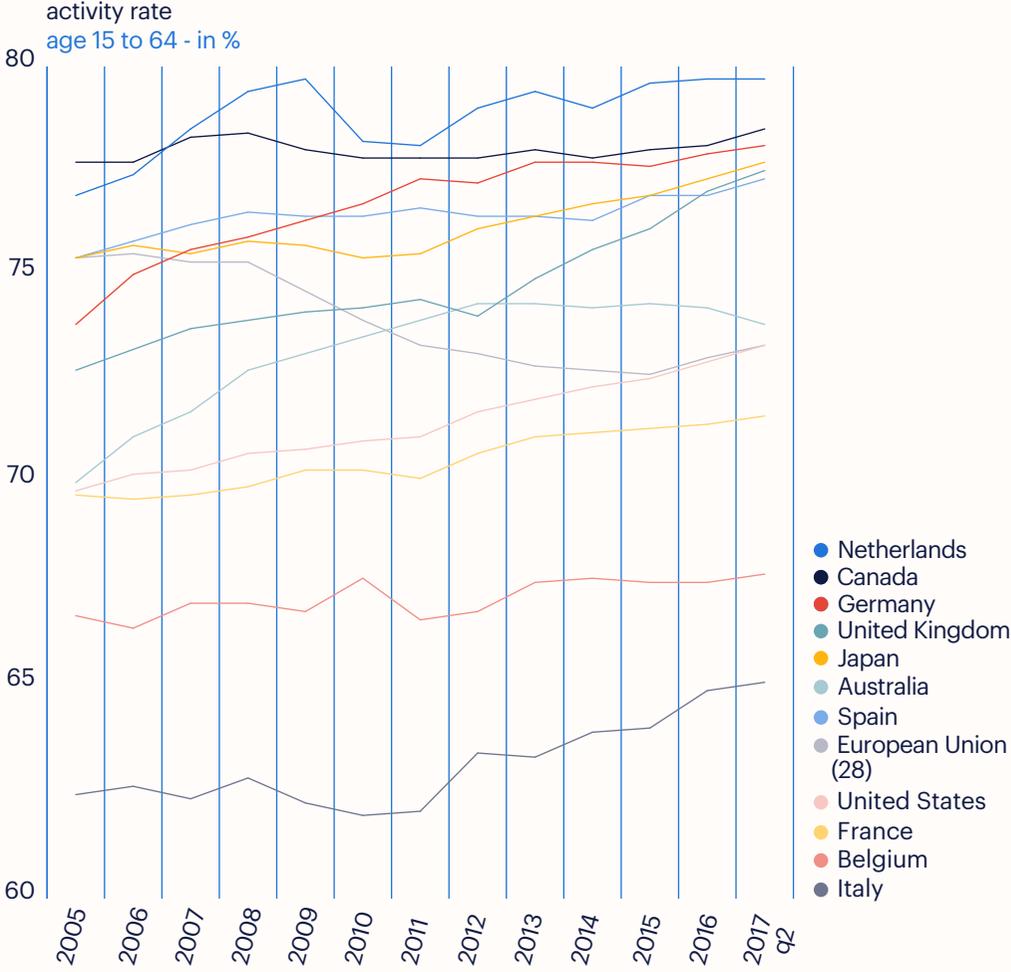
In the case of developed economies, the decline in participation rates in the aftermath of the crisis stemmed from weak labor market prospects, particularly for young people who often chose to extend their education. Indeed, some developed countries that experienced sharp declines in employment also saw a significant drop in participation rates. This is especially so in the United States. As labor markets improve, some of the downward trend is likely to be reversed – this is evident from the stabilization in participation rates in many of the developed economies.

Participation rates have also been declining in emerging economies and some developing economies. Some of this decline is due to more young people moving into or staying longer in education rather than entering the world of work, while in some cases fewer women are joining the labor market due to income and wealth effects.

# activity rates.



source: LFS (OECD.stats)



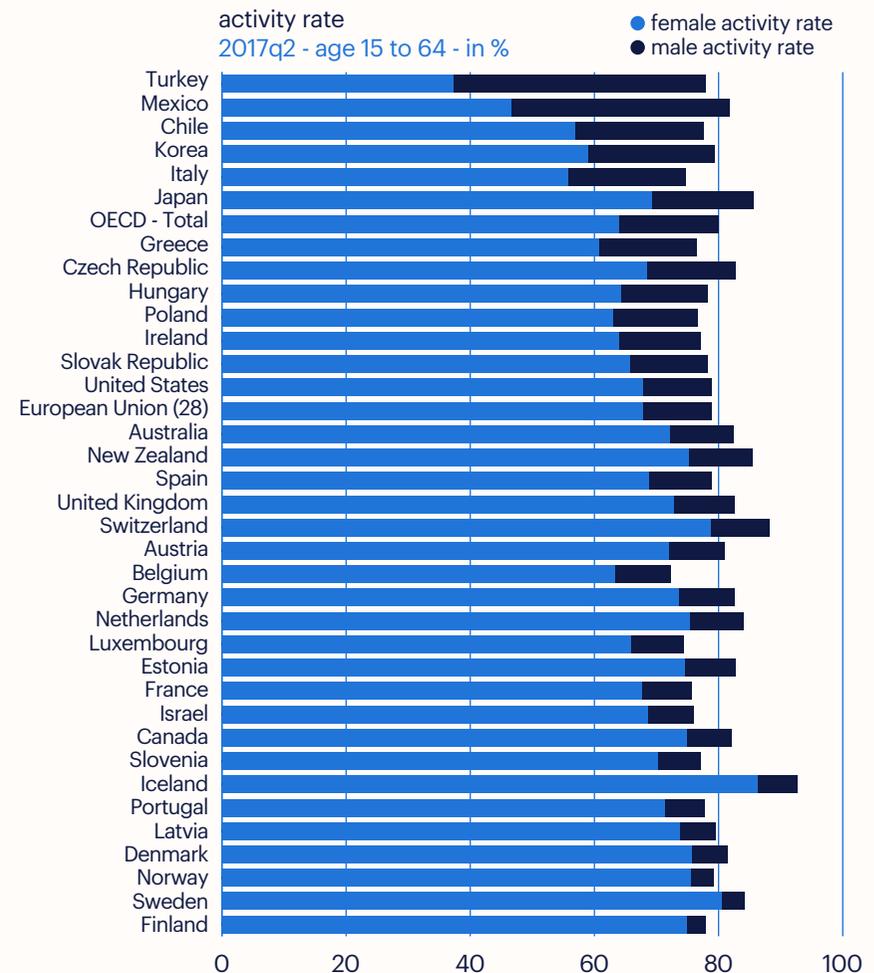
source: LFS (OECD.stats)

# the gender gap in labor participation.

As for women, their participation has been rising in all countries for several decades. Each new generation of women has had a stronger attachment to the labor market than the previous one. There are probably important cultural reasons for this, but the increase has also been enabled by technical progress, allowing housework to be done more easily, while higher educational attainment has also played a role in luring women into the job market.

Policies have also affected this trend and appear to play an important role in explaining cross-country differences in female participation. Taxation is one such policy. Married women are widely considered as the second earner in a couple and when their income is taxed jointly with that of their husband, the marginal tax rate can be very high. This is unfortunate since women's participation reacts more to tax changes than that of men. Most countries have moved towards taxing each earner in the couple separately, but joint taxation still exists in a number of countries, including France and Germany.

Better participation can also be achieved by subsidising childcare, either directly or through the tax system. Most Nordic countries have gone pretty far in this respect and also have high female labor force participation. Childcare support may be seen more as a subsidy to female full-time work than to part-time work, and indeed, the share of part-time work in Nordic countries has declined. But the money to pay for childcare subsidies obviously has to come from taxes, and higher taxes in general reduce people's desire to work, so there are limits to how far this policy



source: LFS (OECD.stats)

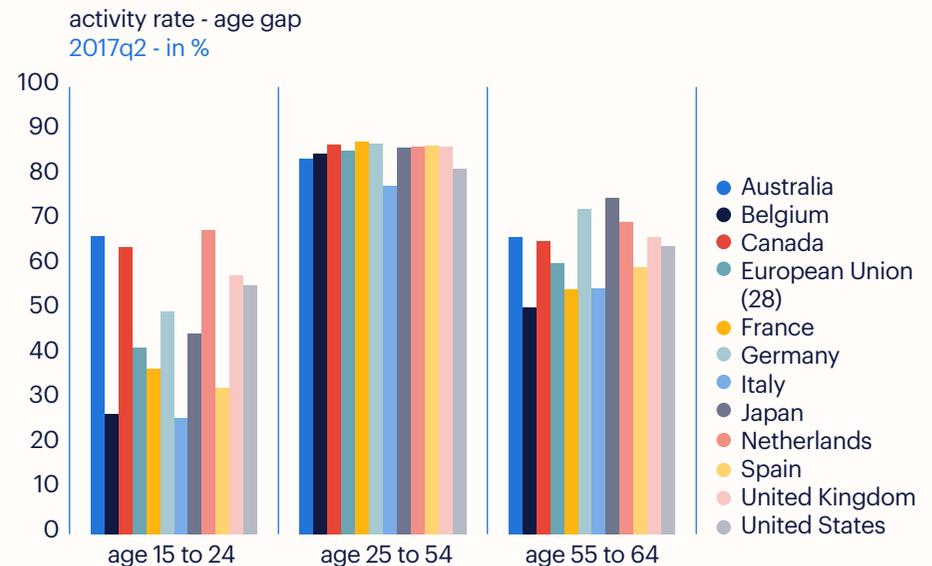
can go. Other countries, such as the United States, manage however to achieve high female participation without large-scale subsidisation of childcare. In this case, because of a wide dispersion of wages, many households can afford to meet the costs of childcare by themselves.

# the age gap in labor participation.

In contrast to women, older men have reduced their labor force participation in all countries over the past three decades – in some cases sharply. It may seem ironic that effective retirement ages have fallen at the same time as people are living longer and healthier lives. This fall may reflect a stronger appetite for leisure as real incomes have gone up. But it also owes a lot to policies.

Early retirement, invalidity and unemployment benefit schemes in many countries provide people in their 50s with strong incentives to retire. These often misguided policies led to a sharp drop in participation in the 1970s and 1980s. There has been some moderate roll-back since then, but most of these policies remain in place in many continental European countries, with detrimental consequences for employment.

Old-age pension schemes also stack the cards in favor of people retiring early. If people postpone their retirement by a year, this is rarely reflected in correspondingly higher pensions later on, despite their extra contributions. This is already problematic at ages between 60 and 65, but after 65 the disincentives to work become almost prohibitive in some countries. In our society where people are fitter for a lot longer, we should be free to engage in “active ageing”.

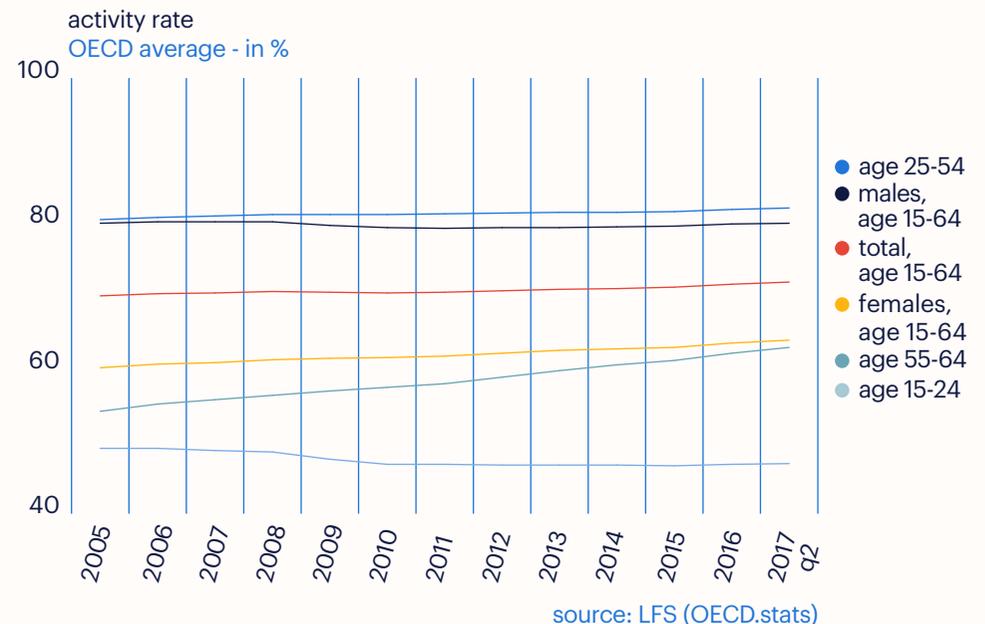


source: LFS (OECD.stats)

# how to increase labor participation.

There is a strong presumption that those countries which achieved high labor force participation also had the best policy framework. The time has come to implement a new set of policies conducive to stronger growth, higher employment and sounder pension systems. To cope with mounting financial pressures due to the ageing of society, governments have to make hard choices. In particular, to avoid increasing the tax burden or impoverishing pensioners, they are now looking at ways of inducing more people to enter or stay in work.

These policies will have to be tailored to meet the specific needs of the various groups that make up the active population. One group in the labor market almost fully employed is that of prime-age males (25-54), whose labor-force participation rate generally exceeds 90 percent. By contrast, there is wide variation in the extent to which women, as well as young and older persons, participate in the labor market. Those groups are most likely to be influenced by government policies, for better or worse.



In the short term measures could well be needed to ensure the full employment of more people coming onto the job market. But it is reassuring to note that those countries which have promoted active labor force participation also benefit from high employment. Given time, employers have been able to create the jobs needed to match a more abundant supply of labor.

# a policy package to increase labor participation

- eliminate early retirement schemes and raise standard retirement ages;
- increase childcare subsidies;
- eliminate tax discrimination against female participation;
- enhance the role of part-time work;
- make the school-to-work transition more effective.

include the  
followings steps.

# activity data sheet.

activity rate in %

country	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017q2
Australia	75,4	75,8	76,2	76,5	76,4	76,4	76,6	76,4	76,4	76,3	76,9	76,9	77,3
Austria	71,5	72,4	73,5	73,9	74,3	74,4	74,6	75,1	75,5	75,4	75,5	76,2	76,4
Belgium	66,8	66,5	67,1	67,1	66,9	67,7	66,7	66,9	67,6	67,7	67,6	67,6	67,8
Canada	77,7	77,7	78,3	78,4	78,0	77,8	77,8	77,8	78,0	77,8	78,0	78,1	78,5
Chile	59,3	60,3	60,8	62,3	62,3	64,8	66,2	66,3	66,4	66,6	66,8	66,8	67,3
Czech Republic	70,4	70,4	69,8	69,7	70,1	70,2	70,5	71,6	72,9	73,5	74,1	75,0	75,7
Denmark	79,8	80,6	80,1	80,7	80,2	79,4	79,3	78,7	78,1	78,1	78,5	80,0	78,6
Estonia	70,7	72,8	73,2	74,2	74,0	73,9	74,8	74,8	75,1	75,3	76,7	77,5	78,6
Finland	74,7	75,2	75,6	76,0	75,0	74,5	75,0	75,2	75,2	75,4	75,8	75,9	76,5
France	69,7	69,6	69,7	69,9	70,3	70,3	70,1	70,7	71,1	71,2	71,3	71,4	71,6
Germany	73,8	75,0	75,6	75,9	76,3	76,7	77,3	77,2	77,7	77,7	77,6	77,9	78,1
Greece	66,4	66,7	66,6	66,6	67,5	67,8	67,3	67,5	67,5	67,4	67,8	68,2	68,6
Hungary	61,4	62,1	61,7	61,2	61,2	61,9	62,4	63,7	64,7	67,0	68,7	70,1	71,1
Iceland	86,0	87,1	87,1	86,2	84,6	84,8	84,5	84,9	85,8	87,4	88,4	89,4	89,5
Ireland	70,8	71,9	72,6	72,1	70,6	69,5	69,2	69,2	69,8	69,8	70,0	70,6	70,4
Israel	62,4	62,9	63,7	63,8	64,1	64,5	64,6	71,5	71,6	72,2	72,2	72,1	72,2
Italy	62,5	62,7	62,4	62,9	62,3	62,0	62,1	63,5	63,4	64,0	64,1	65,0	65,2
Japan	72,7	73,2	73,7	73,9	74,1	74,2	74,4	74,0	74,9	75,6	76,1	77,0	77,5
Korea	66,3	66,2	66,2	66,0	65,4	65,8	66,2	66,4	66,6	67,8	68,3	68,7	69,3
Latvia	69,2	71,0	72,6	74,2	73,6	73,0	72,8	74,4	74,0	74,6	75,8	76,3	76,6
Luxembourg	66,6	66,7	66,9	66,8	68,7	68,2	68,0	69,4	69,9	70,8	70,9	70,0	70,1
Mexico	62,3	63,3	63,4	63,2	63,3	63,1	63,4	64,2	64,1	63,6	63,6	63,6	63,4
Netherlands	76,9	77,4	78,5	79,4	79,7	78,2	78,1	79,0	79,4	79,0	79,6	79,7	79,7
New Zealand	77,2	77,8	78,0	77,8	77,4	77,1	77,3	77,1	77,5	78,6	78,7	79,8	80,3
Norway	78,3	78,0	78,8	80,1	78,9	78,1	77,8	78,3	78,2	78,0	78,2	78,1	77,4
Poland	64,4	63,4	63,2	63,8	64,7	65,3	65,7	66,5	67,0	67,9	68,1	68,8	69,7
Portugal	73,2	73,6	73,9	74,0	73,4	73,7	73,6	73,4	73,1	73,3	73,4	73,7	74,4
Slovak Republic	69,0	68,7	68,3	68,8	68,4	68,7	68,7	69,4	69,9	70,3	70,9	71,9	72,1
Slovenia	70,7	70,9	71,3	71,8	71,9	71,5	70,3	70,4	70,5	70,9	71,8	71,7	73,8
Spain	70,0	71,1	71,7	72,7	73,1	73,5	73,9	74,3	74,3	74,2	74,3	74,2	73,8
Sweden	78,2	78,8	79,2	79,4	78,9	79,1	79,9	80,3	81,1	81,5	81,8	82,1	82,4
Switzerland	80,9	81,2	81,6	82,3	82,5	81,3	82,1	82,3	82,4	82,9	83,3	83,9	83,6
Turkey	.	49,0	49,1	49,8	50,8	51,9	53,2	53,4	54,4	55,1	56,0	57,0	57,5
United Kingdom	75,4	75,7	75,5	75,8	75,7	75,4	75,5	76,1	76,4	76,7	76,9	77,3	77,7
United States	75,4	75,5	75,3	75,3	74,6	73,9	73,3	73,1	72,8	72,7	72,6	73,0	73,3
European Union (28)	69,8	70,2	70,3	70,7	70,8	71,0	71,1	71,7	72,0	72,3	72,5	72,9	73,3

source: LFS (OECD.stats)

# activity data sheet.

activity rate in %

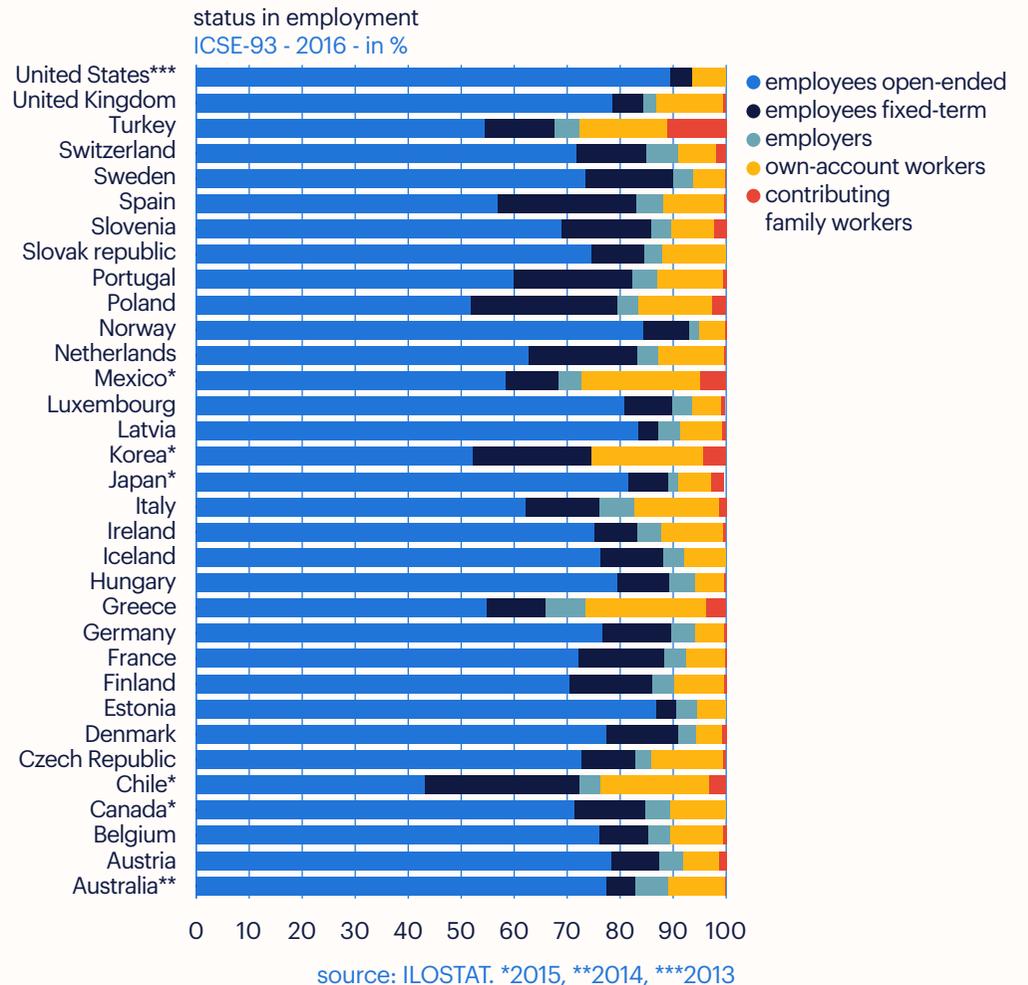
country	female	male	age 15-24	age 25-54	age 55-64	low	medium	high
Australia	72,1	82,5	66,6	83,9	66,3	-	-	-
Austria	71,9	80,9	56,9	88,6	53,0	53,0	78,6	87,7
Belgium	63,3	72,3	26,9	85,0	50,7	41,3	69,7	85,7
Canada	74,9	82,0	64,2	87,1	65,4	-	-	-
Chile	56,9	77,6	34,3	79,9	67,3	-	-	-
Czech Republic	68,5	82,7	31,7	89,0	63,2	29,5	81,1	84,8
Denmark	75,7	81,5	62,9	85,7	72,0	61,2	82,6	89,4
Estonia	74,6	82,7	45,5	88,9	71,7	52,0	82,0	87,9
Finland	74,8	78,1	52,3	86,6	67,9	53,8	80,7	89,1
France	67,7	75,7	36,9	87,7	54,8	47,2	74,7	87,7
Germany	73,6	82,5	49,8	87,3	72,6	51,1	82,3	90,1
Greece	60,7	76,5	25,7	85,4	46,4	53,3	68,6	85,1
Hungary	64,2	78,2	33,0	86,9	53,2	43,1	76,2	85,6
Iceland	86,2	92,7	86,0	91,8	86,2	82,4	93,9	95,7
Ireland	63,9	77,0	37,9	81,1	62,2	39,6	72,5	86,7
Israel	68,6	75,9	48,8	82,9	68,3	-	-	-
Italy	55,7	74,8	25,9	77,8	55,0	51,1	72,1	84,0
Japan	69,3	85,6	44,8	86,5	75,1	-	-	-
Korea	59,0	79,4	31,1	79,1	69,0	-	-	-
Latvia	73,7	79,6	41,5	87,4	67,5	45,2	78,8	90,0
Luxembourg	65,8	74,3	28,7	87,9	40,3	45,0	70,3	87,8
Mexico	46,6	81,8	43,8	73,4	56,5	-	-	-
Netherlands	75,3	84,1	68,0	86,7	69,7	64,1	82,2	90,5
New Zealand	75,2	85,4	62,0	86,9	80,0	-	-	-
Norway	75,5	79,2	53,6	85,8	73,1	55,8	80,2	89,6
Poland	62,9	76,6	34,8	85,3	50,8	26,7	71,5	88,9
Portugal	71,4	77,7	33,6	89,6	60,8	65,8	79,0	89,6
Slovak Republic	65,7	78,3	33,9	86,5	56,3	30,2	78,4	81,9
Slovenia	70,2	77,2	39,3	91,7	45,5	38,9	76,0	91,3
Spain	68,8	78,9	32,8	86,9	59,7	66,4	72,2	88,5
Sweden	80,5	84,2	53,9	91,2	80,9	59,7	87,9	92,4
Switzerland	78,7	88,3	66,6	90,3	75,1	65,7	84,2	91,5
Turkey	37,2	77,8	43,2	67,2	35,6	50,5	62,5	82,6
United Kingdom	72,8	82,6	57,9	86,6	66,4	64,1	78,0	87,5
United States	67,8	78,9	55,5	81,6	64,4	-	-	-
European Union (28)	67,8	78,9	41,6	85,7	60,5	53,3	76,6	88,1

source: LFS (OECD.stats)

# flexible labor.

Although the traditional open-ended labor contract is still the standard labor relation, many other forms of more flexible labor relations have developed over the last decades. These other forms of labor relations vary in the type of flexibility: flexibility in the duration of the contract (fixed-term contracts), flexibility in the company people work for (e.g. triangular labor relations such as agency work) and flexibility in the labor relation (e.g. self-employed workers). For that reason, all these other types of contracts can be interpreted as flexible labor contracts as opposed to the traditional open-ended labor contract with a direct employer.

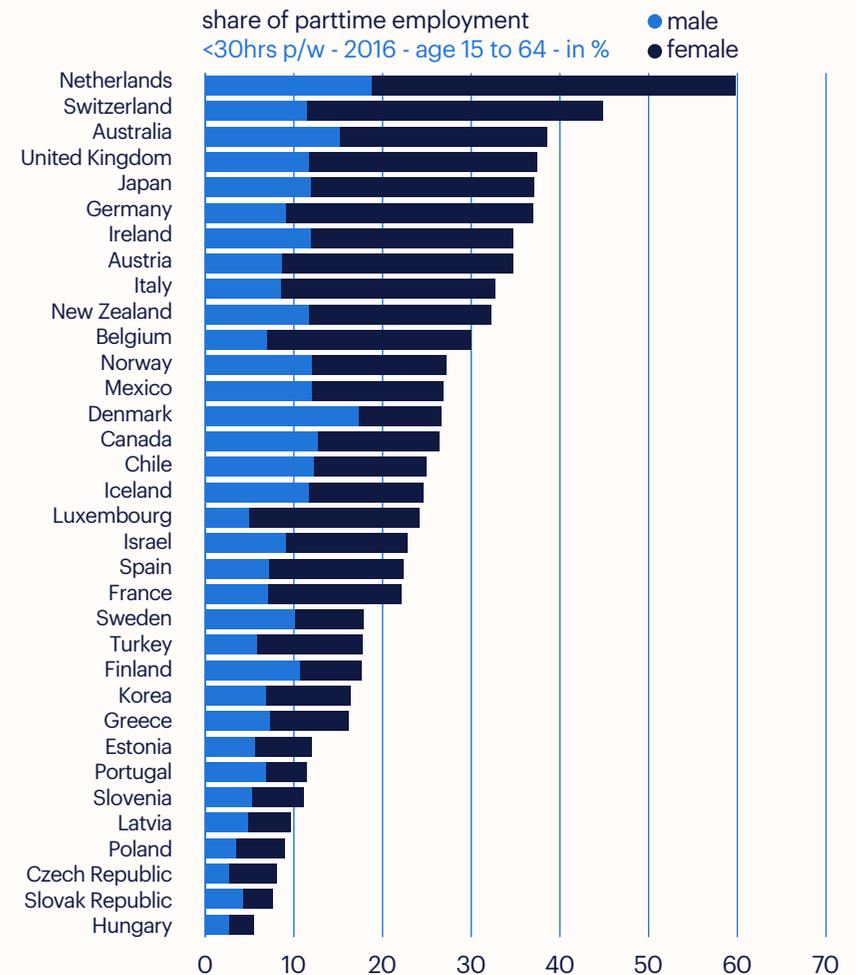
Flexible labor relations enable companies to quickly adjust the size and composition of their workforce when innovations change their product lines and production methods. These flexible labor relations also enable companies to screen workers with respect to their productivity and creativity before adding them to their more permanent workforce. Through this way of matching, long-term labor relations become more efficient to the employer. If flexible labor relations are used to support innovation processes and optimize the quality of the workforce, it enables further economic growth.



# part-time employment.

Regarding the increase of participation, one might state that the rise in participation owes to a large extent to the possibility of part-time jobs, which stimulated many households to participate with both members.

In the last decades some countries faced a transition from the standard 'breadwinner household' to the more modern '1.5 jobs per family' households, gaining popularity among young families with children. Part-time work is still a female and young phenomenon. Most of the increased female participation during the nineties, was through women entering the labor market in part-time jobs. When looking at the incidence of part-time work we see that the Netherlands take a special position. Nearly 40% of all employed Dutch persons are working in a part-time job of less than 30 hours/week, mostly women.

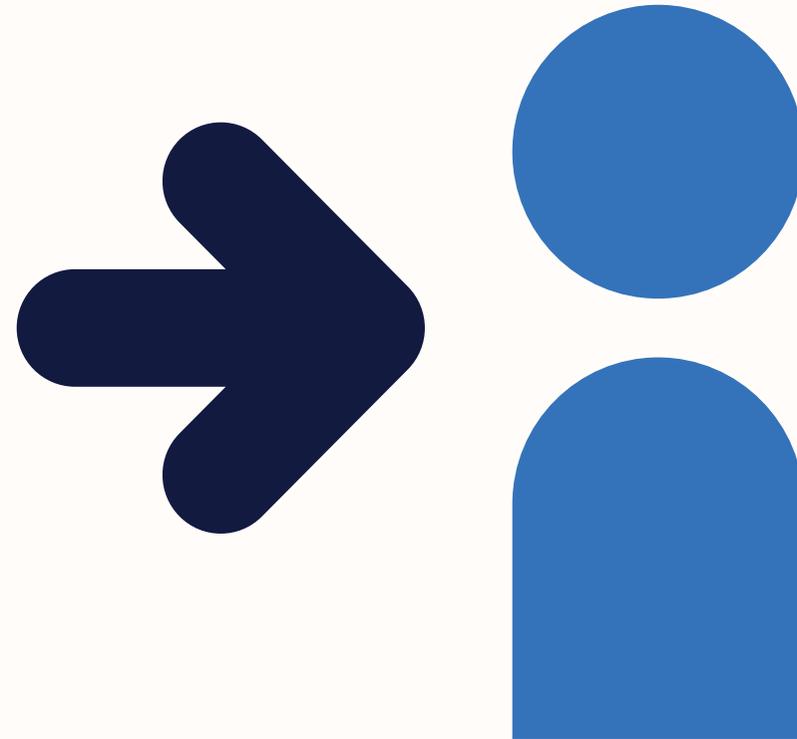


source: OECD.stats

# temporary employment.

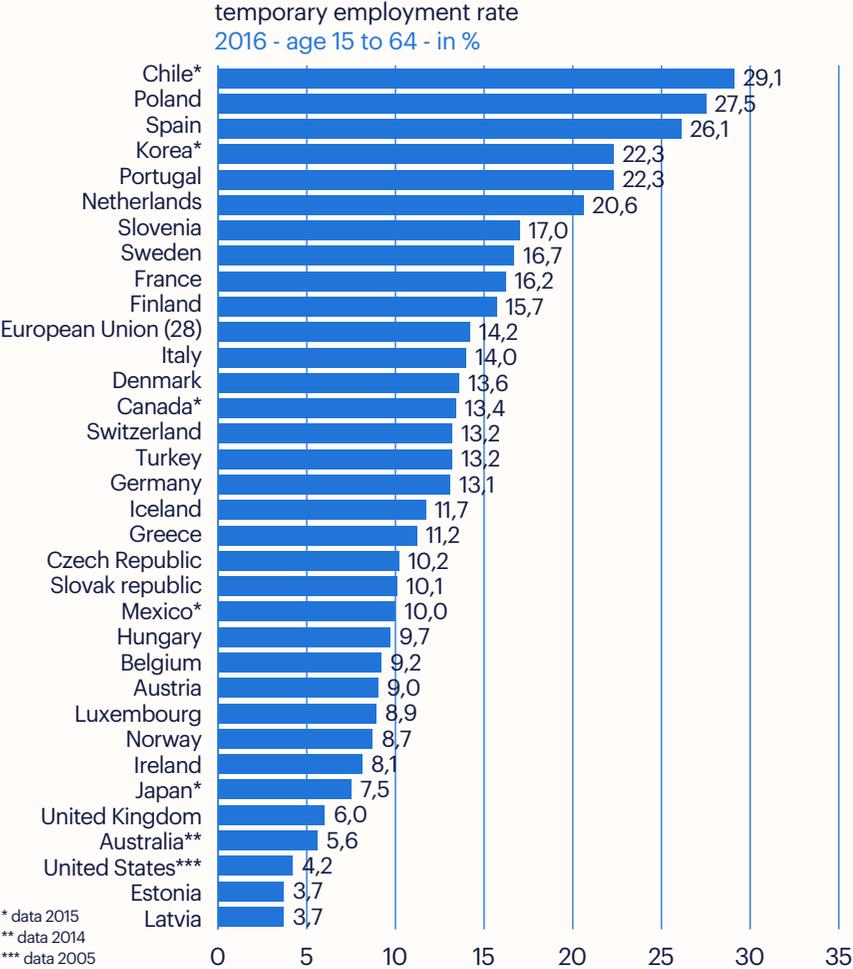
In many countries temporary work has been an important component of employment growth in the last one or two decades. Temporary contracts may facilitate job matching, by providing an initial work experience especially for youths (either during their educational period, for starters or for drop-outs) while also allowing employers to screen suitable candidates. For employers temporary jobs also offer the opportunity to adapt the size of their workforce to the economic conditions.

When the recent economic crisis kicked in, the share of fixed-term contracts declined in most European countries. The crisis was assimilated by businesses through not renewing fixed-term contracts. As a result, the share of fixed-term contracts in total employment fell seriously in the financial crisis, particularly in Spain. Since the early nineties close to 30 percent of all Spanish workers had a temporary contract. The share of temporary contracts dropped as a consequence of the recession, which struck the Spanish labor market more than in most other countries (and temporary workers even more).

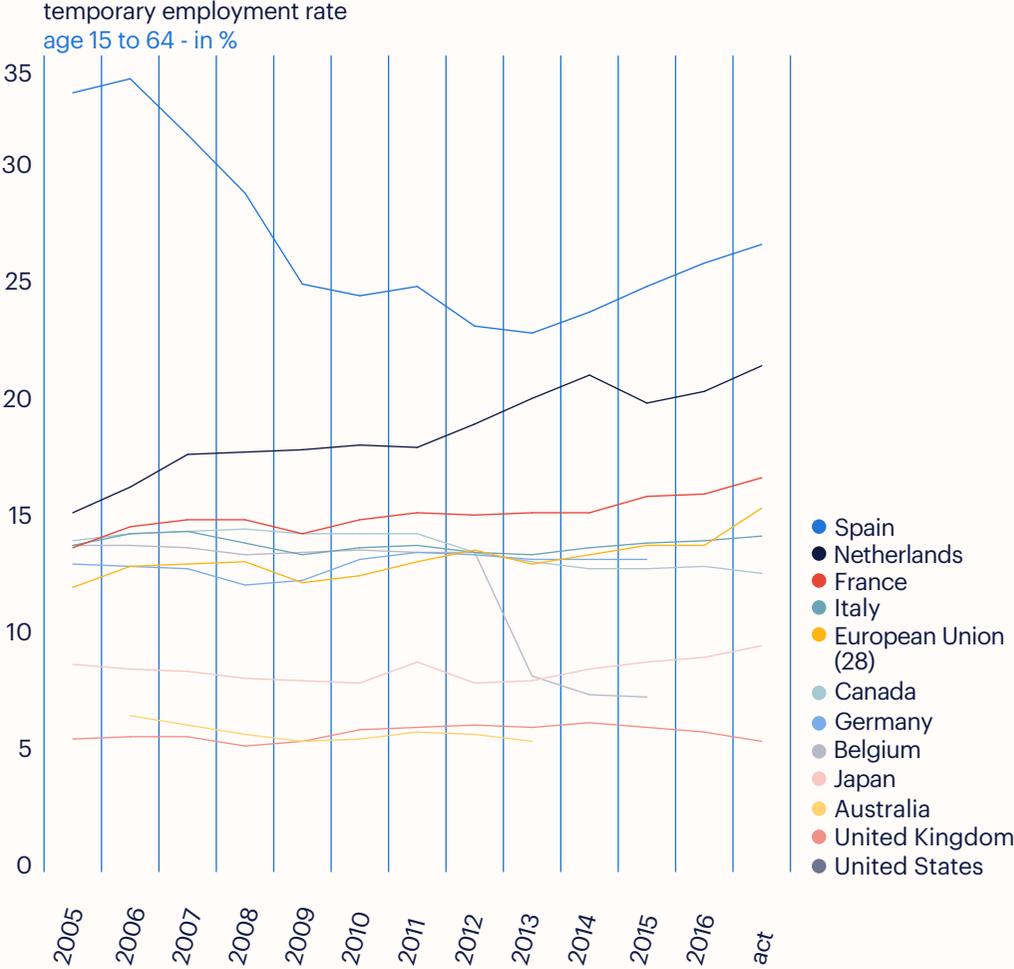


In Poland temporary work increased in a seven-year period in the beginning of the century from less than 6 percent to over 20 percent and remained on the same level ever since reaching xx.x percent in 2016. Strong growth of the temporary employment rate in the Netherlands, from 12 percent at the beginning of the century to xx.x percent in 2016 was driven by institutional factors, which made it easier for employers to offer fixed-term contracts. France and Italy have seen a more moderate, yet continuous growth of the temporary employment rate. In Germany there was a directly increase of the temporary employment rate after the Hartz reforms in 2004, peaking at 13.1 percent in 2008, but it has fallen since to xx.x percent close to the level before the Hartz reforms.

# temporary employment rates.



source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT), \*2015, \*\*2014, \*\*\*2005

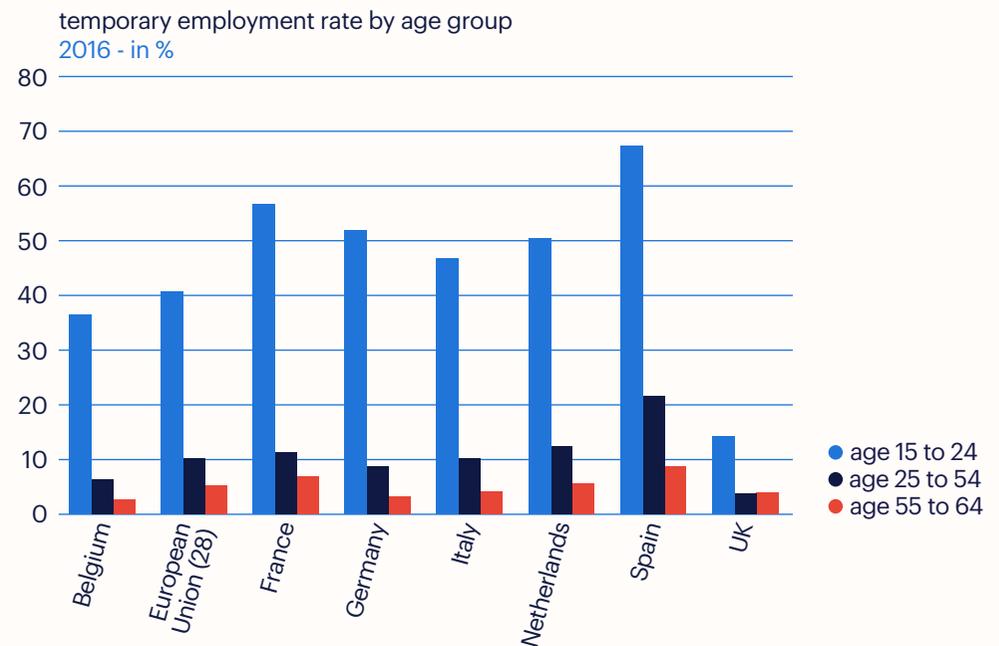


source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)

# types of temporary employment.

Incidence of temporary work differs by age but not by gender. In most countries women are only slightly overrepresented. However, as expected, temporary work is more common among youth. Part of this effect is caused by the fact that many young people are still in education, and therefore not available for a fulltime job. The relations in temporary employment rates between the age-groups has been very constant over the years which indicates most youth who are in temporary employment do step into open-ended employment by the time they reach their thirties or before.

Temporary work is not only characterized by relatively young workers, it is also characterized by overrepresentation of low-skilled workers. The most dramatic example of this being Germany where the likelihood of being in temporary work is three times higher for low-skilled workers. Two possible explanations can be thought of. Firstly, if people are still in education, their skill level is not measured correctly by 'highest successfully completed education' because they have not completed their educational track yet. Secondly, early school leavers ('drop-outs') do not get a permanent job easily because they lack certain minimum qualifications. Starting with temporary jobs is often their only option. However, in Spain and Italy temporary work is not distinguished as 'typically low-skilled': high-skilled temporary work is also very common in these countries.



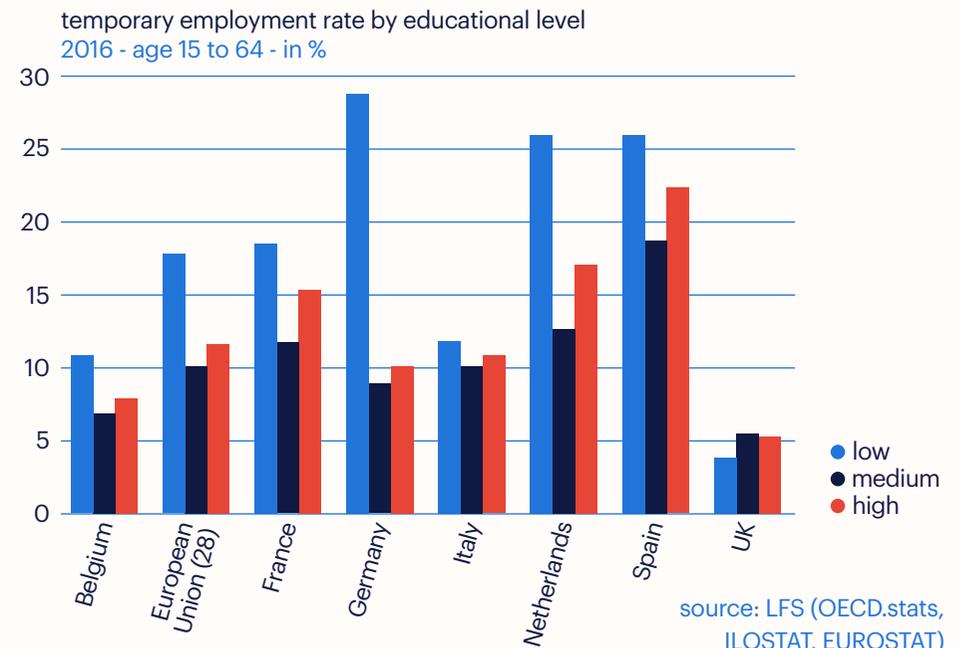
source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)

# types of temporary employment.

Temporary workers can be found in different economic sectors like manufacturing, retail, health-care, education, construction and business services. There is no clear pattern but it varies by country. Manufacturing is the most important sector for temporary workers in the Germany, France, Italy and Portugal. Construction is more dominant in Spain, Portugal and Greece. Furthermore, in the Netherlands, Germany, France, Sweden and the UK the health sector plays an important role in the labor market for temporary workers. At least 15% of the temporary workforce in these countries works in the health sector. In the UK many temporary workers are also found in the education sector (although the overall share of temporary workers in total employment is considerably low in the UK).

Currently, about half of all flexible labor consists of fixed-term contracts (the other half being self-employment). Most western countries between 5 and 20 percent of all workers have fixed-term contracts. The United States, Australia and the United Kingdom show traditionally the lowest figures due to the less stringent employment protection. The type of temporary contracts differs between countries in average duration. The average duration of a temporary contract in the EU is 17 months. However, 60 percent of the contracts agree on a duration of less than 12 months. In Scandinavia and the German-speaking countries temporary workers have longer contracts than in other countries, especially France, Belgium and Spain.

The reasons for working in a temporary job differ substantially between countries. Roughly speaking: in the German-speaking countries, Scandinavia and the



Netherlands temporary work is a voluntary choice for the majority of temporary workers. In contrast, in Belgium and the Mediterranean countries the majority of temporary workers opt for temporary work only as a second choice. A correlation does exist between employment participation and whether temporary work is voluntary: countries with higher participation have less people working involuntarily in a fixed term contract. In other words, higher participation levels come hand in hand with more voluntary temporary workers. Apparently some part of the higher participation countries might be connected to their labor markets providing 'good quality' temporary jobs.

# temporary employment data sheet.

temporary employment rate in %

country	female	male	age 15-24	age 25-54	age 55-64	low	medium	high
Australia**	6,1	5,2						
Austria	9,1	8,9	32,9	4,9	2,4	22,0	7,5	4,7
Belgium	10,1	8,4	36,7	6,4	2,7	10,7	6,8	7,8
Canada*	13,8	13,0						
Chile*	28,1	29,7						
Czech Republic	12,2	8,5	30,0	7,0	5,5	20,5	6,8	7,8
Denmark	15,1	12,2	32,5	9,7	5,2	17,4	10,1	11,2
Estonia	3,5	3,9	12,6	2,8	1,6	8,6	1,7	3,6
Finland	18,3	13	41,0	11,4	6,1	17,9	11,9	14,2
France	16,6	15,9	57,0	11,4	6,9	18,3	11,6	15,2
Germany	13,1	13,1	52,1	8,8	3,3	28,5	8,8	10,0
Greece	12,4	10,3	24,8	7,3	3,5	7,9	6,4	8,2
Hungary	10,2	9,3	19,5	7,9	7,8	30,7	2,9	6,9
Iceland	12,6	10,9	27,9	7,7	4,3	12,3	10,3	9,4
Ireland	8,4	7,8	27,4	5,3	3,4	9,1	5,9	7,5
Italy	14,6	13,5	46,9	10,3	4,2	11,7	10,0	10,7
Japan*	10,3	5,3						
Korea*	24,6	20,5						
Latvia	2,8	4,7	7,7	2,9	2,6	7,4	2,0	3,4
Luxembourg	8,9	8,8	34,1	6,5	3,4	12,2	7,7	6,7
Mexico*								
Netherlands	21,8	19,6	50,7	12,5	5,6	25,7	12,5	16,9
Norway	10,3	7,2	27,7	6,4	1,5	14,3	7,3	6,6
Poland	27,7	27,3	62,5	20,0	12,6	33,5	16,5	23,9
Portugal	22,1	22,5	62,8	18,1	7,4	16,6	20,0	22,5
Slovak republic	10,4	9,8	23,3	7,5	6,9	43,2	4,4	7,6
Slovenia	18,1	16,1	66,3	12,0	5,3	15,7	13,2	15,3
Spain	26,4	25,7	67,7	21,7	8,8	25,7	18,5	22,1
Sweden	18,3	15,1	52,8	10,8	6,7	26,3	11,5	14,3
Switzerland	13,1	13,3	47,7	6,7	3,3	33,4	8,8	7,2
Turkey	11,9	13,8	19,2	7,4	6,5	12,5	2,9	6,7
United Kingdom	6,6	5,5	14,3	3,7	4,0	3,8	5,4	5,2
United States***	4,2	4,2						
European Union (28)	13,8	14,7	40,9	10,3	5,3	17,6	10,0	11,5

source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT), \*2015, \*\*2014, \*\*\*2005

# temporary employment data sheet.

temporary employment rate in %

country	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Australia		6,7	6,3	5,9	5,6	5,7	6,0	5,9	5,6			
Austria	9,0	8,9	8,8	8,9	9,1	9,4	9,5	9,3	9,2	9,1	9,1	9,0
Belgium	8,9	8,7	8,6	8,3	8,2	8,1	9,0	8,1	8,2	8,7	9,0	9,2
Canada	13,2	13,1	13,0	12,3	12,5	13,4	13,7	13,6	13,4	13,4	13,4	
Chile						30,6	30,3	30,4	29,7	29,2	29,1	
Czech Republic	8,6	8,7	8,6	8,0	8,5	8,9	8,5	8,8	9,6	10,2	10,5	10,2
Denmark	9,8	8,9	9,1	8,5	8,7	8,4	8,8	8,5	8,8	8,5	8,6	13,6
Estonia	2,7	2,7	2,1	2,4	2,5	3,7	4,5	3,7	3,5	3,2	3,5	3,7
Finland	16,5	16,4	15,9	15,0	14,5	15,5	15,6	15,6	15,4	15,5	15,3	15,7
France	13,9	14,8	15,1	15,1	14,5	15,1	15,4	15,3	15,4	15,4	16,1	16,2
Germany	14,2	14,5	14,6	14,7	14,5	14,5	14,5	13,7	13,3	13,0	13,0	13,1
Greece	11,9	10,8	11,0	11,6	12,3	12,6	11,8	10,2	10,1	11,7	11,9	11,2
Hungary	7,0	6,9	7,3	7,9	8,5	9,8	9,1	9,5	10,9	10,8	11,4	9,7
Iceland	6,6	11,5	12,2	9,5	9,6	12,3	12,1	13,0	14,0	13,2	12,7	11,7
Ireland	3,7	6,0	8,4	8,5	8,7	9,6	10,1	10,1	9,9	9,2	8,6	8,1
Italy	12,2	13,1	13,2	13,3	12,4	12,7	13,3	13,8	13,2	13,6	14,0	14,0
Japan	14,0	14,0	13,9	13,6	13,7	13,8	13,7	13,7	8,4	7,6	7,5	
Korea	27,4	25,4	24,7	23,7	26,1	23,0	23,8	23,1	22,4	21,7	22,3	
Latvia	8,7	7,1	4,1	3,4	4,3	7,1	6,6	4,7	4,4	3,3	3,8	3,7
Luxembourg	5,3	6,1	6,8	6,2	7,2	7,1	7,1	7,6	7,1	8,1	10,1	8,9
Mexico	8,9	8,8	9,2	8,8	8,5	8,8	8,6	8,8	9,8	9,5	10,0	
Netherlands	15,4	16,5	17,9	18,0	18,1	18,3	18,2	19,2	20,3	21,3	20,1	20,6
Norway	9,5	10,1	9,5	9,0	8,1	8,3	7,9	8,4	8,3	7,8	8,0	8,7
Poland	25,7	27,3	28,2	27,0	26,5	27,3	26,9	26,9	26,9	28,4	28,0	27,5
Portugal	19,4	20,4	22,3	22,7	22,0	22,8	22,0	20,5	21,4	21,4	22,0	22,3
Slovak republic	5,0	5,1	5,1	4,7	4,4	5,8	6,7	6,8	7,0	8,9	10,6	10,1
Slovenia	17,4	17,3	18,5	17,4	16,4	17,3	18,1	17,1	16,4	16,6	17,9	17,0
Spain	33,4	34,0	31,6	29,1	25,2	24,7	25,1	23,4	23,1	24,0	25,1	26,1
Sweden	15,9	17,3	17,5	16,1	15,3	16,4	17,0	16,4	16,9	17,5	17,2	16,7
Switzerland	12,7	13,4	12,8	13,1	13,2	13,0	12,8	12,8	12,8	13,0	13,6	13,2
Turkey	11,6	12,5	11,9	11,2	10,7	11,5	12,2	12,0	11,9	13,0	13,2	13,2
United Kingdom	5,7	5,8	5,8	5,4	5,6	6,1	6,2	6,3	6,2	6,4	6,2	6,0
United States	4,2											
European Union (28)	14,0	14,5	14,6	14,1	13,6	13,9	14,0	13,7	13,6	13,9	14,1	14,2

source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)

# agency work.

With agency work, the employer does not hire an employee directly on a fixed-term contract, but through a private employment agency. Typically, the employee is hired directly by the employment agency, mostly on a fixed-term basis but occasionally on an open-ended contract. During the contract period, the employee can be assigned to different user companies. After the contract expires, a renewed contract with the employment agency is one of the possibilities, but also a contract with one of the user companies.

Agency work give employers the opportunity to adapt the size of their workforce to economic conditions and at the same time facilitate job matching by providing initial work experience. This is particularly true for younger people, either during their educational period or when starting on the labor market, but also for the unemployed to find their way back to the labor market. People who start doing agency work out of unemployment will often not return to unemployment after their assignment.

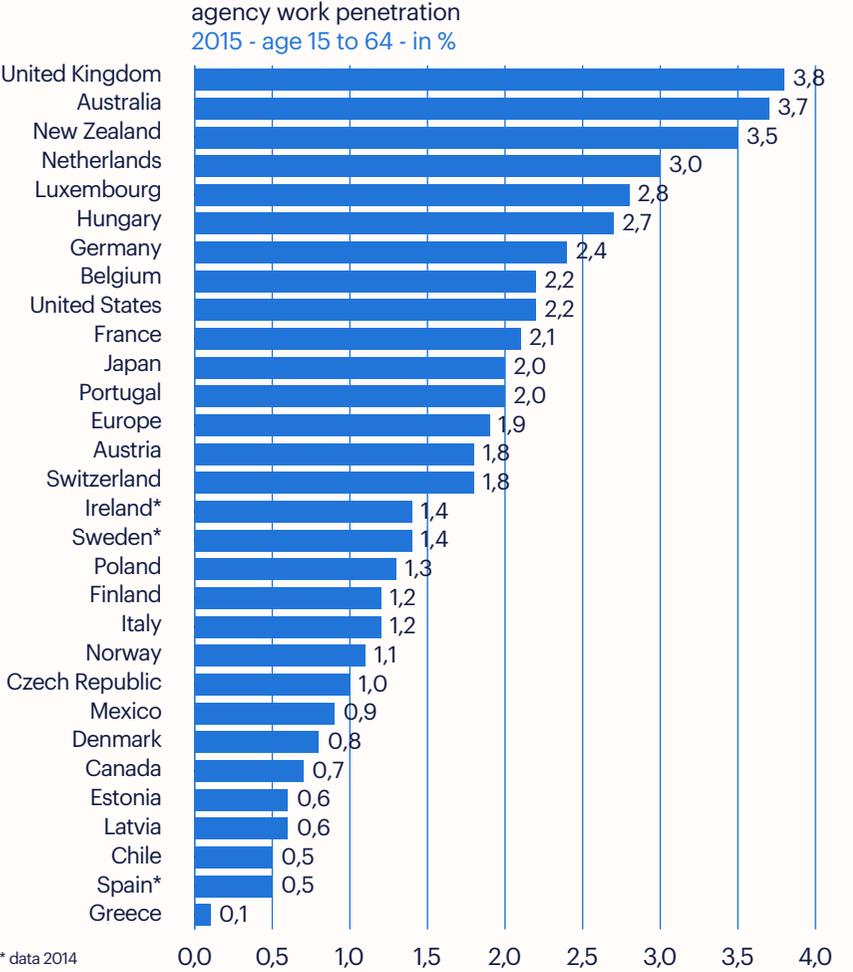
Agency work accounts for a relatively small but important part of total employment. It has a long tradition in the United States, with a long-term share in total employment of around 2%. In Europe, agency work has the highest employment share in the United Kingdom, followed traditionally by the Benelux countries and France, where agency work has been well-established for four to five decades now. In Germany agency work has become much more popular over the last decade after the changed regulation on labor in the Hartz reforms. In Japan, agency work has become more popular since 2000, with the current share at around 1.5 to 2%. After the financial crisis agency work penetration rates went down in many countries but have recovered since to pre-crisis rates.

## stepping stone

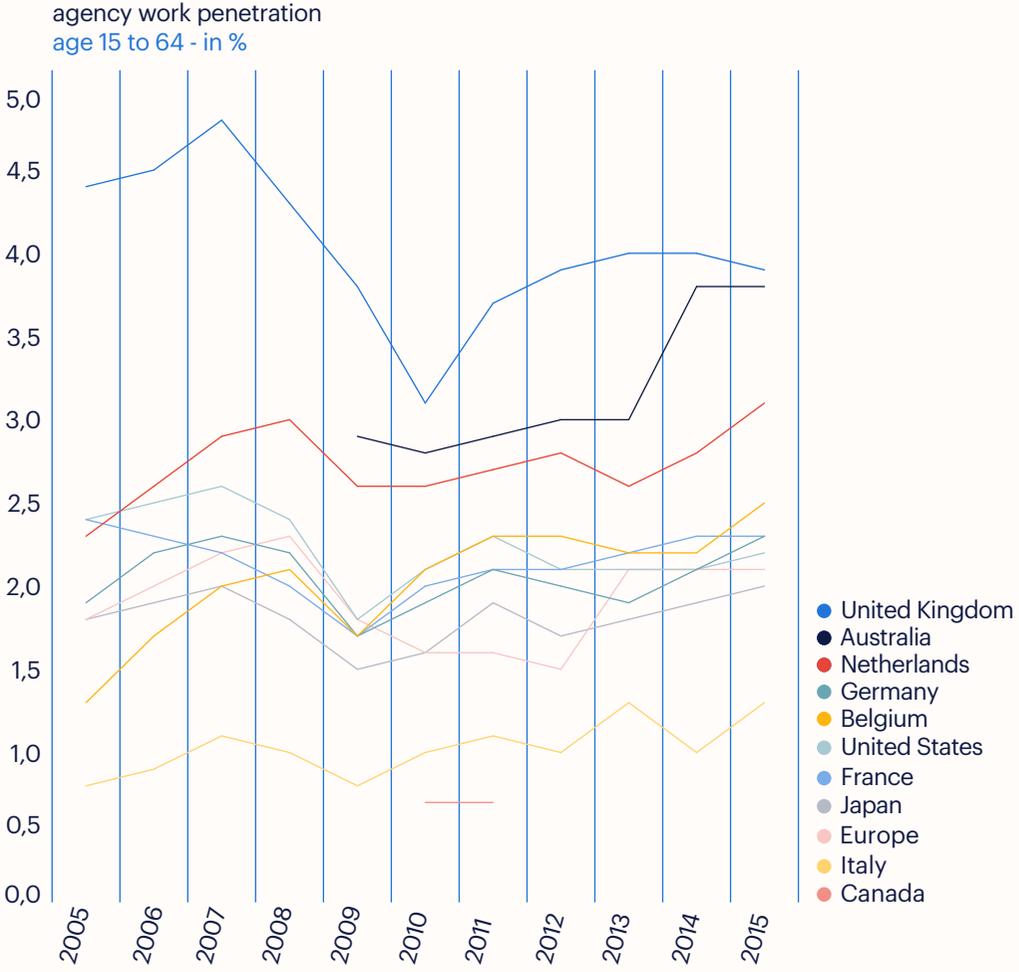
Although there are significant differences between the countries, each show that agency work is a stepping stone out of unemployment into work. Clearly, people use the experience and skills they obtain while working as an agency worker to make a next move on the labor market. People who start working as an agency worker can do so either from employment or unemployment, but also from education or inactivity. Through agency work, they do not only have a good point of entry to the labor market, but they are also able to stay in employment after their agency work assignment ended.

In many countries agency workers receive formal training, either directly through the agency, or through bipartite funds set up by the agencies and the trade unions. This makes sure that agency workers get opportunities to keep developing themselves in order to take another step on the labor market. Being close to the labor market, employment and recruitment agencies are excellently suited to advice workers on the type of training to follow in order to enhance their employability.

# agency work rates.



source: WEC, \*2014



source: WEC Economic report 2017

# agency work data sheet.

agency work, source: WEC

country	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Australia					2,8	2,7	2,8	2,9	2,9	3,7	3,7
Austria	1,2	1,5	1,7	1,7	1,4	1,6	1,8	1,9	1,8	1,6	1,8
Belgium	1,8	2,1	2,2	2,1	1,6	1,8	2,0	1,9	1,8	2,0	2,2
Canada						0,6	0,6				0,7
Chile					0,4	0,5	0,3				0,5
Czech Republic				0,7	0,7	0,7	0,7	0,9	0,9	0,9	1,0
Denmark	0,6	0,7	0,7	0,8	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,6	0,7	0,8
Estonia						0,5	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,7	0,6
Europe	1,7	1,8	1,9	1,7	1,4	1,5	1,8	1,6	1,7	1,8	1,9
Finland	0,7	0,7	1,1	1,3	0,8	0,9	1,3	1,2	1,1	1,2	1,2
France	2,3	2,4	2,5	2,3	1,7	2,0	2,2	2,0	2,0	2,0	2,1
Germany	1,2	1,6	1,9	2,0	1,6	2,0	2,2	2,2	2,1	2,1	2,4
Greece			0,2		0,1	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,1
Hungary	1,4	1,4	1,4	1,4	0,6	1,8			2,3		2,7
Ireland	1,3	1,5	1,7	1,7	0,9	1,9	2,5	1,4		1,4	
Italy	0,7	0,8	1,0	0,9	0,7	0,9	1,0	0,9	1,2	0,9	1,2
Japan	1,7	1,9	2,1	2,2	1,7	1,5	1,5	1,4	2,0	2,0	2,0
Latvia						0,3	0,4				3,6
Luxembourg	2,1	2,6	2,5	2,0	1,8	1,9	0,0	2,4	2,5	2,6	2,8
Mexico					0,1	0,1	0,3	0,3	0,3	0,3	0,9
Netherlands	2,2	2,5	2,8	2,9	2,5	2,5	2,6	2,7	2,5	2,7	3,0
New Zealand					0,6	0,3	0,3	0,4		0,4	3,5
Norway	0,7	1,0	1,0	1,0	0,8	0,9	0,9	1,0	0,9	1,1	1,1
Poland	0,2	0,2	0,4	0,6	0,5	0,7	1,0	1,0	1,2	1,3	1,3
Portugal	0,9	0,9	0,9	1,6	1,6	1,8	1,7				2,0
Slovakia				0,6	0,6	0,8					
Slovenia				0,2	0,2	0,5					
Spain	0,7	0,7	0,7	0,6	0,4	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,6
Sweden	0,7	0,8	1,3	1,3	1,0	1,3	1,4	1,3	1,5	1,4	1,6
Switzerland	1,2	1,5	1,7	1,6	1,3	1,5	1,7	1,7	1,7	1,7	1,8
Turkey								0,1			
United Kingdom	4,3	4,4	4,7	4,2	3,7	3,0	3,6	3,8	3,9	3,9	3,8
United States	2,3	2,2	2,1	1,9	1,6	1,9	2,0	2,0	2,1	2,2	2,2

source: WEC Economic report 2017

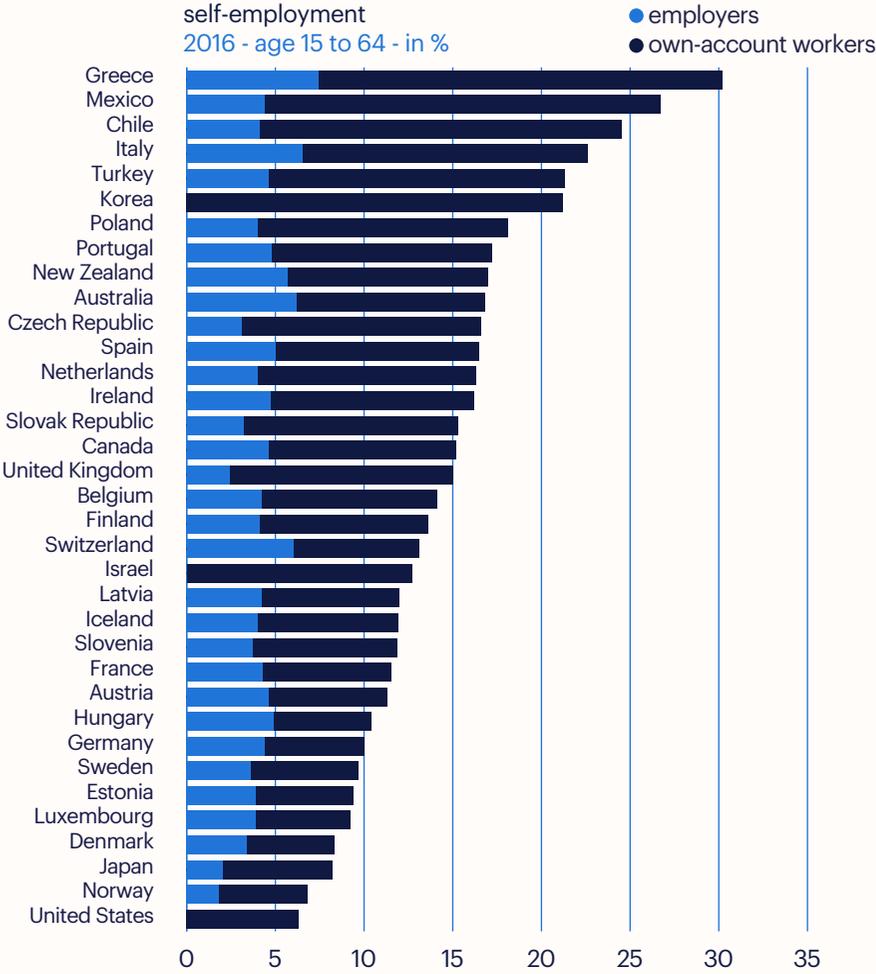
# self-employment.

Self-employment includes both owners of businesses, who can be considered employers rather than employees, and own-account workers. Many self-employed workers can be found in the agricultural sector and small retail. Therefore, countries with a large share of employment in these sectors have a high rate of self-employment. This is especially so in the developing and emerging regions of the world like Southern and Southeastern Asia and Latin-America where by far the highest rates of self-employment can be found. Self-employment rates here easily exceed 25% and reach up to over 80% in India. Often distinction between self-employment and informal work is difficult to make in these regions.

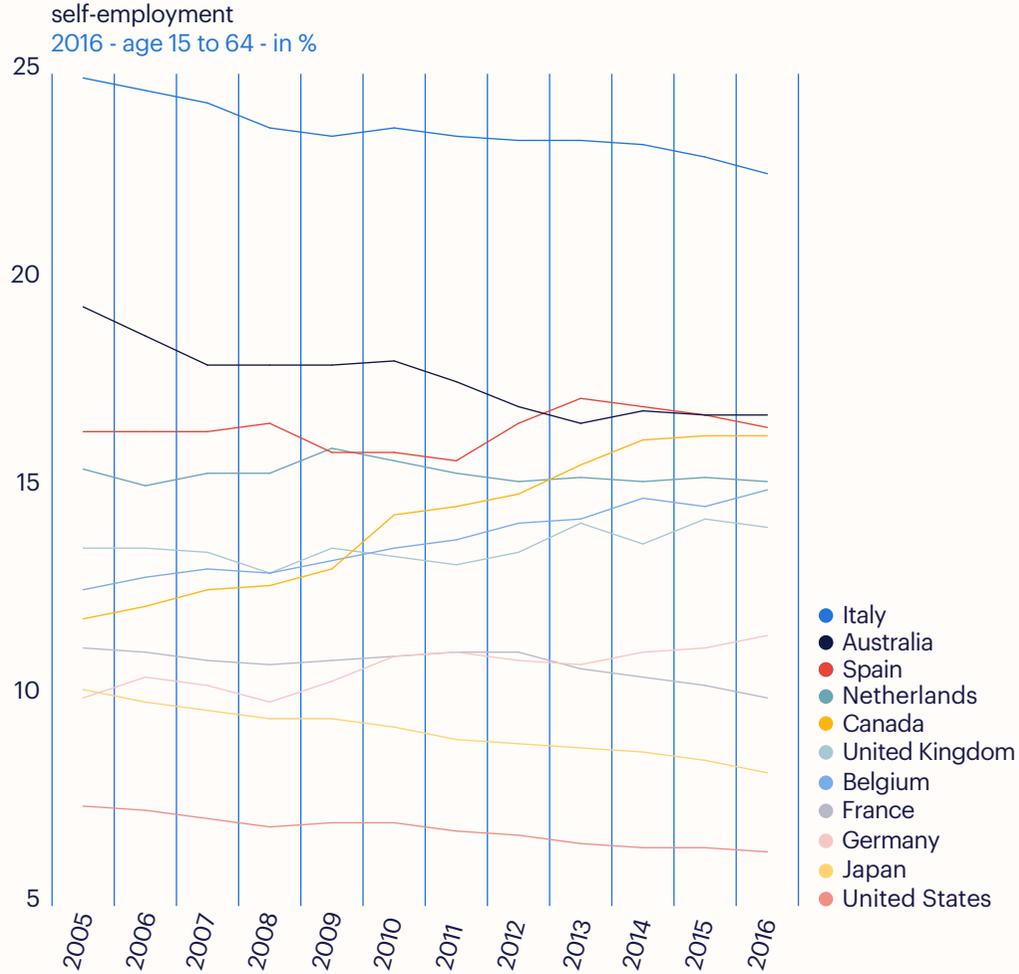
In the western world however self-employment rates are more moderate. About half of all flexible labor relations consist of self-employment. In the European Union about 14% of all employment is self-employment. The highest shares of self-employment can be found in Southern- and Eastern-European countries where – again – agricultural businesses and small retail still hold a large part of total employment. The United States, Canada and Scandinavian countries have the lowest share of self-employment, all below 10%.



# self-employment rates.



source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)



source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)

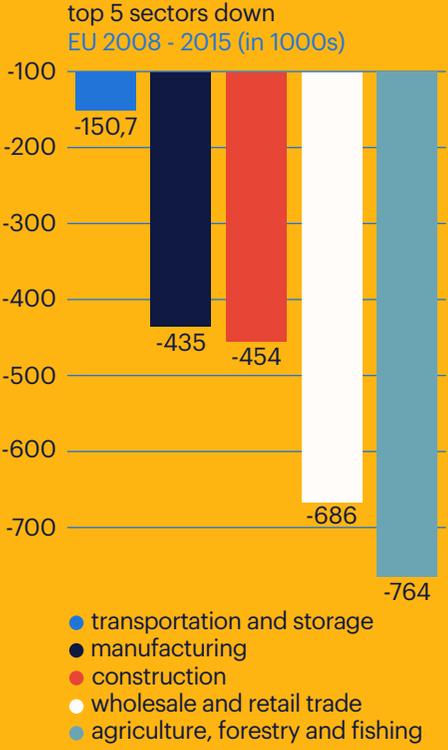
# sectoral shift of self-employment.

These stable self-employment rates hide a strong variety. Variety between countries, sectors and educational attainment. When we look closer at the figures for Europe it is clear there has been a decline of self-employment in Southern- and Eastern Europe. On the other hand, self-employment in France, the UK and especially the Netherlands self-employment has been rising in the past decade. In nearly all countries the probability of being self-employed is higher for men than for women. In North-America this gender gap in self-employment is quite moderate with 44% of self-employed being women in Canada and 40% in the United States, but in Europe less than a third of all employed is a woman. Countries in Southern and Southeastern Asia are the only exception to this rule but very often self-employment in this region involve informal low-quality jobs.

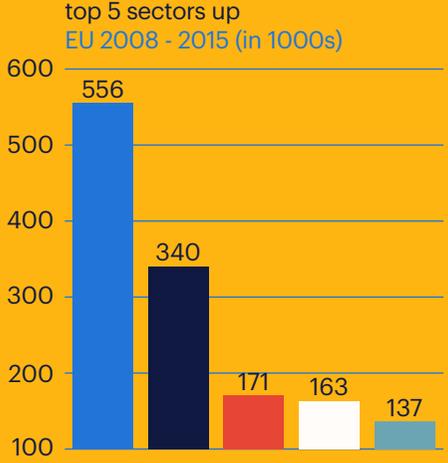
In general self-employment rates drop in countries when employment in agriculture and small retail drop. In the western world self-employment rates have stabilized and remained fairly equal in the last decade. There has been no clear effect on self-employment levels by the recent crisis. In times of economic recession, when jobs are scarce, employees who lose their job may decide to offer their services to companies. These flexible labor services may be attractive to companies as they offer comparable labor productivity in the short run and at lower risks. In the long run however, self-employment may not always provide the right substitution for traditional employees, who have more opportunities to invest in company-specific knowledge and skills (firm-specific human capital) which would eventually lead to a decline in the share of self-employed workers.

The variety in growth of self-employment between the countries partly be explained by a shift of self-employment between the sectors. Since 2008 in the European Union self-employment in agriculture and retail continuous decreased with in total 1.5 million jobs. Furthermore, self-employment dropped with nearly 0.5 million jobs each in manufacturing and construction explaining the drop in most Mediterranean and Eastern European countries. However, recently self-employment is increasing in service sectors. Especially in the professional, science and technical sector (up nearly 0.6 million) and health care (up over 0.3 million) which can explain the increase in several Western European countries.

# sectoral shift



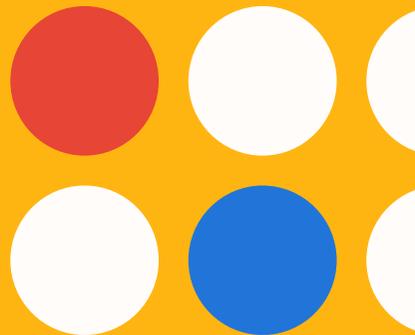
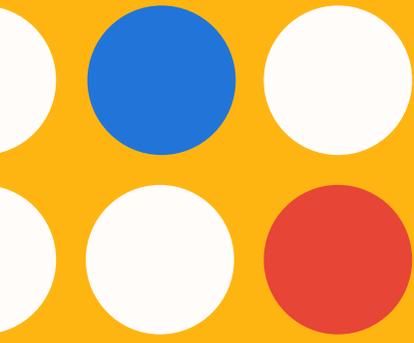
source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)



- professional, scientific and technical
- human health and social work
- education
- administrative and support service
- information and communication

source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)

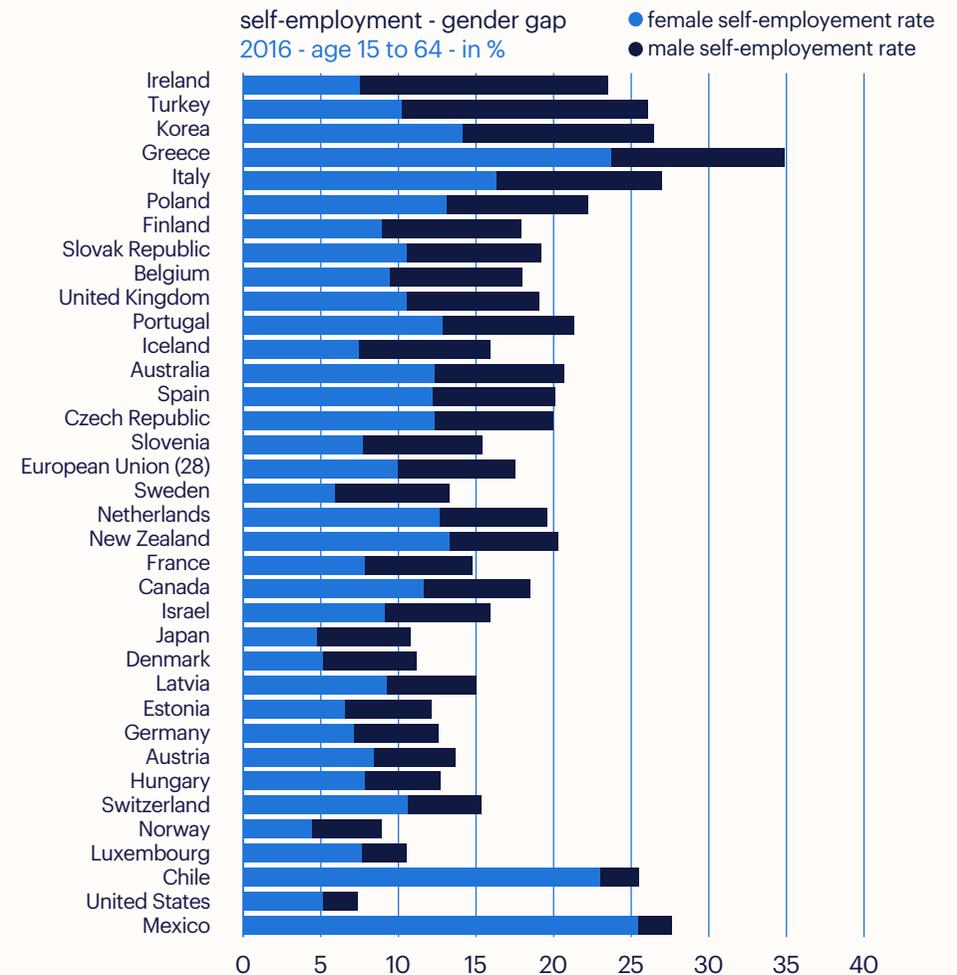
in self-employment.



# types of self-employed.

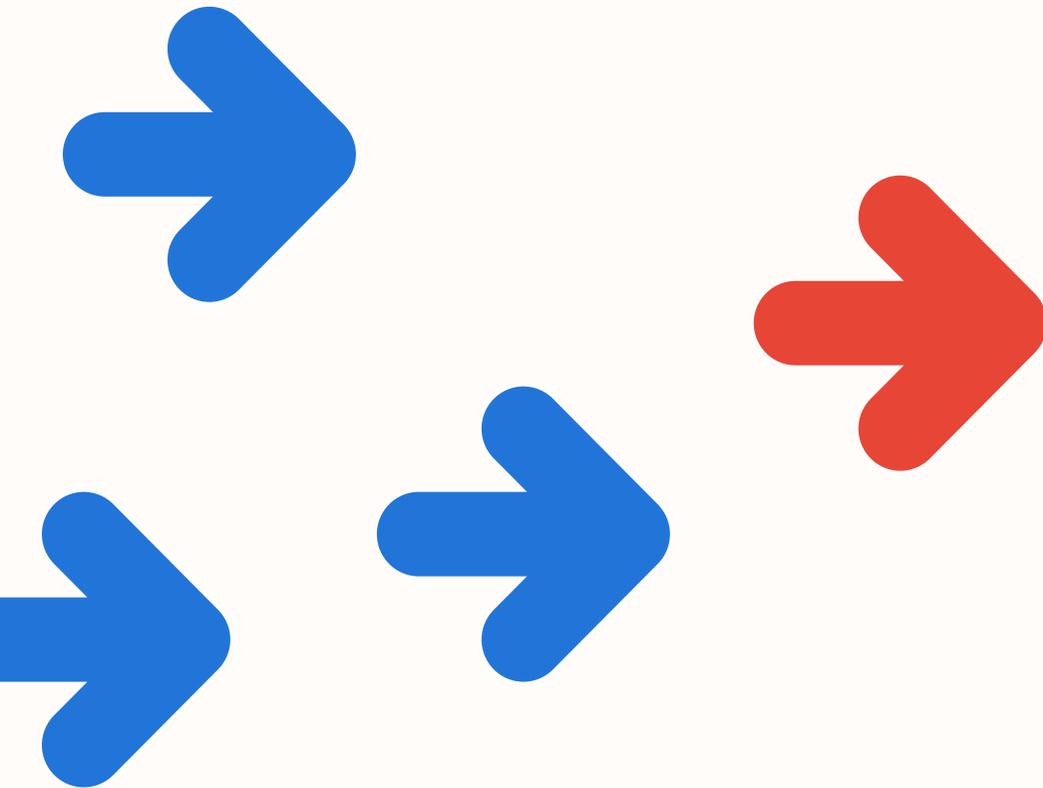
This sectoral shift of self-employment is reflected in the level of education of self-employed workers. The total amount of self-employed workers went up only marginally from 28.7 to 30.4 million since 2002 in the European Union but the average level of education changed drastically. In 2002, 10 million self-employed only had a basic level of educational attainment opposed to 6 million self-employed with an advanced level of education. By 2016 this picture has reversed completely, in a near perfect mirror image 10.2 million self-employed had an advanced level of education and 6.5 million a basic level.

The likelihood of being self-employed does increase with age. In Europe of all young workers, age between 15 to 24, only 4.3 percent are self-employed. The probability triples to nearly 14.1 percent for the core working age-group of 25 to 54 year olds, and of all workers over 55 year olds one in five is self-employed. Elderly workers have better access to capital, can take advantage of their aggregated skills and network and are more likely to want the freedom and independence associated with self-employment.



source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)

# push or pull.



Self-employed are either pushed or pulled to work for themselves. Push factors are those that push individuals into self-employment due to lack of alternatives while pull factors are those that provide incentives for individuals to become self-employed. It is likely that a considerable proportion of those who have recently become self-employed in the recession have done so because of 'push' factors, driven out of wage work because of a lack of jobs. Push self-employment is more likely to occur when unemployment is high.

In good times 'pull' factors tend to become more important; demand is booming and a currently employed person thinks 'I can do that' and sets up his or her own business. The reason for being able to do this is demand is booming and there are opportunities for all. Those who are 'pulled' to self-employment, who make a positive decision to go it alone, frequently after a long planning period, perhaps during which they are able to raise enough capital to go it alone, are generally much closer to our idea of an entrepreneur, the job creator who made a job for him or herself and potentially down the road, will create jobs for others. Pull self-employed frequently are job-makers. Pull self-employment is more likely to take place when unemployment is low.

There is no one way to approach the different faces of self-employment. Tailor-made policies to increase the job quality (social protection and employee benefits) of self-employed are needed yet they should not impede the entrepreneurship and freedom self-employed aspire to maintain innovation and job creation they bring.

# self-employment data sheet.

self-employment in %

country	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Australia	19,4	18,7	18,0	18,0	18,0	18,1	17,6	17,0	16,6	16,9	16,8	16,8
Austria	11,6	11,6	11,4	11,2	11,4	11,7	11,3	11,1	11,4	11,3	11,4	11,3
Belgium	13,6	13,6	13,5	13,0	13,6	13,4	13,2	13,5	14,2	13,7	14,3	14,1
Canada	15,5	15,1	15,4	15,4	16,0	15,7	15,4	15,2	15,3	15,2	15,3	15,2
Chile	27,8	27,0	26,3	25,6	26,8	24,2	24,0	22,9	23,2	23,8	23,7	24,5
Czech Republic	15,3	15,5	15,5	15,5	16,2	17,2	17,5	17,9	17,0	17,4	16,7	16,6
Denmark	8,1	8,4	8,5	8,5	8,9	8,8	8,8	8,8	8,9	8,7	8,3	8,3
Estonia	7,7	8,0	8,9	7,7	8,2	8,3	8,5	8,6	8,9	8,9	9,2	9,4
Finland	12,1	12,3	12,0	12,3	13,1	12,9	12,9	13,1	13,0	13,5	13,7	13,6
France	10,0	10,5	10,3	9,9	10,4	11,0	11,1	10,9	10,8	11,1	11,2	11,5
Germany	11,2	11,1	10,9	10,8	10,9	11,0	11,1	11,1	10,7	10,5	10,3	10,0
Greece	29,7	29,5	29,0	29,1	29,5	30,0	30,8	31,7	32,2	31,2	30,6	30,2
Hungary	13,3	12,3	12,1	11,8	12,2	12,0	11,7	11,4	10,9	10,6	10,6	10,4
Iceland	14,1	14,5	13,6	12,5	11,8	12,4	12,3	12,1	12,4	12,5	12,4	11,9
Ireland	16,3	15,6	16,2	16,7	16,8	16,2	15,8	15,7	16,5	16,6	16,4	16,2
Israel	11,5	11,7	11,4	11,5	11,9	11,9	11,9	11,7	11,5	11,6	11,9	12,7
Italy	24,9	24,6	24,3	23,7	23,5	23,7	23,5	23,4	23,4	23,3	23,0	22,6
Japan	10,2	9,9	9,7	9,5	9,5	9,3	9,0	8,9	8,8	8,7	8,5	8,2
Korea	27,0	26,5	25,8	25,3	24,3	23,5	23,1	23,2	22,5	22,1	21,5	21,2
Latvia	9,3	10,1	9,2	8,9	10,0	10,1	10,3	10,5	10,7	10,8	11,8	12,0
Luxembourg	7,7	7,7	7,1	6,3	8,0	7,7	8,2	8,4	8,5	8,2	9,0	9,2
Mexico	28,4	28,0	27,8	27,0	27,9	26,9	27,5	26,9	27,2	26,7	26,7	26,7
Netherlands	11,9	12,2	12,6	12,7	13,1	14,4	14,6	14,9	15,6	16,2	16,3	16,3
New Zealand	17,9	16,7	16,1	16,3	15,4	15,2	15,7	15,5	14,3	14,3	13,9	17,0
Norway	7,1	8,1	7,7	7,5	7,8	7,6	6,8	6,8	6,7	7,0	6,8	6,8
Poland	20,6	19,9	19,2	18,8	18,8	19,1	19,1	18,9	18,5	18,2	18,3	18,1
Portugal	24,4	23,5	23,8	23,4	23,2	22,2	21,0	21,5	21,2	19,2	17,9	17,2
Slovak Republic	12,5	12,5	12,8	13,7	15,5	15,9	15,9	15,4	15,5	15,3	15,0	15,3
Slovenia	10,2	11,3	11,1	9,9	10,8	12,4	12,6	12,2	12,1	12,7	12,5	11,9
Spain	16,4	16,4	16,4	16,6	15,9	15,9	15,7	16,6	17,2	17,0	16,8	16,5
Sweden	10,4	10,4	10,3	10,2	10,5	10,7	10,3	10,3	10,4	10,1	10,0	9,7
Switzerland	14,0	13,7	13,8	13,9	13,1	13,7	13,3	13,2	13,2	13,2	12,9	13,1
Turkey	28,8	28,0	26,8	26,3	26,5	25,5	24,6	23,9	23,3	21,8	21,2	21,3
United Kingdom	12,6	12,9	13,1	13,0	13,3	13,6	13,8	14,2	14,3	14,8	14,6	15,0
United States	7,4	7,3	7,1	6,9	7,0	7,0	6,8	6,7	6,5	6,4	6,4	6,3
European Union (28)	14,6	14,5	14,4	14,2	14,3	14,6	14,4	14,5	14,4	14,4	14,1	14,0

source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)

# self-employment data sheet.

self-employment in %

country	female	male	age 15-24	age 25-54	age 55-64	low	medium	high
Australia	12,3	20,7						
Austria	8,4	13,7	1,8	11,1	17,6	7,3	9,5	14,3
Belgium	9,4	18,0	5,1	13,3	18,4	11,4	12,9	14,9
Canada	11,6	18,5						
Chile	23,0	25,5						
Czech Republic	12,3	20,0	6,5	16,1	19,9	9,3	16,4	16,8
Denmark	5,1	11,2	1,5	8,2	11,1	7,1	8,3	7,4
Estonia	6,5	12,1	2,4	10,1	10,2	4,7	9,8	10,3
Finland	8,9	17,9	3,5	12,5	17,1	17,2	13,7	9,9
France	7,8	14,8	2,6	10,8	16,5	9,5	10,5	12,2
Germany	7,1	12,6	1,3	9,3	13,3	5,2	7,2	15,3
Greece	23,7	34,9	6,8	27,2	49,6	43,9	27,9	22,0
Hungary	7,8	12,7	2,5	9,6	15,5	3,5	10,2	12,5
Iceland	7,4	15,9	2,3	12,2	16,2	8,1	14,9	9,9
Ireland	7,5	23,5	1,9	13,7	26,3	24,0	14,5	12,2
Israel	9,1	15,9						
Italy	16,3	27,0	11,4	21,3	24,9	22,4	19,0	25,5
Japan	4,7	10,8						
Korea	14,1	26,5						
Latvia	9,2	15,0	5,1	12,3	12,5	11,8	12,6	10,7
Luxembourg	7,6	10,5	7,8	8,2	16,8	6,4	9,2	9,9
Mexico	25,4	27,6						
Netherlands	12,6	19,6	5,3	16,6	20,6	13,1	14,8	17,7
New Zealand	13,3	20,3						
Norway	4,4	8,9	1,8	6,3	9,0	6,5	7,0	5,5
Poland	13,1	22,2	5,9	17,6	23,3	22,3	19,2	14,2
Portugal	12,8	21,3	3,4	12,3	25,7	17,9	9,5	11,4
Slovak Republic	10,5	19,2	7,9	15,7	15,9	5,5	15,6	15,7
Slovenia	7,7	15,4	1,9	11,6	16,2	10,1	12,6	10,0
Spain	12,2	20,1	4,6	15,3	23,7	18,8	15,7	14,1
Sweden	5,9	13,3	2,0	8,6	12,9	10,7	9,7	6,9
Switzerland	10,6	15,3	1,5	11,8	20,1	6,2	11,9	13,8
Turkey	10,2	26,1	3,4	20,3	47,0	25,1	17,1	9,8
United Kingdom	10,5	19,1	4,6	14,3	20,8	15,6	13,9	13,8
United States	5,1	7,4						
European Union (28)	9,9	17,5	4,1	13,9	19,3	16,4	12,9	14,3

source: LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT)

# job quality.

Most people spend a substantial amount of time at work, and work for a significant part of their life. The jobs people hold are therefore one of the most important determinants of their well-being. But what are the features of job quality that affect well-being? Good pay, labor market security and a decent working environment can go hand in hand with high employment, according to OECD findings on the quality of jobs in 45 countries. Job quality is the highest in Australia, German-speaking countries and the Nordics. These countries are performing relatively well along at least two of the three dimensions of job quality. Relatively low job quality on the other hand is found in countries in Eastern and Southern Europe.

The OECD focuses the job quality index on the outcomes for workers in three broad areas that are most important for their well-being:

- Earnings quality. How does employment contribute to material living conditions? How are earnings distributed across the workforce?
- Labor market security. What is the level of risk of becoming and staying unemployed? What are the economic consequences for workers of being laid off?
- Job strain, the quality of the working environment. What is the nature and content of the work? How much pressure does it involve?

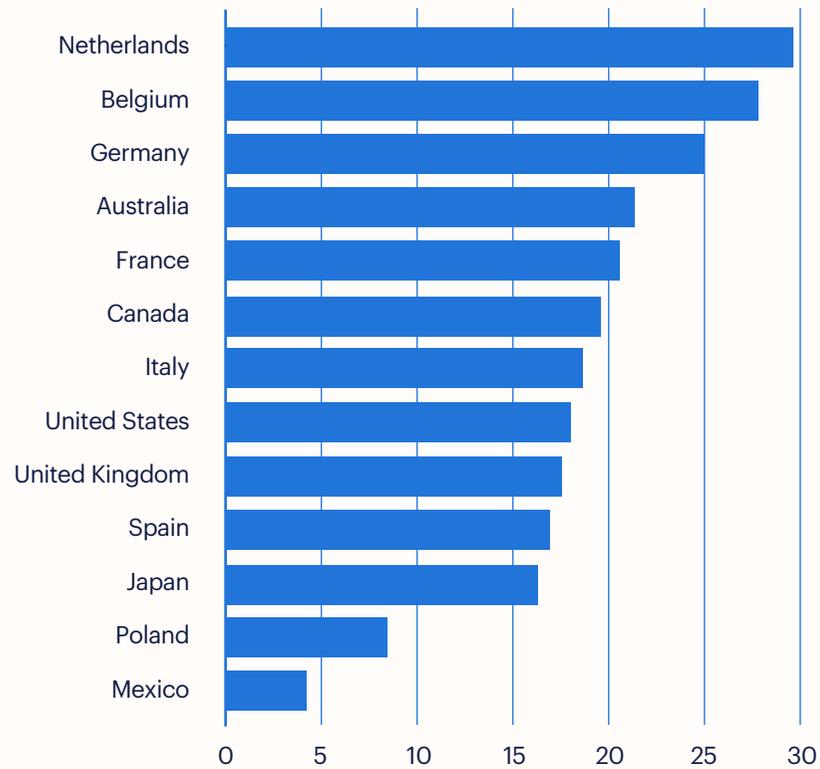


source: OECD.stats

The OECD data also reveal big differences across groups of workers. Youths and the unskilled tend to have the worst performance in terms of employment as well as lower earnings and considerably higher labor market insecurity and higher job strain (especially the low skilled). Women suffer from substantially lower employment rates than men and face a large pay gap. At the same time, they are less likely than men to experience job strain.

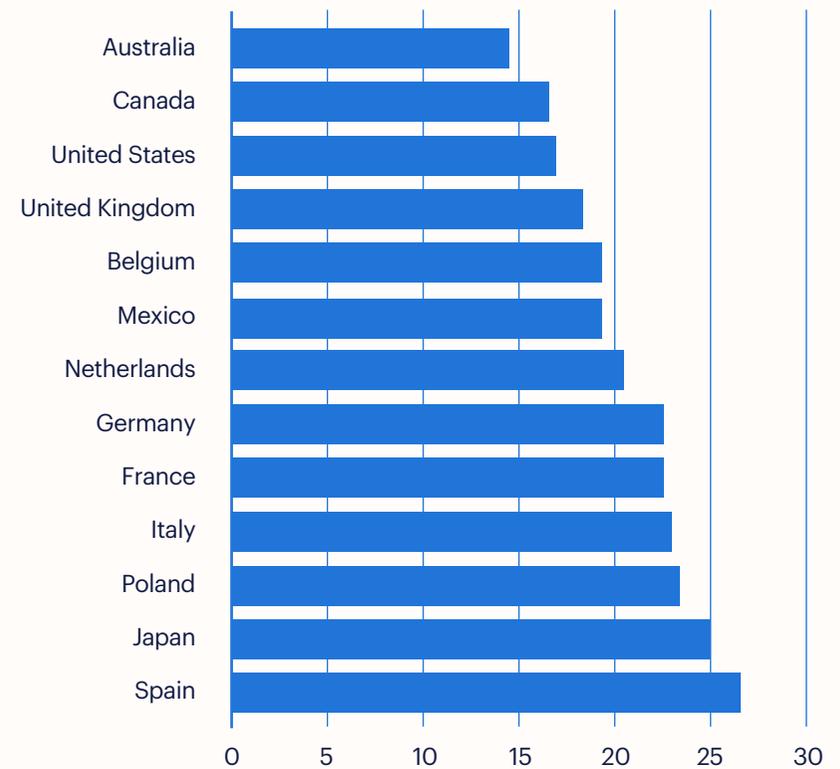
# job quality.

earnings quality



source: OECD.stats

job strain

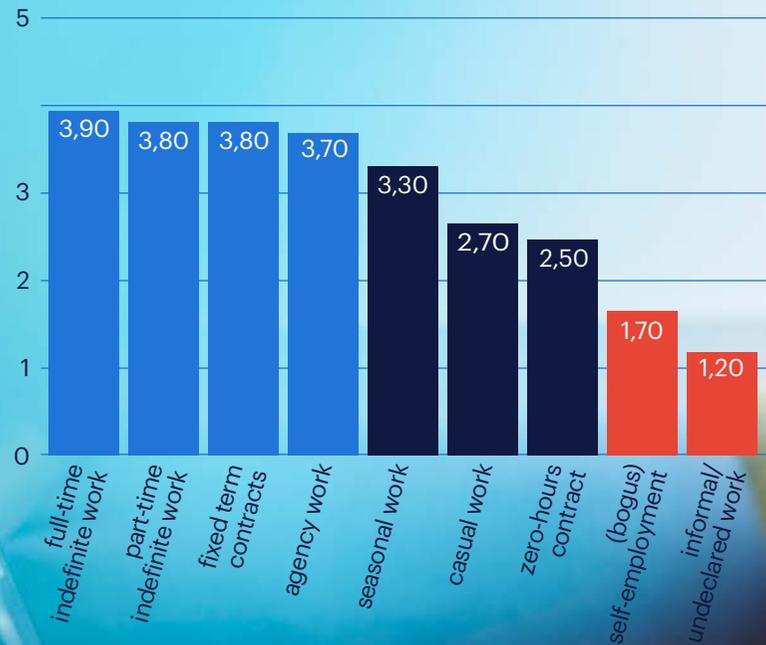


source: OECD.stats

# job quality.

A study by the London Metropolitan University compared different types of employment contracts on job quality. The research showed fulltime open-ended contracts, part-time open-ended contracts, direct fixed term contracts and agency work are all comparable in terms of overall job quality. Informal work and bogus or false self-employment are the forms of work that offer the worst job quality. Agency work, being a well-regulated form of work in most countries, offers high job quality, especially in terms of access to welfare and pension, working time limits, discrimination protection and also on job security.

comparing job quality of different employment relations  
0 = lowest, 5 = highest



# tackle undeclared work.

It is widely recognized that the undeclared economy is prevalent in many global regions. In fact, out of a global working population of some 3 billion, almost two-thirds (some 1.8 billion) work in the undeclared economy. It is also generally acknowledged that the undeclared economy lowers the quality of work and working conditions, undermines the business environment through unfair competition, and puts at risk the financial sustainability of social protection systems. Clearly, therefore, undeclared activities should not merely be discouraged, but should rather be transformed into regular work.

A recent study by the University of Sheffield and Regioplan Policy Research showed that countries with a smaller undeclared economy are those in which it is easier for companies to resort to temporary employment opportunities to meet labor demands and in which, at the same time, there is greater intervention (in the form of labor market policies that protect and support vulnerable groups of workers).

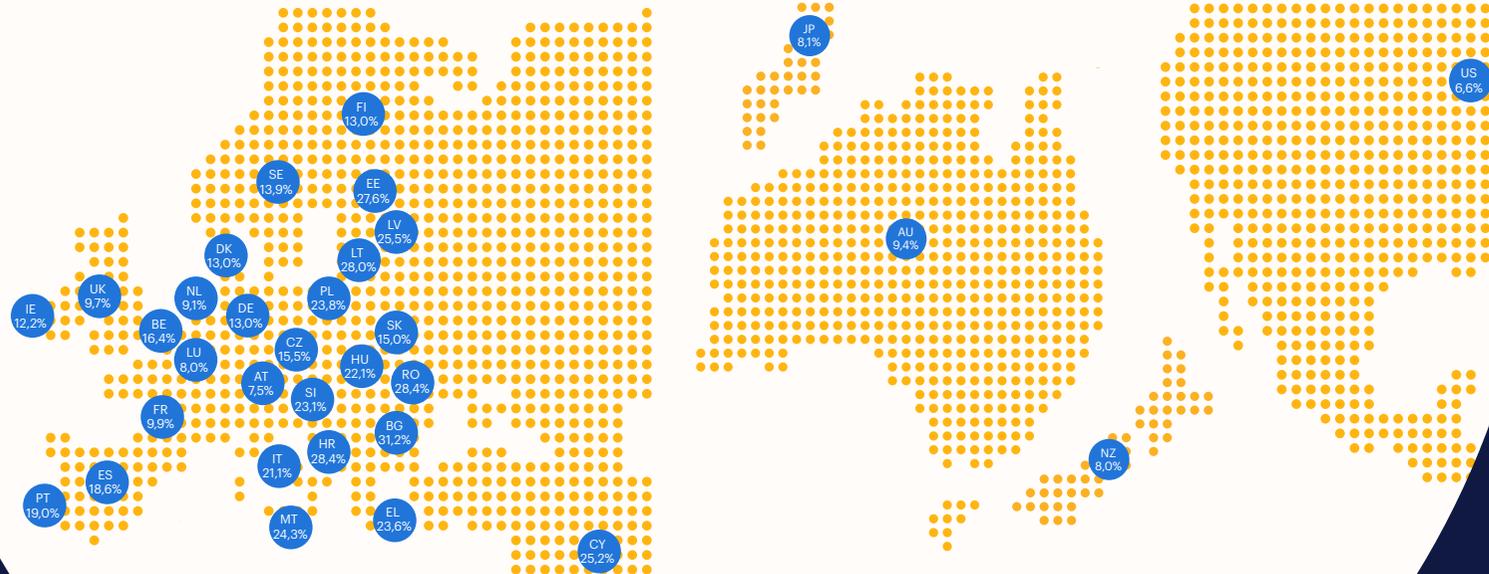
By creating the right environment these relatively successful economies reduce the supply of undeclared labor by providing workers with alternatives for undeclared work such as social protection and labor market policy interventions to help them enter the formal labor market. On the other hand, by making it easier for businesses to turn to temporary employment and TWAs to meet their flexible labor demands, the demand for undeclared labor also diminishes.

The study therefore encourages a greater recognition of the need to take an active approach to labor markets by:

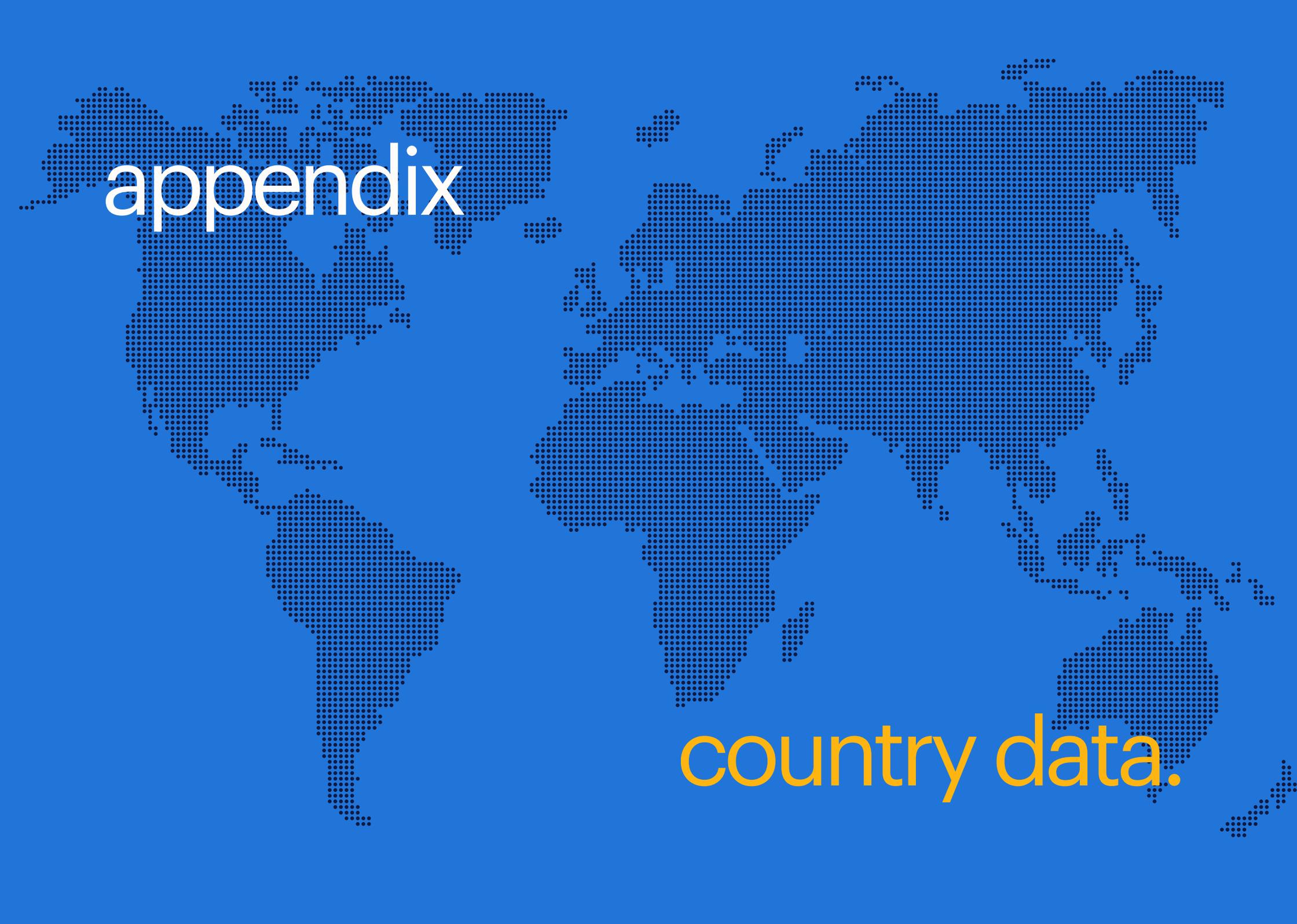
- stepping up labor market policy interventions as for instance training, employment incentives, start up incentives, job rotation and job sharing;
- creating a mature system of social protection and labor market policy supports like out-of-work income maintenance and support;

putting in place the measures necessary to reduce the demand for and supply of undeclared labor, like the creation of accessible, well regulated market for temporary employment and temporary work agencies.

# size of the undeclared



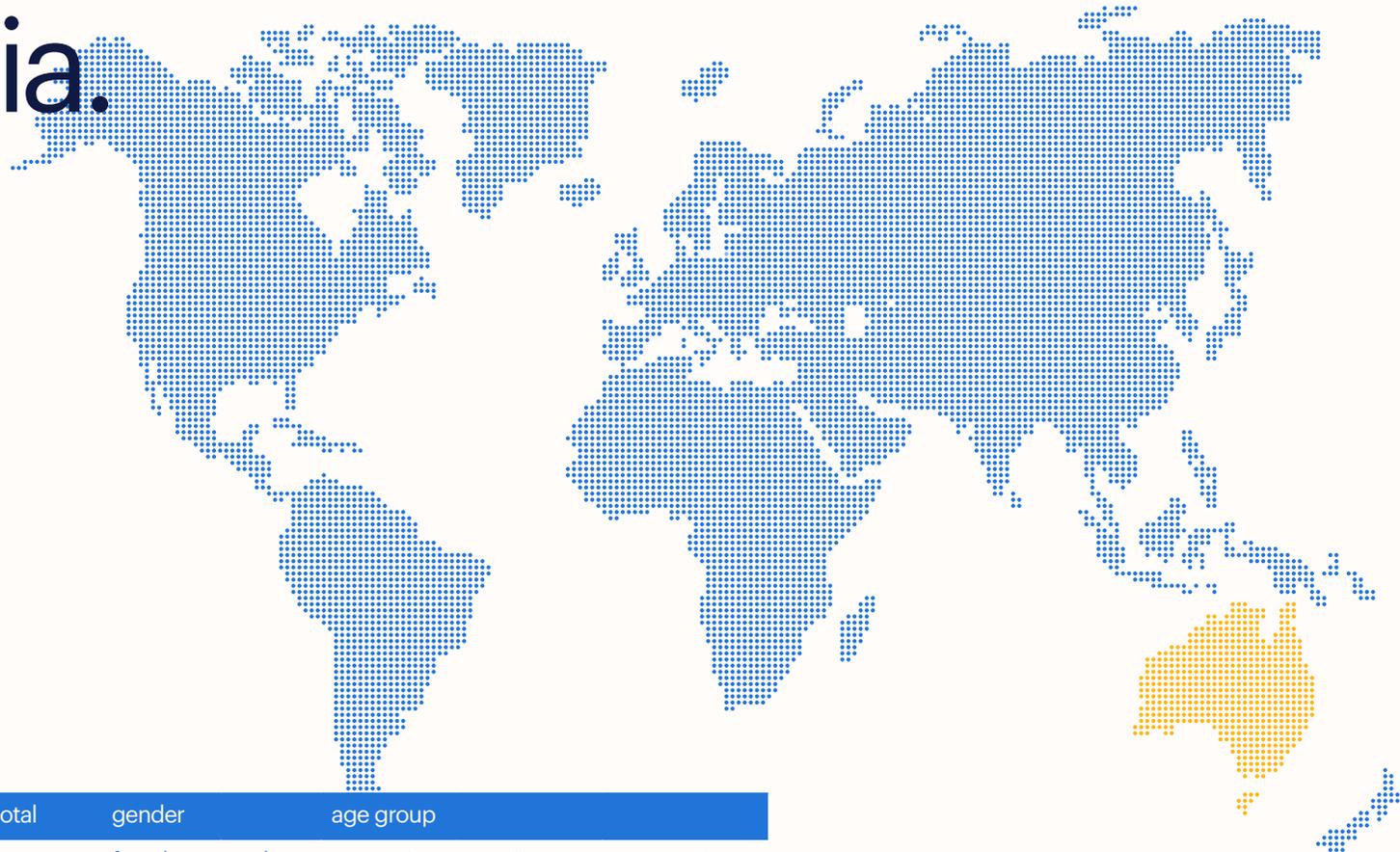
economy in %  
of GDP (2013).



appendix

country data.

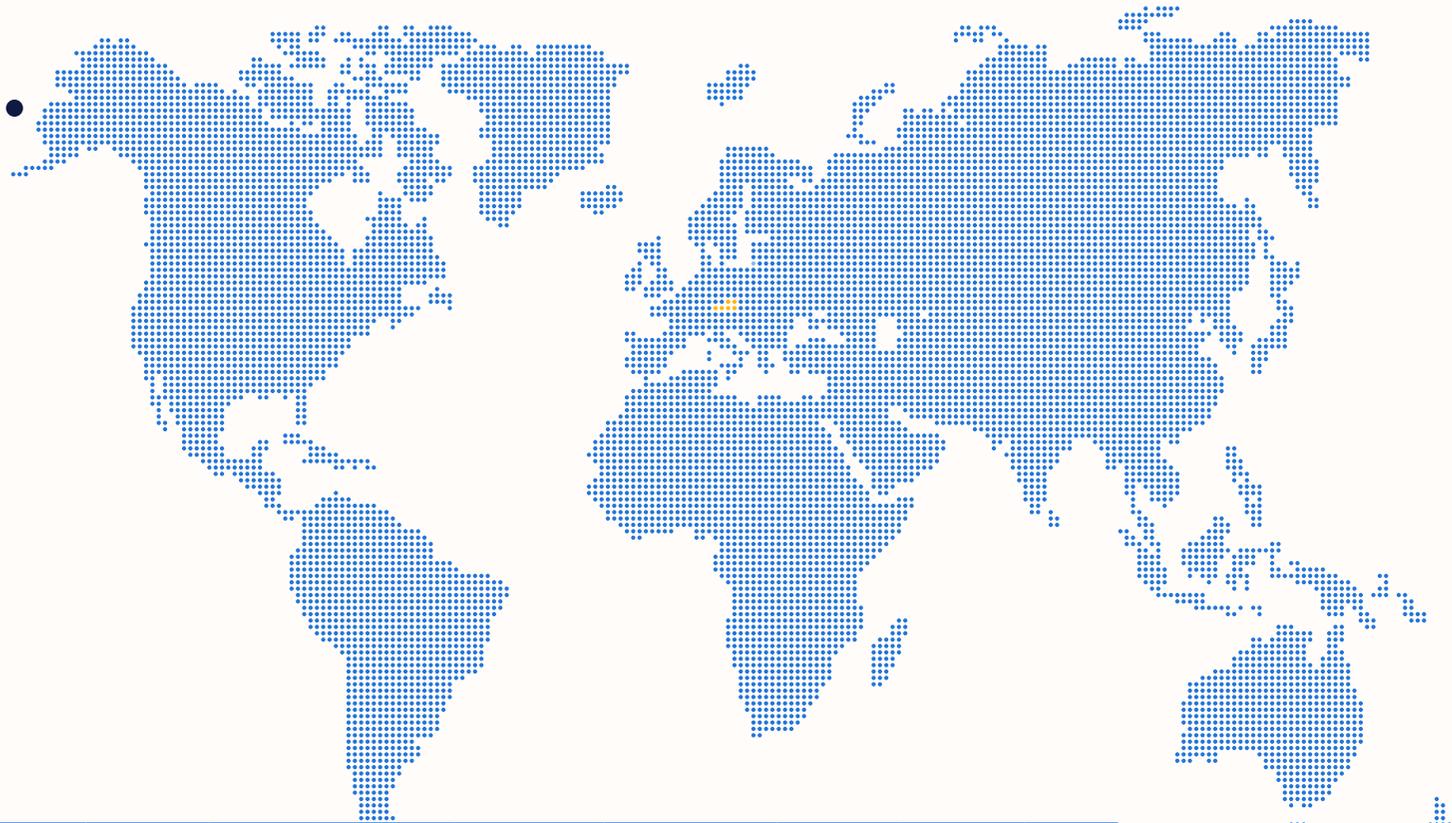
# australia.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	5.8	5.9	5.7	12.9	4.4	4.0
activity rate	77.3	72.1	82.5	66.6	83.9	66.3
temporary employment rate***	5.6	6.1	5.2			
self employment rate	16.8	12.3	20.7			
agency work rate	3.7					

source and remarks: see page 110

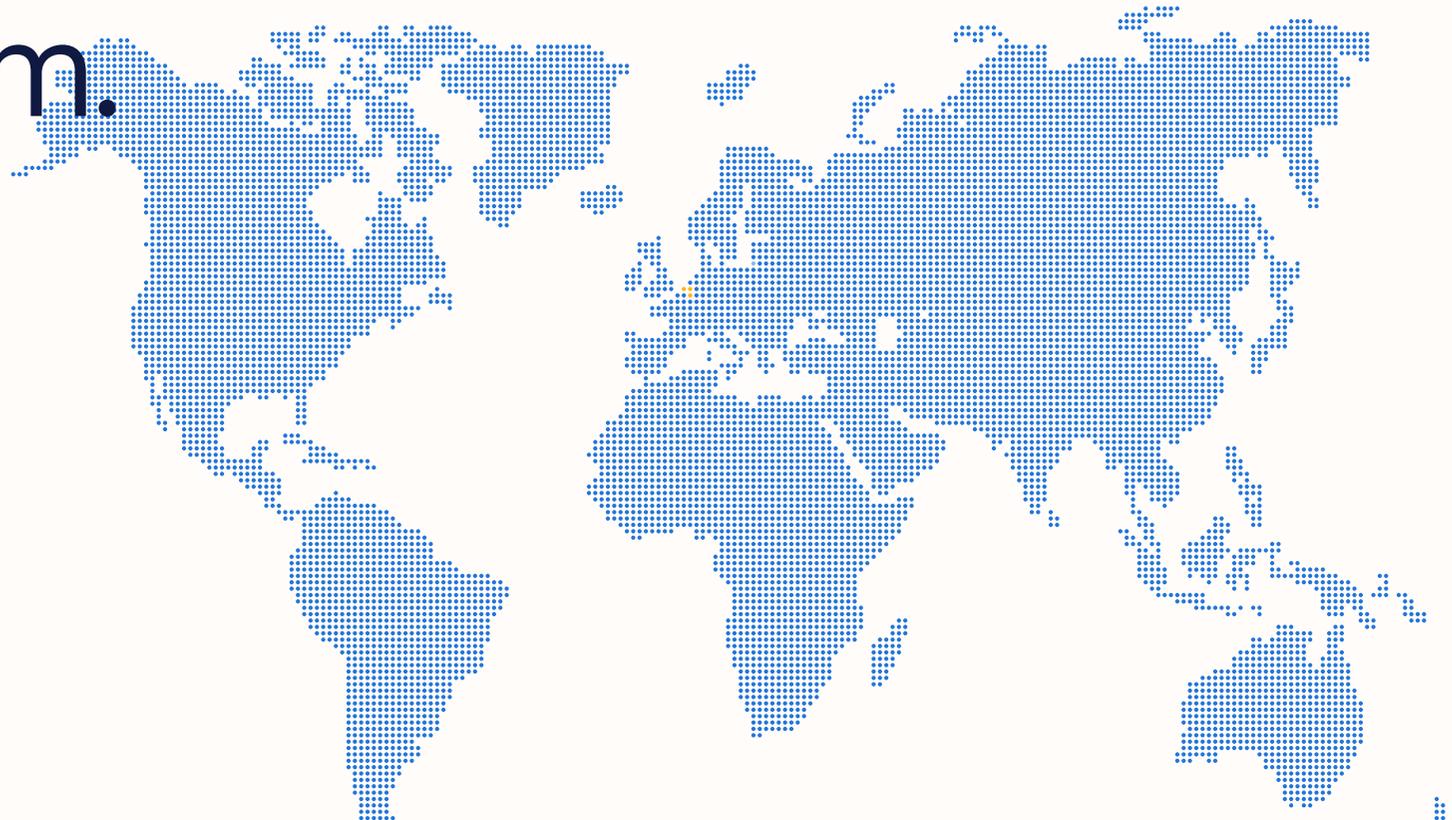
# austria.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	5.5	5.1	5.9	9.4	5.0	4.6	12.9	4.9	3.1
activity rate	76.4	71.9	80.9	56.9	88.6	53.0	53.0	78.6	87.7
temporary employment rate	9.0	9.1	8.9	32.9	4.9	2.4	22.0	7.5	4.7
self employment rate	11.3	8.4	13.7	1.8	11.1	17.6	7.3	9.5	14.3
agency work rate	1.8								

source and remarks: see page 110

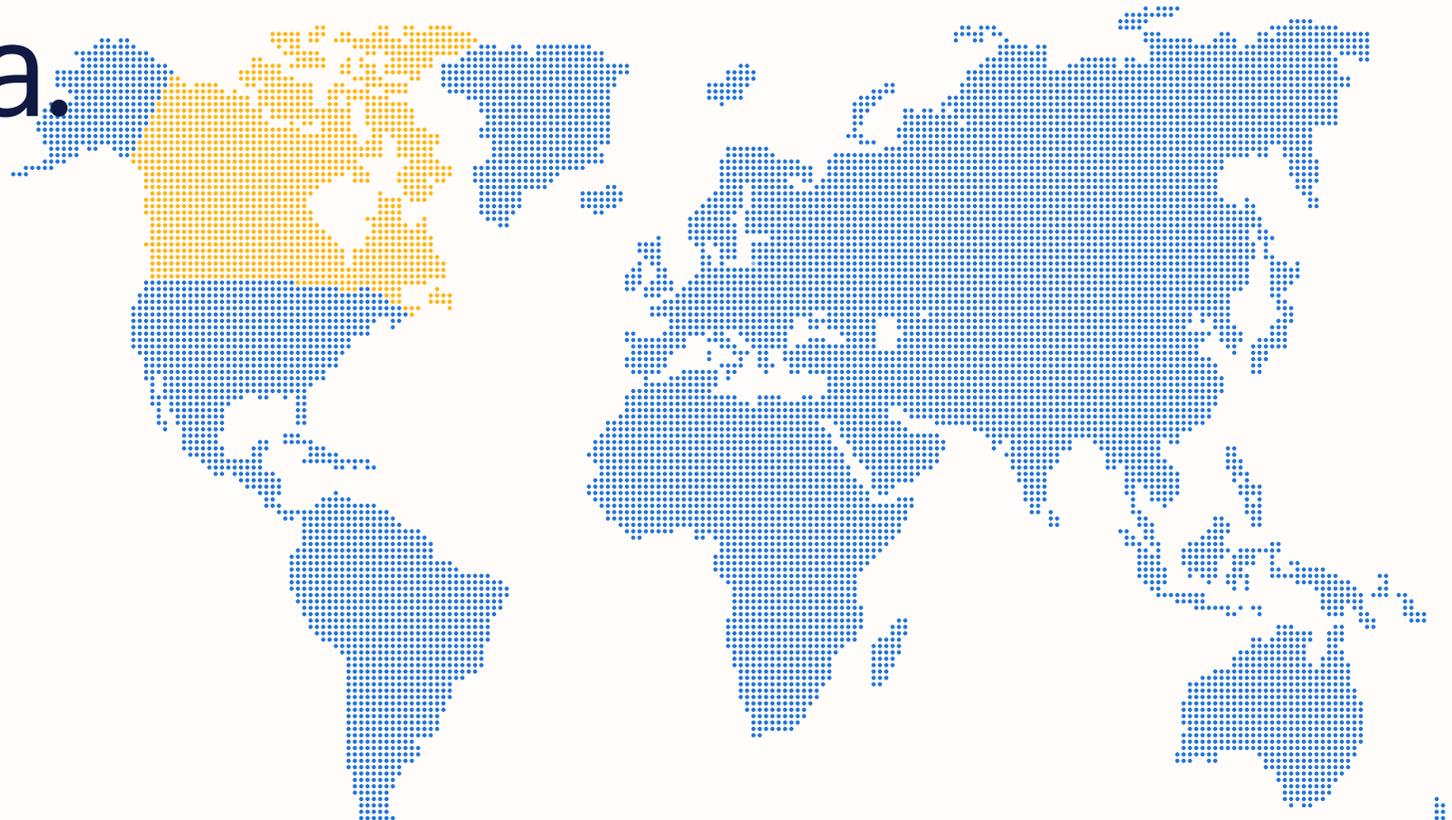
# belgium.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	7.4	7.6	7.3	21.6	6.3	5.9	15.0	7.0	4.1
activity rate	67.8	63.3	72.3	26.9	85.0	50.7	41.3	69.7	85.7
temporary employment rate	9.2	10.1	8.4	36.7	6.4	2.7	10.7	6.8	7.8
self employment rate	14.1	9.4	18.0	5.1	13.3	18.4	11.4	12.9	14.9
agency work rate	2.2								

source and remarks: see page 110

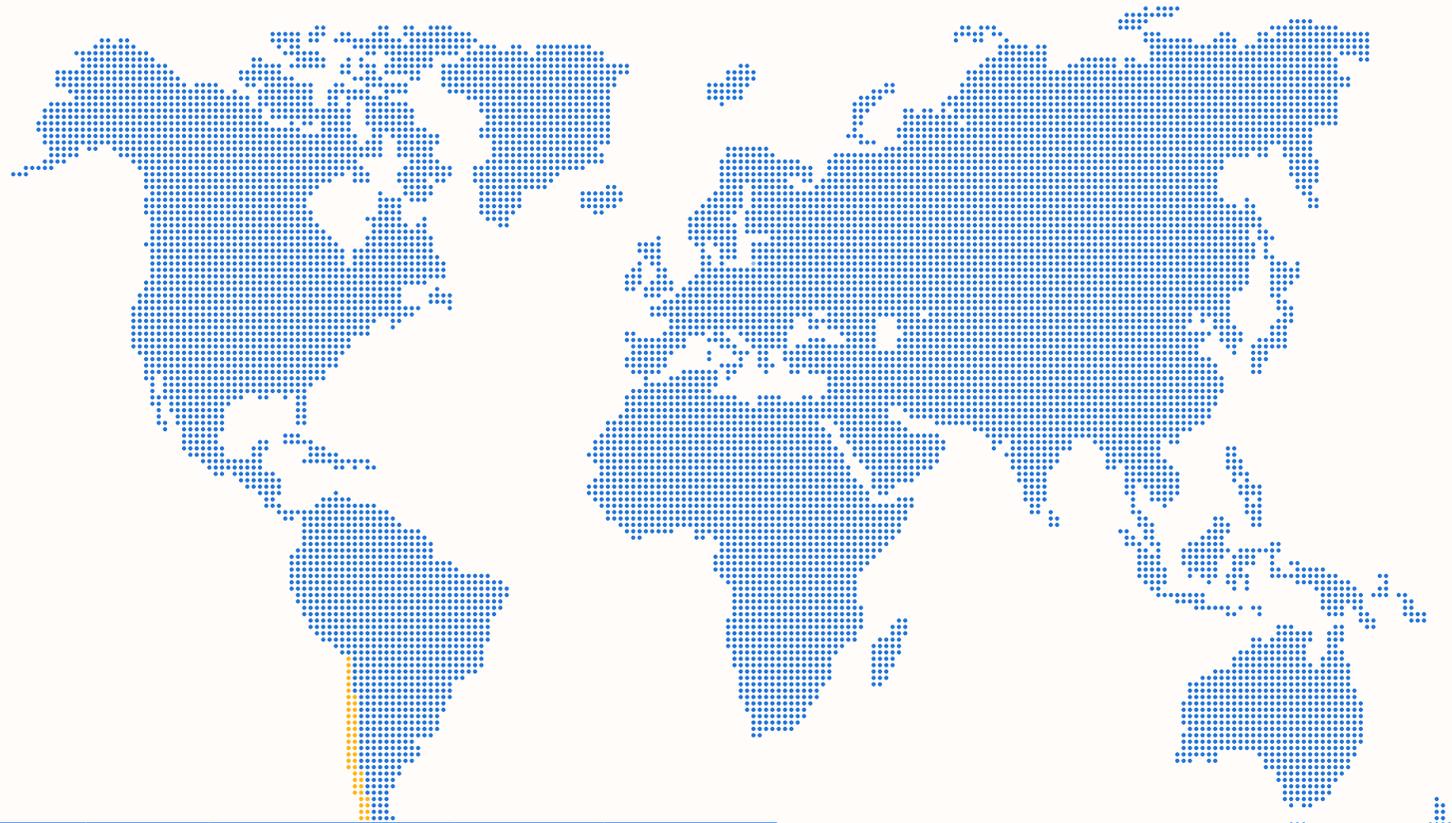
# canada.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	6.5	5.9	7.1	11.9	5.5	5.8
activity rate	78.5	74.9	82.0	64.2	87.1	65.4
temporary employment rate*	13.4	13.8	13.0			
self employment rate	15.2	11.6	18.5			
agency work rate	0.7					

source and remarks: see page 110

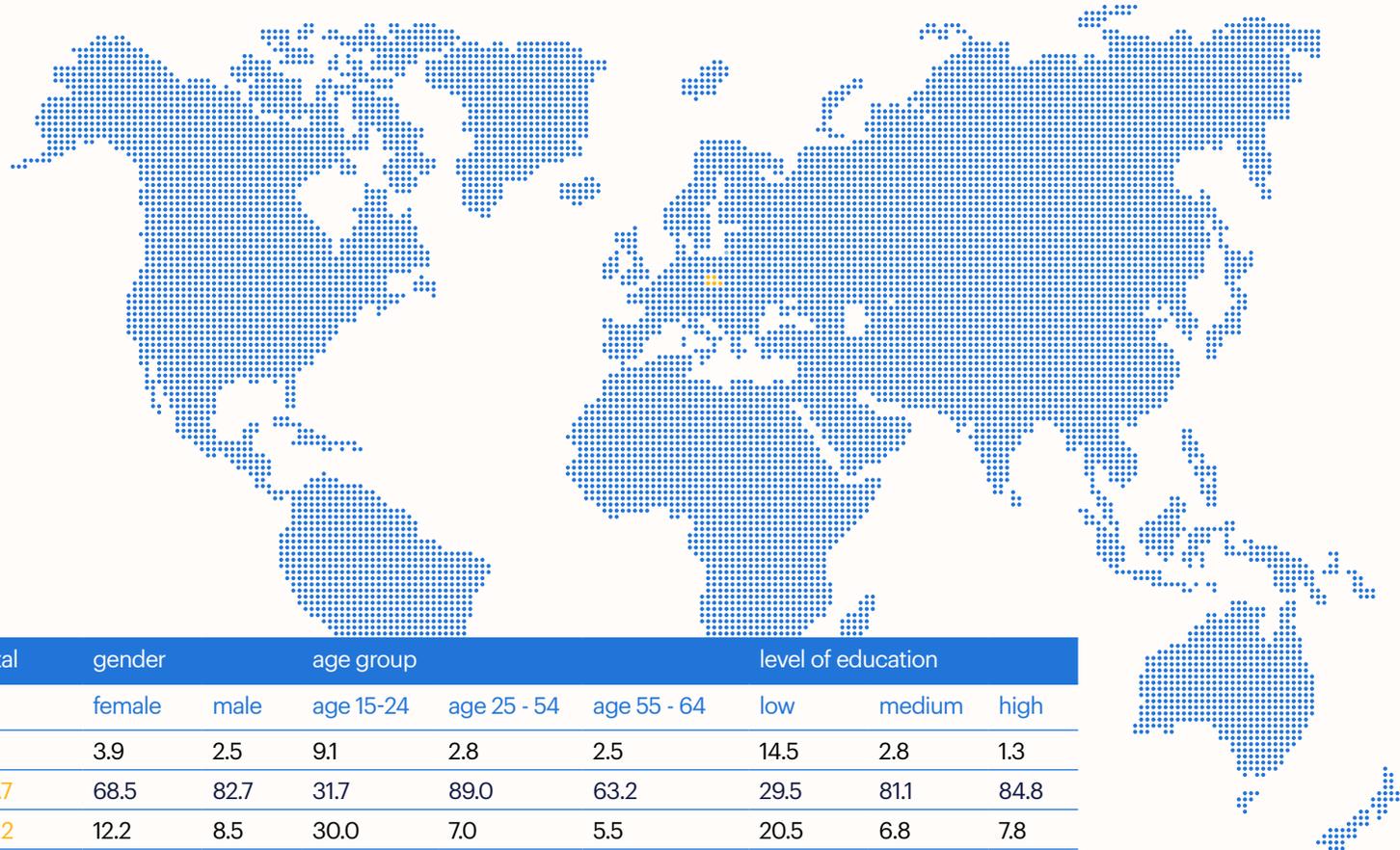
# chile.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	7.0	7.6	6.6	16.5	6.1	4.5
activity rate	67.3	56.9	77.6	34.3	79.9	67.3
temporary employment rate	29.1	28.1	29.7			
self employment rate	24.5	23.0	25.5			
agency work rate	0.5					

source and remarks: see page 110

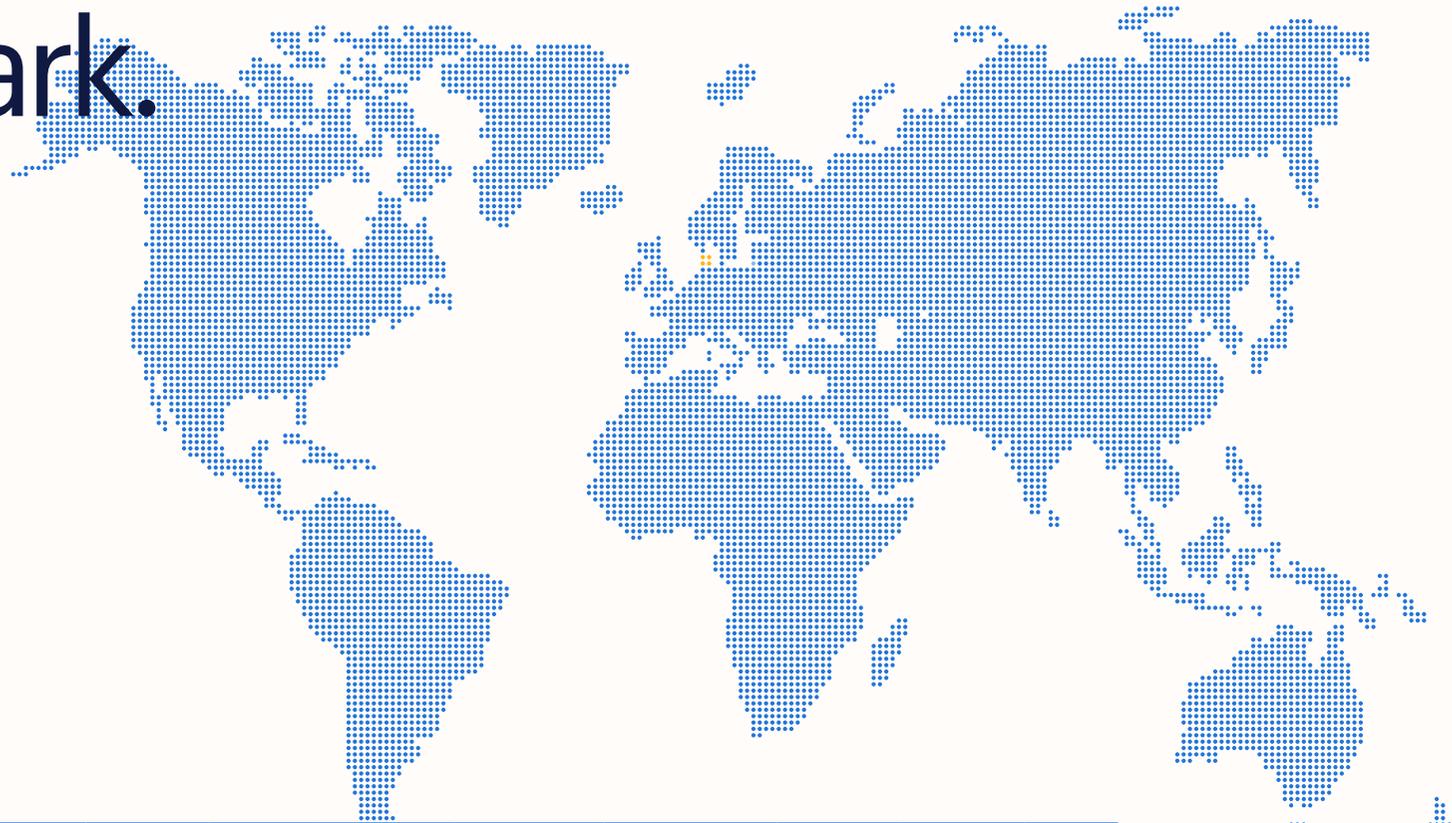
# czech republic.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	3.1	3.9	2.5	9.1	2.8	2.5	14.5	2.8	1.3
activity rate	75.7	68.5	82.7	31.7	89.0	63.2	29.5	81.1	84.8
temporary employment rate	10.2	12.2	8.5	30.0	7.0	5.5	20.5	6.8	7.8
self employment rate	16.6	12.3	20.0	6.5	16.1	19.9	9.3	16.4	16.8
agency work rate	1.0								

source and remarks: see page 110

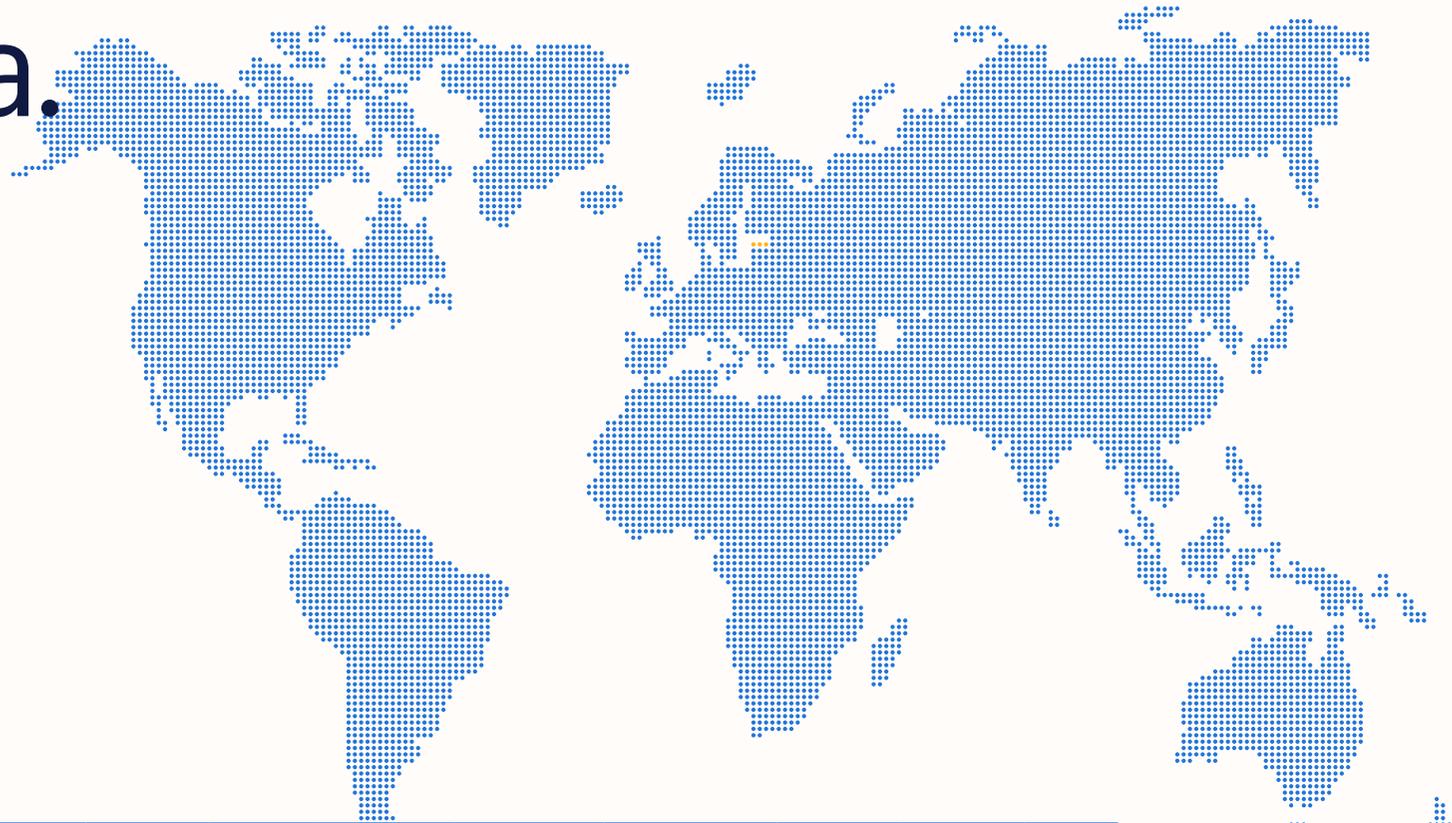
# denmark.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	5.8	6.1	5.6	10.7	5.3	3.5	9.1	4.1	4.6
activity rate	78.6	75.7	81.5	62.9	85.7	72.0	61.2	82.6	89.4
temporary employment rate	13.6	15.1	12.2	32.5	9.7	5.2	17.4	10.1	11.2
self employment rate	8.3	5.1	11.2	1.5	8.2	11.1	7.1	8.3	7.4
agency work rate	0.8								

source and remarks: see page 110

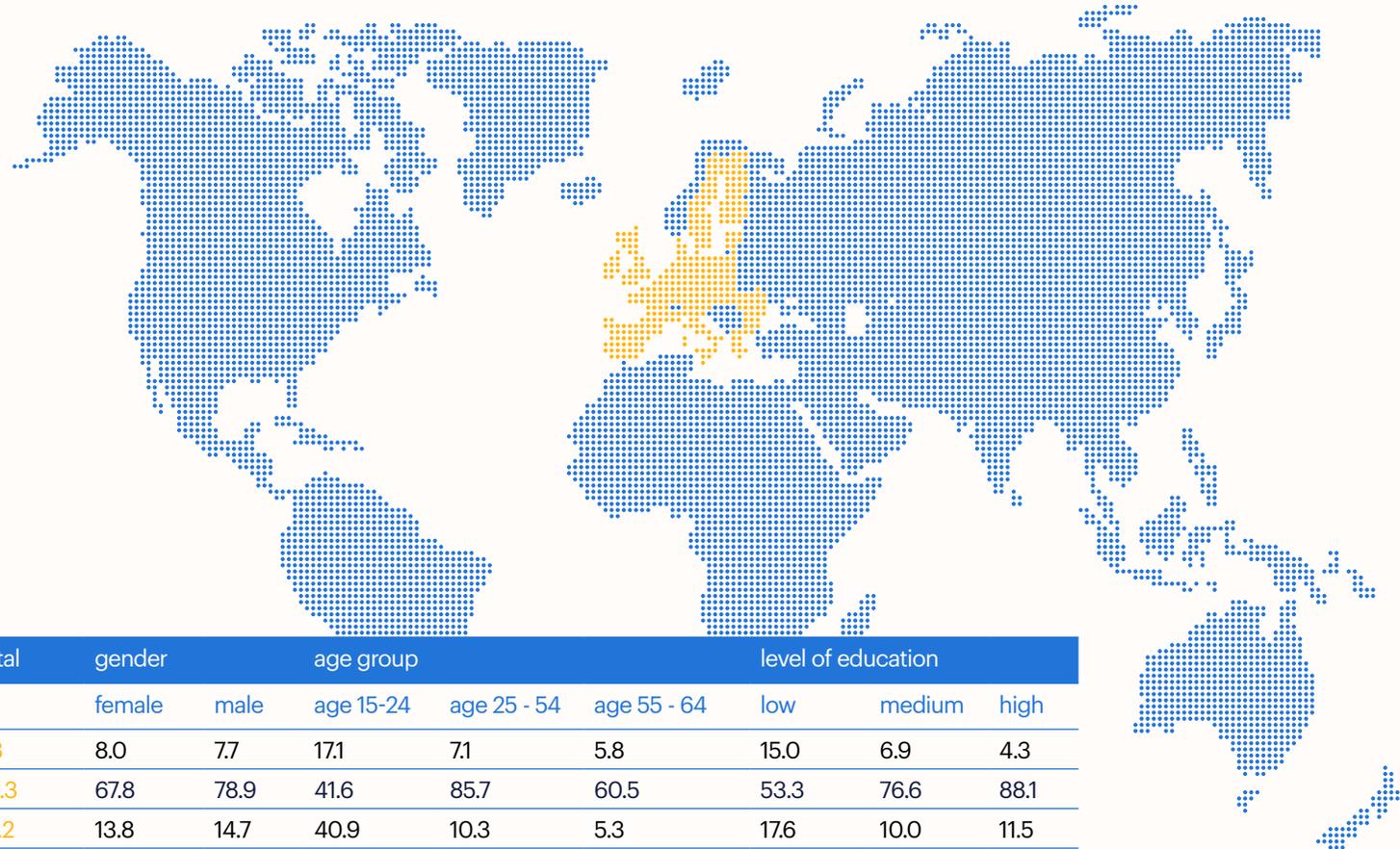
# estonia.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	7.1	6.5	7.7	15.2	6.8	5.3	15.1	7.7	3.7
activity rate	78.6	74.6	82.7	45.5	88.9	71.7	52.0	82.0	87.9
temporary employment rate	3.7	3.5	3.9	12.6	2.8	1.6	8.6	1.7	3.6
self employment rate	9.4	6.5	12.1	2.4	10.1	10.2	4.7	9.8	10.3
agency work rate	0.6								

source and remarks: see page 110

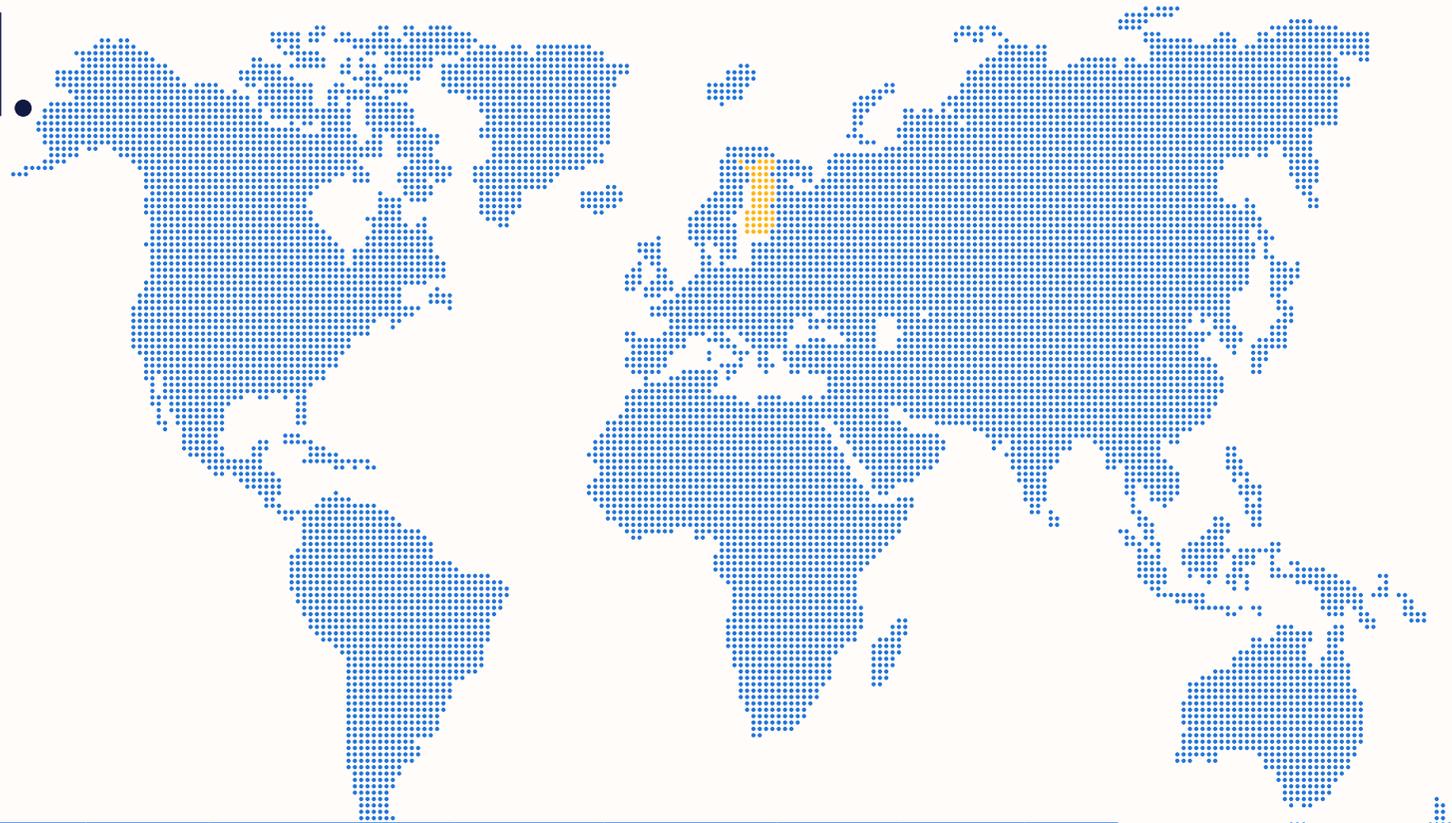
# european union (28).



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	7.8	8.0	7.7	17.1	7.1	5.8	15.0	6.9	4.3
activity rate	73.3	67.8	78.9	41.6	85.7	60.5	53.3	76.6	88.1
temporary employment rate	14.2	13.8	14.7	40.9	10.3	5.3	17.6	10.0	11.5
self employment rate	14.0	9.9	17.5	4.1	13.9	19.3	16.4	12.9	14.3
agency work rate	1.9								

source and remarks: see page 110

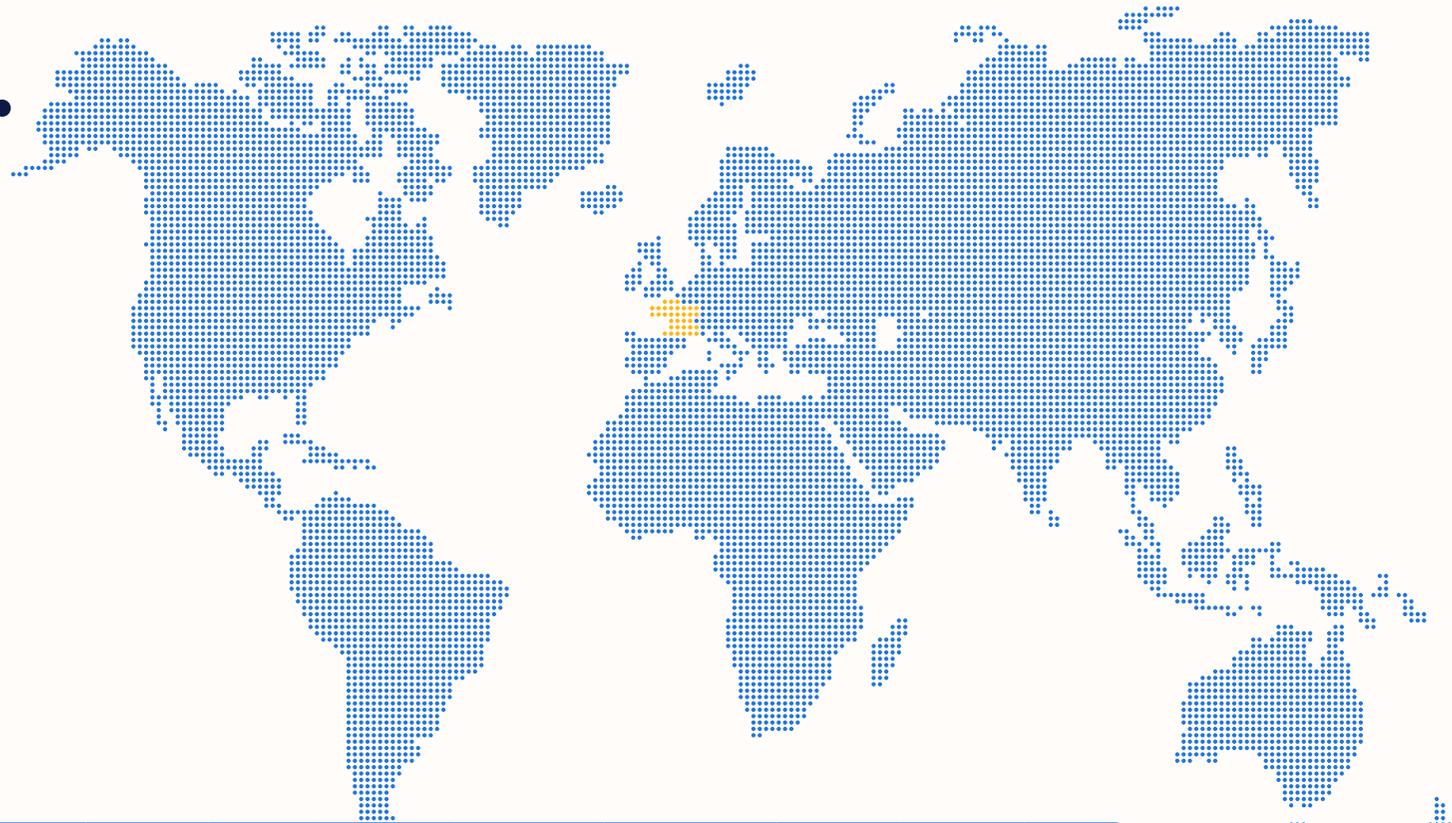
# finland.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	9.0	8.8	9.2	21.1	7.1	8.3	24.7	10.0	4.9
activity rate	76.5	74.8	78.1	52.3	86.6	67.9	53.8	80.7	89.1
temporary employment rate	15.7	18.3	13.0	41.0	11.4	6.1	17.9	11.9	14.2
self employment rate	13.6	8.9	17.9	3.5	12.5	17.1	17.2	13.7	9.9
agency work rate	1.2								

source and remarks: see page 110

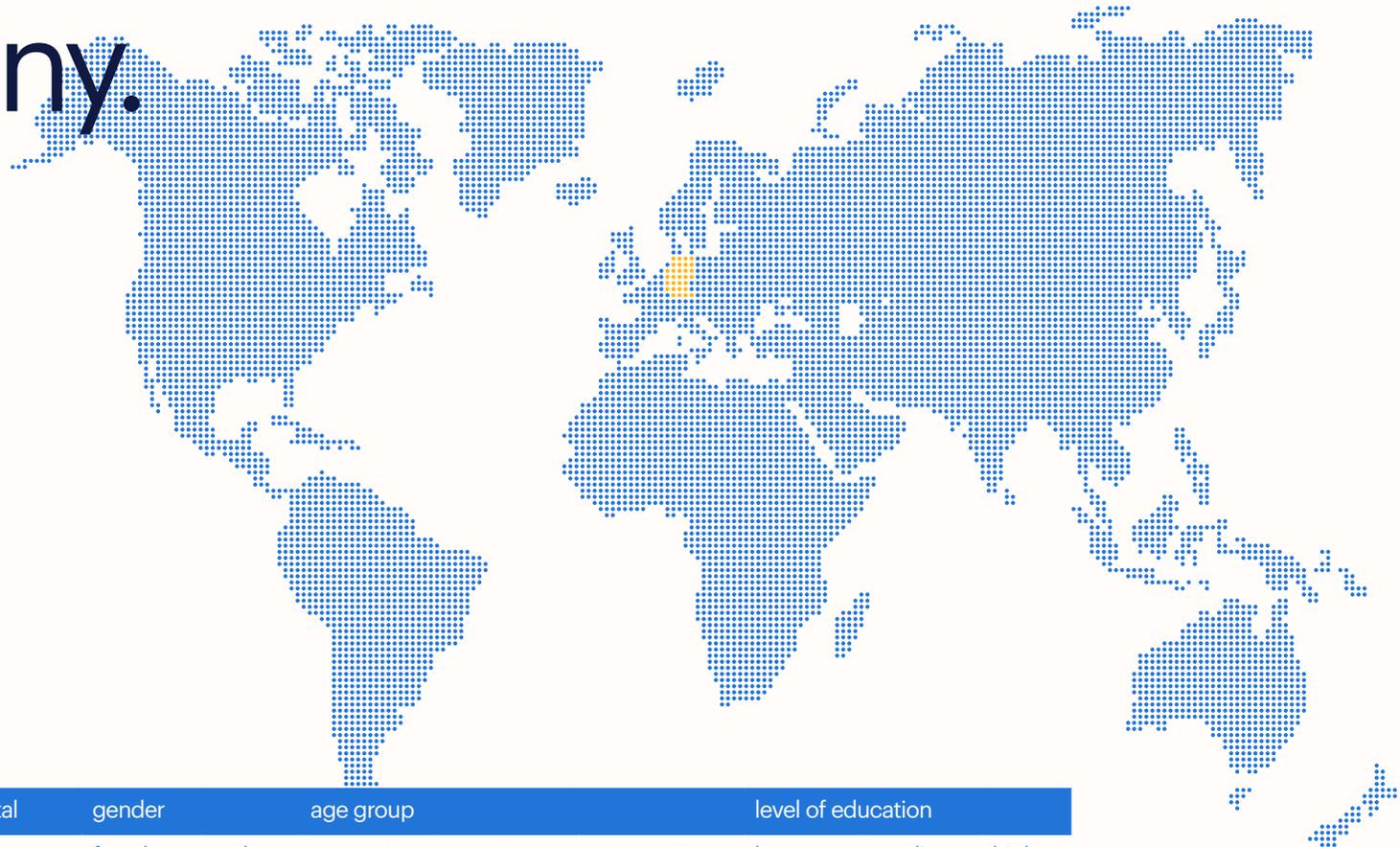
# france.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	9.5	9.4	9.6	23.4	8.4	6.2	16.9	9.8	4.7
activity rate	71.6	67.7	75.7	36.9	87.7	54.8	47.2	74.7	87.7
temporary employment rate	16.2	16.6	15.9	57.0	11.4	6.9	18.3	11.6	15.2
self employment rate	11.5	7.8	14.8	2.6	10.8	16.5	9.5	10.5	12.2
agency work rate	2.1								

source and remarks: see page 110

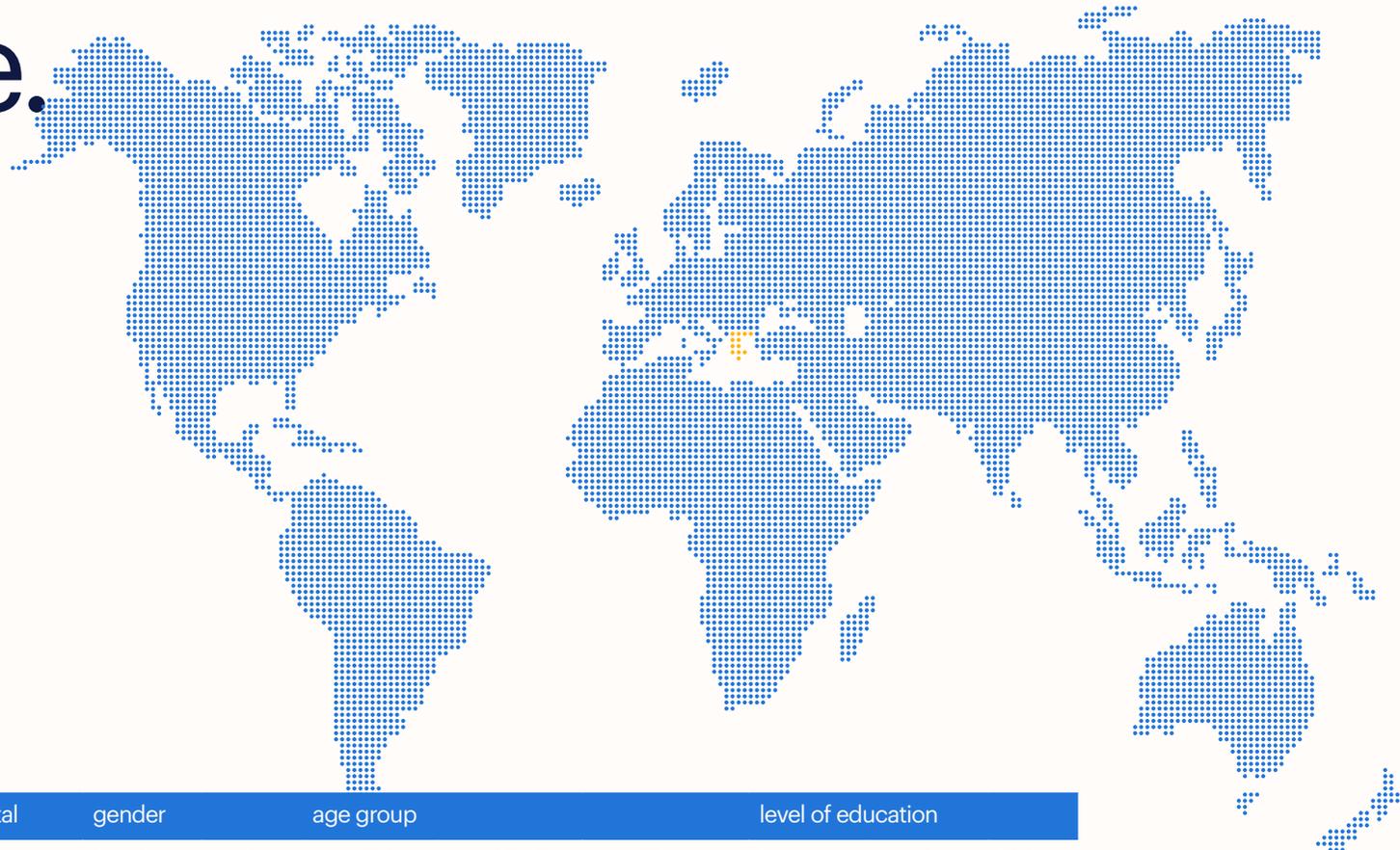
# germany.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	3.9	3.3	4.4	7.0	3.6	3.4	9.7	3.4	1.9
activity rate	78.1	73.6	82.5	49.8	87.3	72.6	51.1	82.3	90.1
temporary employment rate	13.1	13.1	13.1	52.1	8.8	3.3	28.5	8.8	10.0
self employment rate	10.0	7.1	12.6	1.3	9.3	13.3	5.2	7.2	15.3
agency work rate	2.4								

source and remarks: see page 110

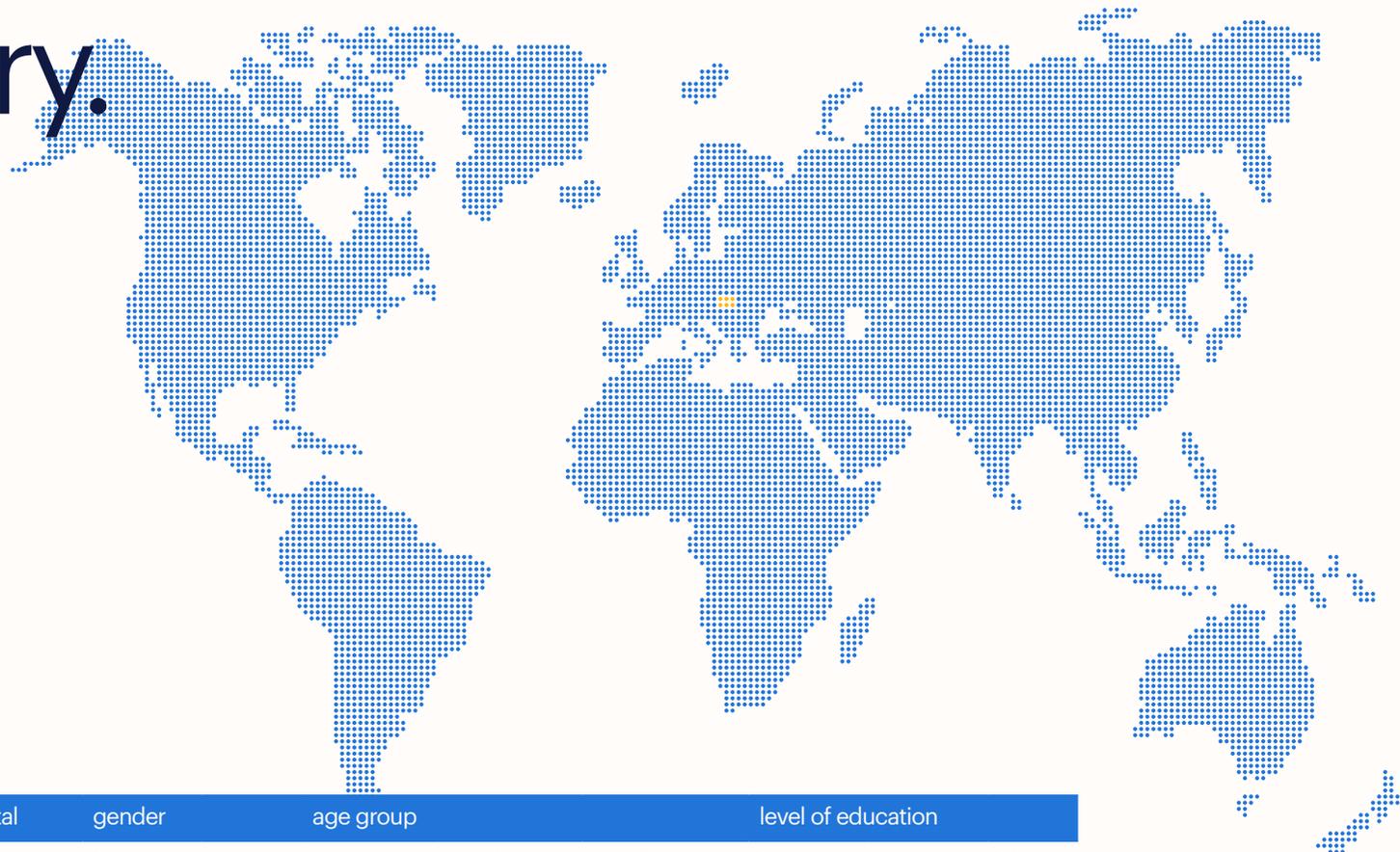
# greece.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	21.8	26.2	18.2	43.8	20.9	18.2	23.7	23.6	16.2
activity rate	68.6	60.7	76.5	25.7	85.4	46.4	53.3	68.6	85.1
temporary employment rate	11.2	12.4	10.3	24.8	7.3	3.5	7.9	6.4	8.2
self employment rate	30.2	23.7	34.9	6.8	27.2	49.6	43.9	27.9	22.0
agency work rate	0.1								

source and remarks: see page 110

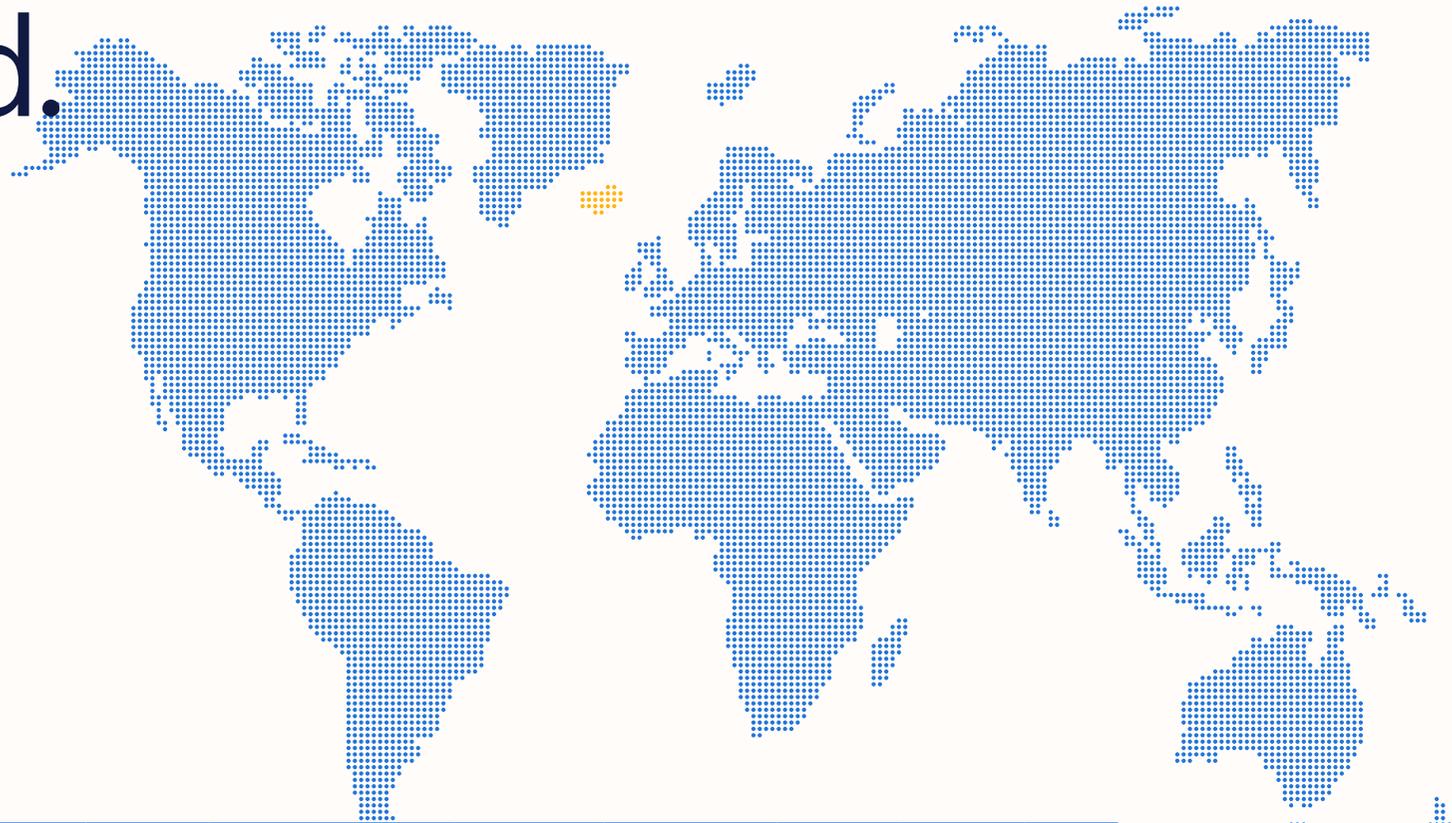
# hungary.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	4.3	4.6	4.0	11.3	3.8	3.8	11.9	3.8	1.5
activity rate	71.1	64.2	78.2	33.0	86.9	53.2	43.1	76.2	85.6
temporary employment rate	9.7	10.2	9.3	19.5	7.9	7.8	30.7	2.9	6.9
self employment rate	10.4	7.8	12.7	2.5	9.6	15.5	3.5	10.2	12.5
agency work rate	2.7								

source and remarks: see page 110

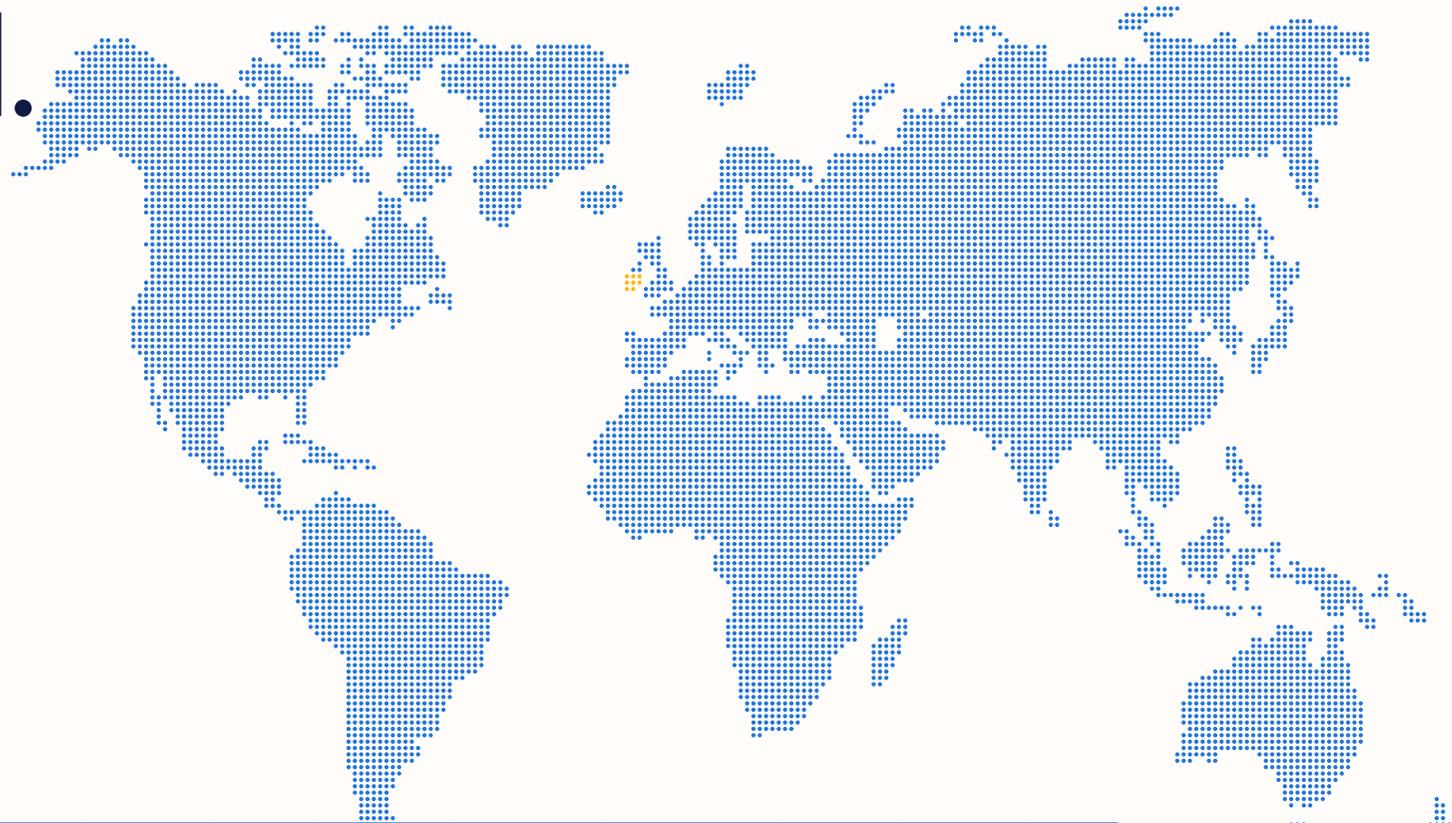
# iceland.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	2.9	2.8	3.1	6.5	1.7	3.8	5.7	3.0	2.0
activity rate	89.5	86.2	92.7	86.0	91.8	86.2	82.4	93.9	95.7
temporary employment rate	11.7	12.6	10.9	27.9	7.7	4.3	12.3	10.3	9.4
self employment rate	11.9	7.4	15.9	2.3	12.2	16.2	8.1	14.9	9.9

source and remarks: see page 110

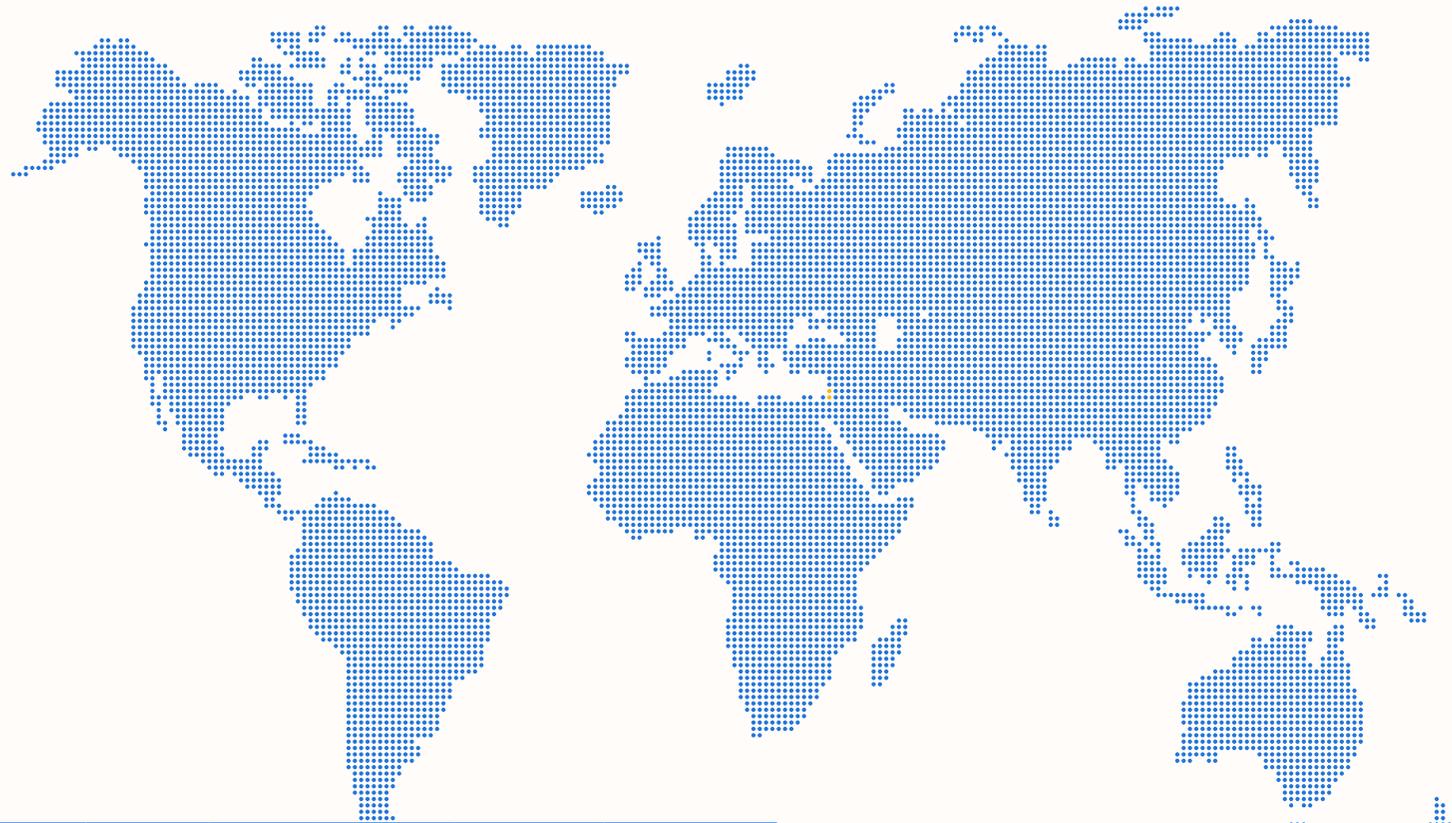
# ireland.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	6.4	5.2	7.4	14.9	5.6	5.3	12.1	7.8	3.6
activity rate	70.4	63.9	77.0	37.9	81.1	62.2	39.6	72.5	86.7
temporary employment rate	8.1	8.4	7.8	27.4	5.3	3.4	9.1	5.9	7.5
self employment rate	16.2	7.5	23.5	1.9	13.7	26.3	24.0	14.5	12.2
agency work rate**	1.4								

source and remarks: see page 110

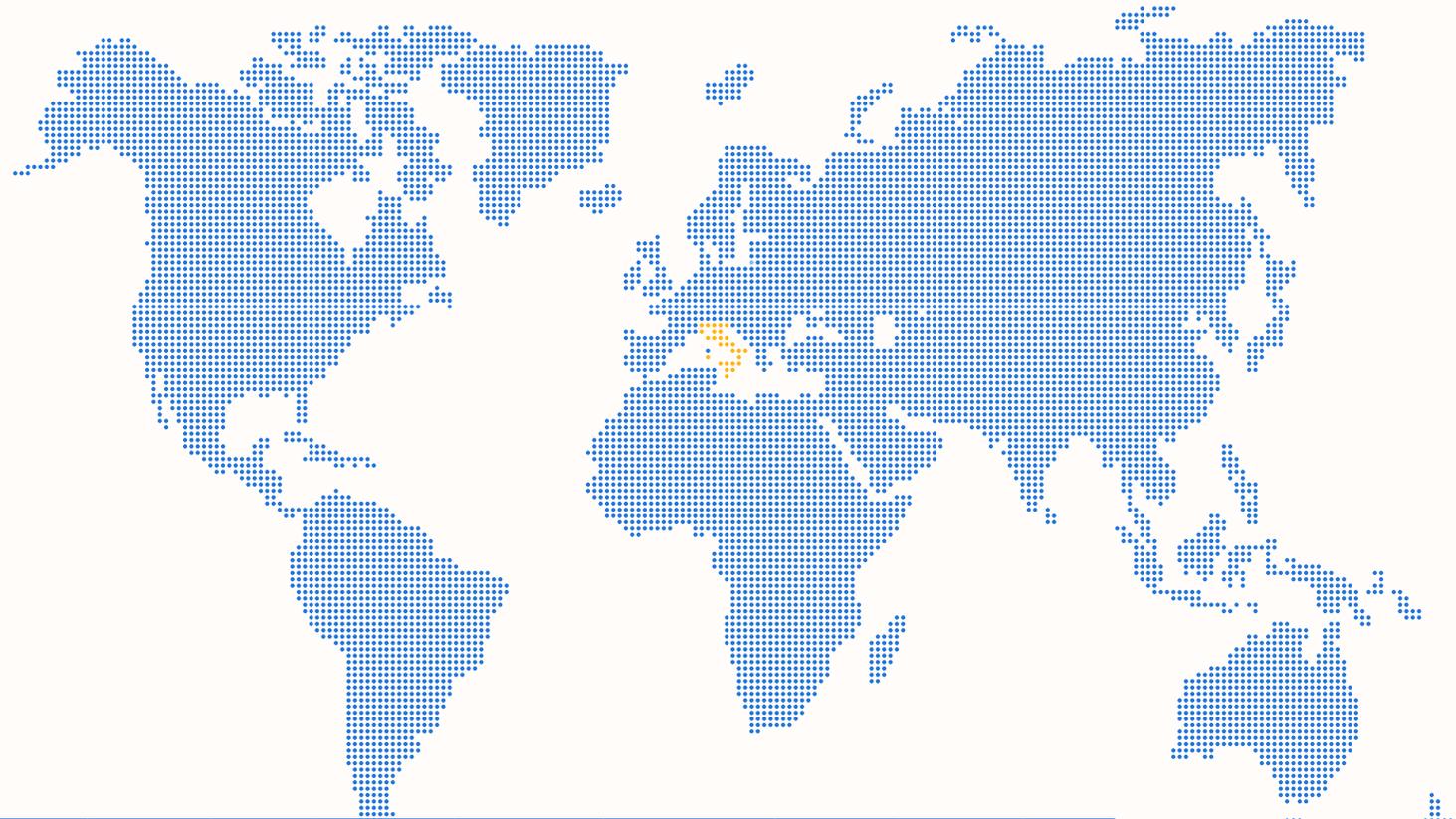
# israel.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	4.5	4.6	4.4	7.7	3.9	3.6
activity rate	72.2	68.6	75.9	48.8	82.9	68.3
self employment rate	12.7	9.1	15.9			

source and remarks: see page 110

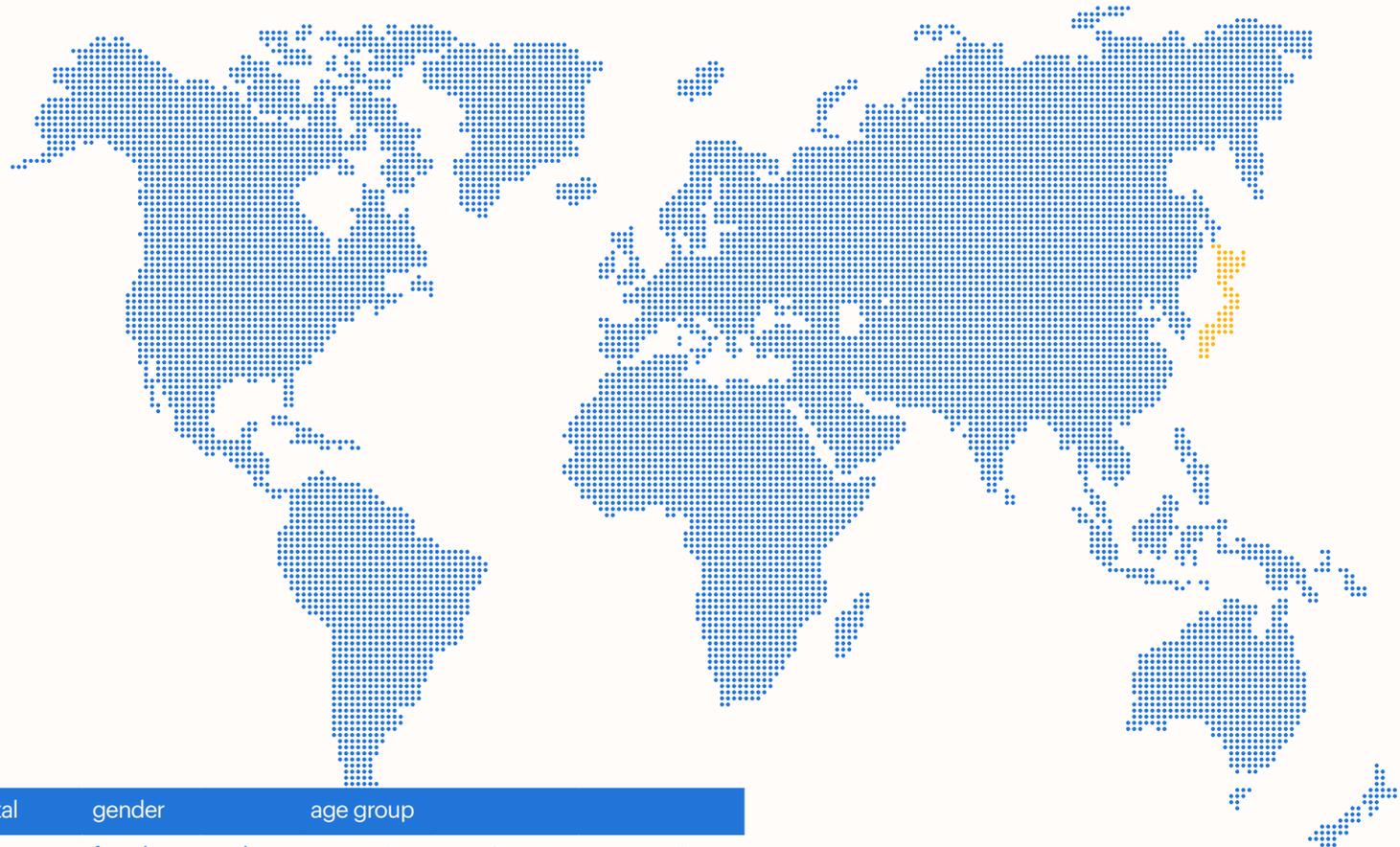
# italy.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	11.4	12.4	10.6	35.4	10.8	5.6	15.3	10.1	6.2
activity rate	65.2	55.7	74.8	25.9	77.8	55.0	51.1	72.1	84.0
temporary employment rate	14.0	14.6	13.5	46.9	10.3	4.2	11.7	10.0	10.7
self employment rate	22.6	16.3	27.0	11.4	21.3	24.9	22.4	19.0	25.5
agency work rate	1.2								

source and remarks: see page 110

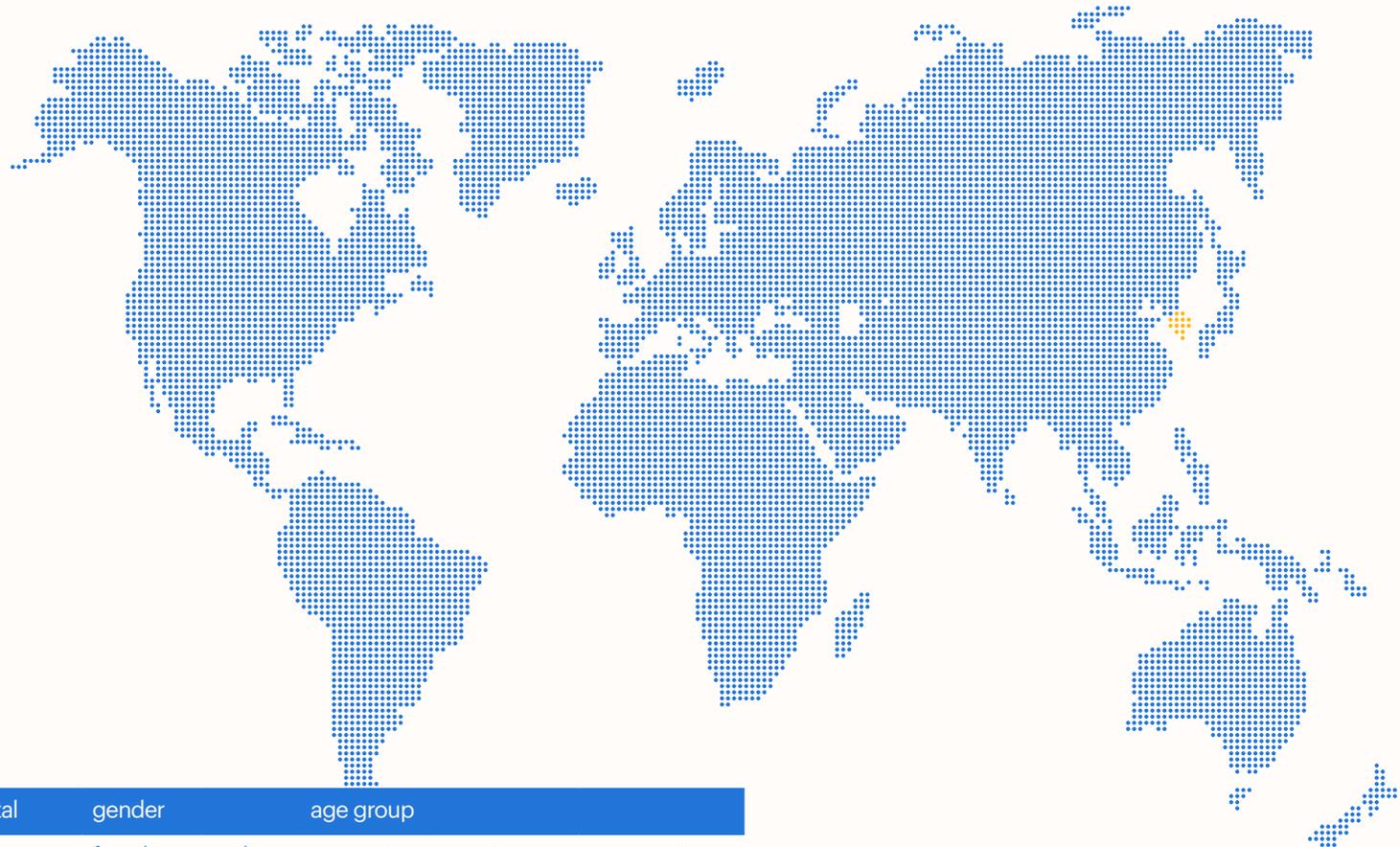
# japan.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	3.0	2.9	3.1	4.9	2.9	2.7
activity rate	77.5	69.3	85.6	44.8	86.5	75.1
temporary employment rate*	7.5	10.3	5.3			
self employment rate	8.2	4.7	10.8			
agency work rate	2.0					

source and remarks: see page 110

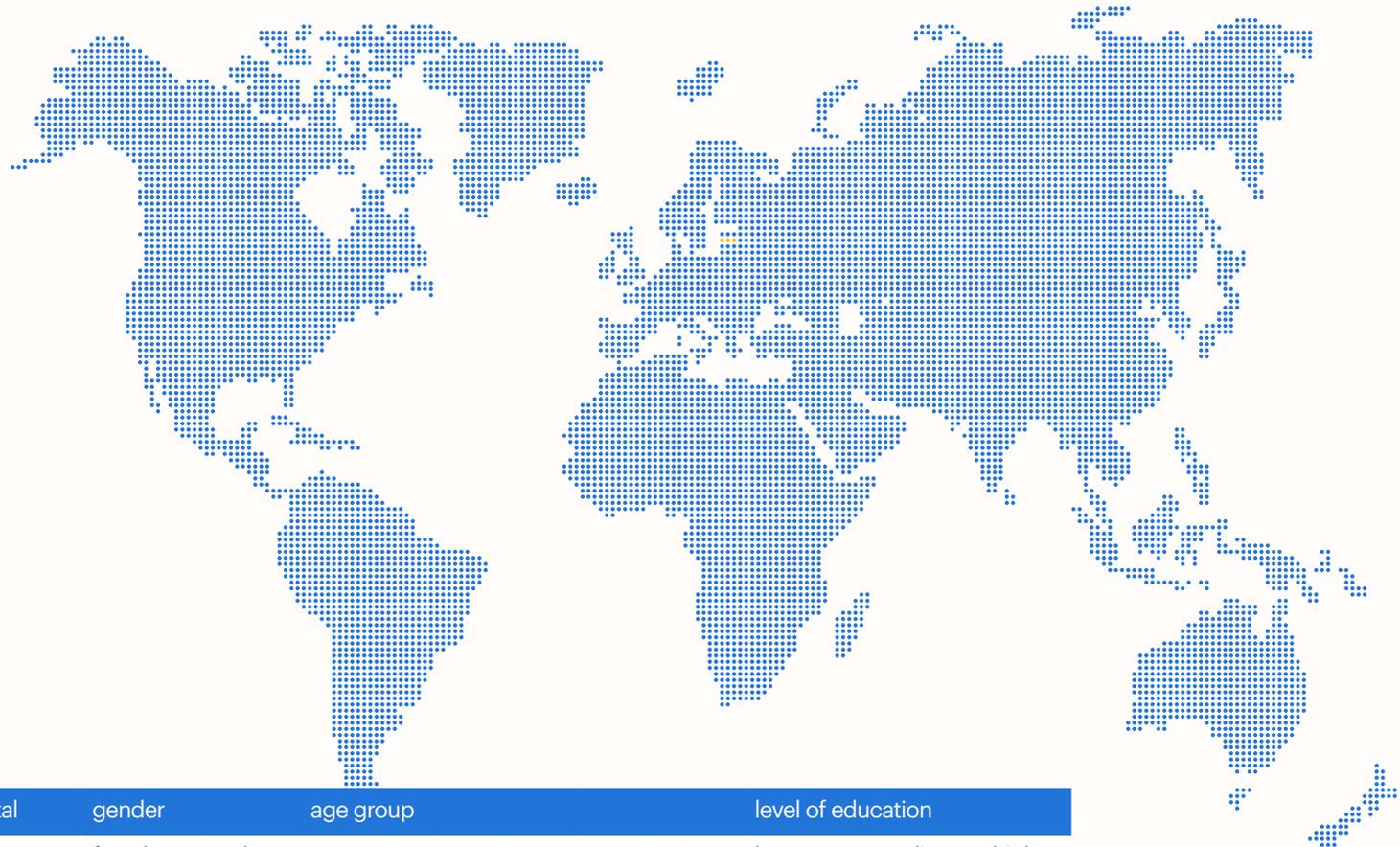
# korea.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	3.9	3.7	4.0	10.8	3.6	2.5
activity rate	69.3	59.0	79.4	31.1	79.1	69.0
temporary employment rate*	22.3	24.6	20.5			
self employment rate	21.2	14.1	26.5			

source and remarks: see page 110

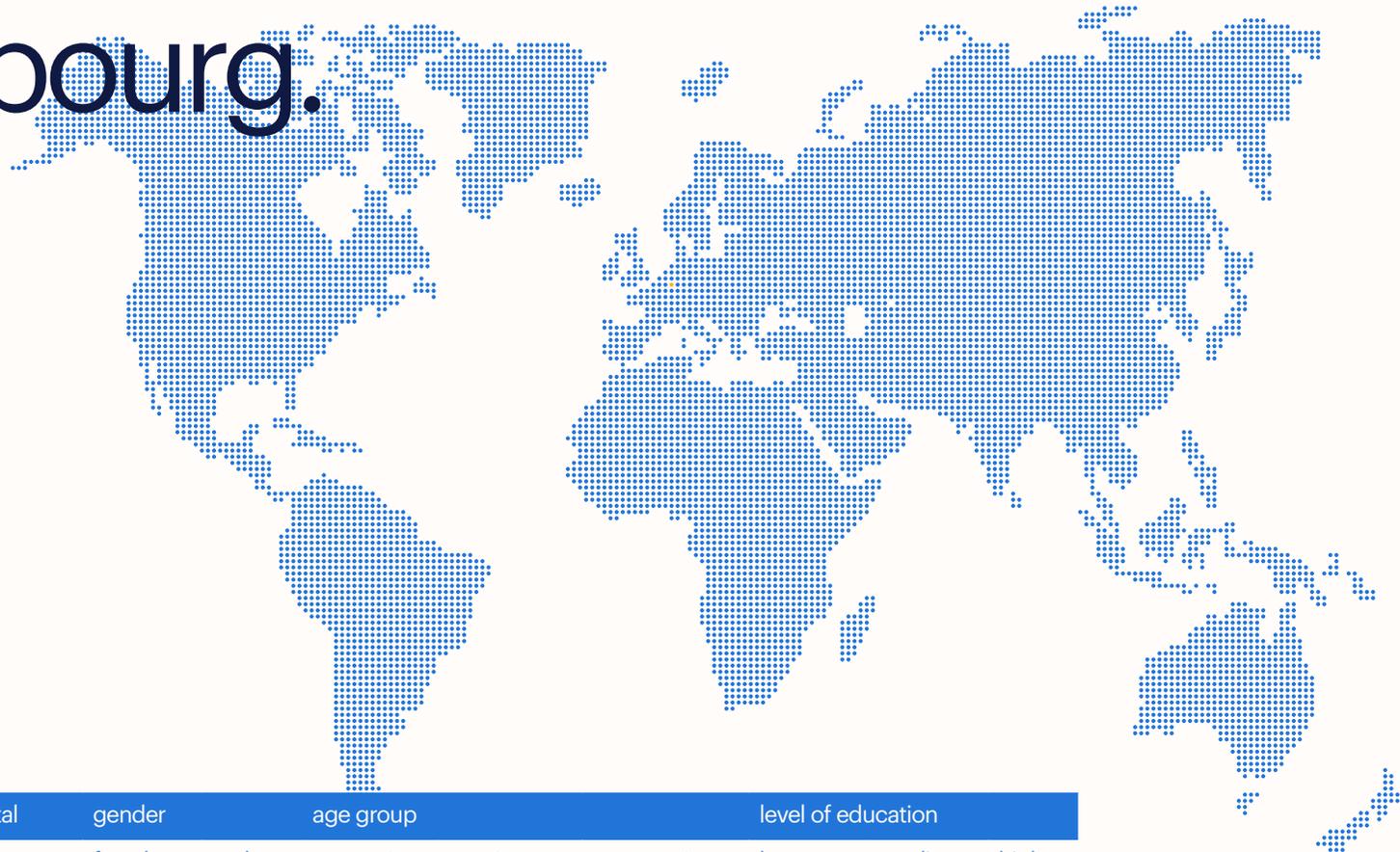
# latvia.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	9.0	7.6	10.5	16.2	8.3	8.5	20.9	10.2	3.6
activity rate	76.6	73.7	79.6	41.5	87.4	67.5	45.2	78.8	90.0
temporary employment rate	3.7	2.8	4.7	7.7	2.9	2.6	7.4	2.0	3.4
self employment rate	12.0	9.2	15.0	5.1	12.3	12.5	11.8	12.6	10.7
agency work rate	3.6								

source and remarks: see page 110

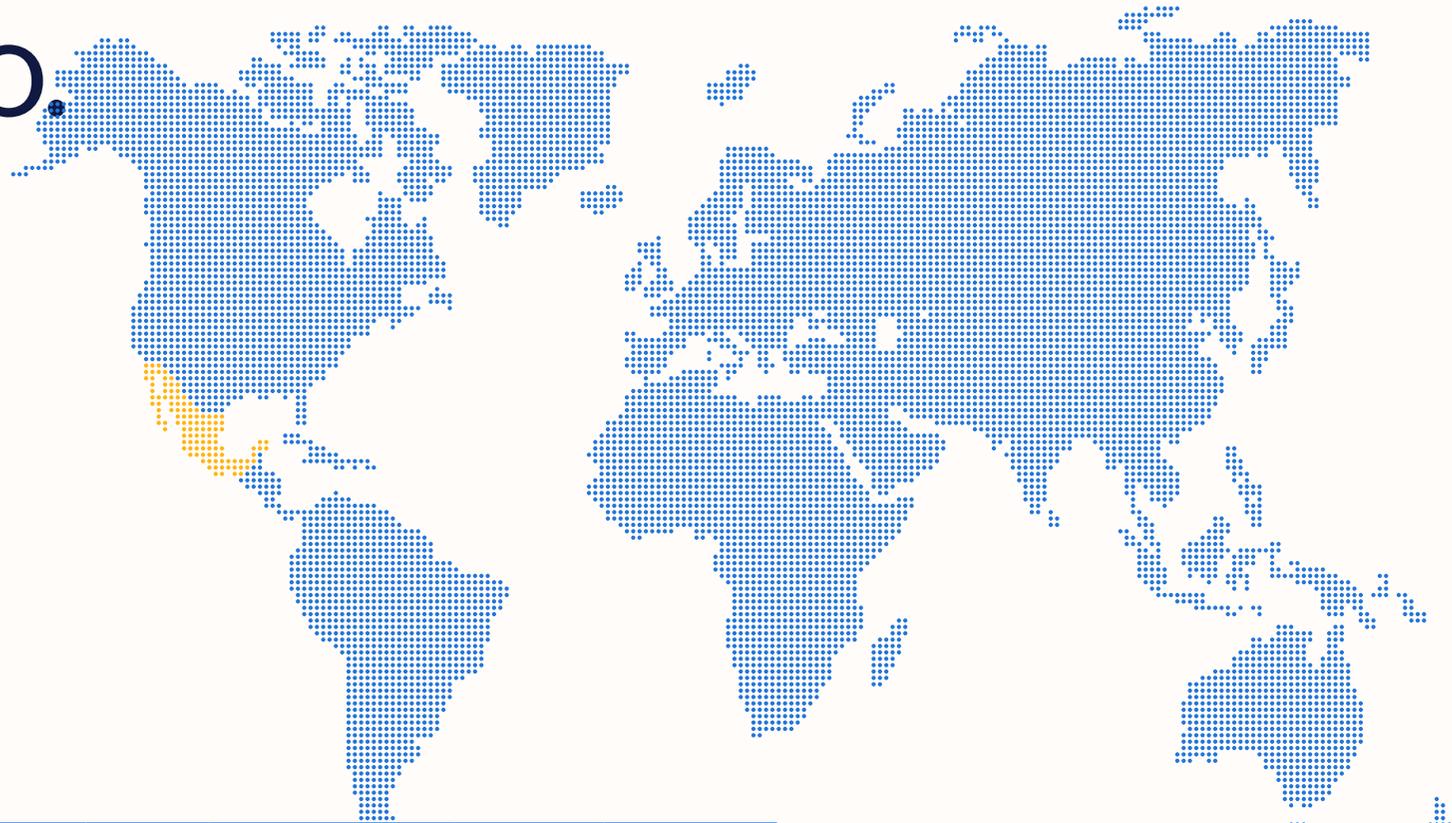
# luxembourg.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	5.7	5.3	5.9	16.7	4.6	5.2	8.8	4.7	3.5
activity rate	70.1	65.8	74.3	28.7	87.9	40.3	45.0	70.3	87.8
temporary employment rate	8.9	8.9	8.8	34.1	6.5	3.4	12.2	7.7	6.7
self employment rate	9.2	7.6	10.5	7.8	8.2	16.8	6.4	9.2	9.9
agency work rate	2.8								

source and remarks: see page 110

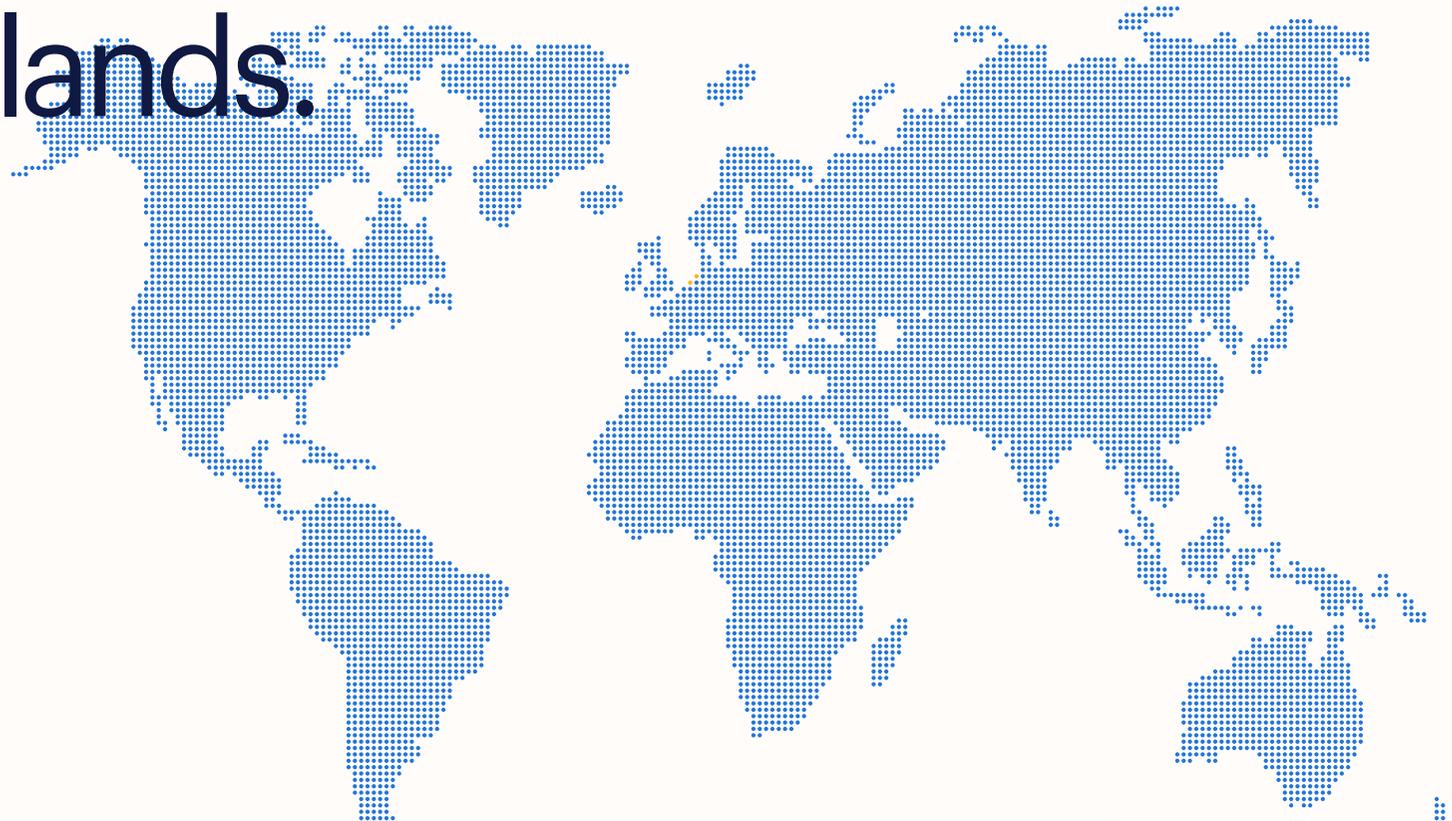
# mexico.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	3.6	3.9	3.5	6.7	3.1	1.8
activity rate	63.4	46.6	81.8	43.8	73.4	56.5
temporary employment rate*	10.0					
self employment rate	26.7	25.4	27.6			
agency work rate	0.9					

source and remarks: see page 110

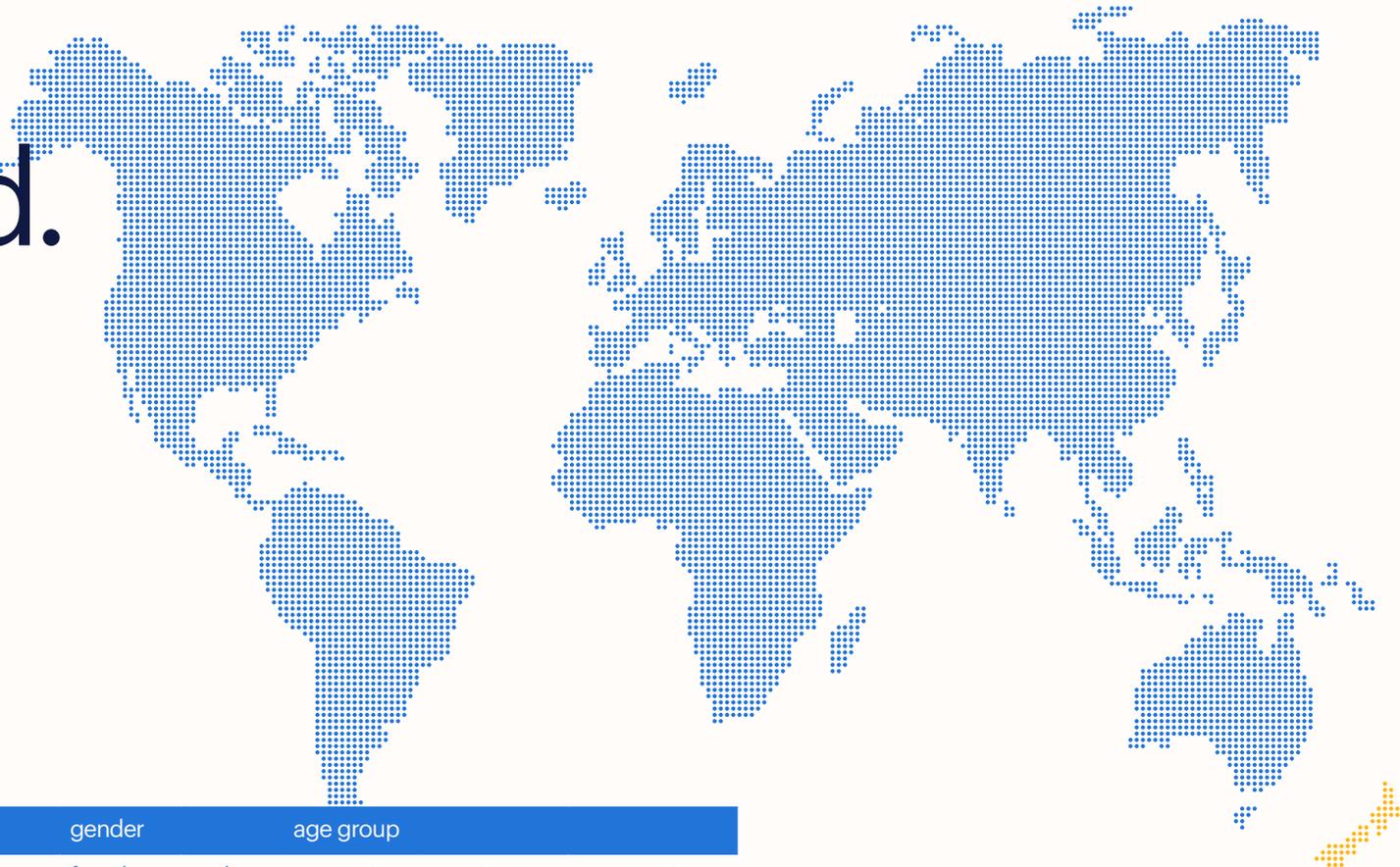
# netherlands.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	5.0	5.5	4.6	9.1	3.8	6.1	9.1	4.9	2.7
activity rate	79.7	75.3	84.1	68.0	86.7	69.7	64.1	82.2	90.5
temporary employment rate	20.6	21.8	19.6	50.7	12.5	5.6	25.7	12.5	16.9
self employment rate	16.3	12.6	19.6	5.3	16.6	20.6	13.1	14.8	17.7
agency work rate	3.0								

source and remarks: see page 110

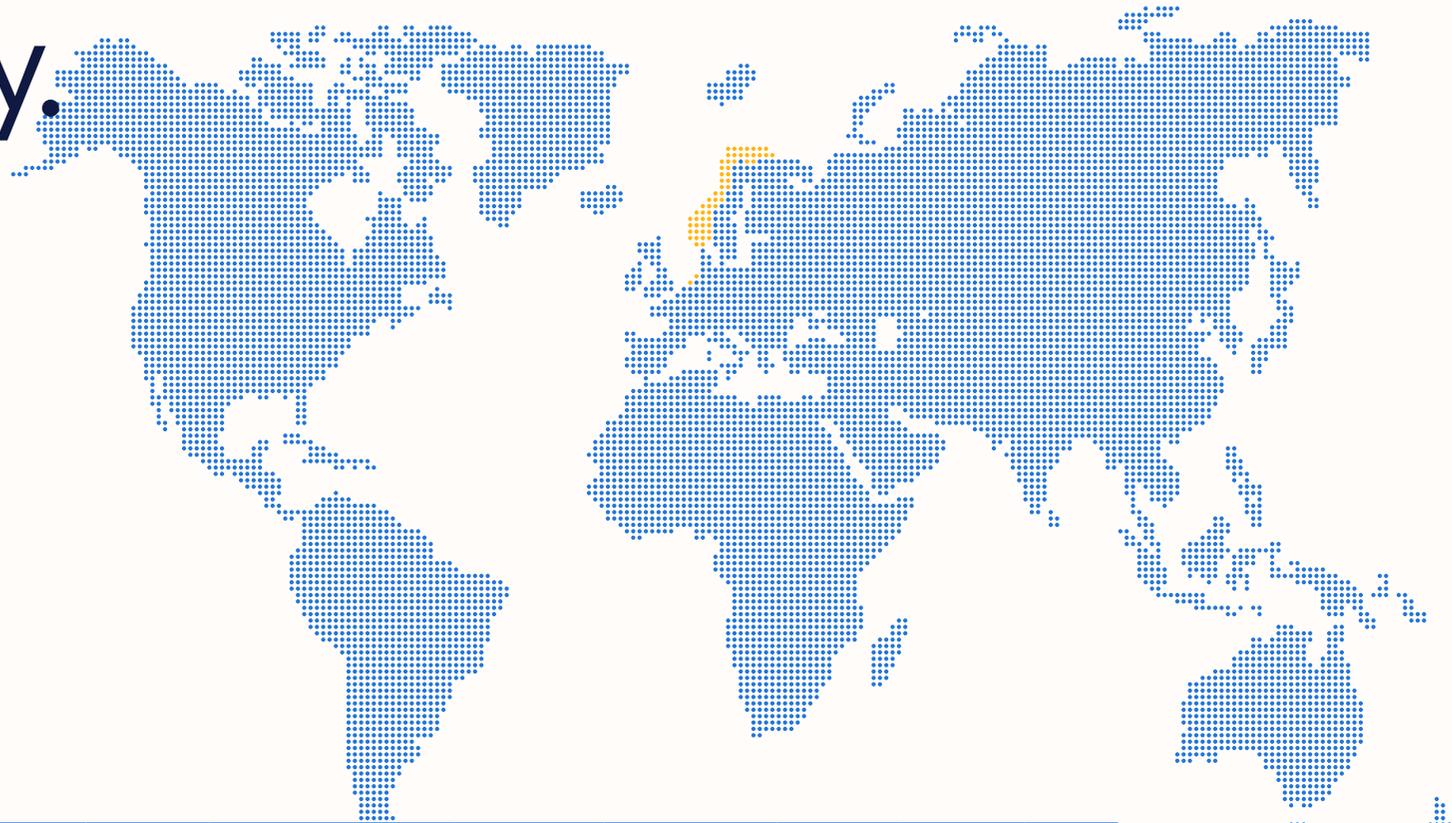
# new zealand.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	4.9	5.0	4.9	12.8	3.6	2.8
activity rate	80.3	75.2	85.4	62.0	86.9	80.0
self employment rate	17.0	13.3	20.3			
agency work rate	3.5					

source and remarks: see page 110

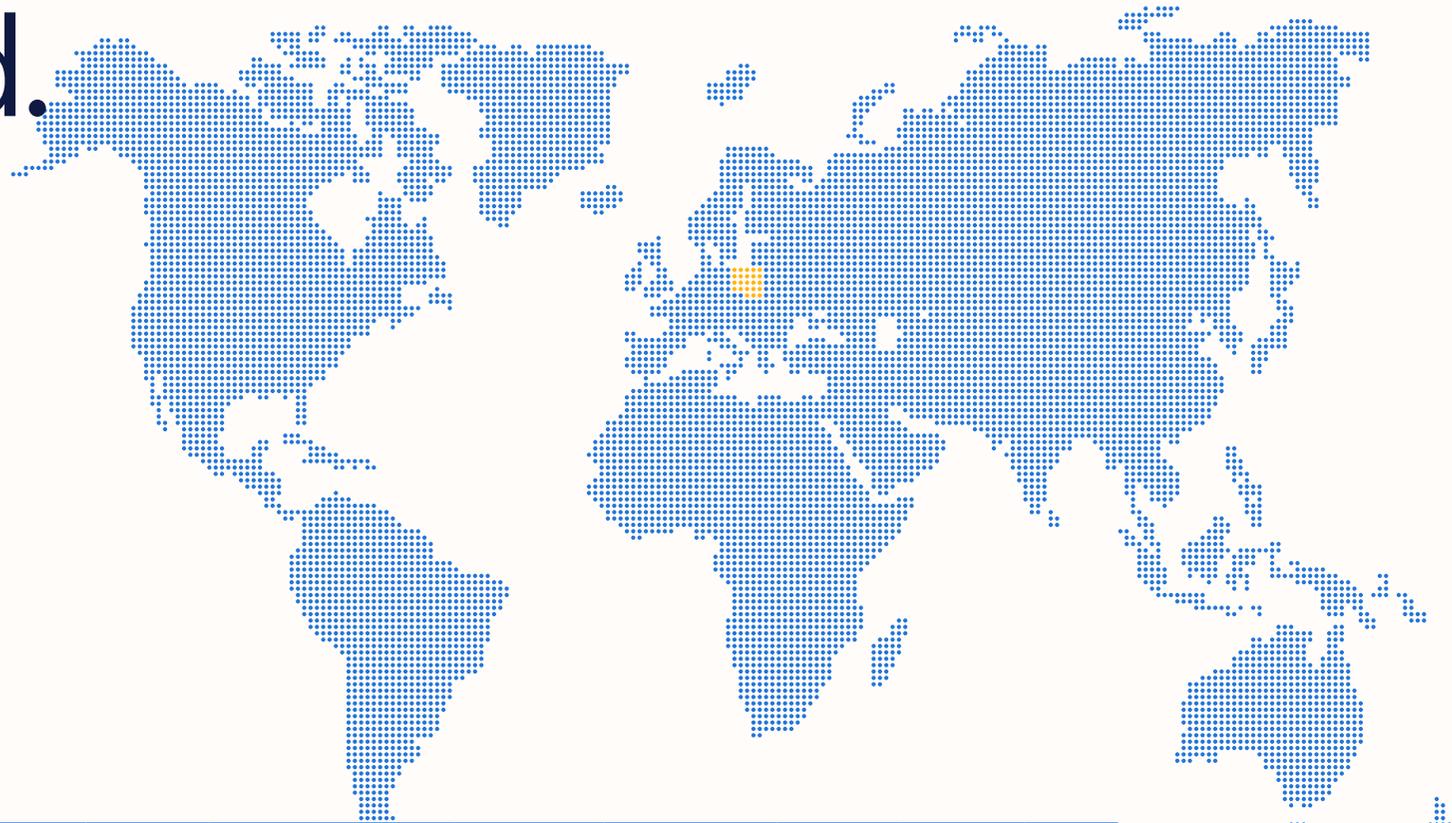
# norway.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	4.4	4.1	4.6	10.7	3.9	1.5	10.2	3.9	2.4
activity rate	77.4	75.5	79.2	53.6	85.8	73.1	55.8	80.2	89.6
temporary employment rate	8.7	10.3	7.2	27.7	6.4	1.5	14.3	7.3	6.6
self employment rate	6.8	4.4	8.9	1.8	6.3	9.0	6.5	7.0	5.5
agency work rate	1.1								

source and remarks: see page 110

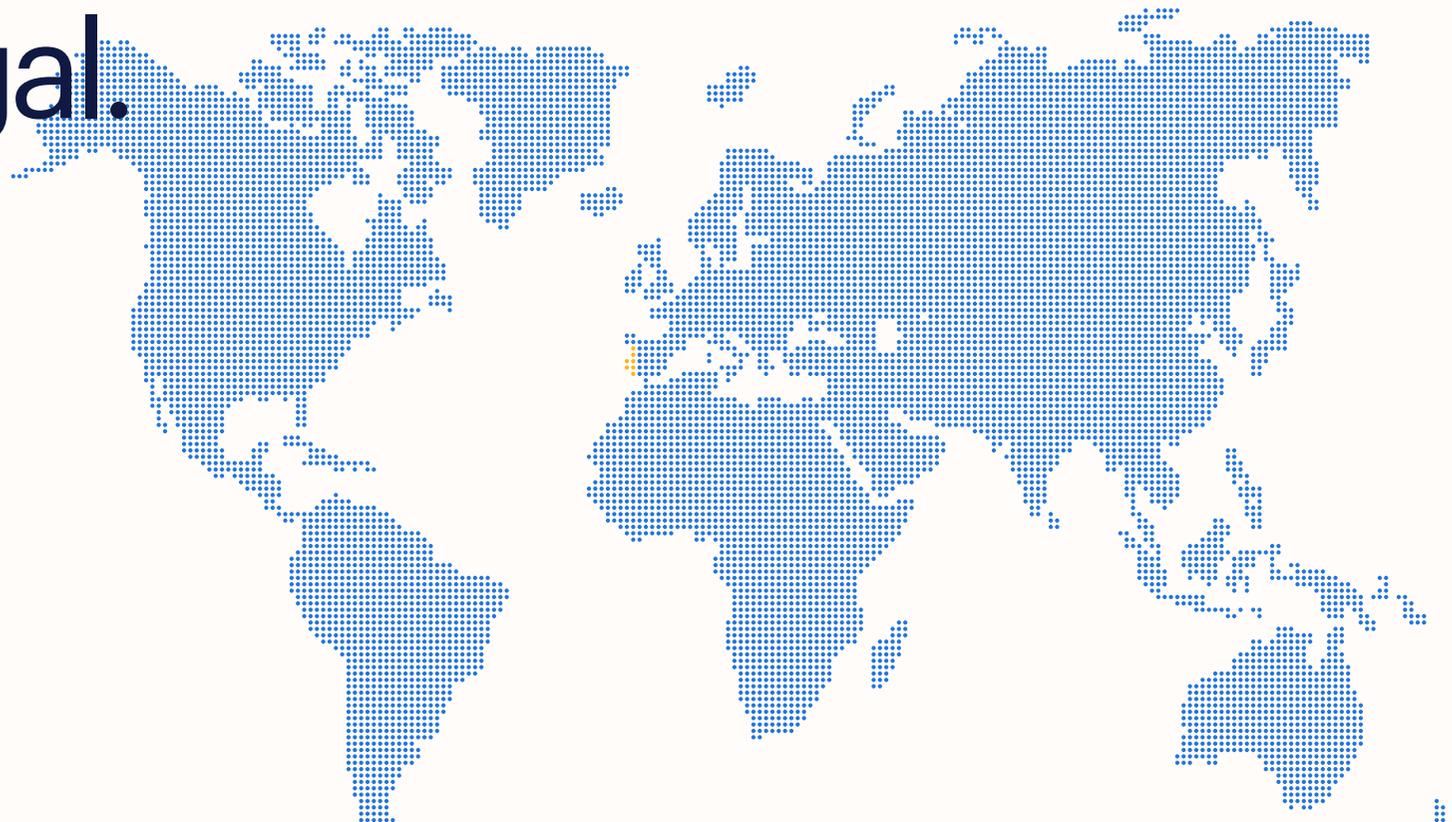
# poland.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	5.2	5.1	5.2	15.4	4.3	3.9	12.6	5.7	2.4
activity rate	69.7	62.9	76.6	34.8	85.3	50.8	26.7	71.5	88.9
temporary employment rate	27.5	27.7	27.3	62.5	20.0	12.6	33.5	16.5	23.9
self employment rate	18.1	13.1	22.2	5.9	17.6	23.3	22.3	19.2	14.2
agency work rate	1.3								

source and remarks: see page 110

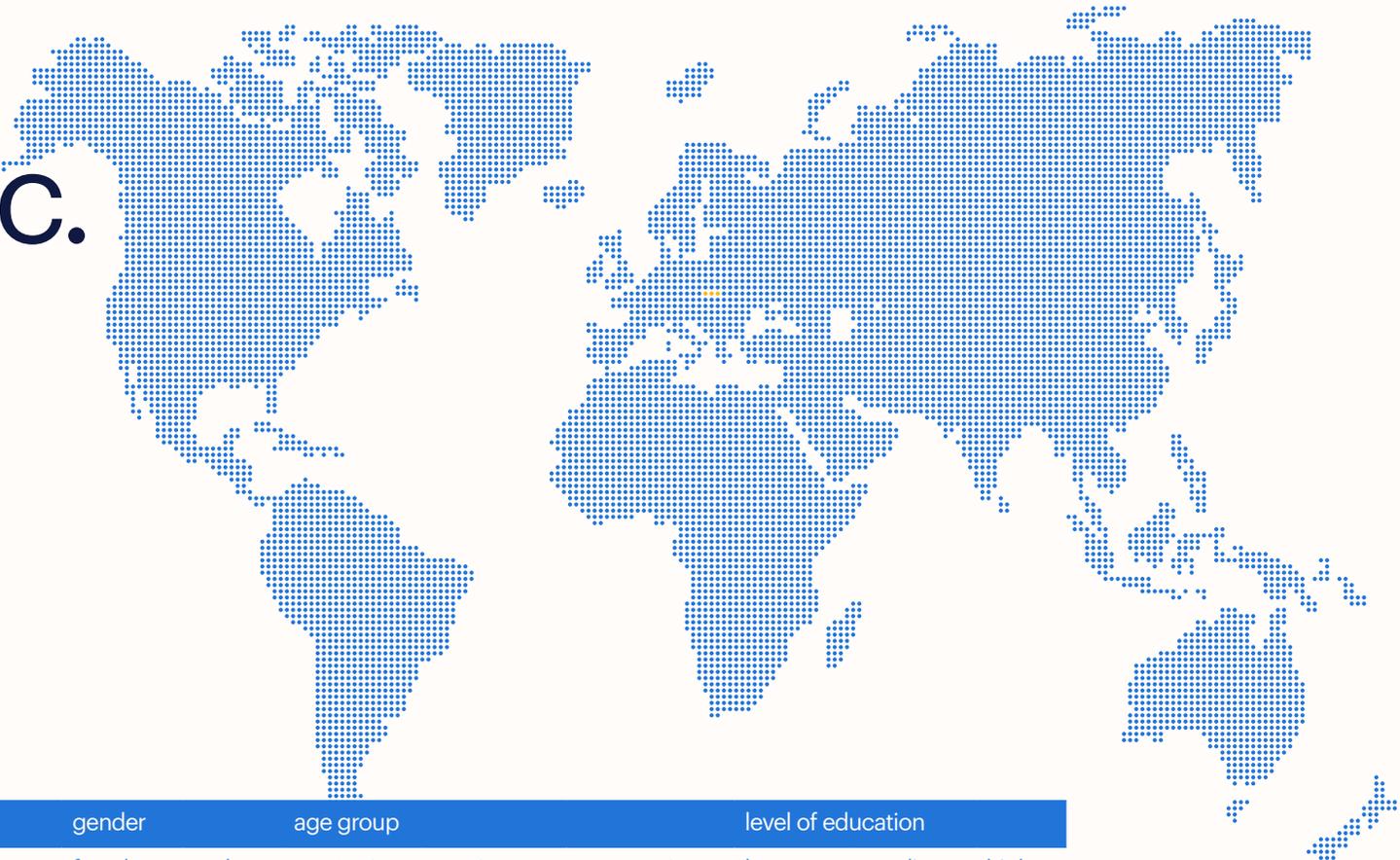
# portugal.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	9.5	10.0	9.1	23.9	8.4	8.2	9.9	9.4	6.6
activity rate	74.4	71.4	77.7	33.6	89.6	60.8	65.8	79.0	89.6
temporary employment rate	22.3	22.1	22.5	62.8	18.1	7.4	16.6	20.0	22.5
self employment rate	17.2	12.8	21.3	3.4	12.3	25.7	17.9	9.5	11.4
agency work rate	2.0								

source and remarks: see page 110

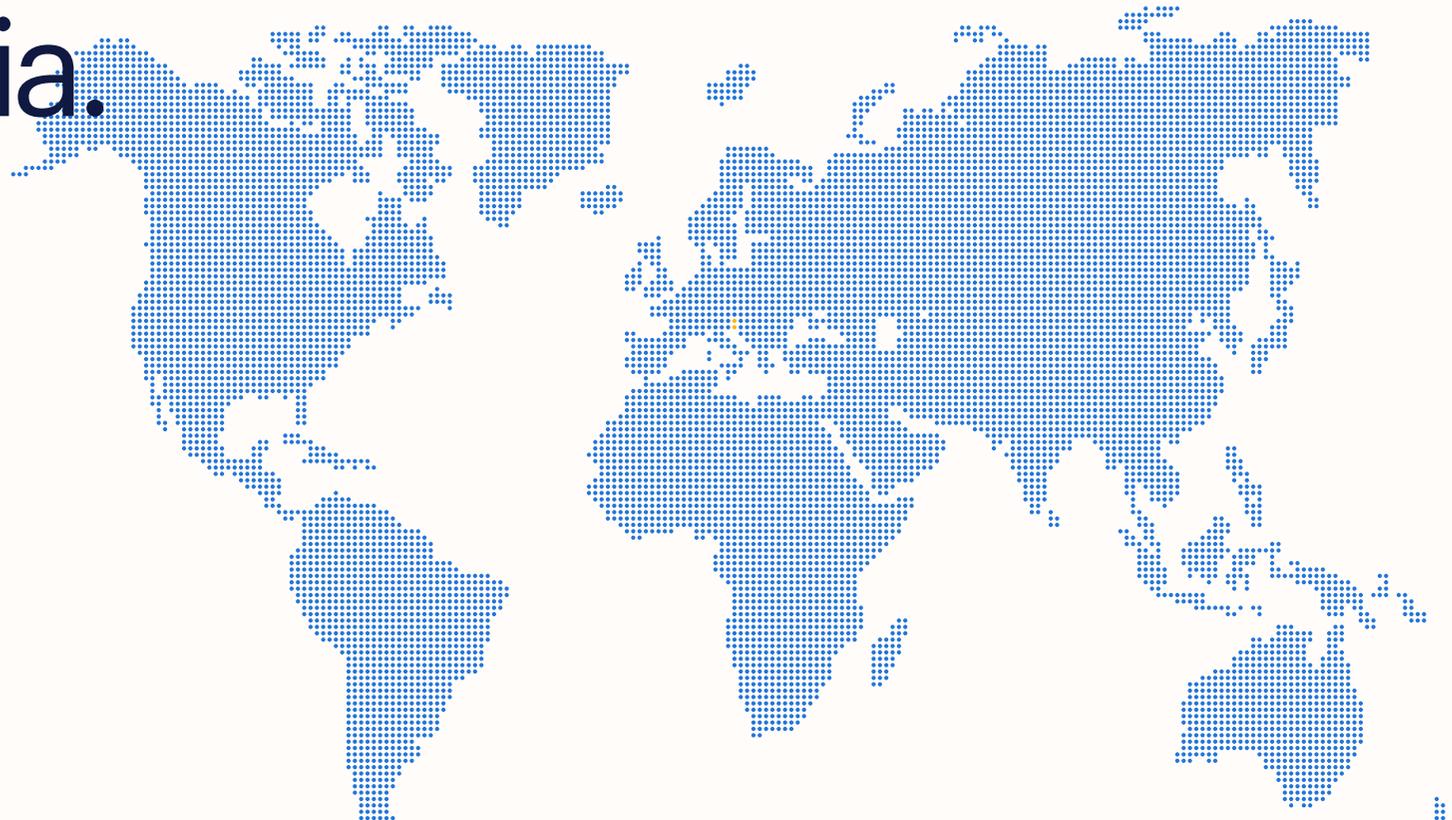
# slovak republic.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	8.4	8.6	8.3	19.8	7.7	6.6	28.5	7.6	4.2
activity rate	72.1	65.7	78.3	33.9	86.5	56.3	30.2	78.4	81.9
temporary employment rate	10.1	10.4	9.8	23.3	7.5	6.9	43.2	4.4	7.6
self employment rate	15.3	10.5	19.2	7.9	15.7	15.9	5.5	15.6	15.7
agency work rate****	0.8								

source and remarks: see page 110

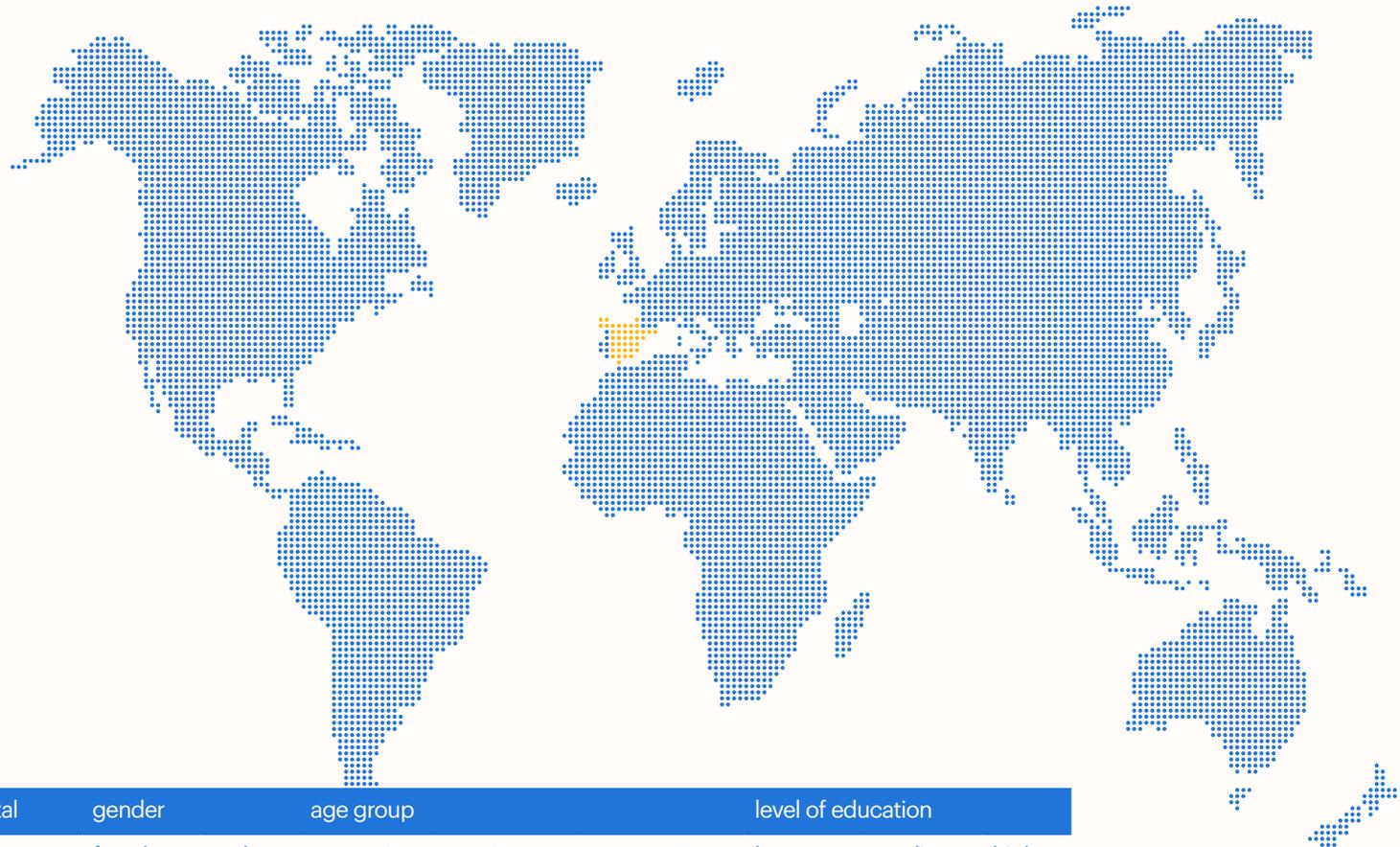
# slovenia.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	6.9	7.9	6.0	10.9	6.4	6.1	11.1	6.3	5.4
activity rate	73.8	70.2	77.2	39.3	91.7	45.5	38.9	76.0	91.3
temporary employment rate	17.0	18.1	16.1	66.3	12.0	5.3	15.7	13.2	15.3
self employment rate	11.9	7.7	15.4	1.9	11.6	16.2	10.1	12.6	10.0
agency work rate****	0.5								

source and remarks: see page 110

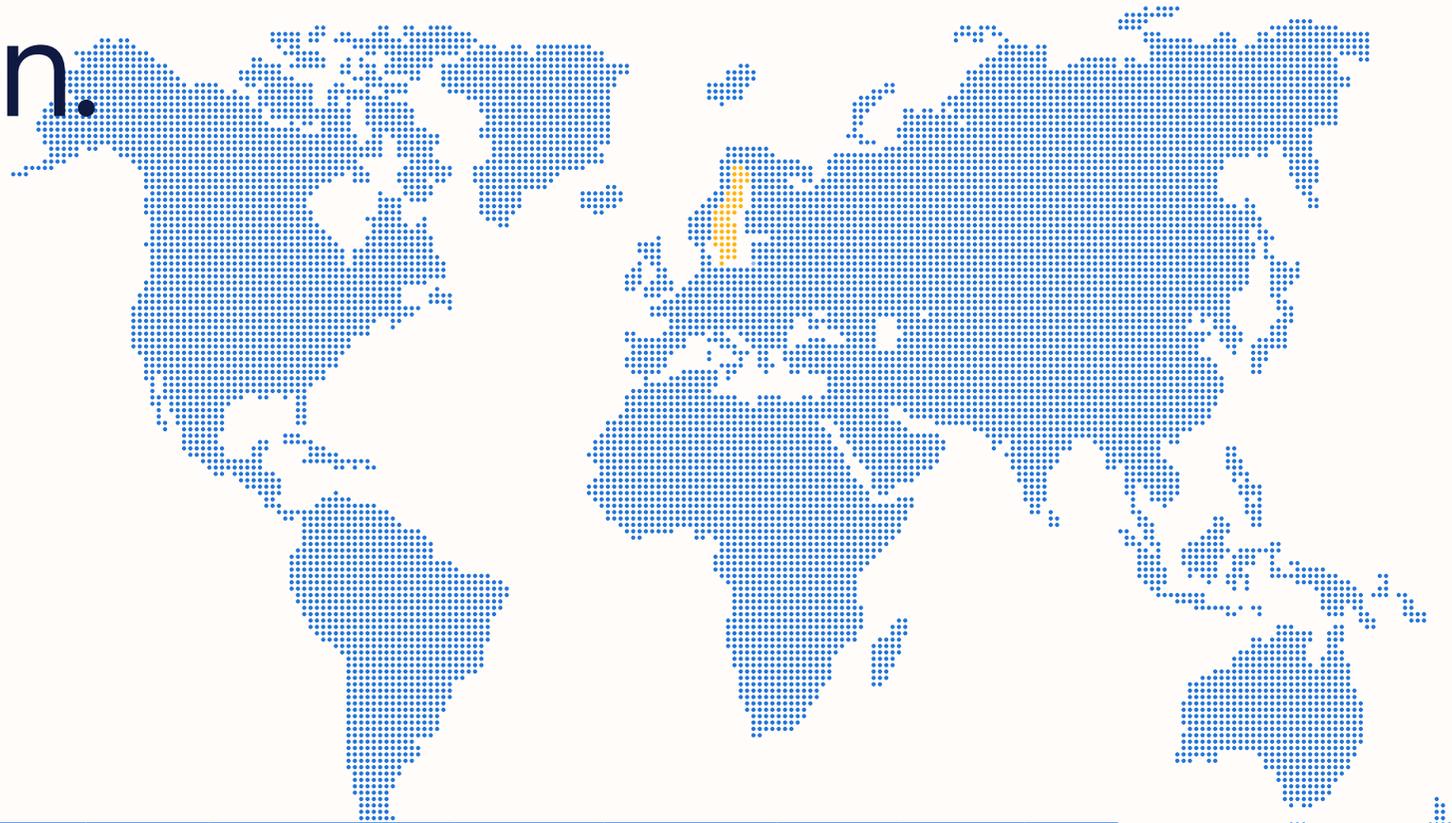
# spain.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	17.4	19.2	15.9	39.1	15.9	15.5	25.1	17.0	9.7
activity rate	73.8	68.8	78.9	32.8	86.9	59.7	66.4	72.2	88.5
temporary employment rate	26.1	26.4	25.7	67.7	21.7	8.8	25.7	18.5	22.1
self employment rate	16.5	12.2	20.1	4.6	15.3	23.7	18.8	15.7	14.1
agency work rate	0.6								

source and remarks: see page 110

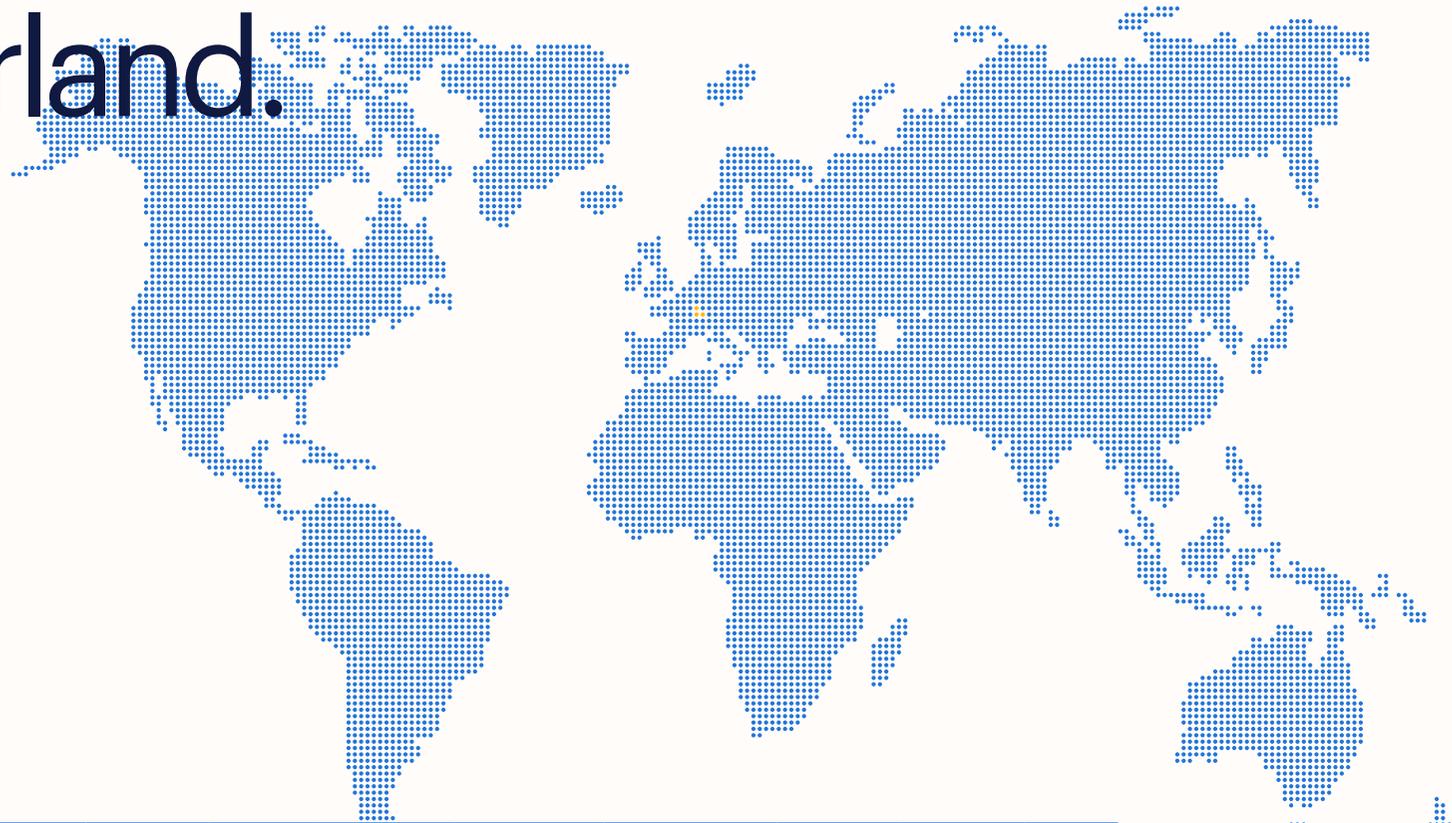
# sweden.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	6.9	6.5	7.2	17.7	5.4	5.2	21.0	5.3	4.2
activity rate	82.4	80.5	84.2	53.9	91.2	80.9	59.7	87.9	92.4
temporary employment rate	16.7	18.3	15.1	52.8	10.8	6.7	26.3	11.5	14.3
self employment rate	9.7	5.9	13.3	2.0	8.6	12.9	10.7	9.7	6.9
agency work rate	1.6								

source and remarks: see page 110

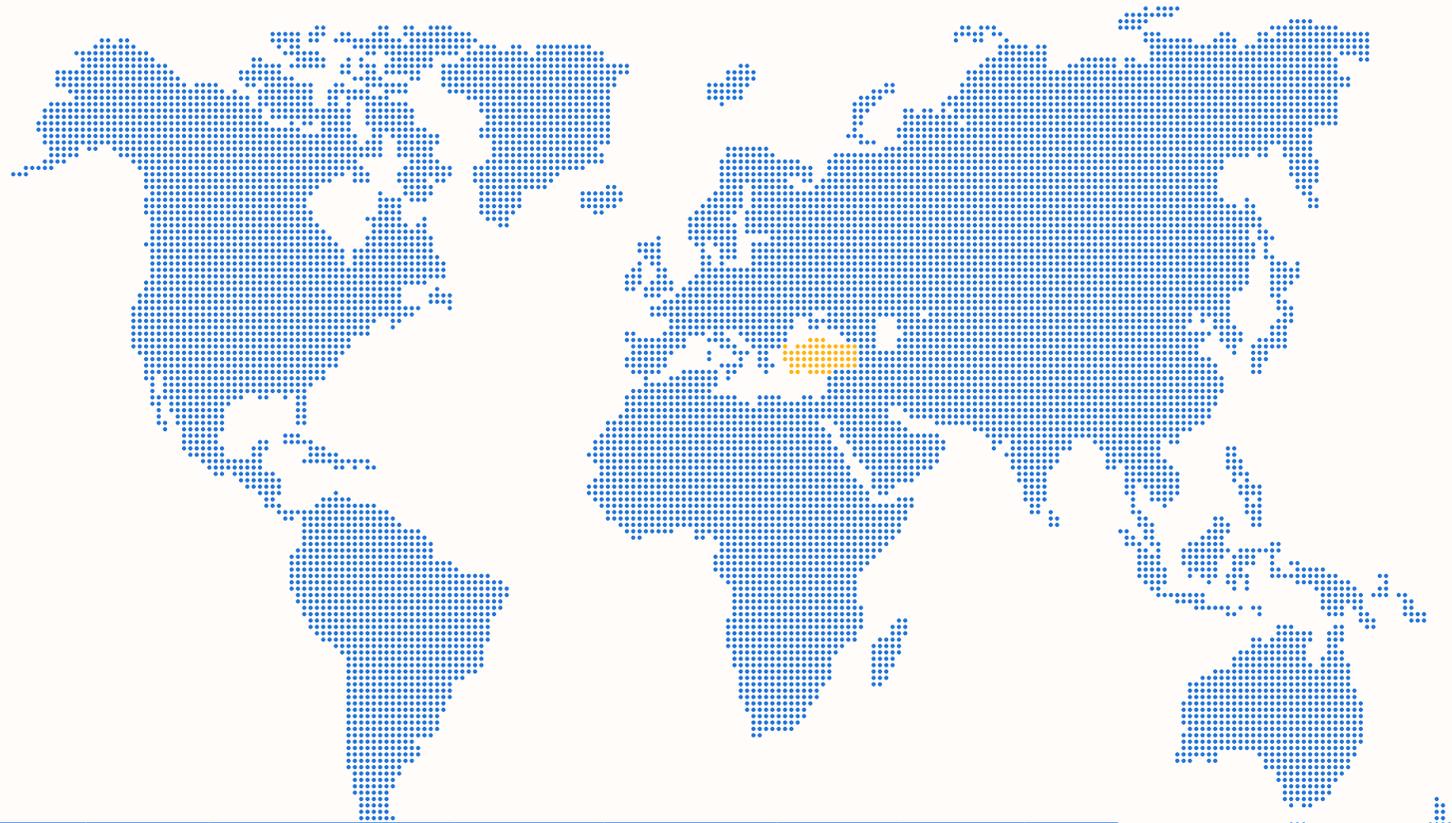
# switzerland.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	4.5	4.9	4.2	6.9	4.3	3.7	7.7	4.4	3.3
activity rate	83.6	78.7	88.3	66.6	90.3	75.1	65.7	84.2	91.5
temporary employment rate	13.2	13.1	13.3	47.7	6.7	3.3	33.4	8.8	7.2
self employment rate	13.1	10.6	15.3	1.5	11.8	20.1	6.2	11.9	13.8
agency work rate	1.8								

source and remarks: see page 110

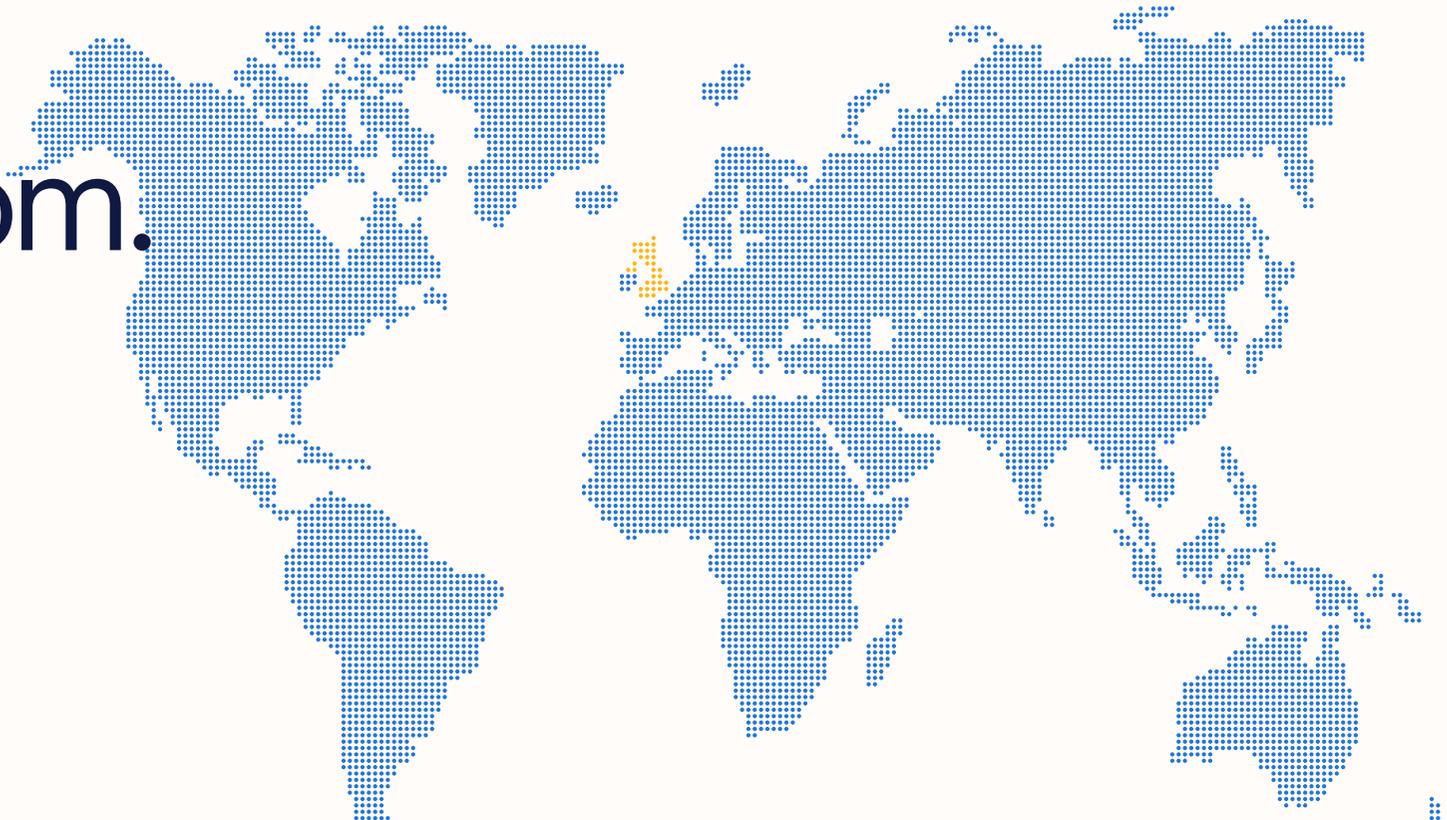
# turkey.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	11.5	15.0	9.8	21.6	9.6	7.1	8.9	12.2	11.3
activity rate	57.5	37.2	77.8	43.2	67.2	35.6	50.5	62.5	82.6
temporary employment rate	13.2	11.9	13.8	19.2	7.4	6.5	12.5	2.9	6.7
self employment rate	21.3	10.2	26.1	3.4	20.3	47.0	25.1	17.1	9.8
agency work rate****	0.1								

source and remarks: see page 110

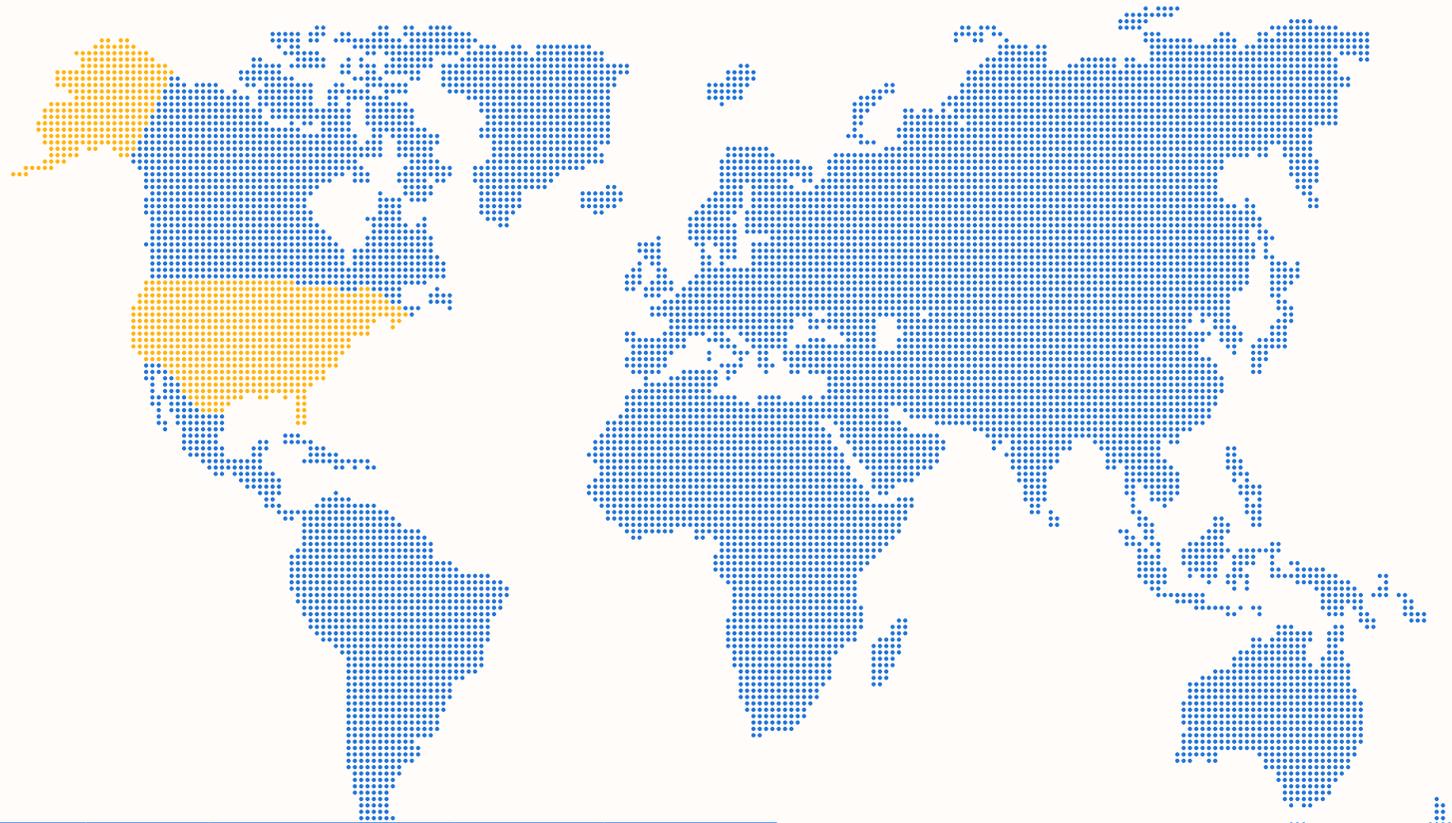
# united kingdom.



topic	total	gender		age group			level of education		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64	low	medium	high
unemployment rate	4.4	4.3	4.6	11.9	3.2	3.5	7.5	4.7	2.6
activity rate	77.7	72.8	82.6	57.9	86.6	66.4	64.1	78.0	87.5
temporary employment rate	6.0	6.6	5.5	14.3	3.7	4.0	3.8	5.4	5.2
self employment rate	15.0	10.5	19.1	4.6	14.3	20.8	15.6	13.9	13.8
agency work rate	3.8								

source and remarks: see page 110

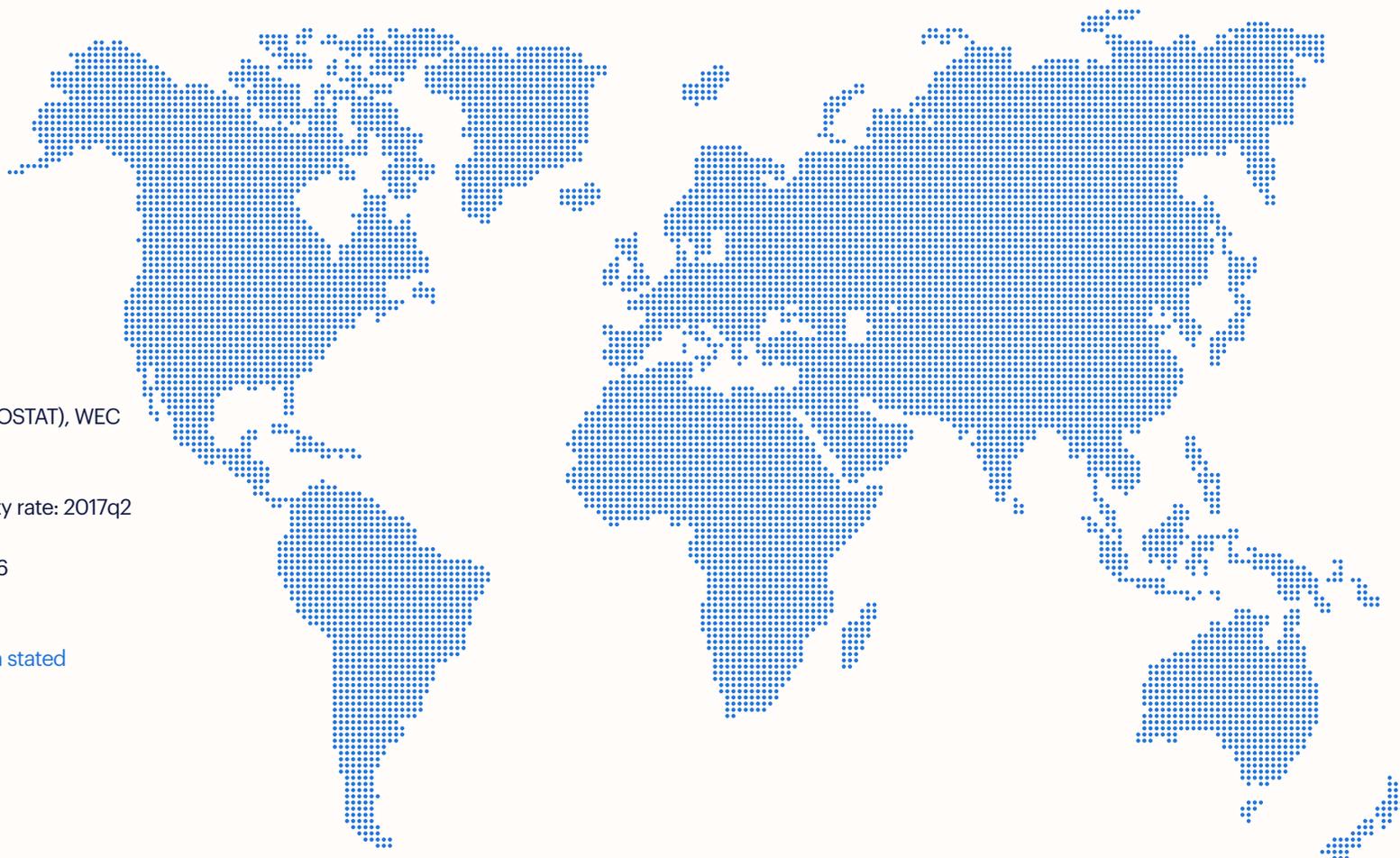
# united states.



topic	total	gender		age group		
		female	male	age 15-24	age 25 - 54	age 55 - 64
unemployment rate	4.4	4.4	4.4	9.1	3.8	3.0
activity rate	73.3	67.8	78.9	55.5	81.6	64.4
temporary employment rate"	4.2	4.2	4.2			
self employment rate	6.3	5.1	7.4			
agency work rate	2.2					

source and remarks: see page 110

# sources.



## sources

LFS (OECD.stats, ILOSTAT, EUROSTAT), WEC

## last available data

Unemployment rate and activity rate: 2017q2

Temporary employment rate  
and self-employment rate: 2016

Agency work rate: 2015

## except last available data when stated

\* = 2015

\*\* = 2014

\*\*\* = 2013

\*\*\*\* = 2012

\*\*\*\*\* = 2010

" = 2005

randstad

human forward.

