© OECD, 2002.

© Software: 1987-1996, Acrobat is a trademark of ADOBE.

All rights reserved. OECD grants you the right to use one copy of this Program for your personal use only. Unauthorised reproduction, lending, hiring, transmission or distribution of any data or software is prohibited. You must treat the Program and associated materials and any elements thereof like any other copyrighted material.

All requests should be made to:

Head of Publications Service, OECD Publications Service, 2, rue André-Pascal, 75775 Paris Cedex 16, France.

© OCDE, 2002.

© Logiciel, 1987-1996, Acrobat, marque déposée d'ADOBE.

Tous droits du producteur et du propriétaire de ce produit sont réservés. L'OCDE autorise la reproduction d'un seul exemplaire de ce programme pour usage personnel et non commercial uniquement. Sauf autorisation, la duplication, la location, le prêt, l'utilisation de ce produit pour exécution publique sont interdits. Ce programme, les données y afférantes et d'autres éléments doivent donc être traités comme toute autre documentation sur laquelle s'exerce la protection par le droit d'auteur.

Les demandes sont à adresser au :

Chef du Service des Publications, Service des Publications de l'OCDE, 2, rue André-Pascal, 75775 Paris Cedex 16, France.

Editorial

Surveying the jobs horizon

Nearly a decade into the policy voyage launched by the OECD's Jobs Strategy, we should take a fix on where it has got to.

Policy makers – like navigators on a long voyage – should periodically check their bearings to verify that they are on course. Nearly a decade has now passed since the OECD proposed a comprehensive blueprint for labour market reform, the so-called Jobs Strategy. Since then, the OECD has worked closely with Member countries to identify the best ways to implement the Jobs Strategy, in each specific national context, and monitored the results. A reassessment of the policy priorities is therefore timely. As part of this process, OECD Employment and Labour Ministers will meet in 2003. This forum will allow ministers to compare labour market conditions and policy experiences in their countries, and assess the policy agenda in the coming decade. In anticipation of that event, this editorial offers a first survey of the jobs horizon.

Progress achieved under the Jobs Strategy

Some countries have travelled further than others. Unemployment has tended to fall most in countries adopting the recommended reforms...

The results to date of the Jobs Strategy are encouraging overall, although much unfinished business remains. Since it peaked in 1993, the OECD unemployment rate has been cut by 1½ percentage points. This relatively modest improvement in the *average* labour market performance of OECD countries masks important differences across Member countries. While there was little change or even some worsening of performance in some countries (notably, Japan), a number of other countries registered marked improvements. Furthermore, OECD analyses suggest that the countries which have been most successful in reducing unemployment (*e.g.* Australia, Canada and some EU countries) or maintaining it at a low level (*e.g.* the United States) have – to a large extent – implemented policy reforms along the lines of the recommendations of the OECD Jobs Strategy in a comprehensive manner (*e.g.* pursuing reforms in both the labour and product markets, see Chapter 5).

... and business-sector jobs have expanded encouragingly.

Another positive feature of OECD labour market developments over the past decade or so is that much of the improvement in employment performance since 1993 is due to growth in business-sector hiring (for the OECD as a whole, over 47 million extra jobs were created in the business sector between 1993 and 2001). Of course, these trends reflect to some extent the strength of the recent cyclical expansion, but evidence suggests that this is also the result

8

of structural improvement in a number of countries. Reforms take time and political will, but experience shows that they work.

Unfinished business and new challenges

Such progress is no reason to slow down; countries should address persisting unemployment and labour inactivity, job retention and progression, as well as demographic and technological change...

Because of the improvement in underlying labour market performance, it is tempting to conclude that the reform effort could be slackened. However, this would be ill-advised for several reasons. First, even allowing for the recent cyclical downturn in much of the OECD area, unemployment and long-term joblessness remain unacceptably high in many countries. Second, even in those countries having achieved significant improvements in overall performance, large pockets of inactivity (defined as persons of working age who are not in the labour force) remain to be addressed. In particular, employment-population ratios of older workers and low-skilled workers remain relatively low in most countries. Third, the considerable successes that have been registered in bringing more people into work in some countries, open up a new challenge, since some of the individuals "activated" by labour-market policies have difficulty remaining in employment and moving up job ladders. Finally, the need to adapt to population ageing and skill-biased technological change remains an important mediumto long-run challenge in many countries.

... and also the quality of jobs, while taking care not to compromise other objectives.

Concerns have also been expressed about the "quality" of the employment relationship – including perceptions of job insecurity, a rising incidence of non-standard forms of employment (short-term contracts, temporary jobs, casual employment, etc.) in some countries and an increased risk of in-work poverty. Although some commonly expressed fears are myths, a substantial number of workers may have difficulty obtaining stable jobs, potentially exposing themselves to recurrent spells of unemployment or joblessness (see Chapters 3 and 4) and compromising their access to the employer-provided training which often plays a crucial role in career advancement. The detailed analysis of temporary employment in Chapter 3 shows just how complicated these issues are and appropriate policy responses are far from obvious, since regulations establishing minimum standards for employment security may have adverse effects on other aspects of economic performance (Chapter 5).

These challenges imply renewed emphasis on certain Jobs Strategy recommendations, as set out below.

To meet these challenges, it is essential that countries which have been lagging in the implementation of structural reforms finally move ahead. However, it may also be desirable to give certain Jobs Strategy recommendations increased priority or to pursue them somewhat differently. In this respect, the OECD Jobs Strategy is not written in tablets of stone. Policy recommendations in certain areas have been modified in light of country experiences and new research, and further course adjustments will be required as conditions evolve. Several of the areas where policy priorities or strategies appear ripe for some further refinement are reviewed below.

Policies to make work pay, by giving money to low-paid workers or reducing the cost of hiring them, have played a constructive role

in getting people

into work...

... alongside various forms of social support, and also a clear obligation to look for work, together with good advice and labour market support services.

Making work pay and activation policies

To help move benefit recipients into work, recent OECD research suggests that a "rights and responsibilities" approach is needed, which increases employment opportunities and the financial returns to working, but also obligates benefit recipients to actively search for work or take steps to improve their employability. Over the past few years, several countries have introduced schemes to "make work pay". These schemes effectively operate as a subsidy to low-paid employment and are of two different types. Some schemes improve the financial incentive for welfare recipients to accept work, e.g. via in-work benefits and tax credits for low-paid workers and their families. Other schemes reduce the cost to the employer of hiring low-paid workers, e.g. through reduced social security contributions on low wages. In-work benefits and tax credits appear to have been relatively successful in improving incomes of the working poor, while cuts in payroll taxes appear to have been relatively successful in increasing employment of the target groups. However, these schemes must be financed by increased taxes elsewhere and/or cuts in public spending, which themselves might have negative effects on employment, and an overall evaluation of the employment effects of cuts in payroll taxes must take account of dead-weight and substitution effects. Nonetheless, the OECD position is that making work pay policies can play a constructive role as a component of an employment-oriented social policy (see the 2000 and 2001 editorials for more detailed discussions of these complex issues).

Not all people will be able to take full advantage of the better financial incentives that are offered by making work pay schemes unless a range of supporting social and labour market services are on offer. This includes schemes such as help with child-care costs, appropriate transport and work facilities for the disabled, training to improve job-search and job-readiness skills, etc. Moreover, the incentive to move off benefits and into a job will not be very strong if eligibility conditions for unemployment and social benefits with respect to work availability and job-search requirements are not enforced. These concerns have led to a number of policy initiatives by countries to "activate" the unemployed and other benefit recipients. These initiatives differ somewhat across countries, reflecting factors such as the particular benefit system targeted, national consensus on the conditions that can reasonably be imposed on benefit recipients, and traditions of labour market policy. However, a number of common principles underlie all of these activation strategies:

- First, they make receipt of benefits conditional on the benefit recipient demonstrating active job search and/or a willingness to take steps to improve employability.
- Second, they provide a range of re-employment services and advice to help the individuals in question find work or get ready for work.

But such "activation" measures cannot be simplistic and depend on good programme design.

A key task will be to meet long-term skill needs and mobilise additional labour supply...

... especially by raising employment rates for older workers, which requires pension and welfare reform, but also changes in attitude and behaviour among both workers and employers...

• Third, they seek to maintain effective contact between the individual and the public employment service or related agency in order to provide timely services, monitor the individual's behaviour and apply financial sanctions in case of inappropriate behaviour.

The experience of those countries with significant activation initiatives suggests that these measures can help to lower unemployment and welfare dependency, especially in the context of buoyant labour demand. However, progress requires careful attention to good programme design – particularly to the co-ordination of passive and active measures and the strengthening of inter-agency co-operation in delivering these services. Cost-effectiveness is also critical in view of potentially large budgetary impacts. Furthermore, these programmes need to take account of the different opportunities and needs of the diverse population groups they serve. This issue of the Employment Outlook includes detailed appraisals of new programme initiatives for youths experiencing labour market difficulties (Chapter 1) and the long-term unemployed (Chapter 4) that document both the progress achieved and the needs still unmet. Among these unmet needs is better follow-up to activation measures. Recent reforms have succeeded in moving large numbers of persons into jobs, less so in building career paths for them. Much remains to be learned concerning the types of policies that could help overcome these problems.

Mobilising additional labour supply

The renewed prominence of mobilising additional labour supply as a policy goal may be the most striking recent change in discussions of employment policy. In part, this reflects the overall improvement in labour market conditions. The most recent upswing was characterised in many countries by skilled-labour shortages, especially in industries producing or making extensive use of information and communication technology (ICT). However, the challenges posed by population ageing and skill-biased technological change confirm the long-term importance of policies to better mobilise labour supply and ensure that the workforce has adequate skills.

Population ageing means that, in the absence of any change in patterns of labour market participation, the labour force is likely to fall in relative, and even in a few countries perhaps in absolute, terms over the coming decades with major consequences for economic growth, public finance and living standards. This is why raising the employment rate for older workers is so critical. Some countries have started to tackle the problem, increasing the standard age of retirement or reining in early retirement schemes and welfare programmes that offer significant financial incentives favouring early exit from the labour market. Such reforms are crucial and need to be pursued energetically, but a broader approach is required that addresses public perceptions. Many workers in their 40s and 50s today

think of early retirement as an entitlement and have not adjusted their expectations to the need to stay longer in work. Employers are also very reluctant to adapt their hiring, firing and skilling strategies to the looming situation of ageing workforces. Indeed, firms are prone to layoff older workers when adjusting employment in the face of economic difficulties. It is therefore essential to act on both the supply and demand sides of the equation.

... and also mobilising more disabled people and women, especially women with children and with lower skills.

Higher skills are needed

in a more technological

economy, but shortfalls

persist, partly because

less training. Another

major challenge is to

keep older workers

employable...

the lower-skilled receive

Untapped labour supply potential also exists among other population groups, including women and disabled people of working-age. Chapter 2 analyses employment patterns for women in detail, showing that OECD countries differ greatly in the extent to which women work in paid employment. Most of the international differences in female employment rates reflect whether or not mothers and less educated women have employment rates similar to those of childless and better educated women. These patterns indicate that both work-family reconciliation measures (e.g. adequate child care, flexible working time and parental leave) and policies lowering overall barriers to employment, as well as those that affect low-skilled women, could make important contributions to aggregate labour supply in a considerable number of countries, while also expanding lifestyle choices and equality of opportunity.

The critical role of skill development

There is widespread agreement that the skills and competencies of the workforce need to be upgraded. One reason is skill-biased technological change. In particular, the rapid diffusion of ICT and the changes in work organisation that go with it are associated with higher demand for skilled labour. This shift in skill demands has worsened the employment and earnings prospects of unskilled and semi-skilled workers, thereby rendering the activation measures discussed above more difficult. Indeed, one of the key difficulties facing policy makers in this area is that too many workers still lack basic literacy skills. This is especially problematic because the unskilled typically receive much less on-the-job training than their skilled counterparts, thereby falling progressively further behind. Another factor at work is population ageing. To ensure that ageing does not impact negatively on growth and living standards, it is essential that the trend towards early retirement be reversed. This means that workers will have to remain employable throughout their career, implying a need for continuous adult learning.

... and while we know too little about what works in adult training, a key factor is to provide the right financial incentives to firms and workers especially to retrain rather than retire.

Through what mechanisms should adult skills and competencies be upgraded? Unfortunately, this is an area where few rigorous evaluations exist of what works and what does not. What has become clear is the importance of a funding strategy that provides incentives to both employers and workers to invest in appropriate types of training. Removing the financial incentives to early retirement still found in many pension schemes would strengthen incentives to train older workers, by lengthening the expected period of time during

which new skills would be used on the job. Similarly, instituting well-functioning systems of recognition and certification of learning may help address some of the motivation problems of unskilled workers. A few countries are experimenting with creative initiatives, such as Individual Learning Accounts, and their experiences should be followed closely in order to identify the most promising ideas for meeting this challenge.

Towards a dynamic and inclusive labour market

Over time, the destination of this voyage has become clearer. It features: wider inclusion in the labour market; welfare support that does not discourage participation; and lifelong learning.

A prerequisite for successful navigation is to know one's destination. The reflections above indicate that labour market policies must be dynamic and inclusive. They must be policies that help the economy adjust to major demographic and technological developments by enabling a wide cross-section of the community, and not just those who are the most able-bodied or best educated, to participate in the world of work and to engage in a continuous renewal of job skills. One lesson learnt from the experience of the past 30 years is that policies which discourage labour force participation (e.g. early retirement or loosely administered disability/long-term sickness schemes) are ultimately unsustainable and may end up promoting rather than alleviating social exclusion. Another lesson is that success in the fight against unemployment and social exclusion requires renewed emphasis on a comprehensive lifelong learning strategy. In any event, the discussion about how best to adapt employment policies to 21st Century conditions is underway and next year's meeting of OECD Employment and Labour Ministers will contribute to this important reflection.

May 2002

Table of contents

Editorial: Surveying the jobs horizon	7
Chapter 1. Recent labour market developments and prospects	13
Introduction	15
Recent developments and prospects	16
A. Economic outlook to the year 2003	16
B. Employment and unemployment	16
C. Compensation and labour costs	18
2. A better start for youths?	20
A. Introduction	20
B. Trends in the youth labour market	20
C. Public spending on youth labour market measures	29
D. Developments in youth labour market policies	31
Conclusions	43
Annex 1.A. Recent initiatives in youth labour market programmes	49
Annex 1.B. Trends in youth and prime-age employment and unemployment	53
Bibliography	58
Dionography	50
Chapter 2. Women at work: who are they and how are they faring?	61
Introduction	63
Main findings	64
1. The gender gap in employment	66
A. A headcount measure	66
B. Accounting for hours worked	68
2. Women at work: who are they?	70
A. Age and cohort effects	70
B. Employment rates by gender and educational attainment	71
C. Employment rates by gender and presence of children	76
D. The combined effect of education and presence of children	
on female employment	79
E. A dynamic view: the accumulation of employment experience	81
3. Women at work: what do they do?	85
A. The occupational and sectoral segmentation of employment by gender	86
B. The vertical segregation of employment	94
4. Women at work: how much do they earn?	96
A. The unadjusted gender pay gap	96
B. A decomposition of the wage gap	101
C. The family wage gap	106
Conclusions	108
Annex 2.A. Definitions and data sources	114
Annex 2.B. Sources, definitions and methods of the decomposition	
of the gender and family wage gap	117
Bibliography	123
Chapter 3. Taking the measure of temporary employment	
Introduction	
Main findings	
1. Trends and main features	131
A. Trends in the level of temporary employment	
B. Characteristics of temporary workers and temporary jobs	137

Index of previous issues of the OECD Employment Outlook	333
Statistical annex	301
Bibliography	295
Annex 5.B. Econometric methods	
Annex 5.A. Data definitions and sources	289
Conclusions	
B. Specialisation in high-R&D and high-wage industries	
A. Innovation potential of manufacturing industries	
2. Effects of labour market policies and institutions on product market outcomes	
D. Inequality	
C. Insecurity	
B. Industry wage premia	
A. Employment	
Effects of product market regulations on labour market outcomes	
Main findings	
Introduction	
Chapter 5. And the twain shall meet: cross-market effects of labour and product market policies	245
Bibliography	239
Annex 4.C. The use of statistical profiling techniques in OECD Member countries	
Annex 4.B. Labour market transitions in European Community Household Panel data	
Annex 4.A. Data for the Main Labour Status variable in Table 4.2	
Conclusions	
C. Policy measures towards repeat unemployment	
B. The scheduling of labour market policy interventions	
A. Background	
2. Active labour market policies and long-term unemployment	
of long-term unemployment	
C. Repeat spells of unemployment and alternative measures	
B. Long-term unemployment and long-term joblessness	192
A. The extent of long-term unemployment	191
1. Analysis	191
Main findings	189
Introduction	
Chapter 4. The ins and outs of long-term unemployment	187
υτοποξιαμπή	103
Bibliography	
Annex 3.B. Job satisfaction and working conditions	
Annex 3.A. Defining and measuring temporary employment	
Conclusions	
C. Mobility of temporary workers	
B. Human capital accumulation and training	
Career dynamics of temporary workers A. Duration of temporary jobs and contracts	
C. Job satisfaction and working conditions	
B. Fringe benefits of temporary workers	
A. Pay levels of temporary workers	
2. Pay, access to fringe benefits and job satisfaction of temporary workers	



From:

OECD Employment Outlook 2002

Access the complete publication at:

https://doi.org/10.1787/empl outlook-2002-en

Please cite this chapter as:

OECD (2002), "Surveying the Jobs Horizon", in OECD Employment Outlook 2002, OECD Publishing, Paris.

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1787/empl_outlook-2002-2-en

This work is published under the responsibility of the Secretary-General of the OECD. The opinions expressed and arguments employed herein do not necessarily reflect the official views of OECD member countries.

This document and any map included herein are without prejudice to the status of or sovereignty over any territory, to the delimitation of international frontiers and boundaries and to the name of any territory, city or area.

You can copy, download or print OECD content for your own use, and you can include excerpts from OECD publications, databases and multimedia products in your own documents, presentations, blogs, websites and teaching materials, provided that suitable acknowledgment of OECD as source and copyright owner is given. All requests for public or commercial use and translation rights should be submitted to rights@oecd.org. Requests for permission to photocopy portions of this material for public or commercial use shall be addressed directly to the Copyright Clearance Center (CCC) at info@copyright.com or the Centre français d'exploitation du droit de copie (CFC) at contact@cfcopies.com.

